The influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being

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ABSTRACT

Tourism is one of the world’s most valuable industries and a very important tool for economic growth. However, once tourism development occurs in an area, it alters the physical landscape of the area and it has an influence on the life domains of the residents of the area where it occurs. Tourism’s influence on residents’ life domains may also affect their subjective well-being (satisfaction with life) as well as residents’ support for further tourism development. Therefore, the main goal of this study was to determine the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being.

To achieve this goal, various objectives were set. The first objective was to analyse communities from a sociological perspective with specific reference to social tourism concepts. This was achieved through an analysis of literature, which revealed tourism’s sociological attributes, residents’ role in tourism and the relationship between residents and tourism through the use of social tourism concepts.

The second objective was to analyse literature pertaining to subjective well-being, satisfaction with life as well as residents’ support for further tourism development. This was done by means of a review of literature based on the concepts of subjective well-being, satisfaction with life, the relationship between tourism and satisfaction with life, as well as a review of life domains that are mostly affected by tourism. Furthermore, factors that influence residents’ support for tourism were also reviewed.

The third objective was to do a comparison of residents residing close to tourism activities and residents residing further away from tourism activities in Soweto. Furthermore, the objective was to discuss the results of the empirical study with a focus on the main goal of this study. To achieve the objective, a total of 276 questionnaires were distributed to residents who reside close to tourism activities and those who reside further away from tourism.
activities. Microsoft Excel was used to capture the data and the statistical calculations included descriptive analysis. SPSS was utilised to conduct the statistical analysis. The descriptive results revealed that tourism has a major influence on residents who reside close to tourism activities as compared to residents who reside further away from tourism activities. However, both groups are in favour of further tourism development.

Correlations, an independent sample T-test, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and structural equation modelling (SEM) were other techniques used to analyse data. All the correlations among the confirmed factors were positive and have statistically significant relationships. The T-test analysis revealed that there were no significant differences between residents who reside close to tourism activities and residents who reside further away from tourism activities. The CFA analysis successfully confirmed all factors and the SEM produced a model that reveals a linear relationship among all confirmed factors. Furthermore, all factors in the SEM were statistically significant and produced an acceptable goodness of fit, which achieved the main goal of the study.

The final objective was to draw general conclusions, contribution and, limitations of the study, and to make recommendations that will be directed to key role-players in the tourism industry as well as community leaders in Soweto. The major contribution of this study was that the study is the first of its kind within the South African context, as it looks at the influence of tourism on the SWB (SWL) of residents of a township.

**Keywords:** Tourism, subjective well-being, satisfaction with life, residents, life domains, support for further tourism development.
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<td>Subjective well-being</td>
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<td>SWL</td>
<td>Satisfaction with life</td>
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<td>PLC</td>
<td>Product lifecycle</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFA</td>
<td>Confirmatory factory analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>SEM</td>
<td>Structural equation modelling</td>
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<tr>
<td>RMSEA</td>
<td>Root mean square error of approximation</td>
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<tr>
<td>CFI</td>
<td>Comparative fit index</td>
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<tr>
<td>CMIN/DF (χ2/df)</td>
<td>Chi-square statistic divided by the degrees of freedom</td>
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<td>BST</td>
<td>Bottom-up spill over theory</td>
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<td>SET</td>
<td>Social exchange theory</td>
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<tr>
<td>TALC</td>
<td>Tourism area lifecycle model</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOIP</td>
<td>Model of intercultural perception</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(\bar{x})</td>
<td>Mean</td>
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<td>std(x)</td>
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Chapter 1: Introduction to the study

1.1 Introduction

Subjective well-being (SWB) is defined as “people’s evaluations of their lives—the degree to which their thoughtful appraisals and affective reactions indicate that their lives are desirable and proceeding well” (Diener, Oishi, & Lucas, 2015, p205). Ed Diener (2009) states that SWB is the way in which people assess their lives based on the cognitive (for example, satisfaction with life) and affective aspects of their lives (for example, emotional well-being) and it is a way in which individuals can see whether they are truly content about the state of their lives. For the purposes of this study, the term ‘subjective well-being’ will be interchangeably referred to as ‘satisfaction with life’. In the same vein, Luhmann, Hofmann, Eid, and Lucas (2012), Stevenson and Wolfers (2013), and Bradshaw (2016) suggest that subjective well-being can also be referred to as satisfaction with life.

Satisfaction with life (SWL) is a cognitive component of subjective well-being (Michalos, 2012) and it is a form of positive psychology (Cummins, 2013). Sun and Shek (2012) state that SWL is an indication of optimism in one’s life, while Lewis, Huebner, Malone, and Valois (2011) postulate that SWL is also an indication that one is succeeding in various aspects of life. SWL is defined as an overall evaluation of a person’s life (De Neve & Oswald, 2012). This evaluation is derived from the fulfilment or achievement of one’s life goals (Sirgy, 2012). However, there are other factors (life domains) that contribute to an individual’s SWL, which may include: work, leisure, family and friends (Easterlin, Morgan, Switek, & Wang, 2012), health-related conditions, (Verrips & van der Pal, 2014) and standard of living (Notten, 2014). Moreover, SWL is not a permanent evaluation. Circumstances and major life events can alter one’s SWL (Luhmann, 2014).

Some studies have been done on tourism and SWL, indicating that a relationship between tourism and SWL may exist (Uysal, Perdue, & Sirgy, 2012b). Chen, Huang, and
Petrick (2016) found that holiday recovery experiences have an impact on tourists’ SWL. Sirgy, Kruger, Lee, and Yu’s (2011) study demonstrates that positive and negative experiences gained from an excursion have an impact on an individual’s overall SWL. On the other hand, tourism has been shown to impact residents’ SWL, namely tourism events (Kaplanidou et al., 2013; Steiner, Frey, & Hotz, 2015), eco-tours (Cottrell, Vaske, & Roemer, 2013) and tourism development (Uysal, Sirgy, Woo, & Kim, 2015; Weiermair & Peters, 2012; Williams & McIntyre, 2012).

Tourism is a very important tool for economic growth for many developing countries. Governments work together with other stakeholders to implement tourism development in order to reap the benefits of tourism (Harun, Hassan, Razzaq, Rasid, & Mustafa, 2012). However, once tourism development commences in an area, it brings changes to the area and transforms it into a tourism destination (Kabote, 2015), which is simply defined as a geographical area whereby a variety of goods and services are sold to tourists in order to satisfy their needs (Andergassen, Candela, & Figini, 2013). Once tourism is introduced in an area, it brings changes that alter the character of the destination (Chapman & Light, 2016). These changes include: tourists visiting the destination for various purposes; facilities being built to accommodate tourists’ needs; the physical appearance of the destination; the way of life of residents of the destination; as well as the attitude of residents towards tourism (Látková & Vogt, 2012). The attitude of residents changes towards tourism due to the fact that tourism has an impact on their environment and their lifestyle and this could affect their subjective well-being (Usher & Kerstetter, 2014) and, in turn, this can influence the sustainability of the tourism industry (Chandralal, 2010).

Based on this background, the purpose of this study is to determine the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being. The layout of this chapter is portrayed in Figure 1.1 below.
1.2. Background of the study

For ease of interpretation, the background of the study will be constructed around the following concepts: life domains; tourism affects life domains; tourism and residents’ satisfaction with life; perceived value of tourism development in communities; and support for further tourism development in communities.

1.2.1 Life domains

Life domains simply refer to the different facets of life (Rozin, Remick, & Fischler, 2011). They include (but they are not limited to) facets such as social life, cultural life, family life, work, school, spiritual life, love life and leisure life (Sirgy et al., 2011). Sirgy (2012) states that people esteem life domains differently as some value employment more than their family life, while others consider family life as their most important life domain. Therefore, individuals tend to put more effort in the life domains they value in order to gain satisfaction from them (Erdogan, Bauer, Truxillo, & Mansfield, 2012). However, satisfaction in different life domains would enormously contribute to individuals’ SWL, since they would have
gained stability in their lives. Consequently, satisfaction with different life domains is important, as it forms an individual’s SWL (Sirgy & Wu, 2013).

1.2.2 Tourism affects life domains

Tourism is a human activity that has tangible and intangible impacts on the destination where it occurs (Mason, 2015). These impacts can bring about changes in the visual appearance of the destination and the way of life of the residents of the destination (Fatimah, 2015). Tourism impacts are known to affect his section will examine various life domains such as: material life-, community life-, emotional life- and health and safety life domains (Kim, Uysal & Sirgy, 2013). These life domains will be discussed in detail in Chapter 3 (c.f.3.3).

1.2.3 Tourism and residents SWL

Tourism has an impact on destination residents’ way of life and can have a positive or negative influence on residents’ SWL (Kim et al., 2013). However, tourism’s impact on residents’ SWL varies as it depends on the level of tourism development in the destination. It is more likely to have a positive impact on residents’ SWL when the destination is in the growth stage, and more likely to have a negative impact when the destination is going through a phase of decline (Puczkó & Smith, 2011). Tourism’s impact on residents’ SWL is based on its impact on residents’ life domains, (Khizindar, 2012). Moreover, Aref (2011b) and Nawijn and Mitas (2012) concur that tourism mostly has positive impacts on residents’ SWL and it is a great tool that can be used to boost residents’ SWL.

1.2.4 Perceived value of tourism development in communities

The perceived value of tourism development is an evaluation done by the residents of a tourism destination to determine the significance of tourism development in their community. This evaluation is based on the effects of tourism development in their community and on their day-to-day lives (Ye, Zhang, Shen, & Goh, 2014), and the level of
tourism development in their community (Rivera, Croes, & Lee, 2016). Tourism development may lead to positive impacts such as job creation, preservation of the natural environment and can provide more recreational opportunities for residents (Slabbert, 2013). Some studies found that tourism development may also lead to negative impacts such as inflation, environmental degradation and overcrowding (Woosnam, 2011). However, studies done on residents’ perceived value of tourism development, by Brida, Riaño, and Aguirre (2011), Pham (2012), and Stylidis et al. (2014), show that residents perceive tourism development to be very important and they support it despite its negative effects. Nevertheless, it is important for governments and other stakeholders in tourism to understand how residents perceive tourism, as residents may become hostile towards tourists if they perceive it to be insignificant (Slabbert, 2013).

1.2.5 Support for further tourism development in communities

Without the support of residents, tourism development may not carry on or might not be sustainable (Hanafiah, Jamaluddin, & Zulkifly, 2013). If residents are against further tourism development, they may become antagonistic and even violent towards tourists, and this may lead to the failure of the tourism industry at the destination (Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012). Various authors have analysed how residents experience the impacts of tourism development, and through their models and theories, they have highlighted residents’ motives for supporting further tourism development (Cohen & Cohen, 2012).

The product lifecycle (PLC) is a concept that shows how a product evolves from its conception to its demise through various stages (Hart, Casserly, & Lawless, 1984). These stages include: the introduction stage, where the product is introduced into the market and there is slow growth in terms of sales; the growth stage, where the product sales grow rapidly; the maturity stage, where the sales of a product begin to slow down; and the decline stage, where the product sales rapidly decline and the product is eventually taken off the
market (Esteve Pérez, Pieri, & Rodriguez, 2015). The PLC concept is also applicable to tourism destinations, since tourism destinations have a lifecycle just like any other product (Kozak & Martin, 2012). Uysal, Woo, and Singal (2012a) state that each stage of a destination’s lifecycle has an impact on the SWL of residents and the decline stage of a tourism destination has a negative impact on residents’ SWL, and this may lead residents to be in opposition to any further tourism development. Therefore, destination stakeholders should prevent the destination from declining, as it would hamper any support from residents in terms of further tourism development (Cooper, 2012).

On the other hand, the social exchange theory is a universally-applicable framework that depicts how strong relations can be formed between two parties as a result of both of them gaining benefits from one another (Colquitt et al., 2013). The theory also states that a party should compensate (by either tangible or intangible means) if it takes something away from the other party. Failure to do so may lead to negative relations between both parties (Walumbwa, Cropanzano, & Goldman, 2011). Within the context of tourism, residents are more likely to support further tourism development if the positive impacts of tourism outweigh the negative impacts of tourism (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Stylidis, Biran, Sit, & Szivas, 2014). Doxey’s Irridex Model explains how residents of a destination feel about tourism through four different stages (Manwa, 2012). Through the model, Doxey illustrates that residents develop different emotions towards tourism as it progresses and that one can better understand the impacts of tourism development by examining the level of emotions being felt towards tourism development (Huimin & Ryan, 2012). In addition, Gursoy and Rutherford (2004) developed a community support model for tourism development. Through their model, they display that residents’ support for further tourism development is determined by tourism benefits, community attachment, state of the community, state of the local economy and residents’ eco-centric attitude. Furthermore,
residents are more likely to support further tourism development if they are involved in the planning and decision-making processes of tourism (Aref, 2011a), and support for further tourism development may depend on the effect of tourism on residents’ SWL (Aspinall, Cukier, & Doberstein, 2011).

Based on the background of the study, the author can conclude that tourism may affect the SWB of residents of a tourism destination, since it affects their various life domains. In addition, residents perceive tourism based on the effects that it has on their life domains and SWB. Moreover, their perception of tourism also determines their support for further tourism development.

The next section provides a brief background on the study site Soweto.

Figure 1.2: Map of Soweto
1.2.6 Soweto

Soweto (Figure 1.2) is the largest township in South Africa (Booyens, 2010), and one of South Africa’s most popular tourism destinations (Mengich, 2012; Roughguides, 2017; Soke & Wiid, 2016) with over 400 domestic and international tourists visiting the township on a daily basis (Ivanovic, 2008). It is famous for its political history (Booyens, 2010) and its tourism attractions, which currently include the Hector Pieterson Museum, the Hector Pieterson Memorial, the houses of Nelson Mandela and Desmond Tutu, the Regina Mundi Catholic Church and the Orlando Towers (McKay, 2013). In addition, it is also home to the annual Soweto Wine Festival (Rogerson, 2013). Some sections of Soweto are plagued by poverty and this makes tourism important, since it can assist in poverty alleviation (Mears & Biyase, 2010). Nevertheless, tourism is growing in Soweto and it is supported by a number of tourism facilities that have been opened to cater for the different types of tourists and to cash in on the high number of visitors who visit the township (Mengich, 2012; Ramchander, 2007).

Table 1.1: Previous studies done on tourism in Soweto

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Study findings/ focus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mckay (2013)</td>
<td>Leaping into urban adventure: Orlando bungee, Soweto, South Africa</td>
<td>The study gives insight on the impact of the introduction of bungee jumping at the Orlando towers in Soweto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rogerson (2008)</td>
<td>Shared growth in urban tourism: evidence from Soweto, South Africa.</td>
<td>The study focuses on the rise of small and medium sized tourism enterprises in Soweto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Booysens (2010)</td>
<td>Rethinking township tourism: Towards responsible tourism development in South African townships.</td>
<td>The study suggests that there is still room for further tourism development in Soweto and calls for the involvement of Soweto residents in the Soweto tourism industry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ramchander (2007)</td>
<td>Township tourism: Blessing or blight? The case of Soweto in South Africa.</td>
<td>The study reveals that tourism is welcomed by residents but residents should be given</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1.1 lists previous studies that have been done on tourism in Soweto. The studies are few in number and some out them indicate that there is still room for further tourism development in Soweto and they reveal that Soweto resident’s participation in the tourism industry in passive (Booysens, 2010; Ramchander, 2007; Scholtz & Slabbert, 2017).

1.3 Problem statement

Tourism is one of the world’s most valuable industries, since it creates employment, boosts local economies and alleviates poverty (Sak & Karymshakov, 2012; Spenceley & Meyer, 2012; Vellas, 2011). Residents’ support for the tourism industry is important as, without it, the industry is likely to fail (Akyeampong, 2011; Chen & Raab, 2012; Zhang & Lei, 2012). As shown by the social exchange theory, it is important for residents to benefit from tourism in order for them to support further tourism development (Beritelli, 2011; Boo, Wang, & Wu, 2011; Burns & Fridman, 2011). Therefore, it is important that tourism managers and planners should properly manage the tourism industry in order to keep residents of the tourism destination content (Yang, Ryan, & Zhang, 2013).

Literature reveals that one of the ways in which one can properly manage the tourism industry is by understanding the impact of tourism on residents’ well-being (Chancellor, Yu & Cole, 2011; Uysal, Woo & Singal, 2012; Woo, Kim & Uysal, 2015). If tourism has a
positive impact on residents’ well-being, they are more likely to support further tourism development (Pham, 2012). However, there is a gap in literature as there is no study that deals with the influence of tourism on resident’s subjective well-being in the South African context. Conducting such research is important as it will assist in policy development that will ensure that residents of South African tourism destinations are happy with the way tourism is run in their respective communities (Song, Pratt & Wang, 2017). Further tourism development in Soweto is essential as it can assist in alleviating poverty and upgrade the standard of living of residents who dwell there (Kringe, 2011). However, successful long-term tourism development in Soweto may never be fully accomplished unless residents’ views of tourism and their SWB are considered (Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011). Furthermore, residents’ SWB is bound to be decreased if tourism is not properly managed. Therefore, the main question that this study will attempt to address is: What is the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being?

In order to answer this question, a few aspects need to be put in place. The rest of the chapter will consist of the goal of the study, the objectives of the study, the research design, definition of key concepts and chapter classification.

1.4 Goal of the study

The main goal and objectives of the study are as follows:

1.4.1 The main goal of the study

To determine the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being.

1.4.2 The objectives of the study

To ensure that the goal of the study is reached, the following objectives have been set:

Objective 1
To analyse communities from a sociological perspective with specific reference to social tourism concepts.

**Objective 2**

To analyse literature pertaining to subjective well-being, SWL, as well as residents’ support for further tourism development.

**Objective 3**

To perform a comparison of residents residing close to tourism activity and residents residing further away from tourism activity in Soweto in order to see which group has better SWL (SWB). Furthermore, to discuss the results of the empirical study with a focus on the main goal: to determine the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being. Additionally, to incorporate the bottom-up spill over theory in the final model (c.f.3.2.6).

**Objective 4**

To draw on general conclusions, contributions, and limitations of the study, and to make recommendations that will be directed to key role-players in the Soweto tourism industry and the community leaders in Soweto.

1.5 **Research design**

A research design is a strategy that is used to fulfil research objectives (McDaniel & Gates, 2012). There are three types of research designs and these are: exploratory, causal and descriptive research (Burns & Bush, 2014). The research design that was used for this study is descriptive research. Descriptive research is used to know the impact of any issue or phenomenon by taking a cross-section of an affected population (Kumar, 2014). Descriptive
research can also be used to find out whether there are differences or similarities between variables (McDaniel & Gates, 2012).

1.5.1 Literature study

A literature study is an effective analysis of designated articles that are related to a research topic (Mongan-Rallis, 2014). The purpose of a literature study is to show that the author has a good background knowledge of published work relating to a particular research topic (Gould, 2011). A variety of sources were used to obtain information for the literature study. These include academic databases such as Google Scholar, Science Direct, SA e-publications and Emerald. Other sources included academic journals, dissertations, books as well as the world-wide web. The keywords that were used to extract information from various databases include the following: subjective well-being, satisfaction with life, tourism, life domains, how tourism affects life domains, satisfaction with life domains, residents of tourism destinations and perceived value of tourism development.

1.5.2 Empirical survey

This section provides clarification of the research methodology that was used to carry out the empirical survey.

1.5.3 Method of data collection

The method that was used to collect data is quantitative. Quantitative research is defined as “research involving the administration of a set of structured questions with predetermined response options to a large number of respondents” (Burns & Bush, 2014, p 146). Quantitative research was the most suitable method of data collection for this study as it is simple to administer, well-structured, highly accurate and it makes data processing easy (Kumar, 2014).
1.5.4 Sampling

The study population for this study consisted of the total sample of residents in Soweto who participated in this research. Furthermore, the sample frame consisted of Soweto residents who reside close to tourism activities and further away from tourism activities.

There are two types of sampling methods, namely probability and non-probability sampling. In terms of probability samples, members of the population do have a possibility of being featured in a sample. However, not every member of the population has an equal opportunity to feature in a non-probability sample (Burns & Bush, 2014). For the purposes of this research, a non-probability sampling method was utilised. Types of probability sampling methods include: simple random sampling, stratified sampling and cluster sampling (Davies & Hughes, 2014). Three types of non-probability sampling methods include convenience sampling, purposive sampling and quota sampling (Blaxter, 2010).

