

CHAPTER 3

TOURISM DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism has been highly acclaimed as the gateway to the economic liberation of many communities, particularly in the developing world (Park & Stokowski, 2009: 905; Iorio & Wall, 2012:1440; Liu, 2006:878; Iorio & Corsale, 2010:152). This stance has been further supported by the ever-increasing flow and projections in tourist arrivals and receipts (WTTC, 2013:3; Oh, 2005:39), and the decline in traditional manufacturing industries and the subsequent re-structuring of many traditional economies (Rogerson, 2004:249). As a result, many governments have resorted to tourism for the revival of their local economies (Lepp, 2007:876; Shrestha, Stein, & Clark, 2007:978). In some instances these have yielded the desired results as tourism-led development has created jobs, increased incomes for families, and boosted the GDP of the country among others (Matarrita-Cascante, 2010:1141, Andereck, Valentine, Knopf & Vogt, 2005:1061). As an invisible export, tourism is considered to fulfill the same economic goal as any tangible goods, thereby creating wealth and enhancing the living standards of the host population (Ioannides, 2003:38).

However, parallel research has equally expressed reservations regarding the real benefits of tourism-led growth. Many governments have fallen prey to random and poorly planned tourism development without giving due consideration to the adverse environmental, socio-cultural and economic impacts on communities. This is worst in cases where the local communities were not adequately involved in the decision-making process (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004: 71). More so, tourism often competes for scarce resources, such as water, land, energy, finance, and waste management, with other critical needs such as health, education, and conservation. It follows from this that the merits should be measured against the opportunity costs (Tao & Wall, 2009:90). Iorio and Wall (2012:1440) assert that the impacts of tourism are likely to vary depending on the form it takes and the situation in which it is developed. Tourism planning is therefore not only desirable,

but an imperative if the gains from the tourism sector have to be sustained over the indefinite future. The purpose of this chapter is to analyse literature on tourism development planning and to explore the South African tourism situation in order to establish the theoretical framework and operational environment within which the Soshanguve tourism strategy will take root. The layout of this chapter is therefore as follows:

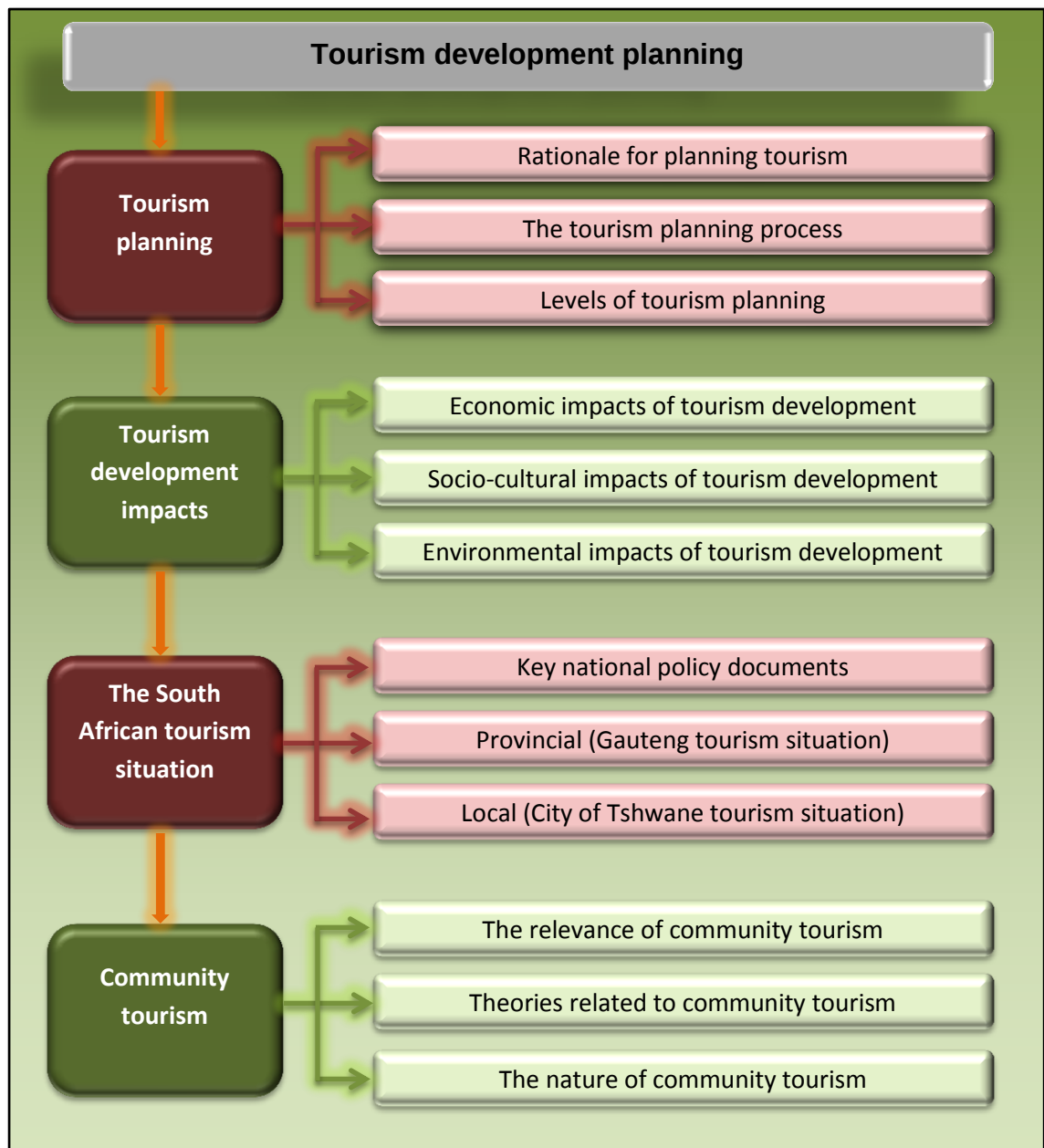


Figure 3.1: Layout for Chapter 3

3.2 RATIONALE FOR TOURISM PLANNING

Planning refers to the organising of the present in order to attain the desired future. Tourism planning seeks to provide a coordinated transition or link between the present situation at a destination for an improved future for both residents and tourists (Stokes, 2008:253; Bhatia, 2006:5). According to Najdeska and Rakicevik (2012:211) sustainable tourism development planning revolves around environmental preservation planning which should take place in order to determine the nature and direction of development. However, Spencer (2010:684) contends that tourism planning is complicated as it incorporates the views and interests of multiple stakeholders with sometimes very divergent goals. Spencer argues that failure to include the indigenous community in the planning process may have disastrous consequences. The challenge in tourism planning is further compounded by the fact that in many countries, government (and often private companies) have little experience with planning for tourism development and are reluctant to embark on this (Gupta, 2007:3). Nonetheless, Costa and Rovira (2010:232) attest to the progressive inclusion of strategic planning approaches to tourism planning which has encouraged a holistic analysis of the competitive environment resulting in greater co-ordination and co-operation among stakeholders.

Saayman (2013:318-319) asserts that tourism planning is necessary in order to:

- ✚ Cope with uncertainty;
- ✚ Increase chances for success;
- ✚ Look at different options, solutions or approaches;
- ✚ Prevent the necessity of crisis management;
- ✚ Determine success by providing a basis to evaluate;
- ✚ Increase stakeholder/staff participation;
- ✚ Control output;
- ✚ Develop a framework for decision-making;
- ✚ Create an approach of action instead of reaction;
- ✚ Remain competitive;
- ✚ Ensure quality; and
- ✚ Grow and expand.

Inskeep (1991:16) further adds that tourism development should be planned because:

- ✚ Many governments, businesses and private sector organisations have only recently embraced tourism as a business activity, hence their inexperience on how to develop it sustainably. Planning will therefore provide them with the necessary insight and guidance.
- ✚ Tourism covers a wide range of activities such as agriculture, fisheries, manufacturing, to name but a few. It is by nature fragmented as it cuts across many other economic sectors. This makes planning an imperative so that proper co-ordination and integration can be achieved.
- ✚ The tourism product is essentially a service that visitors get from using a particular facility such as accommodation or an attraction. Only proper planning and orientation will ensure that visitors are channeled towards the appropriate product or service they paid for.
- ✚ As an economic activity, tourism generates both direct and indirect benefits which can only be maximized through adequate planning and integration.
- ✚ Alongside the economic benefits are also socio-cultural advantages that accrue from tourism activity. Planning will not only optimize the benefits but equally mitigate the negative impacts of tourism.
- ✚ Prudent planning is also necessary to determine the intensity and magnitude of tourism development considering the potential environmental impacts that tourism development can have.
- ✚ The fact that all types of tourism, including sustainable tourism generate negative impacts is a cause for great concern in some areas. However, appropriate planning can help reduce these negative impacts and ensure that tourism resources last into the foreseeable future.
- ✚ Tourists' interests and tourism demand do change over time as the quest for novelty from the industry increases. Proper planning will make provision for the rejuvenation of attractions and services and ensure that out-of-demand attractions adapt to new or modern trends.
- ✚ Planning equally ensures that the required human resources are educated and trained to be competent enough to deliver the tourism product to the customers.

- ✚ Moreover, delivering the tourism product necessitates that relevant organisational structures, marketing strategies, policies and other government regulatory bodies be put in place. Only proper planning can assure the efficacy of all of these.
- ✚ Finally, tourism development involves significant public and private sector investment which must be rolled out in accordance with a detailed plan.

Apart from the specific motivations for tourism planning given above, Carvalho-Ribeiro, Lovett and O’Riordan (2010:1112) and Connell, Page and Bentley (2009:868) indicate that tourism is a vital instrument in the development of vibrant, healthy and sustainable communities and contributes to job creation, income generation and other benefits. Furthermore, tourism provides the *raison d’être* for the protection and preservation of both natural and man-made heritage thereby making it possible for tourists and community members to have access to a green and un-spoilt countryside. On the other hand, poorly planned and uncontrolled tourism development can damage both the resources on which tourism itself is dependent and destroy the special qualities that the community requires to ensure its development in general (Dredge & Jenkins, 2007:5).

In addition to this tourism planning necessitates the development or upgrade of infrastructure such as roads, water, and electricity which is shared by both tourists and local people. As a result of tourism planning and development local people are further motivated to make improvements to their property for tourists’ use, thus benefiting from the increased value (Frey & George, 2010:623).

The acknowledgment of the importance