For the purposes of this research, the author made use of the convenience sampling technique. A convenience sampling technique is a non-probability sampling method whereby the researcher targets potential respondents at places with a high volume of traffic (for example, taxi ranks) (Burns & Bush, 2014). Making use of the convenience sampling technique was ideal for this study as it made potential respondents easily accessible and it saved resources and time (McDaniel & Gates, 2012). A sample size refers to the number of factors that are to be included in a research (Malhotra, Baalbaki, & Bechwati, 2013). There are different techniques used to determine a sample size (Sarantakos, 2012). For the purposes of this study, published tables, which rely on the number of obtained responses, were used to determine the sample size. A total of 276 responses were obtained, which then represents a study population consisting of 450 Soweto residents (Israel, 1992).
1.5.5 Development of questionnaire

A questionnaire is a tool that a researcher uses to obtain answers from respondents in order to fulfil research objectives (Burns & Bush, 2014). The self-administered questionnaire is one of the most utilised methods as it is inexpensive and simple to administer (Bryman, 2012). However, developing a good questionnaire requires competence and one has to make sure that the questions are easy to understand and simple and straightforward (Clough & Nutbrown, 2012). In addition, the questionnaire has to have a simple-to-follow structure, a few open questions and it should not be long (Bryman, 2012). The questionnaire that was used in this study consists of some work done by Kim et al. (2013), but not within the context of this study. Refer to Appendix A. The questionnaire that was used contained five sections, and these were: tourism affects life domains, satisfaction with life domains, overall satisfaction with life, perceived value of tourism development and demographic profile.

Section A consisted of statements measuring how tourism affects the material life-, community life-, emotional life-, and health and safety life domains and included a five-point Likert scale, where 1 = “not at all affected” and 5 = “very affected”.

Section B was made up of statements measuring residents’ satisfaction with various life domains, and it included a five-point Likert scale where 1 = “very unsatisfied” and 5 = “very satisfied”.

Section C included statements on overall satisfaction with life and included a five-point Likert scale where 1 = “strongly disagree” and 5 = “strongly agree”.

Section D consisted of variables measuring the perceived value of tourism development. The section also included a five-point Likert scale where 1 refers to “strongly disagree” and 5 refers to “strongly agree”.
Section E contained open-ended questions to respondents, which were intended to determine the respondent’s year of birth, gender, occupation, length of stay in Soweto and level of education.

1.5.6 Data collection/survey

The survey was conducted between 14 October 2017 and 6 November 2017 in Soweto and trained fieldworkers distributed the questionnaires to Soweto residents who were willing to complete it at free will. For residents residing close to tourism activities, the questionnaires were distributed in Orlando West and Klipspruit. For residents residing further away from tourism activities, the questionnaires were distributed in Orlando East and Dube (c.f. Figure 1.2).

1.5.7 Data analysis

For the purpose of data analysis, Microsoft Excel was used to capture the data and the statistical calculations included descriptive analysis. SPSS version 22 was utilised to conduct the statistical analysis. Correlations, structural equation modelling (SEM) and an independent sample T-test were used on sections A, B, C, and D of the questionnaire and descriptive analysis was used for section E of the questionnaire. AMOS had been used to conduct the confirmatory factor analysis as well as the SEM. These techniques will be briefly discussed below.

1.5.7.1 Confirmatory factory analysis (CFA)

A CFA is a tool used for confirming theories regarding an existing set of variables (Pallant, 2013). Brown and Moore (2012) state that a CFA is a tool used to provide clarity on an existing relationships among a set of variables and it is a measurement model for structural equation modelling (SEM) (Hancock, Mueller, & Stapleton, 2010). For the purposes of this study, the CFA was utilised to confirm the factors in relation to: tourism affects life domains, satisfaction with life domains, overall SWL and perceived value of tourism development.
1.5.7.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the accuracy and consistency of a measurement tool such as a questionnaire (Burns & Bush, 2014). A Cronbach alpha is a test of reliability that is used to evaluate statements/factors in a questionnaire (Garson, 2012). Bonett and Wright (2015) state that the Cronbach alpha is one of the most popular measures of reliability in the social sciences. Cronbach alpha values that are above 0.7 are deemed to be acceptable (Al-Adwan, Al-Adwan, & Smedley, 2013). However, if a Cronbach value is below 0.7, it is still acceptable as long as the scale has fewer than ten items and the range of the mean inter-item correlations lies between 0.2 and 0.4 (Pallant, 2013). Reliability was done on all confirmed factors to determine, from a psychometric point of view, whether the Likert scale that was used was reliable in relation to this study.

1.5.7.3 Standardised regression weight (P-value)

Standardised regression weights (also known as P-value) are a technique used to determine the strength of a relationship between a predictor and an outcome variable. If the P-value is statistically significant, the predictor variable will then predict the outcome variable (Field, 2013). According to Pallant (2013), the P-value of a variable should be less than 0.001 in order for it to be statistically significant. For the purposes of this study, standardised regression weights were used to measure the strength of the relationships between the unobserved variables: tourism affects life domains, satisfaction with life domains, perceived value of tourism development and SWL.

1.5.7.4 Goodness of fit indices

Goodness of fit indices refer to tests used to determine whether data is in line with an observed model or theory (Field, 2013). There are broad classes of fit indices and these are absolute indices, parsimonious indices and incremental indices (Hancock et al., 2010). For the purposes of this study, one of each of the broad classes of fit indices was utilised. These
include the Chi-square test divided by its degrees of freedom, the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the comparative fit index (CFI). The chi-square test is a technique used to examine whether two variables have a non-monotonic association (Burns & Bush, 2014). There is no agreed ratio for the chi-square test divided by its degrees of freedom (Rootenberg, 2012). However, Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008) state that ranges between 2 and 5 are acceptable. The RMSEA is one of the most popular measures of fit indices, which is based on the non-centrality parameter (Kenny, 2014). In order for it to have an acceptable ratio, the RMSEA together with its associated confidence interval should be ≤ 0.5 (Hancock et al., 2010) and those that are above 0.10 are not acceptable (Blunch, 2008). The CFI is a measure that examines the improvement in fit of a hypothesised model compared to a baseline model (West, Taylor, & Wu, 2012). An acceptable ratio of a CFI value should be above 0.95 (Van de Schoot, Lugtig, & Hox, 2012). For the purposes of this study, goodness of fit indices were used in the SEM and CFA to see how well the goodness overall fit was achieved for both CFA and the SEM results.

1.5.7.5 Correlations

Correlations refer to the relationship between variables (Pallant, 2013). The strength of a relationship between two variables is measured by what is known as a correlation coefficient, which is also known as an $R$-value (Field, 2013). A correlation coefficient has to lie between the range of +1 and -1. A positive sign (+1) indicates a positive relationship between variables, while a negative sign (-1) indicates a negative relationship between variables (Burns & Bush, b2014). A correlation of 0 shows that there is no relationship that exists between variables and it shows that it is not statistically significant (Field, 2013). $R$-values between 1.0 and 2.9 indicate a small correlation. $R$-values between .30 and .49 indicate a medium correlation, and $R$-values between .50 and 1.0 indicate a large correlation (Pallant,
2013). In this study, correlations were done to see how well confirmed factors correlate with each other (c.f. Table 4.2.6).

1.5.7.6 Independent sample T-test

An independent sample T-test is a statistical technique used to compare the difference between the mean scores of two different groups (Burns & Bush, 2014). To prove that the difference between the mean scores of two groups is statistically significant, the P-value has to be less than or equal to .05 (Pallant, 2013). The effect size is the calculated difference between two mean scores (Field, 2013). Cohen, as cited by Lakens (2013), came up with guidelines to interpret the effect sizes between the mean scores of two groups and these are:

0.2 = small difference
0.5 = medium difference
0.8 = large difference

For the purposes of this study, the T-test was used to determine whether there were any statistically significant differences between resident’s who reside close to tourism activities and residents who reside further away from tourism activities.

1.5.7.7 Structural equation modelling (SEM)

SEM refers to a complex statistical technique used to evaluate relationships among a set of variables (Pallant, 2013). It is a method used to validate a theory based on sample data (Bauldry, 2015), and it provides a graphical description that expresses the relationship between variables based on a measured theory through a path diagram (Hancock et al., 2010). For the purposes of this study, the SEM was used to ultimately determine the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being using the bottom-up spill over theory (BST).
1.6 Definition of key concepts

In the following section, some of the important concepts and keywords used in this study will be defined.

1.6.1 Tourism

Tourism is defined as a social, cultural and economic phenomenon that involves the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for personal or business purposes (UNWTO, 2014). It is also a multi-dimensional activity that has a variety of impacts on the area where it occurs, as well as on other surrounding areas (Cooper, 2012).

1.6.2 Impacts of tourism

The impacts of tourism refer to the effects of tourism on the society, economy and environment where it occurs (Deery, Jago & Fredline, 2012). Cooper (2012) defines the impacts of tourism as the changes that tourism instils on tourism destination residents.

1.6.3 Residents

Residents are defined as a group of people who stay in a particular area and form or belong to a community (White & Le Cornu, 2011). They are also defined as individuals who stay in a location for a long period of time or on a permanent basis (Braun, Kavaratzis, & Zenker, 2013a). For the purposes of this study, residents will refer to people who stay in tourism destinations.

1.6.4 Residents residing close to/further away from tourism activity

Residents who reside close to tourism activities are residents who stay within a distance of 5km from tourism activity, while residents who stay further away from tourism activities are regarded as residents who stay more 5km away from tourism activity.

1.6.5 Subjective well-being/satisfaction with life

Subjective well-being refers to an individual’s assessment of his or her own life (Bakker & Oerlemans, 2011). Diener and Chan (2011) define subjective well-being as an
affective and cognitive evaluation of an individual’s life. Satisfaction with life is the cognitive component of subjective well-being (Proctor & Linley, 2014). Green (2011) states that satisfaction with life is how individuals measure the stability of their lives.

1.6.6 Life domains

Life domains are simply defined as various factors of life. They include work, leisure, family and many more (Andrews & Withey, 2012; Broeck, Vansteenkiste, Witte, Soenens, & Lens, 2010).

1.6.7 Tourism development

Tourism development is a phenomenon led by various tourism stakeholders who seek to create resources that will cater for the needs of tourists (Teo & Chang, 2012). It refers to methods and steps taken to ensure that tourism is firmly established in a particular area (Hinch & Higham, 2011).

1.6.8 Bottom-up spill over theory

The bottom-up spill over theory (BST) is a popular psychological theory that stipulates that an individual’s SWL is determined by satisfaction in life domains (Bernini, Guizzardi, & Angelini, 2013; Ekici, Sirgy, Lee, Grace, & Bosnjak, 2018).

1.6.9 Affect

Affect refers to mood states or feelings that may be negative (for example, anger and fear) or positive (for example, joy and enthusiasm) (Ebesutani et al., 2012; Hamama, Ronen, Shachar, & Rosenbaum, 2013).

1.7 Outline of chapters

The following section provides an overview of what will be discussed in each chapter of the study.
1.7.1 Chapter 1: Introduction to the study

Chapter 1 will include the introduction, background to the study, problem statement, goals and objectives of the study, research design and definition of key concepts.

1.7.2 Chapter 2: The sociology of tourism: A review of literature

Chapter 2 will comprise a literature review based on the scientific field of sociology, residents, and social tourism concepts that aim to better explain the relationship between tourism and residents.

1.7.3 Chapter 3: Subjective well-being, satisfaction with life and residents support for further development: A review of literature

Chapter 3 will contain an analysis of literature based on subjective well-being, satisfaction with life and residents’ support for further tourism development.

1.7.4 Chapter 4: Empirical results

Chapter 4 will consist of the empirical findings and results of the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being.

1.7.5 Chapter 5: Conclusion and recommendations

Chapter 5 will comprise the conclusions drawn from the literature review and empirical findings together with recommendations that will be made to the key role-players in the tourism industry, as well as community leaders in Soweto. It will also include contributions and limitations of the study.

The next chapter will look at literature pertaining to the sociology of tourism and social tourism concepts.
Chapter 2: The sociology of tourism: A review of literature

2.1 Introduction

Sociology is the study of human relations (Chapin, 1918). Steward and Zaaiman (2015) define sociology as “the scientific study on how humans interact and the social forces which shape human behaviour” (p. xiv). Heinecken (2015), as well as Bauman, Jacobsen, and Tester (2016) state that sociology is a phenomenon that looks at issues that affect humanity in general, while Urry (2012) defines sociology as a discipline that exposes the nature of societies. In short, sociology is simply defined as the study of societies (Buechler, 2008). Macionis and Gerber (2010) state that the purpose of sociology is to give individuals a better understanding of the world and their own environment. Giddens and Applebaum (2015) assert that sociology’s function is to create an appreciation of the multiple cultures and facets that exist in society.

Sociology is a very broad phenomenon; nevertheless, it can be divided into three clusters and these are: micro-sociology, meso-sociology and macro-sociology. Micro-sociology deals with relations between individuals; meso-sociology deals with relations between communities; and macro-sociology deals with relations between large-scale social structures such as countries (Steward & Zaaiman, 2015). Tourism is a form of sociology as it facilitates interaction between individuals from different communities, cultures and nations. As tourism develops in an area, it becomes an agent of transformation as it brings about permanent social and cultural changes (besides the well-known economic and environmental changes) to the lives of residents who reside in tourism destinations (Marujo, 2013). Based on the tourist-resident interaction, tourism can create social cohesion and de-mystifies cultures (Cohen & Cohen, 2012). However, tourism can create conflict between tourists and residents,
residents and residents and even destroy residents’ traditional values and moral standards (Yang et al., 2013). This can affect residents’ support for tourism, which is vital for the success and the sustainability of tourism (Kim, Jun, Walker, & Drane, 2015).

Figure 2.1: The sociology of tourism
Source: Adapted from Tesfaye (2015)

Figure 2.1 above shows how sociology fuses into the various aspects of tourism, which include the relationship between tourists and residents, the structures and functioning of the tourism industry, the impacts of tourism and the tourists. Sociology (Figure 2.1) is evident in the interaction between tourists (Figure 2.1) who come from different corners of the world and take part in a tourism offering such as a tour (Pearce, 2013). During a tour, tourists get to travel together, shop together, explore the destination, eat local food and take pictures of themselves and objects of interest at the destination. Participation in these activities enables tourists to interact with each other and develop a relationship (Prebensen &
Foss, 2011). Some relationships between tourists tend to be short lived, while others turn into lifelong friendships and some even become romantic (Smith, 2014). However, not all relationships between tourists tend to be civil, due to factors such as rowdy behaviour, bigotry and temperaments (Holloway, Green, & Holloway, 2011).

Sociology is also present in the relationship between tourists and residents (Figure 2.1) (Marujo, 2013). Armenski, Dragičević, Pejović, Lukić, and Djurdjev (2011) state that interaction between tourists and residents of a tourism destination is bound to happen, since tourists visit the area where residents stay and the interaction is most likely to occur at facilities/areas such as tourism attractions, recreational facilities (for example, amusement parks), shopping malls, on the streets, and in the market places where residents sell various artefacts to tourists. Depending on residents’ roles in tourism, the interaction between residents and tourists can be brief or lengthy (Kastenholz, Carneiro, Eusébio, & Figueiredo, 2013). In addition, some forms of tourism facilitate tourists and residents to form intimate relationships. For example, volunteer tourism is where tourists volunteer in humanitarian and developmental/conservation projects (Conran, 2011), and homestay tourism, whereby tourists actually stay in the homesteads of local residents and live in the same way local residents live (Jamal & Muhammad, 2011). Moreover, interaction between tourists and residents is important as it makes the tourism experience pleasant for the tourist (Kastenholz et al., 2013) and it also helps residents to accept and tolerate tourists (Armenski et al., 2011).

Sociology also exists between the various stakeholders of the tourism industry who are responsible for the structures and functioning of the tourism industry (Figure 2.1) (Tesfaye, 2015). These stakeholders include the local government (Morrison & Pickering, 2013), the private sector (Sharpley, 2014), civil society groups and local residents (Getz & Timur, 2012). When these different stakeholders come together to manage the tourism industry at a particular destination, they become a social unit. However, within a social unit,
power relations tend to differ among stakeholders involved (Steward & Zaaiman, 2015). This is evident in the tourism industry, as local governments and the private sector tend to have more power and influence in running the tourism industry compared to the local residents (Beritelli & Laesser, 2011). Nonetheless, Sheldon, Fesenmaier, and Tribe (2011) state that the devolution of power among stakeholders is necessary for the optimal functioning of the tourism industry.

Furthermore, sociology also contributes to the social impacts of tourism (Figure 2.1) (Tesfaye, 2015). These social impacts emanate from the interaction between tourists and residents (Cooper, 2012). When tourists and residents intermingle for a certain period of time, residents may adopt the tourists’ way of life, fuse it with their own culture, or totally abandon their own culture and adhere to the tourists’ culture. This process is known as acculturation (Hall & Lew, 2009). Acculturation may lead to residents seeking better opportunities for themselves so that they can afford the tourist lifestyle. It may also lead to residents changing their customs and learning languages that are usually spoken by tourists. In addition, it may eventually change social relations through, for example, making rural women to be more vocal and less dependent on their husbands (Monterrubio & Mendoza-Ontiveros, 2014). Furthermore, it may lead to the abandoning of traditional cultures and a decline in morals, especially by the youth (Mbaiwa, 2011a).

Based on this introduction, the author will review literature on the sociology of tourism by discussing the role of residents in tourism and the relationship between residents and tourism through the use of social tourism concepts such as the social exchange theory and various models such as Doxey’s Irridex model, the tourism area lifecycle model and Butler’s model of intercultural perceptions. The layout of this chapter is portrayed in Figure 2.2 below, which will be followed by a discussion on the role of residents in tourism.
2.2 Role of residents in tourism

Residents refer to a group of individuals who stay in a geographical location for a long period of time or on a permanent basis (Braun, Kavaratzis, & Zenker, 2013b). They are also defined as individuals who form or belong to a community (White & Le Cornu, 2011). Skobba, Scott, and Young (2015) state that residents are individuals who stay within a certain territory and share resources (such as parks, water sources and buildings) and also form bonds with one another. They are likely to be disparate in nature as they may be families/individuals who have different standards of living, income ranges, lifestyles and education. In some cases, residents of a particular area may consist of people from different cultures (Soini, Pouta, Salmiovirta, Uusitalo, & Kivinen, 2011).

Within the context of tourism, residents are individuals who stay in an area that has tourism attractions or where tourism activities take place (Bramwell & Lane, 2011; Monterrubio, Gullette, Mendoza-Ontiveros, Fernández, & Luque, 2012; Shani & Uriely, 2012). Since they live and work at tourism destinations, residents play various roles in tourism (Garrod, Fyall, Leask, & Reid, 2012). They form part of the stakeholders of the
tourism industry (Beritelli & Laesser, 2011; Cooper, 2012; Fons, Fierro, & Patiño, 2011). Uysal et al (2012a) argue that residents are the main recipients of tourism impacts because they reside in the areas where tourism takes place. Residents are the custodians of the tangible resources (such as the natural environment) and the non-tangible resources (such as the local culture) found at the tourism destination (Bakare, 2015; Drăgulănescu & Druţu, 2012; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012).

Furthermore, residents could also serve as the labour force for the tourism industry (Al Haija, 2011; Jugmohan, Spencer, & Steyn, 2016; Magi, 2014) and they provide hospitality to tourists in order to make their stay/visit enjoyable (Al Haija, 2011; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012; Zhang, Ryan, & Cave, 2016). In some cases, residents are individuals who run the tourism industry in their respective destinations through initiatives such as community-based tourism (Giampiccoli, Jugmohan, & Mtapuri, 2015; Lenaoa, Saarinen, & Saarinen, 2015; Lukhele & Mearns, 2013).

Su and Wall (2014) stipulate that residents provide various services to tourists to cater for their wants and needs and they also serve as the mediators between the tourism managers and the tourists. In addition, residents may serve as marketers for the destination as they can draw their friends and relatives (also known as the visiting friends and relatives market) from other areas to come and visit the destination, and destination marketing organisations often make use of celebrities who were born/raised in a particular tourism destination to promote the area in their marketing campaigns. An example is South African rap artist Tshepo “Stoan” Seate who was appointed by the North West Tourism Board as their brand ambassador for the purposes of marketing the North West Province (Lolokwane, 2016).

From the above, it is clear that residents play various roles in tourism and their involvement is essential for the success and the survival of tourism (Dinnie, 2011; Mowforth
& Munt, 2015; Zhang & Lei, 2012). However, there are factors and forces that inhibit residents’ participation in tourism (Moscardo, 2011). These will be discussed in Table 2.1 below.

**Table 2. 2: Factors and forces inhibiting resident’s participation in tourism**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factors</th>
<th>Forces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lack of education</td>
<td>Local government</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lack of investment</td>
<td>Private sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative impacts of tourism</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Source: Adapted from Saufi, O’Brien and Wilkins (2014)*

Table 2.1 shows the factors and forces that inhibit residents’ participation in tourism. Lack of education on tourism does play a role in preventing residents from actively participating in tourism (Table 2.1). Saufi, O’Brien, and Wilkins (2014) state that due to a lack of education on tourism, residents may not know how to relate to tourists and provide hospitality to them. They may lack knowledge on how to set up tourism businesses and the kinds of artefacts that they can sell to tourists. Consequently, they will lose out on gaining income from tourism and they would choose to withdraw from tourism since they lack knowledge about it. Moscardo (2011) asserts that residents’ lack of education on tourism is used as an excuse by tourism managers to employ foreigners instead of residents at the tourism destination. To solve this problem, Al Haija (2011) suggests that the tourism industry managers together with other tourism stakeholders should provide training seminars for residents, where they provide them with knowledge about tourism and equip them with entrepreneurial/work skills so that they can also benefit from tourism.

Fun, Chiun, Songan, and Nair (2014) state that residents of developing countries value tourism development since it is an instrument that can enhance their standard of living and also assist them in alleviating poverty. However, due to a lack of investment in tourism, residents cannot participate in tourism (Table 2.1). The reasons why there is a lack of
investment in tourism are: poorly constructed tourism facilities (Maloletko, Kaurova, Kryukova, Pochinok, & Gladko, 2015), laws and policies by local governments that are not investor friendly (Tribe, 2015), lack of government support (Heung, Kucukusta, & Song, 2011) and corruption (Rylance, 2012). However, local governments can solve this problem by coming up with investor-friendly policies, eliminating corruption, investing and subsidising tourism. In doing so, it will create tourism jobs for its residents and give them entrepreneurial opportunities (Scheyvens, 2012).

The negative impacts of tourism are another factor that inhibits residents’ participation in tourism (Table 2.1). Even though tourism is very beneficial to residents (Mbaiwa, 2011a), it does have undesirable effects that affect the lives of residents (Hall & Lew, 2009). These include: increased cost of living, pollution, overcrowding, (Šegota, Mihalič, & Kuščer, 2016) rise in criminal activities (Kim et al., 2015), upsurge in prostitution (Wu & Chen, 2015), and distortion of local culture (Almeida-García, Peláez-Fernández, Balbuena-Vázquez, & Cortés-Macias, 2016). Consequently, these negative impacts will discourage residents from getting themselves involved in tourism (Chien, Ritchie, Shipway, & Henderson, 2012). Therefore, tourist industry managers together with the local government should be proactive in managing and mitigating tourism impacts for the benefit of the residents and to garner their support for tourism (Moyle, Weiler, & Croy, 2013; Ruhanen, 2013).

The forces that inhibit residents’ participation in tourism are the local government and the private sector (Table 2.1). The local government and the private sector (which also includes foreign companies) are the most influential stakeholders in the tourism industry (Cooper, 2012; Keyser, 2009; Moutinho, Ballantyne, & Rate, 2011). Therefore, they do have the power to restrict or bolster residents’ participation in tourism (Saufi et al., 2014). Many governments use tourism as a tool for economic growth (Page, 2012; Sharpley & Telfer,
2014; Tribe, 2015). Seeing its benefits, they (local governments) impose tourism in their respective territories without properly assessing its impacts on local residents (Getz & Timur, 2012). Due to the need for investment in tourism, governments tend to slacken their policies to attract foreign investment (Gu & Tam, 2011; Vanegas Sr, 2012; Wanhill, 2012).

Local governments then assign the private sector to run tourism and deliberately exclude local residents (Ruhanen, 2013). In addition, the private sector then employs its own people in tourism and only provides local residents with menial jobs (Mbaiwa, 2011b). Furthermore, most of revenue gained from tourism is taken by the private sector and the local residents are left with barely anything (Ardahaey, 2011; Garrigós-Simón, Galdón-Salvador, & Gil-Pechuán, 2015; Suryawardani, Bendesa, Antara, & Wiranatha, 2014). Moreover, this will lead to residents shunning tourism altogether, as they will not derive any benefits from it (Moscardo, 2011). To deal with this problem, firstly, Ruhanen (2013) suggests that local governments should keep in mind that they were elected to serve local residents so they must put the interests of local residents first before other stakeholders of tourism. Secondly, Lee (2013) states that local governments and the private sector must include the local residents in the planning and running of the tourism industry.

Thirdly, Salazar (2012) stipulates that local governments and the private sector should ensure that residents get meaningful jobs in tourism together with the training required. In addition, Keyser (2009) asserts that local governments should draft laws and policies that seek to benefit every stakeholder in tourism, and the private sector has an obligation to practise corporate responsibility towards the local residents (for example, building a school for the residents), as this will make the residents more appreciative of tourism.
From what has been discussed above, residents do play an important role in tourism. Therefore, their participation in tourism must be bolstered and all barriers that hinder their participation must be dealt with as their participation is vital for the sustainability and the success of tourism. In the next section, residents’ attitudes towards tourism will be discussed.

2.2.1 Residents’ attitude towards tourism

An attitude can be defined as a reflection of one’s perception on a particular subject (Spruyt, De Keere, Keppens, Roggemans, & Van Droogenbroeck, 2016). Vogel and Wanke (2016) state that an individual(s) can have an attitude towards a particular ideology (for example, evolution), a certain group of people (for example, tourists), or just about anything in the world. An attitude can be negative or positive (Brase, 2016; Palaiou, Zarola, & Furnham, 2016; van den Heuvel, Schalk, Freese, & Timmerman, 2016) and it is not permanent in nature (De Groot & Bailey, 2016; Levitan & Verhulst, 2016; Nilsson, Schuitema, Bergstad, Martinsson, & Thorson, 2016). An attitude is subjective (Spruyt et al., 2016) and it is formed by thoughts, emotions and behaviour (Vogel & Wanke, 2016).

In terms of tourism, residents’ attitudes towards tourism are influenced by various factors (Yan, 2013). These include tourism impacts (Mbaiwa & Stronza, 2011), knowledge about tourism (Zhang & Lei, 2012), perceived benefits (Akyeampong, 2011) and level of tourism development (Presenza, Del Chiappa, & Sheehan, 2013). Other factors include: residents’ demographic profiles (Huimin & Ryan, 2012), importance of tourism in the destination (Cañizares, Tabales, & García, 2014), residents’ involvement in tourism (Hunt & Stronza, 2014), and the management of tourism (Assante, Wen, & Lottig, 2012). Even though there are diverse factors that influence residents’ attitudes towards tourism, residents’ attitudes towards the industry can change at any time (Yan, 2013). Therefore, tourism managers must know the attitudes that residents have towards the industry and do their best
to ensure that residents’ attitudes towards tourism are positive for the sake of gaining their support and for the sustainability of the industry (Vargas-Sánchez, Porras-Bueno, & de los Ángeles Plaza-Mejía, 2013). The following section will discuss the relationship between tourism and residents based on the social tourism concepts.

2.3 Social tourism concepts

This section analyses four social tourism concepts, which deal with the relationship between residents and tourism. These concepts include: The social exchange theory, Doxey’s Irridex model, the tourism area lifecycle model, and Butler’s model of intercultural perceptions. The social exchange theory will be discussed next.

2.3.1 The social exchange theory

The social exchange theory (SET) is one of the most well-known ideologies used to understand human relations (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005; Nunkoo, 2016; Yan, Wang, Chen, & Zhang, 2016). It was a theory developed by George Homans, John Thibaut, Harold Kelley and Peter Blau in the mid-20th century (Emerson, 1976). The SET is an ideology that stipulates that two or more parties can develop strong relations if they continually provide each other with beneficial resources (Mitchell, Cropanzano, & Quisenberry, 2012). However, the exchange of beneficial resources can only work out if there are trust, co-operation and commitment between the parties involved (Zhao, Chen, Wang, & Chen, 2017). Furthermore, the SET is a multi-disciplinary framework that can be applied to different fields such as economics (Shiau & Luo, 2012), labour relations (O'Boyle Jr, Forsyth, Banks, & McDaniel, 2012), social relationships (Luke, Goldberg, Mberu, & Zulu, 2011) and tourism (Coulson, MacLaren, McKenzie, & O'Gorman, 2014).
Within the context of tourism, the SET is applied in the relationship between the residents of a tourism destination and tourism (Tang, 2014; Ward & Berno, 2011; Weaver & Lawton, 2013). This theory is regarded as one of the most popular theories used by researchers to determine residents’ attitudes towards tourism development (Brida et al., 2011; Harrill, Uysal, Cardon, Vong, & Dioko, 2011; Nunkoo, 2016). According to the SET, residents of a tourism destination will support tourism as long as they benefit from it (Látková & Vogt, 2012), and as long as the benefits of tourism outweigh the costs (Vargas-Sánchez, Porras-Bueno, & de los Ángeles Plaza-Mejía, 2011). Figure 2.3 provides a simplified illustration on how the SET works within the context of tourism. Tourism (Figure...
2.3) has impacts (Figure 2.3) that affect the residents of the destination and these impacts can be positive or negative (Pirzada et al., 2015). Three of the most prominent impacts of tourism are economic, environmental and social in nature (Kuvan & Akan, 2012; Šegota, Mihalič, & Kuščer, 2016; Vareiro, Remoaldo, & Cadima Ribeiro, 2013).

Therefore, if residents truly benefit from tourism (for example, through employment, conservation of natural resources and recreational opportunities), they would have a positive attitude towards the industry. In addition, residents would support the industry (Figure 2.3) through initiatives such as being accommodative to tourists and providing amenities to cater for the tourists’ needs (Burns & Fridman, 2011). If residents do not benefit from tourism or if the impacts of tourism are mostly negative, then residents can withdraw their support towards the tourism industry (Figure 2.3), which is of great importance as without it, the industry may collapse (Frauman & Banks, 2011; Hanafiah, Jamaluddin, & Zulkifly, 2013; Lee, 2013).

However, the SET is not sufficient to fully determine residents’ attitudes towards tourism, as attitude towards tourism can also be determined by: employment in the industry, proximity to tourism facilities, level of development of the destination, residents’ attachment to the destination and residents’ perception of tourism impacts (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2012; Stylidis et al., 2014; Ward & Berno, 2011). Other factors include the seasonality of the industry (Jeon, Kang, & Desmarais, 2016a), the length of residents’ stay at the destination (Moyle et al., 2013) and the level of residents’ education (Almeida-García et al., 2016). Therefore, it could be used in conjunction with other theories such as the theory of reasoned action and the social representation theory in order to fully determine residents’ attitude towards tourism (Chen, 2011; Látková & Vogt, 2012; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, & Alders, 2013). Sharpley (2014) stipulates that there is limited proof to prove that residents do actually withdraw their support from tourism if they do not benefit from it. Additionally, he also stipulates that tourism is imposed in many destinations by governments and, therefore, residents have to support the
industry whether they like it or not because they do not have the power over their own area and their own resources. Therefore, there is no willing exchange of resources between the industry and the residents of the tourism destination.

Furthermore, Nunkoo (2016) states that the exchange of resources and tourism can be unfair. Residents can give their resources and their rights to tourism for the reason that they need tourism to assist in alleviating their poverty. This gives the industry power to manipulate residents and forces them to be tolerant to the impacts of tourism.

Despite its shortcomings, the SET is one of the most trusted theories used by scholars to determine residents’ attitude towards tourism (Nunkoo, 2016). In addition, it can be used in conjunction with other theories to fully determine residents’ attitude towards tourism. In the next section, Doxey’s Irridex model will be discussed.

2.3.2 **Doxey's Irridex model**

The tourism irritation index, better known as Doxey’s Irridex model, was developed by George Doxey (Baldacchino, 2007) and it is considered as one of the most popular models used to measure residents’ attitude towards tourism (Laakso, 2011; Okulicz-Kozaryn & Strzelecka, 2016; Page & Connell, 2014). Doxey developed the model for the sole purpose of measuring the social carrying capacity of a tourism destination from the perspective of local residents (Robinson, Lück, & Smith, 2013); and through his model, he illustrates that residents’ attitudes towards tourism change over time or as tourism develops in a destination (Hall & Lew, 2009). The Irridex model has four different stages/attitudes that residents have towards tourism and these are: euphoria, apathy, irritation and antagonism (Page & Connell, 2014).
Figure 2.4 below is an illustration of Doxey’s Irridex model. The first stage of the model is euphoria (Figure 2.4). At this stage, there is not much tourism development at the destination (Okulicz-Kozaryn & Strzelecka, 2016), and there are a few tourists who visit the destination (Jordan, Vogt, Kruger, & Grewe, 2016). The types of tourists who are most likely to visit the destination at this stage are allocentrics (Page & Connell, 2014) and academics (Hall, 2011). In addition, residents are excited about tourism due to its perceived benefits, and the opportunity to mix and mingle with people who emanate from different areas and who have different cultures from their own (Wortman, Donaldson, & Western, 2016). In turn, residents become very friendly to tourists and other stakeholders involved in tourism (Hall & Lew, 2009) and they support tourism wholeheartedly (Manwa, 2012).

- **EUPHORIA**
  - Tourism is welcomed with great enthusiasm by residents

- **APATHY**
  - Residents start taking tourism for granted

- **IRRITATION**
  - Residents are now annoyed by tourists/tourism

- **ANTAGONISM**
  - Residents display great resentment towards tourism

Figure 2.4: Doxey’s Irridex model

Source: Adapted from Emojipedia (2016); (Robinson et al., 2013)
The second stage of the Irridex model is apathy (Figure 2.4). At this stage, tourism is no longer a new venture as it has been fully established in the destination and there are more investors coming in to invest in tourism (Dryga, Aleksandrova, Goncharova, & Sanfirova, 2016). In turn, the destination experiences an upsurge in the number of tourists who visit the destination and there are more facilities/attractions developed to cater for the wants and the needs of the tourists (Manwa, 2012). Residents become used to being around tourists and their curiosity/interest that they had about tourists slowly fades away (Yan, 2013). Relations between tourists and resident have become formal and residents’ enthusiasm for the tourism rapidly declines (Dryga et al., 2016).

The third stage of the Irridex model is irritation (Figure 2.4). At this stage, tourism has become one of the most dominant industries at the destination and its growth has become stagnant (Page & Connell, 2014). In addition, foreign investors have a larger stake in tourism as compared to the residents of the tourism destination and the residents’ involvement in tourism rapidly declines (Aznan & Isa, 2015). Furthermore, the number of tourists at the destination has sharply risen to such an extent that they almost outnumber the local residents. As a result of their increase, there is an rise in congestion, crime, pollution and socially unacceptable behaviour (Hall & Lew, 2009). In turn, residents are now annoyed by tourists together and their perception of tourism has become negative due its negative impacts (Robinson et al., 2013) and they now view tourism as an irritant (Yan, 2013).

The final stage of the Irridex model is antagonism (Figure 2.4). This is the stage whereby the destination has exceeded its social and environmental carrying capacity (Manwa, 2012). This is substantiated by the degradation of the built and natural environment and the
great resentment that residents have towards tourism (Canavan, 2014). Residents blame the
tourism managers for failing to mitigate the negative impacts of tourism and the tourists for
the physical and social degradation of the destination (Dryga et al., 2016). In addition,
residents show their resentment for tourism by avoiding areas/facilities that are meant to cater
for tourists (for example, beaches) (Yavanarani, 2015) and some may also become hostile to
the tourists and even destroy tourism facilities (Yan, 2013).

However, the stages of the Irridex model are not fixed, since destination managers
may be able to mitigate the negative impacts of tourism at the destination through de-
marketing, increasing access fees to the destination, limiting the number of tourists who visit
the destination and having designated tourist zones (Hall & Lew, 2009; Robinson et al., 2013;
Sharpley, 2014). Additionally, it is not definite that the impacts of tourism become negative
as time elapses (Cooper, 2012; Huimin & Ryan, 2012; Robinson et al., 2013). Furthermore,
not all residents of the tourism destination will have the same attitude towards tourism. At its
inception, some residents may like it because it may provide employment for them. Other
residents may be apathetic towards due to their distance from the tourism attractions. Some
other residents may dislike it due to their personal perceptions about the industry (Page &

Moreover, tourism is highly seasonal (Cuccia & Rizzo, 2011; Espinet, Fluvia, & Saló,
2012; Vergori, 2012). Therefore, this means that not all destinations receive tourists all year
long (Page, 2012). Due to the seasonality of the tourism industry, the impacts of tourism and
the interaction between tourists and residents are limited to a particular timeframe that may
be too brief for residents of some destinations to have for different attitudes towards tourism
and the tourists themselves. For that reason, the Irridex model is not applicable to all
destinations (Aznan & Isa, 2015). Nevertheless, Doxey’s Irridex model verifies that
continuous development of tourism at a destination may displease residents. Therefore,
tourism development should not be excessive in order to keep residents happy (Okulicz-Kozaryn & Strzelecka, 2016; Tangit, Hasim, & Adanan, 2014). The tourism area lifecycle model, which is closely related to the Irridex model (Ziaee & Hassan, 2014), will be discussed next.

2.3.3 The tourism area lifecycle

![Figure 2.5: The tourism area lifecycle model](image)

Source: Adapted from Ollis (2010)

The tourism area lifecycle model (TALC) (Figure 2.5), which was developed by Richard Butler, is regarded as one of the most famous and influential models used to understand the process of tourism development (Baidal, Sánchez, & Rebollo, 2013; Ma & Hassink, 2013; Weaver & Lawton, 2010). Uysal, et al. (2012) state that the TALC model is based on the product lifecycle (PLC) concept, which describes the evolution of a product from its inception phase to its decline. The TALC model shows how a destination moves from one stage to another in its process of development, the types of tourists who visit the destination at various stages of development, and residents’ reaction/attitude towards tourism.
development (Cole, 2012). Butler (2006) states that the progression of tourism destinations is caused by multiple factors, such as the different wants/needs of tourists, modifications of the natural/ cultural landscape and the degradation of the destination. Furthermore, the TALC model is not only applicable to tourism destinations, but it can also be applied to tourism products (Meng, Wei, & Yu, 2011). The model consists of six unique stages, which are: exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, decline and rejuvenation (Xin, Tribe, & Chambers, 2013). The stages of the TALC will be discussed below.

The first stage of the TALC model is known as the exploration stage (Figure 2.5). In this stage, there are a small number of tourists visiting the destination known as explorers, who are interested in visiting destinations that are unexplored and unpopular. At this stage, the destination will have plenty of natural resources, which are authentic and appealing. In addition, there will be minimal tourism development and the destination will be highly inaccessible to most tourists due to the lack of transport facilities. Furthermore, there will be a high level of contact between residents and tourists, as residence will be enthusiastic about the presence of tourists in their area. Moreover, the destination’s landscape will remain unchanged and there would not be any disruption of the natural environment (Garay & Cánoves, 2011).

The second stage of the TALC model is the involvement stage (Figure 2.5). At this stage, there are more tourism facilities being developed for tourists due to a slight rise in the number of tourists who visit the destination. Marketing of the destination is done in an aggressive manner in order to draw more tourists to the destination and the destination managers call on the government and private sector to invest more in tourism (Uysal et al., 2012). In return, governments adjust their policies in order to make them investor friendly so that they can attract foreign investors to come and develop tourism at the destination (Carlsen & Butler, 2011). Additionally, residents begin to notice the economic benefits of
tourism so they become more involved in tourism through providing amenities for tourists (such as transport) and selling artefacts to them (Kim, Uysal, & Sirgy, 2013).

The third stage of the TALC model is the development stage (Figure 2.5). At this stage, the destination gets huge media coverage and it manages to draw a very large number of tourists thanks to aggressive marketing (Pratt, 2011). Due to investor-friendly policies, more private investors come through to develop more tourism facilities and the tourism becomes really profitable (Aznan & Isa, 2015). In addition, the physical landscape of the destination is altered as many tourism facilities are being developed (Butler, 2012) and the destination becomes a venue for mass tourism and this causes the explorers (the first type of tourists to visit the destination) to lose interest in the destination and seek alternative destinations. Furthermore, there is a slight decline in residents’ participation in tourism (Aznan & Isa, 2015) and residents begin to notice the negative impacts of tourism (Meleddu, 2014).

The fourth stage of the TALC model is known as the consolidation stage (Figure 2.5). It is at this stage where tourist numbers begin to exceed the population of the local residents (Romão, Guerreiro, & Rodrigues, 2013). In addition, tourism is now recognised as one of the largest contributors to the economy of the destination. However, the rate in the growth of tourist numbers begins to slow down due to factors such as competition (Lee & Weaver, 2014) and the loss of ambience due to multiple modifications of the destination landscape (Garay & Cánoves, 2011). Furthermore, residents are now becoming tired of tourism, and the relationship between tourists and residents begins to deteriorate (Aznan & Isa, 2015).

The fifth stage of the TALC model is the stagnation stage (Figure 2.5). At this stage, the carrying capacity of the destination would have been reached (Garay & Cánoves,
This is made evident by a rise in environmental, economic and social problems at the destination (Pornphol & McGrath, 2010). In turn, this would give the destination a negative image in the eyes of the market and the media (Ma & Hassink, 2013). Additionally, the number of tourists visiting the destination begins to decline and this will lead to an oversupply of tourism facilities. At this point, the destination has lost its competitive edge and it relies on repeat visits (Weaver & Lawton, 2013). Furthermore, residents develop a negative attitude towards tourism and begin to be vocal about their resentment of tourism (Aznan & Isa, 2015). The stagnation stage can lead to the decline of the destination or its rejuvenation (Kamat, 2010).

If the destination enters to the decline stage (Figure 2.5), the destination would fail in drawing new tourists and regular tourists would lose interest in it and they would seek alternative destinations. Attempts to revitalise the destination would prove to be unsuccessful and residents of the destination will become openly hostile to the tourists (Weaver & Lawton, 2010). This will lead to investors altogether pulling away from the destination because it would have lost its value (Ma & Hassink, 2013) and it would be now regarded as a ‘tourist slum’ (Uysal et al., 2012). However, Baidal et al. (2013) argue that the decline stage can be avoided if tourism destination managers come up with strategies to alleviate problems at the destination or rejuvenate it when it is still in its consolidation or stagnation stage.

If the destination enters into the rejuvenation stage (Figure 2.5), natural resources that were not utilised will be developed into tourism attractions. Additionally, the destination will be restructured through the development of new tourism attractions and new facilities for a new target market. For example, if a destination was known as a place for gambling, it can re-invent itself to be a family-friendly destination (Uysal et al., 2012). Furthermore, the destination managers will make it a point to refurbish infrastructure that is deteriorating in order to keep the destination ambient and attractive (Baidal et al., 2013). However,
rejuvenation is not an easy process as it requires a great deal of investment and all destination stakeholders must be involved in restructuring the destination so that whatever action taken to re-invent the destination is something that would keep all stakeholders happy, including the residents (Weaver & Lawton, 2010).

However, the TALC model is simplistic, since it regards destination development as a simple process, while it is actually a complex process (Cooper, 2012; Gill & Williams, 2011; Zhang & Xiao, 2014). Additionally, it is difficult to point out the time when a destination moves from one stage to another (Cooper, 2012; Garay & Cánoves, 2011; George, 2011). A destination can stay in a particular stage for centuries, so there is no guarantee that all destinations would move from one stage to another from time to time. Furthermore, the TALC is not fixed as some destinations can skip stages, for example, a destination can start off at the development stage without having to go through the exploration and involvement stages (George, 2011). In addition, Suchet (2015) and Ma and Hassink (2013) argue that it is the tourism products at a destination that go through a lifecycle; not the tourism destination.

Likewise, the TALC model is difficult to apply in a destination as tourism products in a destination have their own lifecycles. For example, the Johannesburg Zoo can be in the decline stage, while Gold Reef City (also located in Johannesburg) may be in the rejuvenation stage. Furthermore, similar to Doxey’s Iridex model, the TALC model suggests that all residents of a tourism destination have a similar attitude towards tourism development and this is not realistic (Jordan et al., 2016). Moreover Garay and Cánoves (2011) assert that the TALC model is theoretical and not actually practical, as some stages of the TALC are hardly experienced by destinations. Nevertheless, the model is useful in anticipating problems that a destination can face as it develops and curbs the negative impacts of tourism that may affect the residents of the destination (Romão et al., 2013).
Butler’s model of intercultural perception will be discussed next.

2.3.4 Butler’s model of intercultural perception

Butler’s model of intercultural perception (MOIP) (Figure 2.6) is a social model that recognises the different attitudes and behaviours that residents have towards tourism at a particular point in time (Slabbert, 2013). It was developed by Richard Butler in 1975 and it was adapted from a cultural interaction model created by cultural geographers for the purpose of describing cultural interaction between tourists and residents. In his adapted model, Butler displays four different attitudes that residents may have towards tourism in the form of a matrix, and these reactions are measured using a positive-negative continuum (Figure 2.6) (Stewart, Dawson, & Draper, 2011). These attitudes are more likely to change as time goes by or as tourism develops in the destination (Cooper, 2012), and they are expressed in an active or passive manner (Figure 2.6) (Saayman, 2013).

Some residents may have a positive attitude towards tourism and these would actively promote tourism in an aggressive manner (Figure 2.6). These people may include local
business people who own tourism businesses and they would aggressively promote tourism by using every marketing platform available to draw tourists to the destination and they would ensure that they provide quality services to tourists in order to keep them visiting the destination (Saayman, 2013). In addition, residents who love meeting new people and learning new cultures would have a favourable attitude towards tourism and aggressively support it by showing hospitality to tourists, teaching them their own culture (Alhammad, 2012) and getting themselves involved in promotional campaigns done by their local destination marketing organisations (Kerr, Dombkins, & Jelley, 2012).

Local politicians may also have a favourable attitude towards tourism thanks to its environmental and socio-economic benefits and they would aggressively show their support for tourism by inviting investors to develop tourism, lobby for support for tourism from the public sector, provide land for development of tourism facilities, establish tourist centres at the destination and draft policies for tourism at their respective areas of governance (Javier & Elazigue, 2011). On the other hand, some residents may be supportive of tourism but they would silently accept it (Figure 2.6). These may include residents who do not work for the tourism industry, but they also benefit from its impacts (Su & Wall, 2014).

The MOIP also highlights that not every resident has a positive attitude towards tourism and some of them openly express their opposition against tourism in an aggressive manner (Figure 2.6). These are more likely to be residents who are part of community-based organisations that may have a negative attitude towards tourism due to its continual expansion and they may aggressively oppose tourism by holding protests at the offices of tourism centres or vent out their frustrations through the use of the local media (Saayman, 2013).
Other residents who are likely to aggressively oppose tourism are those residents who have greatly suffered from the negative impacts of tourism and may have been left out of reaping the benefits of tourism, so they may aggressively oppose tourism by harassing tourists or they may even damage tourism facilities (Peng, Chen, & Wang, 2016). However, other residents may also have a negative attitude towards tourism due to its negative impacts, but they would resignedly accept it (Figure 2.6). These are more likely to be residents who have no political power and they do not possess a great deal of knowledge about tourism (Saufi et al., 2014).

Unlike Doxey’s Irridex model, which asserts that all residents have a similar attitude towards tourism (Schofield, 2011), the MOIP is more realistic as it displays how differently residents would react to tourism (Saayman, 2013; Scholtz, 2014) and it also shows how these attitudes may change as time goes by (Stewart et al., 2011).

2.4 Conclusions

The objective of this chapter was to analyse communities from a sociological perspective with specific reference to tourism social concepts. In order to fulfil this objective, the author conducted a review of literature.

The first phase of the literature study looked at the phenomenon of sociology and how it fits into the concept of tourism. The author found that sociology is the study of societies and its purpose is to make individuals understand and appreciate the various cultures of the world together with the various aspects of society in general. Tourism fits into sociology as it facilitates the interaction between people of different cultures, and sociology is evident in the interaction between tourists, interaction between tourism industry stakeholders and the interaction between tourists and residents of a tourism destination. Furthermore, sociology is also a contributor to the social impacts of tourism.
The second phase of the literature study dealt with the role of residents in tourism. Residents play a number of roles in tourism, which include being stakeholders of the tourism industry, custodians of destination’s resources and they also serve as the labour force for tourism. However, their participation in tourism is constrained by factors that include a lack of education on tourism, lack of investment in tourism and forces that include local governments and the private sector. Therefore, it is important that local governments and other stakeholders involved in tourism industry must deal with the inhibitors that prevent residents from taking part in tourism, since residents’ participation in tourism is important for the prosperity and the survival of tourism at the destination.

In addition, the author looked at factors that influence residents’ attitudes towards tourism and these include: management of tourism at the destination, tourism’s importance to the destination and the impacts that tourism has on their day-to-day lives. The author also found that it is important that tourism industry managers know and understand residents’ attitudes towards tourism for the reason that residents’ attitudes towards tourism determine their support or their disapproval for tourism at the respective destinations.

The third phase of the literature study looked at the relationship between tourism and residents through the use of social tourism concepts. The social exchange theory (SET) asserts that residents’ support for tourism is based on the benefits that they gain from tourism and on the magnitude of its benefits compared to the magnitude of its costs. The Irridex model and the TALC both assert that residents’ relationship with tourism deteriorates if tourism continues to develop at their destination. However, Butler’s model of intercultural perceptions (MOIP) shows that residents react differently to tourism and they express their attitude towards tourism in an active or passive manner. The next chapter will look at the literature pertaining to subjective well-being, SWL as well as residents’ support for further tourism development.
Chapter 3: Subjective well-being, satisfaction with life and residents’ support for further development: A review of literature

3.1 Introduction

SWB is a holistic evaluation done by an individual on the state of his or her life (Zhang, Feng, Lacanienta, & Zhen, 2017), and it can also be defined as an assessment that measures the quality of an individual’s life as well as satisfaction with life (Ishii, 2017). Wei and Gao (2017) state that SWB is deduced from objective factors such as employment (Park, Seo, Park, Bettini, & Smith, 2016) and subjective factors, for example negative and positive emotions such as frustration and joy (Berrios, Totterdell, & Kellett, 2017). SWB is made up of two components that are affective well-being and SWL (Boehm, Chen, Williams, Ryff, & Kubzansky, 2016).

For the purposes of this study, the author will focus on SWL as part of SWB, since it looks at the overall well-being of individuals and SWL is a growing research concept in tourism research (Chen, Huang, & Petrick, 2016; Dagli, 2017; Ebrahim, Botha, & Snowball, 2013; Inoue, Sato, Filo, Du, & Funk, 2017; Jarvis, Stoeckl, & Liu, 2016; Pyke, Hartwell, Blake, & Hemingway, 2016; Wang, 2017). SWL is a cognitive element of SWB, which deals with individuals’ perceptions about their lives (Hajek & König, 2016). SWL is a subjective judgement of an individual’s life based on life events, life domains and self-actualisation needs (Fernández-Portero, Alarcón, & Barrios Padura, 2017). It can also be defined as an assessment of an individual’s welfare (Welsch & Kühling, 2016) and it is a measurement of stability in one’s life (Ishii, 2017).

A number of studies have been done in relation to SWL and residents (Kerstetter & Bricker, 2012; Moscardo, 2012; Uysal et al., 2012; Yang & Li, 2012). Within the international context, Kim, Uysal, and Sirgy’s (2013) study reveals that tourism affects the
life domains (c.f.1.2.2) of residents of tourism destinations and this may impact their overall SWL. Woo et al. (2015) and Liang and Hui (2016) found that tourism’s impact on residents’ SWL has an influence on residents’ support for further tourism development. In addition, Mathew and Sreejesh (2017) and Hanafiah, Azman, Jamaluddin, and Aminuddin (2016) disclose that responsible tourism practices at a tourism destination may increase residents’ SWL. Furthermore, McKercher and Ho (2012) study reveals that the commodification of the culture of residents can have a positive impact on residents’ SWL.

According to the author, there have not been studies done within the context of this study in South Africa, except for two studies that have a different focus from tourism, which look at the SWL of residents of an informal settlement (Westaway, 2006) and of a low-income suburb (Møller & Radloff, 2010). The lack of a study that looks at the influence of tourism on Soweto’s (formal and informal settlements) residents’ SWB (SWL) within the South African context shows the importance of why this study has been conducted.

Tourism is known to have an influence on the lives of residents of tourism destinations (c.f.1.6.3) (Mearns, 2012; Meyer & Meyer, 2015; Snyman, 2014). Tourism’s influence has an effect on the various life domains (c.f.1.6.6) of residents, such as their community life, health and safety life (Uysal, et al.,2012), material life, emotional life and social life (Kim et al.,2013), work life and leisure life (Franche & Gaudreau, 2016) because its effects alter residents’ life domains (Ivlevs, 2017). Tourism’s influence on residents’ life domains could also affect residents’ SWL and their support for tourism development in their destination (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011).

Based on the background in the introduction, the following concepts in relation to this chapter will be discussed under separate headings. These include theories relating to SWL, life domains, SWB and SWL, and residents’ support further tourism development. The layout
of this chapter is portrayed in Figure 3.1 below, which will be followed by a discussion on theories related to SWL.

![Diagram of Chapter 3 layout](image)

**Figure 3.1: Layout of Chapter 3**

### 3.2 Theories related to SWL

In order to measure SWL, various theories can be utilised (Newman, Tay, & Diener, 2014). This section will examine various theories that can be used to measure SWL. These theories will be approached in various contexts and then narrowed down to tourism. These include the telic theories, the activity theory, the pleasure and pain theory, the associational theory and the bottom-up spill-over theory. These theories will be discussed below.

#### 3.2.1 Telic theory

A telic theory (also known as an end-state theory) postulates that SWL is gained when an individual attains a certain goal, fulfils a particular desire and gets a particular need fulfilled (Bibi, Chaudhry, & Awan, 2015; Hsieh, Chiu, Tang, & Lin, 2016; Lucas & Diener, 2008). According to the telic theory, the higher the number of goals achieved or needs fulfilled, the more SWL an individual gains (Stones, Kozma, McNeil, & Worobetz, 2011). In addition, an individual has to be engaged in a goal-oriented activity to gain SWL. For example, if an individual is in need of a job, he or she must be looking for a job in order to find one (Eryilmaz, 2012). Furthermore, within the tourism context, it has been used to
measure the SWL and travel motivation for a group of elderly tourists in South Korea (Kim, 2015). A good example of a telic theory is Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, which is portrayed in Figure 3.2 below.

Figure 3.2: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs

Source: Adapted from Cherry (2014)

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (Figure 3.2) is a theory developed by Abraham Maslow, which states that an individual can gain SWL if his or her needs are satisfied (Lomas, 2015). Maslow states that human beings have five different levels of needs, which have a hierarchy of order. These consist of physiological needs (such as food and shelter), followed by safety needs (such as security of the physical body), love/belonging needs (for example, romantic relationships), esteem needs (such as confidence) and self-actualisation needs (such as
creativity) (Freitas & Leonard, 2011). The physiological, safety and belonging needs are classified as the lower needs and the esteem and the self-actualisation needs are classified as the higher needs (Idemobi, 2011). Sadri and Bowen (2011) state that the lower needs have to be satisfied first before the other needs as they are the most important, and Lester (2013) stipulates that the more an individual is satisfied with his or her lower needs, the higher levels of SWL he or she can attain.

3.2.2 Activity theory

The activity theory was developed by Robert Havighurst for the purpose of finding a formula that guarantees successful aging (Havighurst, 1963). According to the activity theory, elderly individuals gain SWL through involvement in leisure and social activities (Adams, Leibbrandt, & Moon, 2011; Michalos, 2012; Newman et al., 2014). In addition, participation in leisure and social activities would greatly benefit elderly individuals as it would provide them with rest, pleasure and good health and it would ultimately boost their SWL (Kahlbaugh, Sperandio, Carlson, & Hauselt, 2011; Sajin, Dahlan, & Ibrahim, 2016; Zhang et al., 2017). Therefore, the more time elderly individuals spend on leisure and social activities, the higher the levels of SWL that could be attained (Oerlemans, Bakker, & Veenhoven, 2011). Furthermore, the activity theory has been used to measure the SWL of elderly individuals who participated in senior Olympic games (Heo, Stebbins, Kim, & Lee, 2013).

3.2.3 Pleasure and pain theory

According to the pleasure and pain theory, one has to first go through an unpleasant experience to gain SWL (Diener, 1984). For example, an individual may gain pleasure (ultimately SWL) by facing physical or emotional pain (Lyotard, 2016) or through suffering from a certain deprivation, which would force one to fulfil the deficit thereof (Diener, 1984). A good application of the pain and pleasure theory is when individuals engage in a high risk
activity (such as contact sport) so that they can strengthen their bodies and ultimately feel
good about themselves (Pavlidis & Fullagar, 2015). Within the tourism context, the pleasure
and pain theory can be applied to tourists who visit dangerous places/places that evoke
unpleasant feelings for the purposes of gaining closure (Buda, 2015) or for sensation seeking
(Knudsen & Savener, 2016). For example, some individuals visit destinations that have been
struck by natural disasters (for example, earthquakes) to commemorate their loved ones who
died there, while others visit such destinations because they find it thrilling to visit areas that
have been ravaged by natural disasters (Biran, Liu, Li, & Eichhorn, 2014).

3.2.4 The social judgement theory

The social judgement theory of SWB, which originated from the social judgement
theory by Sherif and Hovland (Chung, Kyle, Petrick, & Absher, 2011; Sherif & Hovland,
1961), states that individuals evaluate their lives or life domains based on a particular
viewpoint or point of reference (Sirgy, 2011). For example, an individual can partake in a
certain activity with the thought that engagement in that particular type of activity can
enhance his or her SWL (Brown, Smith & Assaker, 2016). Alternately, individuals can
evaluate their satisfaction with a specific life domain (for example, community life domain)
based on a comparison with a friend’s same life domain (Sirgy, 2011). In addition, the social
judgement theory has been used to measure the SWL of athletes who perceived that
engagement in long distance running can enhance their SWL (Sato, Jordan, & Funk, 2015).
In the tourism spectrum, the theory has been used to measure the SWL of tourists who
perceived that taking part in a leisure trip can enhance their SWL (Chen, Petrick, & Shahvali,
2016).

3.2.5 The Associational theory

The Associational theory, originally developed by John Watson in 1969 (Sepponen,
2015), postulates that an individual can gain SWL if he or she has a predisposition for being
positive or associates with positive individuals (Music et al., 2013). According to the theory, it is possible for one to gain SWL if an individual is instinctively positive in nature, or if one learns to be positive about himself/herself and his or her environment and also has solid relationships with positive people and cuts out negative people from their lives (Von Humboldt, 2016). Additionally, individuals can also enhance their SWL by engaging in positive activities such as being kind and showing gratitude to others (Lyubomirsky & Layous, 2013). Furthermore, in the tourism spectrum, the theory has been used to measure the SWL of tourists who had positive/negative viewpoints about their life domains (Bucek, 2013).

3.2.6 The bottom-up spill-over theory

The bottom-up spill-over theory (BST) is a measurement of SWL that was conceptualised in the mid-‘70s by a number of positive psychology scholars (Bernini et al., 2013). According to the BST, individuals’ SWL is formed through satisfaction with life domains (c.f.3.3) and sub-life domains (Chen & Petrick, 2013; Kruger, 2012; Kuykendall, Tay, & Ng, 2015). The BST is portrayed in Figure 3.3 below.

Figure 3.3 portrays how the BST theory could be interpreted. Sub-domains, which are also known as life concerns, have an effect on an individual’s life domains. Satisfaction with sub-domains will lead an individual to gain overall satisfaction with life domains and this will lead the individual to gain SWL (Kruger, Rootenburg, & Ellis, 2013). However, an individual
Figure 3.3: The Bottom-up spill over theory

Source: Adapted from Sirgy (2002); Senasu and Singlapakdi (2017)

does not have to be satisfied with all life domains in order to gain SWL. For example, if a person highly values their community life and health and safety life and the individual is satisfied with the two life domains, the individual can gain SWL even if the individual is not satisfied with his or her other life domains (Sirgy, 2012).

Within the tourism context, the BST has been used to measure the effect of leisure travel experiences on tourists life domains and the effect of leisure travel experiences on tourists overall SWL (Sirgy, et al., 2011). In addition, it has been used to measure the effect of trip satisfaction on the leisure life domain of elderly tourists and the impact of leisure life...
satisfaction on their overall SWL (Kim, Woo, & Uysal, 2015). Furthermore, it has been used to measure the impact of tourism on the life domains of residents of tourism destinations and their overall SWL (Kim et al., 2013; Woo et al., 2015). Additionally, the BST has been used to measure the effect on destination social responsibility on the SWL of residents of tourism destinations (Su, Huang, & Huang, 2016). Moreover, the BST has been used to measure the impact of permanent and non-permanent tourism products on the SWL of residents (Rootenberg, 2012).

3.2.7 The theory utilised for this study

The theory that was utilised for this study is the BST. The BST is the best suited theory for this study as it is popular among tourism scholars as it has been used to measure the SWL of tourists (Chen & Petrick, 2013; Kim & Woo, 2014; Kruger, 2012; Kruger et al., 2013; Ponocny & Zins, 2013; Simpson, Siguaw, & Sheng, 2016) and the SWL of residents of tourism destinations (Bimonte & Faralla, 2016; Kim et al., 2013; Tokarchuk, Gabriele, & Maurer, 2016, 2017; Woo, Uysal & Sirgy, 2016). Based on its popularity, the BST was included in this study and reported on in the empirical analyses. Although the BST is popular in tourism research, life domains play an important role in measuring SWL (c.f.F.3.3) (Angelini, Bertoni, & Corazzini, 2017).

3.3 Life domains

Life domains (Figure 3.4) are simply defined as the different areas of an individual’s life (Dryman, Gardner, Weeks, & Heimberg, 2016; Epie, 2009; Paiva et al., 2009). Life domains are broad and they consist of (but they are not limited to) aspects such as academic life-, family life-, material life-, leisure life-, spiritual life-, (Smith, Case, Smith, Harwell, & Summers, 2013), culinary life- (Kruger et al., 2013), community life- (Sirgy, Widgery, Lee & Yu, 2010), emotional life- and health and safety life domains (Woo et al., 2015).
Various studies have been conducted on life domains in different fields of study. In the medical spectrum, Vallurupalli et al. (2012) found that having a strong spiritual life domain helps cancer patients who are receiving radiation therapy to cope with the disease. In addition, Alsumait et al. (2015) reveal that children who suffer from poor oral health are more likely to experience negative effects in their emotional life domain.

In the labour spectrum, Shanafelt et al. (2015) study points out the struggle that the majority of medical experts suffer from burnout due to their demanding work life domain and Naudé, Kruger, Saayman, Jonker, and Uysal (2016) study reveals that casino employees can be satisfied with their work life domains if their respective employers provide them with benefits such as bonuses. In the field of tourism, Dolnicar et al. (2012) show that taking vacations can have a positive effect on tourists’ life domains. Additionally, Andereck and Nyaupane (2011) found that tourism can have a negative or positive impact on the life domains of local residents, which then determines their attitude towards tourism.

**Figure 3.4: Life domains**

*Source: Adapted from Puczkó and Smith (2012)*

In the labour spectrum, Shanafelt et al. (2015) study points out the struggle that the majority of medical experts suffer from burnout due to their demanding work life domain and Naudé, Kruger, Saayman, Jonker, and Uysal (2016) study reveals that casino employees can be satisfied with their work life domains if their respective employers provide them with benefits such as bonuses. In the field of tourism, Dolnicar et al. (2012) show that taking vacations can have a positive effect on tourists’ life domains. Additionally, Andereck and Nyaupane (2011) found that tourism can have a negative or positive impact on the life domains of local residents, which then determines their attitude towards tourism.
Furthermore, Puczkó and Smith (2012) assert that tourists engage in excursions in order to boost their life domains. For example, Muslims would undertake a pilgrimage to Mecca in order to enhance their spiritual life domain.

The value or importance of a life domain is personal (Franche & Gaudreau, 2016; Hsieh, 2012; Milyavskaya & Koestner, 2011). Therefore, individuals put more effort into certain life domains as compared to other life domains due to passion and perceived benefits (Haase, Prapavessis, & Glynn Owens, 2013). For example, some individuals would put more effort into their work life domain as compared to their family life domain because they find their work life domain more satisfying (Hewett et al., 2017). However, Dhurup and Mahomed (2013) assert that it is important for individuals to put effort into all their life domains (see Figure 3.4 for examples), since doing so will assist them in having a balanced life (SWL).

In addition, activities or events in particular life domains can produce negative or positive effects in individuals’ lives (Chmiel, Brunner, Martin, & Schalke, 2012; Goetz, Lüdtke, Nett, Keller, & Lipnevich, 2013; Heidemeier & Staudinger, 2012). For example, pollution in a community can make residents worried about their health (López-Navarro, Llorens-Monzonís, & Tortosa-Edo, 2016). Furthermore, satisfaction in one particular life domain can have an impact on an individual’s other life domains (Kobau, Luncheon, Zack, Shegog, & Price, 2012; Martin, 2012; Wright, Fagan, & Pinchevsky, 2013). For example, community life domain satisfaction can lead to satisfaction in an individual’s safety life-, health life- and leisure life domain (Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011). Furthermore, satisfaction in life domains could lead to SWL (Casas et al., 2015; Liang, 2015; Marans, 2015).

Tourism has an influence on the lives of residents who reside in the areas where tourism occurs because it has an effect on their way of life (Lai & Hitchcock, 2017).
Therefore, tourism may have an influence on residents’ life domains (Lin, Chen, & Filieri, 2017).

3.3.1 Community life domain

The community life domain (Figure 3.4) is an aspect of an individual’s life that deals with people, resources, service provision and the ambience of the area in which the individual resides (Green & Haines, 2015). The community life domain also includes factors such as cultural diversity, living conditions, state of infrastructure and local governance in a residential area (Lee, Kim, & Phillips, 2015). All these aspects mentioned above can determine satisfaction/dissatisfaction with an individual’s community life domain (Fitz, Lyon, & Driskell, 2016). Tourism can have an influence on residents’ community life domain as it may alter the local, physical environment, community facilities and residents’ way of life (Woo et al., 2015). According to research conducted on the impact of tourism in two rural communities, it was found that tourism led to improved public infrastructure and a supply of essential services such as electricity and water and these improvements enhanced the community life domain of the local residents (Sinclair-Maragh, Gursoy, & Vieregge, 2015).

In addition, Park, Nunkoo, and Yoon’s (2015) study reveals that tourism led to the preservation of the natural environment and the restoration of traditional buildings (and this increased the ambience of the area) in a rural community and this made the residents satisfied with their community life domain. However, Jeon, Kang, and Desmarais, (2016b) note that residents of tourism destinations express dissatisfaction in their community life domain during peak tourism seasons due to traffic jams, limited parking, overcrowding in public
facilities and over use of local recreational resources. Furthermore, Lawton and Weaver (2015) study reveals that tourists’ disruptive behaviour had a negative impact on residents’ community life domain. Based on the aspects mentioned above, tourism could have positive or negative effects on residents’ community life domains (Rivera et al., 2016).

3.3.2 Material life domain

The material life domain (Figure 3.4) is a factor in one’s life that consists of an individual’s source of income, accumulated property, standard of living and financial security (Durand, 2015). Having a stable material life indicates that one has good health (Rathmann et al., 2015), has a good source/supply of essential amenities such as running water and electricity (Hicks et al., 2016), and it also indicates that one is living a comfortable life (Simonelli et al., 2016). Additionally, having a stable material life is a vital indicator of SWL (Diener & Tay, 2015; Greco, Skordis-Worrall, Mkandawire, & Mills, 2015; Hicks et al., 2016). Therefore, material life domain satisfaction is highly desirable for achieving SWL (Landry et al., 2016).

Due to its economic impact, tourism can have an influence on residents’ material life domain (Van der Merwe, Saayman, & Rossouw, 2015). For example, through web-based hospitality services such as Airbnb, residents are able to lease out their homes or unoccupied rooms to tourists and this enables them to earn some money and boost their income (Fang, Ye, & Law, 2016; Guttentag, 2015; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2016). In addition, Hunt, Durham, Driscoll, and Honey’s (2015) study on the impact of tourism on residents reveals that residents who worked in the tourism industry had competitive salaries, accumulated more property and had better financial security compared to the residents who did not work for the tourism industry. Therefore, their tourism employment contributed to their material life domain.
However, tourism can make local residents face financial instability due to the high costs of staying there and this leads to dissatisfaction with their material life domain (Sinclair-Maragh & Gursoy, 2015). Furthermore, Li, Hsu, and Lawton’s (2015) study on residents’ perceptions of the Shanghai expo reveals that residents faced an economic burden as prices were high during the course of the event. Therefore, tourism could have a positive or negative influence on the material life domain of residents of tourism destinations (Rivera et al., 2016).

3.3.3 Health and safety life domain

The health life and safety life domain (Figure 3.4) is a dimension of an individual’s life that concerns one’s mental and physical well-being together with their security in their environment and area of residence (Sirgy et al., 2011). The health and safety life domain is important particularly in a residential setup as poor levels of health and safety in a residential area may endanger the lives of residents who live there (Kneeshaw-Price et al., 2015). Furthermore, satisfaction in the health and safety life domain makes a valuable contribution to an individual’s SWL (Won, Lee, Forjuoh, & Ory, 2016; Woo et al., 2015).

Tourism can have an effect on resident’s health and safety life domain since its attractions and events can enhance or depreciate the health and the security of residents who stay in or nearby tourism destinations (Tichaawa, Moyo, Swart, & Mhlanga, 2015). Zhang, Ryan, and Cave’s (2016) study reveals that tourism attractions such as recreational parks and botanical gardens serve as places where local residents can exercise and get fresh air. Yu, Cole, and Chancellor (2016) study notes that tourism boosted the safety life domain of residents of a metropolitan area as it led to better policing and fire protection services.

However, Riasi and Pourmiri (2016) discovered that tourism in urban areas can lead to more waste and CO₂ emissions in the area and this can negatively impact the health and safety life domain of residents who live there. Kizielewicz and Lukovic (2015) reveal that
cruise tourism leads to a rise in criminal activities, drug abuse and alcoholism in coastal regions and this has a negative impact on the safety life domain of residents who stay in coastal regions. Therefore, tourism could have a positive and negative influence on residents’ health and safety life domains (Mathew & Sreejesh, 2017).

3.3.4 Emotional life domain

Fekete (as cited in Puczk’o & Smith, 2012) states that the emotional life domain (Figure 3.4) is facet of life that involves one’s leisure time, religion and personal values. Based on their study, Kim et al. (2013) assert that satisfaction in the emotional life domain makes a vital contribution to an individual’s overall SWL. Tourism can have an effect on the emotional life domain of residents due to its impacts on their leisure life, cultural life and spiritual life (Carneiro & Eusébio, 2015). Firstly, Li and Wan’s (2017) study reveals that residents are in favour of tourism festivals and events since they provide them with more recreational opportunities, which contribute to their emotional life domain.

Secondly, Sinclair-Maragh and Gursoy (2015) study found that residents of island nations are happy with tourism as it has led to the preservation of local culture and their way of life, which led to the enhancement of their emotional life domain. However, Zaidan (2016) discovered that tourism can actually lead to the impudence of local culture by tourists and local cultural erosion due to residents duplicating the way of life of tourists and this has a negative impact on residents’ emotional life domain. Furthermore, Sharma and Gursoy (2015) study shows that not all residents who stay in/nearby tourism destinations get to make use of recreational facilities at tourism destinations, as some tourism destinations charge steep entry fees/tickets to recreational facilities. This excludes residents and leaves them with no nearby recreation facility, which then has a negative impact on their emotional life domain. Therefore, tourism could have a positive and negative influence on residents’ emotional life domain (Woo et al., 2015).
The following section will be a review of SWL. In order for one to understand SWL, it is important for one to understand SWB. On that note, SWB will be discussed first.

3.4 Subjective well-being and satisfaction with life

Subjective well-being (SWB) is a psychological phenomenon that is attributed to an American Psychologist, Ed Diener (Busseri & Sadava, 2011). SWB is a subset of psychological well-being (Diener, Pressman, Hunter & Delgadillo-Chase, 2017), which is an optimal balance of life and it is made up of life evaluations, fulfilment of needs and obtaining life’s purpose (Boehm & Kubzansky, 2012). SWB is defined as a personal evaluation made by individuals regarding the state of their lives (Axford, Jodrell, & Hobbs, 2014), including their affections towards events that have occurred in their lives (Diener et al., 2017). On the other hand, SWB can also be defined as a way in which individuals think of themselves (Zhao, Li, Heath & Shryane, 2017) and it is regarded as happiness by social scientists (Binder & Coad, 2011; Casas, 2011; McCabe & Johnson, 2013). SWB is also known as a component of well-being that deals with the fulfilment of human needs (Tian, Liu, Liu, Kong, & Liu, 2017), and SWB is regarded as a concept that encompasses one’s perceptions of their lives based on life circumstances, emotions derived from life events and satisfaction with their higher and lower needs (Ranjan & George, 2016; Sirgy, 2012).

SWB has two components, which are affective well-being and cognitive well-being. Affective well-being is an aspect of SWB that deals with individuals’ emotions (Fors & Kulin, 2016). Affective well-being has two components, which are positive and negative affect. Positive affect includes positive emotions such as joy and hope, and negative affect includes negative emotions such as hatred and fear (Powdthavee, 2015). Furthermore, Sirgy (2012) asserts that affective well-being is subdivided into long-term affective well-being and short-term affective well-being. Long-term affective well-being is a state in which an individual’s affect is derived from personal characteristics, while short-term affective well-
being is a state in which affect is deduced from an individual’s circumstances. Long-term affective well-being (as compared to short-term affective well-being) is the one that determines the SWB of an individual. Cognitive well-being, better known as satisfaction with life (Engel & Bless, 2017), will be elaborated on in the next section.

Satisfaction with life (SWL) is a component of SWB and it is defined as a general overview of an individual’s life (Luhmann & Hennecke, 2017). This general overview is based on the state of an individual’s life domains (Juengst et al., 2015) such as their work life domain (Mafini, Surujlal, & Dhurup, 2012), family life domain (Callaghan, 2016), and community life domain (Mathew & Sreejesh, 2017). SWL is also defined as an analysis done by individuals to see whether the current state of their lives correlates with their aspirations (Coccia & Darling, 2017). Furthermore, Yildiz (2017) states that personality traits such as introversion and extroversion have a role in determining an individual’s SWL. Additionally, Ellis and Peach (2017) assert that SWL is a temporary judgement as it is bound to change due to differing life circumstances. SWL is a personal judgement; individuals may have similar life circumstances, but they may have different levels of SWL (Sunmola, Alarape, & Olusegun, 2016; Wei, Liao, Ku & Shaffer, 2011). For example, two people may be thriving in their work, community, spiritual, family and health and safety life domains, however, they may have different levels of SWL due to their different personalities (Wortman & Lucas, 2016).

In addition, SWL is used as a social indicator by countries around the world (Casas, 2011; Dolan, Layard, & Metcalfe, 2011; Helliwell, Layard, & Sachs, 2014) and Sunmola et al. (2016) argue that obtaining SWL is one of the most important goals for human beings as it enhances an individual’s mental and physical health, happiness and productivity. Moreover, SWL is a popular research concept (Dagli, 2017; Ebrahim et al., 2013; Inoue et al., 2017) among various academic genres as it is measured in various research settings such as social
SWL is an emerging research concept in tourism studies (Page et al., 2017; Uysal et al., 2012a; Woo et al., 2015) and it has been investigated in spheres such as tourists (Cohen, 2012; Dann, 2012; Genç, 2012), tourism employees (Naude, Kruger, & Saayman, 2013; Zhao, Qu, & Ghiselli, 2011), and residents of tourism destinations (Bimonte & Faralla, 2016; Hanafiah et al., 2016; Mathew & Sreejesh, 2017). For the purposes of this study, the author will focus on research that has been done on the SWL of residents of tourism destinations.

### 3.4.1 SWL and residents of tourism destinations

Bakri and Jaafar (2015) study examined the effect of tourism impacts on the SWL of residents. By looking at the effect of tourism impacts on residents’ emotional life-, community life-, material life and health and safety life domains, it was concluded that tourism had a positive influence on residents SWL as it could improve the lives of residents. Similarly, Aref (2011b) conducted a study to investigate the influence of tourism on the SWL of residents by measuring tourism impacts on residents health and safety life-, emotional life-, community life- and material life domains. The results revealed that tourism has a positive influence on residents’ SWL, particularly on residents’ emotional life-, community life- and their material life domains.

Khizindar (2012) also conducted a study to measure the effect of tourism on residents’ SWL by measuring tourism’s economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts on residents’ material life domain, community life domain, emotional life domain and health and safety life domain. It was found that tourism’s social, cultural and environmental impacts had a positive effect on residents’ SWL, while the economic impacts of tourism had a negative impact on residents’ SWL due to its negative impacts such as inflation and seasonal
employment. Nawijn and Mitas (2012) undertook a study to see whether tourism impacts had a positive or a negative influence on residents’ SWL by measuring the impacts of tourism on residents’ health and safety life-, family life-, community life- and material life domains. It was found that tourism has a positive influence on residents’ SWL, particularly on their health and safety life- and community life domains.

Aman, Manap, Ismail, Kudus, and Rahmiati (2013) study looked at the influence of tourism’s economic, environmental, social and cultural impacts on residents’ SWL. The results of the study revealed that tourism has a positive effect on residents’ SWL, particularly its economic, social and cultural impacts. Jaafar, Ismail, and Rasoolimanesh (2015) study specifically looked at the social impacts of tourism on residents’ SWL by assessing residents’ perceptions of tourism on their community life-, family life and emotional life domains. It was found that tourism positively contributed to residents’ SWL, more particularly on residents’ emotional life domain.

Lin et al. (2017) conducted a study to see whether the impacts of tourism on residents’ SWL had an effect on residents’ willingness to participate in the tourism industry. By measuring residents’ perceptions of tourism impacts on their material life- and their emotional life domain, together with their SWL and their willingness to participate in the tourism industry, Lin et al. found that tourism impacts have a positive effect on residents’ SWL, and that influences residents to willingly participate in the tourism industry. Therefore, residents are more willing to participate in the tourism industry if it makes a positive contribution to their SWL.

Kaplanidou et al. (2013) study looked at the impact of tourism events on residents’ SWL and residents’ support for tourism events by measuring the impact of a tourism event on residents’ community life-, emotional life- and material life domains. The results revealed
that tourism events do have a positive impact on residents’ SWL and indicated residents’ support for hosting tourism events in their area. Jeon et al. (2016b) conducted a study to see whether tourism impacts caused differences on residents’ SWL during peak season and off season. The results showed that tourism impacts lowered residents SWL during peak season as compared to off peak season because tourism has a great deal of negative impacts on residents’ life domains during its peak season due factors such as overcrowding and overuse of community recreational resources.

In the following section, factors dealing resident’s support for tourism development will be discussed.

3.5 Residents’ support for further tourism development

Tourism is known as one of the fastest and largest industries worldwide (Meyer & Meyer, 2015; Ohlan, 2017; Omerzel, 2015) and it is regarded as an important sector for developing countries (Gugushvili, Salukvadze, & Salukvadze, 2017; Rogerson, 2012; Sanches-Pereira et al., 2017). This is so since tourism creates jobs and brings foreign currency (Alam & Paramati, 2017), it diversifies the local economy (Ferreira, 2015) and it improves the welfare of the residents who stay in an area where it occurs (Zaei & Zaei, 2013). Therefore, further tourism development is an appropriate step for developing countries that are already engaged in tourism, since it can help to stimulate its respective economies and reduce poverty (Shaaban, Ramzy, & Sharabassy, 2013).

However, further tourism development without residents’ support is unsustainable (Almeida-García et al., 2016; Hanafiah et al., 2013; Song, Pratt, & Wang, 2017). This is so since residents are the owners/managers of the socio-cultural and environmental resources at the tourism destination (Manyane, 2017). Additionally, they provide the human resources to the tourism industry together with other services and amenities such hospitality and transport.
Further tourism development may positively or negatively affect residents’ SWL (Aspinall et al., 2011; Woo et al., 2015). Therefore, it is important to know what influences residents’ support for further tourism development (Chancellor et al., 2011).

Political trust in local government is a factor that can influence residents’ support for further tourism development (Nunkoo & Gursoy, 2017). Local governments are one of the major stakeholders of the tourism industry (Jiang & Ritchie, 2017). They draft policies on how the tourism industry should operate in their respective territories (Chaperon, 2017), initiate and provide funding for tourism development (Ruhanen, 2013), and they are also responsible for the marketing of tourism (Naik & Sanjeevaiah, 2017). Therefore, if residents do trust and support their government’s plans and policies, then the residents are more likely to support further tourism development if their governments decide to develop tourism further within their respective territories (Zuo, Gursoy, & Wall, 2017).

The benefits derived from tourism can influence residents’ support for further tourism development (Lee, 2013). Tourism provides jobs and it also brings entrepreneurial opportunities for residents (Sinclair-Maragh, 2017). In addition, tourism leads to the maintenance and the new development of roads, transport services and other public infrastructure, which benefit residents (Tichaawa et al., 2015). Furthermore, tourism leads to the cleanliness of the destination and conservation of local/natural resources such as recreational parks and rivers (Taua, 2013). Moreover, tourism provides residents with more recreational opportunities (Ting, Mering, Adruce, & Memon, 2017) and it makes residents feel proud about their local area and their culture (Hermann, Du Plessis, Coetzee, & Geldenhuyys, 2012).

However, tourism does have drawbacks that can negatively impact the lives of residents (Eshliki & Kaboudi, 2017). It can increase the cost of living for residents
(Monterrubio, Osorio, & Benitez, 2018) and cause pollution, which may endanger the health of the residents and damage the environment. Additionally, tourism may degrade residents’ local culture (Sroypetch, 2016) and increase crime in the area (Frempong & Deichmann, 2017). Nevertheless, if the benefits of tourism outweigh its drawbacks, then residents are more likely to support further tourism development (Pham, 2012). The relations between residents and tourists may influence residents’ support for further tourism development (Shen, Luo, & Zhao, 2017). If residents have a good relationship with tourists, they are more likely to support further tourism development (Armenski et al., 2011).

Residents’ perception about their own community can influence residents’ support for further tourism development (Strzelecka, Boley, & Woosnam, 2017). If residents perceive their community as a place to work or earn a living, they are more likely to support further tourism development as compared to when they perceive their community as a non-industrial area (Liang & Hui, 2016). Su and Wall (2014) state that residents’ participation in tourism and knowledge about the tourism industry may influence their support for further tourism development. If residents of tourism destinations are given an opportunity to dictate on how tourism should be run within their respective communities, it may enhance their support for further tourism development. In addition, if residents have a better understanding of how tourism works and implications for their day-to-day lives, it may influence them to vouch for support for further tourism planning and development (Ismail, 2015).

The way in which tourism is managed also has an influence on residents’ support for tourism development (Qian, Sasaki, Shivakoti, & Zhang, 2016). For example, if the tourism industry is managed well, by maximising its positive impacts and minimising its negative impacts, then residents are more likely to support further tourism development (Ionela, Constantin, & Dogaru, 2015). Similarly, if the tourism industry is managed in a sustainable manner, residents are more likely to support further tourism development (Mathew &
Sreejesh, 2017). In addition, Ajay and Devasia (2017) stipulate that residents may support further tourism development as long as it does not exceed the destination’s economic, environmental and social carrying capacity. Furthermore, Aref (2011b) states that tourism’s influence on residents’ life domains may influence their support for further tourism development.

3.6 Conclusions

The objective of this chapter was to analyse literature pertaining to SWB and SWL and residents’ support for further tourism development. SWB is a psychological phenomenon founded by Ed Diener, an American psychologist. SWB is a holistic evaluation done by individuals on the state of their lives based on their emotions and their perceptions about their lives. SWL is an element of SWB, which is a cognitive evaluation of an individual’s life. SWL is an emerging research concept in tourism and a number of studies have been done on SWL and residents.

There are various theories that are used to measure SWL. These include the telic theory, the activity theory, the pleasure and pain theory, the social judgement theory, the associanistic theory and the bottom-up spill-over theory (BST). According to the BST, SWL is gained through satisfaction with life domains and sub-life domains. Life domains are defined as different aspects of an individual’s life. Examples include material life-, emotional life-, health and safety life-, and community life domains.

Research on SWL and residents of tourism destinations reveals that tourism impacts do have an effect on residents’ SWL; tourism impacts on particular life domains can determine an individual’s overall SWL and tourism impacts on resident’s SWL can determine residents’ support and willingness to participate in the tourism industry. Residents’ support for further tourism development is essential for its sustainability. The factors that influence
residents’ support for further tourism development include political trust in local
governments, benefits derived from tourism, residents’ involvement and knowledge about the
tourism industry, and the governance of the tourism industry.

In the following chapter, the empirical results of the study will be reported on,
exploring the main goal of this study “The influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’
subjective well-being” with a focus on residents in Soweto who participated in the research as
will be indicated in Chapter 4.
Chapter 4: Presentation and discussion of the empirical results

4.1 Introduction

The overall goal of the study (c.f.1.4.1) was to determine the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being. This chapter provides the empirical results of the quantitative survey conducted between Soweto residents residing close to tourism activity and further away from tourism activity between 14 October and 6 November 2017. In this case, Soweto residents will be referred to as residents of a tourism destination (c.f. 1.6.3). As no clear literature is available about the distance of residents residing close to/further away from tourism activity, the author instructed the fieldworkers to administer the questionnaire to those residents in particular who reside approximately 5≤km close to tourism activity, and 5≥km away from tourism activity (c.f. 1.6.4). The results will report on both groups’ demographic profile, how tourism affects the life domains of both groups, satisfaction with life domains, SWL, perceived value of tourism development, level of tourism development in their community and further tourism development in their community.

The empirical calculations (results) include descriptive statistics, CFA, t-test, correlations and a SEM. The SEM will depict the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being for both groups: those who reside close to tourism activity and further away from tourism activity. For ease of interpretation, the descriptive statistical results pertaining to respondents residing close to tourism activity will be reported on first followed by respondents who are residing further away from tourism activity.
4.2 Descriptive statistics of respondents residing close to tourism activity

![Pie chart showing length of stay]

**Figure 4.1: Length of stay of respondents staying close to tourism activity**

In Figure 4.1, the majority of the respondents (68%) have stayed in Soweto for more than 12 years, while the minority (15%) have stayed in Soweto for a period ranging from one to five years. Residents’ length of stay in a tourism destination could have an influence on their attitude towards tourism (Peng et al., 2016; Slabbert, 2013; Wang & Wang, 2016). The longer residents stay at a tourism destination, the stronger the attachment they have towards the area and they are highly affected by tourism (Scholtz, 2014).
Figure 4.2: Respondents who reside close to tourism activity who are employed/not employed in the tourism industry

In Figure 4.2, the majority of the respondents (64%) were not employed in the tourism industry, while the minority (36%) were employed in the tourism industry. The low rate of respondents’ employment in the tourism industry may be because tourism in Soweto is not diverse (Mashigo, 2016). Therefore, there are not many employment opportunities for residents.
Figure 4.3: Gender of respondents who reside close to tourism activity

Figure 4.3 depicts the gender of respondents who reside close to tourism activity. Fifty-four percent were male and 46% were female. The results show that more males participated in the survey than females.
Figure 4.4: Highest qualification of respondents who reside close to tourism activity

Figure 4.4 displays that the majority of the respondents have matriculated (61%) while the minority (3%) have obtained postgraduate degrees.

4.2.1 Age of respondents residing close to tourism activity

The ages of respondents residing close to tourism activity were between 13 and 55 years with an average mean age of 27 years and the standard deviation std(\(x\)) is 8.87. Therefore, the respondents who reside close to tourism activity are relatively young.
Table 4.1: How tourism affects the material life domain of respondents who reside close to tourism activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material life domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>((\bar{x}))</td>
<td>std((x))</td>
<td>Not at all affected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rates and taxes</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cost of living in your community</td>
<td><strong>3.37</strong></td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td><strong>6%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cost of basic necessities such as food, housing and</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clothing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income at your current job</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The economic security of your job</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your family income</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your additional income</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “cost of living in your community” in Table 4.1 attained the highest mean (\(\bar{x}=3.37\)). This shows that the majority of the respondent’s regard cost of living as an important value in their material life domain. Mutchler, Lyu, Xu, and Burr (2017) state that cost of living is an important factor that one has to consider when staying in an area as it has an impact on an individual’s income and living arrangements. The majority of the respondents (34%) stated that tourism affected the cost of basic commodities in their community, while the minority (6%) stated that tourism did not affect the cost of living in their community. These results indicate that tourism does increase the cost of basic necessities of residents of tourism destinations and this result is similar to research done by Jordan and Vogt (2017) and Kabote (2015).
Table 4.2: How tourism affects the community life domain of respondents who reside close to tourism activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community life domain</th>
<th>Mean (x̅)</th>
<th>Std. deviation (std(x))</th>
<th>Likert scale 1-5</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Not at all affected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The conditions of your community environment</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The people who live in your community</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The services and facilities you get in your community</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community life</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transportation</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “the conditions of your community environment” in Table 4.2 attained the highest mean (x̅ =3.50). This shows that the majority of the respondents are concerned about the conditions of their community environment. Stylidis et al. (2014) state that residents highly value the state of their community environment and its appearance. The majority of the respondents (39%) were of the view that tourism affects the conditions of their community environment. A possible explanation here could be that tourism can change the conditions of an area through congestion (Alén, Nicolau, Losada, & Domínguez, 2014), together with the ambience of an area and its hygienic conditions (Arai & Goto, 2017).

However, the minority (7%) perceived that the conditions of their community environment and the services and facilities they get in their community were entirely not all affected by tourism. These results could be attributed to the fact that these respondents may reside a bit further from tourism activity, and therefore they were not at all affected.
Table 4.3: How tourism affects the emotional life domain of respondents who reside close to tourism activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotional life domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(x̅)</td>
<td>std(x)</td>
<td>Not at all affected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure activity in your community</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure life in your community</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious services in your community</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The way culture is preserved in your community</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your spiritual life</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “leisure life in your community” in Table 4.3 obtained the highest mean (x̅ = 3.36). This shows that the leisure life of the respondents has been affected by tourism. Tourism can enhance residents’ leisure life by providing more recreational opportunities (Naudé et al., 2016). However, tourism can also disrupt residents’ leisure life by having tourists dominating their leisure facilities (Zaidan, 2016). The majority of the respondents (34%) stated that tourism had affected their leisure life in their community, while the minority (10%) indicated that tourism had not at all affected leisure activity in their community. These results are in line with literature as tourism does change the leisure landscape of an area and the leisure life of a community through activities by providing more opportunities to engage in leisure (Ziakas & Costa, 2011).
Table 4.4: How tourism affects the health and safety life domain of respondents who reside close to tourism activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health and safety life domain</th>
<th>Mean  (x̅)</th>
<th>Std. deviation  (std(x))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not at all affected</td>
<td>Not affected</td>
<td>Somewhat affected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health facilities in your area</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health service quality in your area</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water quality in your area</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air quality in your area</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental quality in your area</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental cleanliness in your community</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security in your community</td>
<td>3.54</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident rate in your community</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime rate in your community</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “crime rate in your community” in Table 4.4 obtained the highest mean (x̅=3.71) and this shows that the respondents are greatly concerned about the crime rate in their area of residence. Jurowski (2011) asserts that residents of tourism destinations do have a right to be worried about crime in their area as tourism could attract criminal activity. The majority of the respondents (37%) in Table 4.2 stated that the crime rate in their community had been “very affected” by tourism, while the minority (9%) stated the environmental quality, environmental cleanliness, safety and security in their community had not been affected by tourism at all. Soweto is an area known for crime (Runacres, 2014); therefore, tourism activity may not be the only reason for the high crime rates there. However, it has been reported that there has been a rise in criminal activity within the popular “Vilakazi”
street (Masikane, 2017), which then gives respondents who reside close to tourism activity a genuine reason to be concerned about the crime rate in their community.

Table 4.5: Respondents who reside close to tourism activity’s satisfaction with their material life domain in their community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material life domain</th>
<th>Mean (x̅)</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rates and taxes</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied 15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cost of living in your community</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>Unsatisfied 28%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cost of basic necessities such as food, housing and clothing</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>Neutral 33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income at your current job</td>
<td>2.69</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>Satisfied 19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The economic security of your job</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>Very satisfied 5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your family income</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied 12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your additional income</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>Unsatisfied 17%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statements “the cost of basic necessities such as food, housing and clothing” and “the economic security of your job” in Table 4.5 obtained the highest mean (x̅=2.93). These results indicate that respondents find the economic security of their jobs and the cost of basic necessities very important, since the economic security of their jobs guarantees their financial stability, which enables them to have income to purchase basic necessities (Bullock, Hansen, & Houston, 2018). The majority of the respondents (36%) rated neutral in terms of satisfaction with their family income. However, the minority (5%) were very satisfied with their rates and taxes, the cost of living in their community and their incomes at their current jobs.
Table 4.6: Respondents who reside close to tourism activity’s satisfaction with their community life domain in their community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community life domain</th>
<th>Mean (x̅)</th>
<th>Std. deviation (std(x))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very unsatisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The conditions of your community environment</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The people who live in your community</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The services and facilities you get in your community</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community life</td>
<td><strong>3.22</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.18</strong></td>
<td><strong>11%</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transportation</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “community life” in Table 4.6 obtained the highest mean (x̅=3.22) and this shows that the respondents highly value their community life. The majority of the respondents (33%) were satisfied with their community life, while the minority (3%) were very satisfied with the conditions of their community life. This may be because tourism activity makes an area beautiful, and improves municipality services and infrastructure (Padilla, 2015).
Table 4.7: Respondents who reside close to tourism activity’s satisfaction with their emotional life domain in their community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotional life domain</th>
<th>Mean ($\bar{x}$)</th>
<th>Std. deviation (std($\bar{x}$))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Very unsatisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure activity in your community</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure life in your community</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious services in your community</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The way culture is preserved in your community</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your spiritual life</td>
<td>3.49</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “Your spiritual life” in Table 4.7 obtained the highest mean ($\bar{x}$=3.49) and this indicates that residents have high regard for their spiritual life. The majority of the respondents (36%) were satisfied with their leisure life in their community. With nearby leisure activities such as paintball, go-karting and rock climbing provided by Outdoor Adventurers (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2018), respondents who reside close to tourism activity could be bound to be satisfied with their leisure life in their community. However, the minority were very unsatisfied with their leisure activity in their community (6%) and their spiritual life (6%). Residents’ dissatisfaction with their spiritual life may be attributed to tourism, which has the potential to disrespect residents’ spiritual ceremonies and shrines (Zaidan, 2016).
The statement “health facilities in your area” in Table 4.8 obtained the highest mean (\(\bar{x}=3.19\)). This shows that respondents value health facilities in their area as they provide key health services to the community. The majority of the respondents were satisfied with the health facilities in their area (35%). The minority (9%) were very satisfied with the environmental cleanliness in their community, while others (9%) were very unsatisfied with the health facilities in the area. Kim et al. (2013) state that tourism may lead to additional health facilities in a tourism destination, which would also benefit residents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health and safety life domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health facilities in your area</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health service quality in your area</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water quality in your area</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air quality in your area</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental quality in your area</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental cleanliness in your community</td>
<td>2.97</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security in your community</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident rate in your community</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime rate in your community</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.9: Satisfaction with Life overall as rated by respondents who reside close to tourism activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction With life domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Likert scale 1-5</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my life as a whole</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The conditions in my life are excellent</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In most ways my life is close to ideal</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So far I have gotten the important things I want in life</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.18</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>41%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, I am a happy person</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall I am satisfied with my life</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “In general, I am a happy person” in Table 4.9 obtained the highest mean (\(\bar{x} = 3.71\)). This may indicate that the respondents who reside close to tourism activity were happy with their lives. The majority of the respondents (44%) agreed that they were happy people in general, while the minority (3%) disagreed that they are happy people in general. The happiness of the majority of the respondents could be attributed to the fact that tourism has enhanced their SWL due to its influence on their life domains (Liang & Hui, 2016; Liao, So & Lam, 2016; Rivera et al., 2016).
Table 4.10: Respondents who reside close to tourism activity’s perceived value of tourism development in their community

The statement “Tourism is a good investment” in Table 4.10 obtained the highest mean (ẍ=3.87). This shows that the respondents have knowledge about tourism and the benefits it has. Rasoolimanesh, Jaafar, and Barghi (2017) assert that if residents have a favourable perception about tourism, they are more likely to support the tourism industry. The majority of the respondents (44%) strongly agreed that tourism development is important to the economic well-being of their community. However, the minority (6%) did not agree that tourism is a good investment and others (6%) strongly disagreed that tourism brings unity to their community. These findings are in line with Sharma and Gursoy (2015) observations, which state that residents perceive tourism as an important industry that can provide employment and business opportunities and enhance their lives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perceived value of tourism development</th>
<th>Mean (ẍ)</th>
<th>Std. dev. (std(x))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall, tourism development is of importance to the economic wellbeing in your community</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>9% 8% 16% 23% 44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development is a good cause</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>11% 7% 12% 30% 40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism is a good investment</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>9% 6% 14% 34% 38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism brings unity in your community</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>6% 11% 25% 31% 27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tourism development generates a sense of pride in your community</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>7% 14% 18% 30% 31%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.11: Respondents who reside close to tourism’s activity perception of level of tourism development in their community
The level of tourism development in your community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likert scale 1-5</th>
<th>Mean ((\bar{x}))</th>
<th>Std. deviation (std((x)))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The level of tourism development is very high</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The impact of tourism development in my community is positive</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The level of tourism development in my community is moderate</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I oppose tourism development in my community</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am happy about tourism development in my community</td>
<td><strong>3.52</strong></td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “I am happy about tourism development in my community” in Table 4.11 obtained the highest mean (\(\bar{x}=3.52\)). This shows that the respondents are happy about the progress of tourism development in their community. The majority of the respondents (37%) rated neutral on the notion that the level of tourism development in their community is moderate and the minority (5%) strongly disagreed that the level of tourism development is moderate. The results, as reported by the minority of the respondents, could attribute to the fact that there is still room for further tourism development in Soweto tourism, since tourism in Soweto is mainly based on cultural and historical landmarks (Scholtz & Slabbert, 2017).
Further tourism development in your community

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likert scale 1-5</th>
<th>Mean (x̅)</th>
<th>Std. deviation (std(x))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>32%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>18%</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “Further tourism development will provide jobs in our community” in Table 4.12 obtained the highest mean (x̅ = 4.10). This shows that the respondents regard unemployment as a serious predicament in their community and have hope that tourism will provide a solution. The majority of the respondents (48%) strongly agreed that further tourism development will provide jobs in their community. Nonetheless, the minority (5%) strongly disagreed that further tourism development would positively affect their community’s well-being. The results indicate that residents understand the power of tourism to transform their economic status by providing jobs, and therefore they support further tourism development (Kabote, 2015).

4.3 Demographic profile of respondents staying further away from tourism activity
Figure 4.5: Length of stay of respondents staying further away from tourism activity

In Figure 4.5, the majority of the respondents (64%) have stayed in Soweto for more than 12 years, while the rest of the respondents have stayed in Soweto for a period ranging between one and five years (18%) and six and 11 years (18%).
**Figure 4.6:**  Respondents who reside further away from tourism activity who are employed/not employed in the tourism industry

In Figure 4.6, the majority of the respondents (74%) are not employed in the tourism industry, while the minority (26%) are employed in the tourism industry. These statistics prove that the further away individuals reside from tourism activity, the smaller the chances of them being employed in the tourism industry (Kabote, 2015).

**Figure 4.7:**  Gender of respondents residing further away from tourism activity

Figure 4.7 depicts the gender of respondents who reside further away from tourism activity. Fifty-three percent of the respondents were male, and 47% were female. The results show that more males participated in the survey than females.
In Figure 4.8, the majority of the respondents (61%) have matriculated, while the minority (3%) have obtained postgraduate degrees. The results display that the majority of respondents have not obtained any post-matric qualification.

**4.3.1 Age of respondents residing further away from tourism activity**

The ages of respondents residing further away from tourism activity were between 13 and 55 years, with a mean ($\bar{x}$) average age of 28 years and the standard deviation ($std(x)$) was 9.01. Therefore, the respondents who reside further away from tourism activity are relatively young.
Table 4.13: How tourism affects the material life domain of respondents who reside further away from tourism activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Material life domain</th>
<th>Mean ((\bar{x}))</th>
<th>Std. deviation (std((x)))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rates and taxes</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cost of living in your community</td>
<td><strong>3.01</strong></td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The cost of basic necessities such as food, housing and clothing</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Income at your current job</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The economic security of your job</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your family income</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your additional income</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “the cost of living in your community” in Table 4.13 obtained the highest mean (\(\bar{x}=3.01\)). This indicates that the respondents highly regard the cost of living in their community. The majority of the respondents (30%) stated that tourism did not affect their family income. However, the minority (8%) stated that the economic security of their jobs had been “very affected” by tourism. It may be possible that the minority of the respondents have had an experience with tourism employment and they do understand that tourism employment is seasonal and unstable. Therefore, they are greatly concerned about the employment security of their jobs (Cisneros-Martínez, McCabe, & Fernández-Morales, 2018).
Table 4.14: How tourism affects the community life domain of respondents who reside further away from tourism activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Community life domain</th>
<th>Mean (x̅)</th>
<th>Std. deviation (std(x))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The conditions of your community environment</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The people who live in your community</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The services and facilities you get in your community</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community life</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public transportation</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “the conditions of your community environment” in Table 4.14 obtained the highest mean (x̅=3.26). This indicates that the respondents view the conditions of their community environment as an important factor in their lives. The majority of the respondents stipulated that: tourism had affected the conditions of their community environment (27%), tourism somewhat affected the people who live in their community (27%), and tourism had somewhat affected their community life (27%). The minority of the respondents (11%) stated that tourism had not all affected the conditions of their community environment. These results clearly indicate that tourism had brought changes to the community life domain of the respondents. According to Heo et al. (2013), tourism brings changes to the community life of residents as it brings tourists infrastructure and different amenities to an area.
Table 4.15: How tourism affects the emotional life domain of respondents who reside further away from tourism activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotional life domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><a href="#">Likert scale 1-5</a></td>
<td>(\bar{x})</td>
<td>std((x))</td>
<td>Not at all affected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure activity in your community</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure life in your community</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious services in your community</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The way culture is preserved in your community</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your spiritual life</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “leisure activity in your community” in Table 4.15 obtained the highest mean \(\bar{x}=3.13\). This shows that the respondents have high regard for leisure activity in their community. The majority of the respondents (32%) stated that tourism had affected leisure activity in their community. Deng, Andrada, and Pierskalla (2017) state that tourism provides more leisure activity in an area through the development of infrastructure such as parks and cinemas. However, the minority (8%) stated that tourism greatly affected the religious services in their community. This result is in line with literature, as tourism can violate local religious services through unscrupulous tourist behaviour (Ghadami, 2012).
Table 4.16: How tourism affects the health and safety life domain of respondents who reside further away from tourism activity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health and safety life domain</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>($\bar{x}$)</td>
<td>$std(x)$</td>
<td>Not at all affected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health facilities in your area</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health service quality in your area</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water quality in your area</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air quality in your area</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.28</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental quality in your area</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.30</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental cleanliness in your community</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security in your community</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident rate in your community</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime rate in your community</td>
<td><strong>3.45</strong></td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “crime rate in your community” in Table 4.16 obtained the highest mean ($\bar{x}$=3.45). This is an indication that the respondents are greatly concerned about the crime rate in their area. The majority of the respondents stated that: tourism had affected their safety and security in their community (29%), tourism had affected the crime rate in their community (29%), and tourism had greatly affected the crime rate in their community (29%). The minority of the respondents (12%) stipulated that tourism did not have an effect whatsoever on the crime rate in their community. As it has been previously noted, Soweto has a high crime rate (Mavhandu-Mudzusi & Sandy, 2015). Therefore, tourism cannot solely take the blame for the high crime rate in Soweto, particularly in areas that are further away from tourism activity.

Table 4.17: Respondents who reside further away from tourism activity’s satisfaction with their material life domain
The statement “the cost of living in your community” obtained the highest mean ($\bar{x} = 2.76$). This shows that the respondents highly value the cost of living in their community.

The majority of the respondents (38%) stipulated that they were not satisfied with their family income. The minority of the respondents (3%) stated that they were very satisfied with their family income.

Table 4.18: Respondents who reside further away from tourism activity’s satisfaction with their community life domain
The statement “community life” in Table 4.18 obtained the highest mean ($\bar{x}=2.99$). This shows that the respondents consider community life as important. The majority of the respondents (35%) rated neutral on satisfaction with the people who live in their community. The minority of the respondents (7%) stated that there were very satisfied with the services and facilities they get in their community.

![Table 4.19: Respondents who reside further away from tourism activity’s satisfaction with their emotional life domain](image-url)
The statement “your spiritual life” in Table 4.19 obtained the highest mean ($\bar{x} = 3.24$). This result is an indication that the respondents find their spiritual life to be an important part of their emotional life domain. Van Dierendonck (2012) states that spirituality is an essential ingredient for well-being, and is important to many individuals globally. The majority of the respondents (39%) were satisfied with the religious services in their community. The minority of the respondents were very unsatisfied with the religious services in their community (7%), while other respondents (7%) were very satisfied with the leisure activity in their community.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotional life domain</th>
<th>Mean $\bar{x}$</th>
<th>Std. deviation $std(x)$</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Likert scale 1-5</td>
<td>$\bar{x}$</td>
<td>$std(x)$</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure activity in your community</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leisure life in your community</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religious services in your community</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The way culture is preserved in your community</td>
<td>3.22</td>
<td>1.15</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your spiritual life</td>
<td>$3.24$</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.20: Respondents who reside further away from tourism activity’s satisfaction with their health and safety life domain
The statements “health facilities in your area” and “air quality in your area” in Table 4.20 both obtained the highest mean (\(\bar{x}=3.04\)). These results show that the respondents are very concerned about the health facilities and the air quality in their community. The majority of the respondents (32%) stated that they were unsatisfied with the environmental cleanliness in their community. However, the minority of the respondents (4%) reported that they were very satisfied with the environmental cleanliness in their community.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Health and safety life domain</th>
<th>Mean ((\bar{x}))</th>
<th>Std. deviation ((std(x)))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Health facilities in your area</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied: 13%  Unsatisfied: 22%  Neutral: 25%  Satisfied: 27%  Very satisfied: 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health service quality in your area</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied: 16%  Unsatisfied: 22%  Neutral: 22%  Satisfied: 29%  Very satisfied: 11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Water quality in your area</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied: 15%  Unsatisfied: 23%  Neutral: 24%  Satisfied: 26%  Very satisfied: 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air quality in your area</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied: 14%  Unsatisfied: 19%  Neutral: 28%  Satisfied: 27%  Very satisfied: 13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental quality in your area</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied: 13%  Unsatisfied: 28%  Neutral: 28%  Satisfied: 25%  Very satisfied: 6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Environmental cleanliness in your community</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied: 13%  Unsatisfied: 32%  Neutral: 26%  Satisfied: 25%  Very satisfied: 4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Safety and security in your community</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied: 15%  Unsatisfied: 31%  Neutral: 23%  Satisfied: 21%  Very satisfied: 10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accident rate in your community</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied: 13%  Unsatisfied: 30%  Neutral: 24%  Satisfied: 21%  Very satisfied: 12%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crime rate in your community</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>Very unsatisfied: 23%  Unsatisfied: 29%  Neutral: 17%  Satisfied: 21%  Very satisfied: 10%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.21: Satisfaction with life overall as rated by respondents who reside further away from tourism activity
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Satisfaction with life domain</th>
<th>Mean (\bar{x})</th>
<th>Std. deviation (std(x))</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am satisfied with my life as a whole</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The conditions in my life are excellent</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In most ways my life is close to ideal</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>So far I have gotten the important things I want in life</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In general, I am a happy person</td>
<td><strong>3.42</strong></td>
<td><strong>1.26</strong></td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall I am satisfied with my life</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The statement “In general, I am a happy person” in Table 4.21 obtained the highest mean (\(\bar{x}=3.42\)). This shows that respondents view happiness as an important entity in their lives. The majority of the respondents (36%) disagreed that the conditions in their lives are excellent. The minority of the respondents (6%) strongly agreed that they have acquired the most important things they wanted in life.

**Table 4.22:** Respondents who reside further away from tourism activity’s perceived value of tourism development in their community
The statement “tourism development is a good cause” in Table 4.22 obtained the highest mean ($\bar{x}=3.92$). This shows that the respondents do see tourism development as an important initiative. The majority of the respondents (42%) strongly agreed that tourism is a good investment. The minority, however, strongly disagreed/disagreed that tourism development is a good cause (7%). In addition, other respondents strongly disagreed that tourism development generates a sense of pride in their community (7%). The findings of the majority of the respondents are in line with Deng, McGill, Baxter, and Plaugher (2016) study, which asserts that residents do favour tourism development due to the benefits they derive from tourism.
The statement “I am happy about tourism development in my community” in Table 4.23 obtained the highest mean (\(\bar{x}=3.33\)). The result may indicate that the respondents were content about the level of tourism development in their community. The majority of the respondents (37%) strongly disagreed that the level of tourism development is very high. The minority of the respondents (8%) strongly agreed that the level of tourism development in their community is moderate. The results, based on the majority of the respondents, were expected because the respondents reside further away from tourism activity.
Table 4.24: Respondents who reside further away from tourism activity’s perception of further tourism development

The statement “further tourism development will provide jobs in our community” in Table 4.24 obtained the highest mean \(\bar{x} = 3.80\). This indicates that the respondents regard further tourism development as an important initiative. The majority of the respondents (44%) strongly agreed that further tourism development would provide jobs in their community. However, the minority of the respondents disagreed that they support further tourism development in their community (10%). Other respondents strongly agreed that further tourism development would negatively affect their community’s well-being (10%), while other respondents strongly disagreed/disagreed that further tourism development would provide jobs in their community (10%). The results, based on the majority of the respondents, correspond with literature that asserts that further tourism development could ensure job creation (Snyman, 2012; Xue, Kerstetter, & Buzinde, 2015). The following section will look at the results from the CFA, Correlations, T-test analysis and the SEM.
4.4 Confirmatory factor analysis

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) is a tool used to confirm theories regarding an existing set of variables (c.f.1.5.7). The reason for conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was that research has been previously conducted on life domains (such as community life and material life, satisfaction with life domains and SWL). Therefore, it was deemed necessary to conduct a CFA instead of an EFA (exploratory factor analysis). Additionally, a group analysis has been done to see whether statements measuring the confirmed factors were loading the same for residents who reside close to tourism activity and those who reside further away from tourism activity, and the interpretation thereof is listed in Table 4.25.

For the Cronbach alpha (test of reliability), the full dataset had been used without differentiating between residents who reside close to tourism activity and those who reside further away from tourism activity. In relation to tourism affecting life domains, none of the factors had an acceptable mean inter-item correlation except for the emotional life domain (0.40). However, the Cronbach alphas for all the life domains were deemed acceptable (c.f.1.5.7.1). In relation to satisfaction with life domains, all factors achieved acceptable reliabilities and mean inter-item correlations. In relation to perceived value of tourism development, level of tourism development in your community and further tourism development in your community attained a lower reliability, but the mean inter-item correlations fall within an acceptable range. In this case, all of the factors in Table 4.25 have an acceptable range in terms of the mean inter-item correlations and a suitable reliability.

The mean of all factors was calculated. In relation to tourism affects life domains, the factor health and safety life domain obtained the highest mean ($\bar{x}=3.26$). Kim et al. (2013) state that tourism’s socio-environmental impacts can have a negative or positive influence on the health and safety life domain of residents. On the other hand, focusing on “satisfaction with life domains”, the factor emotional life domain attained the highest mean ($\bar{x}=3.16$).
Table 4.25: Confirmatory factor analyses of confirmed factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latent variables</th>
<th>Cronbach alpha (α)</th>
<th>Mean-inter-item correlations</th>
<th>Mean &amp; standard deviation</th>
<th>Standardised Regression weights / P-values</th>
<th>Goodness of fit indices</th>
<th>Difference between fit indices of the two groups</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism affects life domains</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material life domain</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>2.97 ± 0.96</td>
<td>p≤ 0.001</td>
<td>X²/df = 2.85</td>
<td>X²/df = 2.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community life domain</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>3.23 ± 0.94</td>
<td>p≤ 0.001</td>
<td>CFI = 0.84 RMSEA =0.081</td>
<td>CFI = 0.77. RMSEA =0.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional life domain</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>2.99 ± 0.92</td>
<td>p≤ 0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td>with a confidence interval [0.075 ; 0.088]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety life domain</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>3.26 ± 0.96</td>
<td>p≤ 0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td>with a confidence interval [ 0.065 ; 0.074]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Satisfaction with life domains</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material life domain</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>2.73 ± 0.82</td>
<td>p≤ 0.001</td>
<td>X²/df =3.13</td>
<td>X²/df =2.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community life domain</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>3.04± 0.85</td>
<td>p≤ 0.001</td>
<td>CFI = 0.79 RMSEA = 0.088</td>
<td>CFI = 0.71. RMSEA = 0.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional life domain</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>3.16 ± 0.76</td>
<td>p≤ 0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td>with a confidence interval [0.081 ; 0.094]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety life domain</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>2.94 ± 0.91</td>
<td>p≤ 0.001</td>
<td></td>
<td>with a confidence interval [0.071 ; 0.080]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with life overall</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>3.17 ± 0.80</td>
<td>p≤ 0.001</td>
<td>X²/df = 4.44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Satisfaction with life domains
### Perceived value of tourism development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean (SE)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>X²/df</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perceived value of tourism development</td>
<td>3.75 ± 0.99</td>
<td>≤ 0.001</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of tourism development in your community</td>
<td>3.25 ± 0.83</td>
<td>≤ 0.001</td>
<td>2.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further tourism development in your community</td>
<td>3.62 ± 0.92</td>
<td>≤ 0.001</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Woo et al. (2015) state that the emotional life domain can be satisfied through engaging in leisure and spiritual activities. In relation to tourism development, the factor “perceived value of tourism development” obtained the highest mean ($\bar{x}$=3.75). Lee (2013) stipulates that residents’ perception of tourism development depends on what they derive from it. The $P$-value of a variable’s regression weight should be less than 0.05.
In order for it to be statistically significant (c.f.1.5.7.3). All variables contributing to the 12 confirmed factors in Table 4.25 attained a $P$-value of less than 0.001; therefore, they were all statistically significant. For both groups (resident residing further away from tourism activity and close to tourism activity), the CFA model fit statistics produced acceptable fit indices (c.f.1.5.74). Therefore, the factors could be calculated in the same manner of the data used for residents residing further away from tourism activity and residents residing closer to tourism activity. However, all the CFI indices in Table 4.25 did not obtain acceptable fit indices: Tourism affects life domains (0.84/0.77); Satisfaction with life domains (0.79/0.71); Satisfaction with life overall (0.91/0.89) and Tourism development (0.86/0.83).
4.5 Correlations

Table 4.26: Correlations* between variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latent variables</th>
<th>r-values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Tourism affects life domains</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material life domain &lt;-&gt; Community life domain</td>
<td>0.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material life domain &lt;-&gt; Emotional life domain</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety life domain &lt;-&gt; Material life domain</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community life domain &lt;-&gt; Emotional life domain</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety life domain &lt;-&gt; Community life domain</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety life domain &lt;-&gt; Emotional life domain</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Satisfaction with life domains</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material life domain &lt;-&gt; Community life domain</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material life domain &lt;-&gt; Emotional life domain</td>
<td>0.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety life domain &lt;-&gt; Material life domain</td>
<td>0.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community life domain &lt;-&gt; Emotional life domain</td>
<td>0.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety life domain &lt;-&gt; Community life domain</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety life domain &lt;-&gt; Emotional life domain</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perceived value of tourism development</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived value of tourism development &lt;-&gt; Level of tourism development</td>
<td>0.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further tourism development &lt;-&gt; Perceived value of tourism development</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Further tourism development &lt;-&gt; Level of tourism development</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*All correlations were statistically significant

Correlations refer to the relationship between variables (c.f.1.5.7.5). All the variables listed in Table 4.26 have positive relationships, large correlations and were statistically significant ($p = \leq 0.05$) (c.f.1.5.7.5). In relation to tourism affects life domains, material life
domain attained a large statistically significant correlation with community life domain and emotional life domain in Table 4.26. Kim et al. (2013) state that tourism greatly affects the community life domain, emotional life domain and the material life domain of residents when it is fully developed in a community. The health and safety life domain attained a large statistically significant correlation with material life domain, community life domain and emotional life domain in Table 4.26. Community life domain obtained a large statistically significant correlation with emotional life domain in Table 4.26. Rath, Harter, and Harter (2010) state that community life domain and emotional life domain are regarded as part of the most important life domains of an individual.

In relation to satisfaction with life domains, material life domain attained a large statistically significant correlation with community life domain and emotional life domain in Table 4.26. Health and safety life domain obtained a large statistically significant relationship with material life domain, community life domain and emotional life domain in Table 4.26. Community life domain attained a large statistically significant correlation with emotional life domain in Table 4.26. With regard to tourism development, perceived value of tourism development attained a large statistically significant correlation with level of tourism development in Table 4.26. Woo et al. (2015) stipulate that residents’ perceived value of tourism development is actually based on the level of tourism development in their area. Further tourism development obtained a large statistically significant correlation with perceived value of tourism development and level of tourism development in Table 4.26.

4.6 Independent sample T-test analysis

An independent sample T-test is a statistical technique used to compare the difference between the mean scores of two different groups (c.f. 1.5.7.6). For the purposes of this study, the T-test was used to determine whether there were any statistical significant differences
between residents who reside close to tourism activity and residents who reside further away from tourism activity. The results of the T-test analysis are presented in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27: Independent sample T-test between residents who reside close and further away from tourism activity.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>Effect size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>aClose</td>
<td></td>
<td>bFurther</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material life domain</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.26*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community life domain</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional life domain</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>0.22*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and safety life domain</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>137</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.26*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with material life</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>0.10</td>
<td>0.20*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>domain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with community life</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>domain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with emotional life</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>0.11</td>
<td>0.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>domain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with health and safety</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.02</td>
<td>0.99</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.13</td>
<td>0.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>life domain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SWL</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>3.28</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>0.28*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived value of tourism</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>1.04</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level of tourism development</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.51**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support for further tourism</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>development</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Effect sizes: *0.2 Small difference; **0.5 Medium or visible difference; ***0.8 Large difference.

(a) Residents residing close to tourism activity; (b) Residents residing further away from tourism activity.

In Table 4.27, the mean scores were higher for residents who reside close to tourism activity than for residents who reside further away from tourism activity except for the factor “perceived value of tourism development”, which had an equal mean score for both groups (x̄=3.75). All P-values in Table 4.27 were statistically significant, except (c.f.1.5.7.6) for the following factors: satisfaction with material life domain (0.10); satisfaction with emotional life domain (0.11); satisfaction with community life domain (0.27); satisfaction with emotional life domain (0.11); satisfaction with health and safety life domain (0.13) and perceived value of tourism development (0.95). Although these factors in Figure 4.27 did not achieve statistical significance, it is still important to list them, as this could differ in other study populations and
is contributing to literature. All the effect sizes in Table 4.27 were small. A medium statistically significant difference had been observed between residents who reside close to tourism activity in terms of level of tourism development (0.51) and those who reside further away from tourism development.

In terms of demographic variables, a small difference has been observed in terms of highest qualification between residents residing close to tourism activity and residents residing further away from tourism activity, since none of the effect sizes were above 0.2. However, they were all statistically significant.

4.7 Structural equation model (SEM)

SEM refers to a statistical technique used to evaluate relationships among a set of variables and to validate a theory based on sample data (c.f.1.5.7.7). For the purposes of this study, the SEM was used to determine the influence of tourism on Soweto residents’ subjective well-being through the use of the BST theory, which states that individuals can gain SWL through satisfaction with life domains (c.f.3.2.6). Figure 4.9 below demonstrates the relationships of the different variables and how tourism influences the SWB of Soweto’s residents.
Figure 4.9: Structural equation model to determine the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residences’ SWB

Note. * Statistical significant on a 5% level of significance. (p ≤ 0.05)

All regression weights depicted in Figure 4.9 were statistically significant. The standardised regression weights for the factors are:

- tourism affects life domains β= 0.42
- SWL (β=0.51)
- perceived value of tourism development (β=0.36)

Concerning the model fit statistics of the model, chi-square divided by the degrees of freedom value of χ²/df =2.25 was yielded, which is regarded as a good fit (c.f.1.5.7.4). The CFI value of 0.91 is considered to be a borderline value as it is close to the recommended target value (c.f.1.5.7.4). The RMSEA value of 0.07
with a 90% confidence interval of 0.06 and 0.08 was deemed acceptable (c.f.1.5.7.4).

Therefore, an acceptable model fit for the 12-factor model was found, and which were
grouped into four groups in the CFA analysis (c.f.4.2.5).
In Figure 4.9, the factor tourism affects life domains had a positive statistical effect on satisfaction with life domains. Satisfaction with life domains had a positive statistical effect on perceived value of tourism development. Perceived value of tourism development then had a positive statistical effect on SWL. The results support the findings of Kim et al. (2013), Woo et al. (2015), Nawijn and Mitas (2012) and Liang and Hui (2016), who all suggest that tourism affects residents’ life domains, which makes residence satisfied or dissatisfied with their lives. This leads residents to have a positive or negative view about tourism development and ultimately having an increased or decreased SWL. Therefore, the results of the SEM analysis validate the BST, which states that SWB (known as SWL in this study) is gained through satisfaction with various life domains (Chen & Petrick, 2013). In addition, the results prove that tourism’s effect on residents SWL has an impact on residents’ support for further tourism development (Aman et al., 2013; Guo, Kim, & Chen, 2014; Yu et al., 2016). Furthermore, the results concur with Butler’s TALC model, which suggests that residents are more likely to support further tourism development due to the benefits that they derive from tourism (Uysal, Woo, & Singal, 2012).

4.8 Conclusion

The purpose of the chapter was to present and discuss the empirical results of the study, which determine the influence of tourism on Soweto resident’s subjective well-being. The empirical results also explore the differences between residents who reside close to tourism activity and residents who reside further away from tourism activity. Various forms of statistical analyses were done, and these include descriptive statistics, CFA, independent sample T-test, correlations and a SEM.

In terms of descriptive statistics, the respondents of the study were analysed in terms of: demographic characteristics; perception of tourism’s impacts on life domains; satisfaction
with life domains; overall SWL; and perceived value of tourism development. The results reveal that there were no great differences between residents who reside close to tourism activity and those who reside further away from tourism activity. However, residents who reside close to tourism activity have more jobs in the tourism industry, are more satisfied with their community life and they have more SWL as compared to residents who reside further away from tourism activity. Moreover, both groups are in favour of further tourism development.

In terms of CFA results, there was no differentiation between residents who reside close to tourism activity and those who reside further away from tourism activity. All factors had an acceptable range of mean inter-item correlations and a suitable reliability. All factors were statistically significant and produced acceptable fit indices. Regarding correlations, the listed variables had positive relationships, large correlations and were all statistically significant. Concerning the independent sample T-test analysis, all effect sizes between both groups were small. This indicates that there is no significant difference between residents who reside close to tourism activity and residents who reside far from tourism activity.

Regarding the SEM, all factors were statistically significant and the model produced an acceptable model fit. Furthermore, the model denotes that tourism has an influence on residents’ life domains, which then has an impact on their satisfaction with their life domains, their SWL and their perception on tourism development. Based on the results above, the goal of the study has been reached. Therefore, it is fitting to make conclusions, recommendations, contributions and limitations based on the literature review and empirical results in the following chapter.
Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations

5.1 Introduction

The main goal of this study was to determine the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being (c.f.1.4.1). In order to ensure that the goal of the study is reached, various objectives were set (c.f.1.4.2). These objectives were addressed in Chapters 2, 3 and 4, and Table 5.1 displays the objectives and the chapters in which the objectives were addressed.

Table 5.1: Review of objectives formulated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives (c.f.1.42)</th>
<th>Chapter</th>
<th>Headings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective 1:</strong> To analyse communities from a sociological perspective with specific reference to social tourism concepts.</td>
<td><strong>Chapter 2</strong></td>
<td>The social exchange theory (c.f.2.3.1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Doxey’s Irridex model (c.f.2.3.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>The tourism area lifecycle model (c.f.2.3.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Butler’s model of intercultural perception (c.f.2.3.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Objective 2:</strong> To analyse literature pertaining to subjective well-being, SWL as well as residents’ support for further tourism development.</td>
<td><strong>Chapter 3</strong></td>
<td>Theories related to SWL (c.f.3.2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Subjective well-being and satisfaction with life (c.f.3.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Residents’ support for further tourism development (c.f. 3.5)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Objective 3:** To do a comparison of residents residing close to tourism activity and residents residing further away from tourism activity in Soweto in order to see which group has better SWL (SWB). Furthermore, to discuss the results of the empirical study with a focus on the main goal: to determine the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being.

**Chapter 4**

- Descriptive statistics of respondents residing close to tourism activity (c.f.4.2)
- Descriptive statistics of respondents staying further away from tourism activity (c.f.4.3)
- Confirmatory factor analysis (c.f.4.4)
- Independent sample T-test analysis (c.f.4.5)
- Structural equation model (SEM) (c.f.4.6)

**Objective 4:** To draw general conclusions, contributions, limitations of the study, and to make recommendations that will be directed to key role-players in the tourism industry as well as community leaders in Soweto.

**Chapter 5**

- Conclusions drawn from literature review (c.f.5.3)
- Conclusions drawn from empirical results (c.f.5.4)
- Contributions (c.f.5.5)
- Recommendations (c.f.5.6)
- Limitations (c.f.5.7)

Therefore, having addressed the main objectives of this study in the preceding chapters, the main aim of this chapter is to draw conclusions from the literature review and the empirical results regarding the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being. In addition, the purpose is also make recommendations to the relevant stakeholders involved in the Soweto tourism industry and also to present contributions and limitations.
5.2 My personal journey with tourism and subjective well-being

As an individual, I just love helping people. Nothing thrills me more as compared to having the opportunity to make a positive difference in people’s lives. During the course of my Tourism undergraduate studies, I was glad to know that tourism not only caters for the people who used tourism services, but also for the people who stay in environments where tourism is practised. Therefore, my bond with tourism grew stronger, and I excelled in all my modules that dealt with tourism and residents of tourism destinations.

When I enrolled for my honours in Tourism Management in 2014, I was introduced to the concepts of subjective well-being and satisfaction with life. Subjective well-being is a thorough analysis of an individual’s life, while satisfaction with life (a cognitive element of subjective well-being) is a general overview of an individual’s life. Tourism can have an influence on the subjective well-being of individuals who participate in tourism activities (tourists) and the subjective well-being of residents who reside in areas where tourism activities take place. Noting that, I was then propelled to enrol for my master’s degree and started with research on the influence of tourism on Soweto’s residents’ subjective well-being.

I aspire to continue to research in future how tourism can continually benefit host communities and to reduce the negative impacts that it has on local communities and improve their subjective well-being. Furthermore, I am also interested in lecturing Tourism at tertiary institutions as it will enable me to empower others to earn a living within the tourism industry. In doing this, I will continue to do what I love: which is to help other people.
5.3 Conclusions drawn from the literature review

The following section will cover the conclusions drawn from the literature chapters (Chapter 2 and 3).

5.3.1 Conclusions drawn from literature review in Chapter 2

The following are regarded as the main conclusions regarding Objective 1 (c.f.1.4.2)

- Sociology is a study of human relations (c.f.2.1).
- Tourism is a form of sociology as it facilitates interaction between individuals of different communities, cultures and nations (c.f.2.1).
• Residents refer to a group of individuals who stay in a geographical location for a long period of time or on a permanent basis (c.f.2.2).

• Within the context of tourism, residents are people who stay within or nearby tourism destinations. Due to their proximity to tourism activity, residents are the main recipients of the impacts of the tourism activity (c.f.2.2).

• Residents play various roles within the tourism industry. These roles include: being the labour force, being custodians of natural resources at the tourism destination and also managing the tourism industry (c.f.2.2).

• Factors that can inhibit residents’ participation in tourism include a lack of education, lack of investment in tourism and the negative impacts of tourism (c.f.2.2).

• Forces that inhibit residents’ participation include local government and the private sector (c.f.2.2).

• Residents play an important role in tourism and all barriers that prohibit their participation must be addressed (c.f.2.2).

• Residents’ attitudes towards tourism are influenced by tourism impacts, their demographic profiles, their knowledge about tourism and the management of tourism in their community (c.f.2.2.1).

• It is essential for tourism managers to know and understand residents’ attitudes towards tourism as their attitudes determine their willingness to support tourism, which is essential for its sustainability (c.f.2.21).

• The relationship between residents and tourism can be examined through the use of social tourism concepts (c.f.2.3).

• The social exchange theory is a theory that assists in determining residents’ relationship with tourism (c.f.2.3.1).
• According to the social exchange theory, residents’ support for or attitude towards tourism is based on the benefits they derive from tourism (c.f.2.3.1).

• According to Doxey’s Irridex model, residents’ attitudes towards tourism change as the level of tourism development progresses in their local community through four different stages (c.f.2.3.2).

• Doxey’s model reveals that excessive tourism development brings more negative impacts of tourism and this causes residents to resent tourism (c.f.2.3.2).

• Closely related to Doxey’s model, Butler’s tourism area lifecycle model discloses that further tourism development, which is not managed properly, can cause residents to have a negative attitude towards tourism (c.f.2.3.3).

• According to Butler, the more the destination deteriorates due to tourism, the more the relationship between residents and tourism deteriorates (c.f. 2.3.3).

• Butler also suggests that residents are more likely to support further tourism development if tourism development is still in its early stages and if residents perceive its benefits (c.f. 2.3.3).

• Butler’s model of intercultural perception (MOIP) reveals that residents react differently towards tourism (c.f.2.3.4).

• According to the MOIP, residents can react positively and negatively towards tourism in a passive or aggressive manner (c.f.2.3.4).

5.3.2 Conclusions drawn from literature review in Chapter 3

The following are regarded as the main conclusions regarding Objective 2 (c.f.1.4.2)

• Subjective well-being (SWB) is a method used to assess the quality of an individual’s life (c.f.3.1).
- SWB is made up of two components, which are affecting well-being and satisfaction with life (SWL) (c.f.3.1).
- SWL is a cognitive element of SWB, which is an overall evaluation of an individual’s life (c.f.3.1).
- SWL is a growing research concept in tourism research (c.f.3.1).
- SWL can be measured by various theories such as the telic theories, the activity theory, the pleasure and pain theory, the associanistic theory and the bottom-up spill-over theory (c.f.3.2).
- Telic theories stipulate that individuals can gain SWL after achieving a certain goal. An example of a telic theory is Maslow’s hierarchy of needs (c.f.3.2.1).
- According to the activity theory, elderly individuals can gain SWL if they engage in leisure activities (c.f.3.2.2).
- The pleasure and pain theory postulates that an individual has to go through an unpleasant experience in order to gain SWL (c.f.3.2.3).
- According to the social judgement theory, an individual’s SWL is based on comparisons with another individuals or a particular view point (c.f.3.2.4).
- The associanistic theory postulates that an individual can gain SWL if he or she associates with positive people or has a predisposition of being positive (c.f.3.2.5).
- According to the bottom-up spill-over theory (BST), SWL is gained through satisfaction with life domains and sub-life domains (c.f.3.2.6).
- The BST was utilised as a theory for this study due to its popularity in tourism research (c.f.3.2.7).
• Life domains are defined as different aspects of life. They include material life, community life, emotional life and health and safety life domains (c.f.3.3).

• The value of a life domain is personal. Certain activities or events can produce negative or positive affect in an individual’s life, and these can have an effect on an individual’s overall SWL (c.f.3.3).

• Tourism may have an influence on the life domains of residents of tourism destinations (c.f.3.3); particularly on their community life domain (c.f.3.3.1), material life domain (c.f.3.3.2), health and safety life domain (c.f.3.3.3) and their emotional life domain (c.f.3.3.4).

• SWL is a temporary judgement of life as it may change due to different life circumstances and personality traits have a role in determining an individual’s SWL (c.f.3.4).

• Obtaining SWL is important as it enhances physical and mental health, happiness and productivity (c.f.3.4).

• SWL is also used as a social indicator by many countries around the world (c.f.3.4).

• As a growing research concept in the field of tourism, various scholars have looked at the effect of tourism on residents’ SWL and they have found that tourism may have a positive and negative influence on residents’ SWL (c.f.3.4.1).

• Residents’ support for further tourism development is determined by: political trust in local government; benefits derived from tourism; relationship with tourists; perception about their community; participation in tourism and the management of the tourism industry (c.f.3.5).
5.4 Conclusions drawn from empirical results in Chapter 4

The following are regarded as the main conclusions regarding Objective 3 (c.f. 1.4.2)

5.4.1 Conclusions drawn from the demographic profile of respondents

Table 5.2 summarises the key findings from the demographic profile of respondents who reside close to tourism activity and further away from tourism activity.

Table 5.2: Demographic profile of respondents (c.f. 4.2/4.3)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic profile</th>
<th>Close to tourism activity</th>
<th>Away from tourism activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Length of stay</td>
<td>68% ≥ 12 years</td>
<td>64% ≥ 12 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employment in tourism industry</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Male: 54%; Female 46%</td>
<td>Male: 53%; Female: 47%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest qualification</td>
<td>Matric: 61%</td>
<td>Matric: 61%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average age</td>
<td>27 years</td>
<td>28 years</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5.2 shows that the majority of both groups of respondents have stayed in Soweto for more than 12 years. Table 5.2 also shows that respondents who reside close to tourism activity have more jobs in tourism as compared to residents who reside further away from tourism activity. Table 5.2 also reveals that the majority of both groups of respondents were male and have obtained a matric qualification. However, there is a slight difference in the average age between respondents who reside close to tourism activity and respondents who reside further away from tourism activity in Table 5.2.

5.4.2 Conclusions drawn from the descriptive results of respondents who reside close to tourism activity

- The respondents who reside close to tourism activity stated that tourism had an effect on their material life-, community life-, emotional life- and health and safety domains (c.f. 4.2).
• Tourism had affected the cost of basic commodities in their community, the conditions of their community environment, the leisure life in their community and also the crime rate in their community. (c.f.4.2).

• A minority of the respondents were satisfied with their material life domain; however, the majority of the respondents were satisfied with their community life-, emotional life- and health and safety life domains (c.f.4.2).

• The majority of the respondents were happy with their lives, and therefore they obtained SWL (c.f.4.2).

• The respondents are indifferent towards the level of tourism development in their community (c.f.4.2).

• The majority of the respondents perceive that tourism is important in their community as it will create jobs and they are in favour of further tourism development (c.f.4.2).

5.4.3 Conclusions drawn from the descriptive results of respondents who reside further away from tourism activity

• The respondents who reside further away from tourism activity stipulated that tourism had somewhat affected their material life-, community life-, emotional life and health and safety life domains (c.f.4.3).

• Specifically, tourism did not have a major impact on their material life domain, somewhat affected their community life domain, affected their emotional life domain as well as their health and safety life domain (c.f.4.3).

• The respondents were generally not satisfied with their material life domain, indifferent towards their community life domain, somewhat satisfied with their emotional life domain and unsatisfied with their health and safety life domain (c.f.4.3).
• Majority of the respondents were generally not satisfied with their lives (c.f.4.3).
• Majority of the respondents perceive that tourism is a good investment and they stipulate that tourism development is low in their community (c.f.4.3).
• The respondents are in favour of further tourism development as they believe that it will provide further jobs in their community (c.f.4.3).

5.4.4 Conclusions drawn from the confirmatory factor analysis
• The CFA was done without differentiating between residents who reside close to tourism activity and those who reside further away from tourism activity (c.f.4.4).
• All of the 12 factors had an acceptable range in terms of the mean inter-item correlations and a suitable reliability (c.f.4.4).
• All 12 factors were statistically significant and the model fit statistics produced acceptable fit indices (c.f.4.4).
• Therefore, the CFA successfully confirmed all factors (c.f.4.4).

5.4.5 Conclusions regarding correlations
• Correlations were done to determine the nature and the strength of the relationships among the confirmed factors (c.f.4.5).
• All the correlations (15 in total) among the confirmed factors were positive, large and were statistically significant (c.f.4.5).
• Therefore, the correlations reveal that the confirmed factors have statistically significant relationships among each other (c.f.4.5).

5.4.6 Conclusions regarding the independent sample T-test analysis
• The results of the independent sample T-test analysis reveal that there was no significant difference between residents who reside close to tourism activity and the residents who reside further away from tourism activity (c.f.4.6).
The results reveal that there is not much of a difference between both groups on their perception of tourism’s influence in their lives (c.f.4.6).

5.4.7 Conclusions regarding the structural equation model (SEM)

- The SEM consisted of 12 factors, which were grouped into four groups, which included residents who reside close to tourism activity and residents who reside further away from tourism activity (c.f.4.7).
- The four groups (factors) were all statistically significant and they produced an acceptable goodness of fit (c.f.4.7).
- The factors include tourism affects life domains, satisfaction with life domains, perceived value of tourism development and SWL (c.f.4.7).
- The model denotes that tourism has an impact on residents’ life domains, which then has an impact on their satisfaction with their life domains, their perception of tourism development and their SWL (c.f.4.7).
- The results of the SEM reveal that tourism does have an influence on Soweto’s residents’ SWB (SWL) (c.f.4.7).

From the conclusions drawn from the literature review (c.f.5.3.1 & 5.3.2) and empirical results (cf. 5.4.1, 5.4.2, 5.4.3, 5.4.4, 5.4.5, 5.4.6, 5.4.7), which were based on the objectives of the study (cf. 1.4.2), the main goal of the study (cf. 1.4.1) was reached. Therefore, it is fitting to make contributions (c.f.5.5), recommendations (c.f.5.6) and limitations (c.f.5.7) based on the literature review and empirical results in the following chapter.

5.5 Contributions

- The contributions of this study are set out below.
5.5.1 Practical contribution

- The study is the first of its kind within the South African context as it looks at the influence of tourism on the SWB (SWL) of residents of a township.

5.5.2 Contribution to literature

- The contribution that this study makes to literature is that no other study has been done that differentiates residents who reside close to tourism activity and residents who reside further away from tourism activity in relation to SWL.

5.5.3 Methodological contribution

- The SEM incorporates the factors of residents residing close to tourism activity and residents residing further away from tourism activity into the model.

5.6 Recommendations

The following are recommendations based on this study, as well as recommendations for future research.

5.6.1 Recommendations based on this study

- The key role-players in the Soweto tourism industry should take note of tourism’s influence on residents’ SWB and develop strategies to ensure that tourism is highly beneficial to the residents. In doing so, residents would be more satisfied with their lives and it will entice them to greatly support the established tourism industry and further tourism development.

- There is room for further tourism development in Soweto, the key role players should do investment campaigns to bring in investors so that the Soweto tourism industry grows and the residents have better lives.
The key role players in the Soweto tourism industry should develop community based tourism initiatives in Soweto in order to maximise resident’s participation in the tourism industry.

Measures should be put in order to ensure that Soweto residents get first preference in getting employed in the Soweto tourism industry.

To garner more support from residents, the key role-players in the Soweto tourism industry should educate residents about tourism, and encourage them to actively participate in running tourism enterprises in the township.

Tourism development should not be concentrated around major attractions such as the historical landmarks, but it should spread out to other parts of the township to ensure that more residents get to benefit from tourism.

5.62 Recommendations for future research

- The same study research can be done in other huge townships in South Africa to ascertain tourism’s influence on residents’ SWL.

- A comparative study can be done between residents of seasonal tourism destinations and non-seasonal tourism destinations to determine the influence of tourism on the residents’ SWL.

- Similar research can be done in other tourism destinations within Southern Africa to determine similarities and differences with the present study.

5.7 Limitations

- Due to the sampling technique that was used for this study, the empirical results are only applicable to the context of this study. Therefore, they cannot be generalised.
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Appendices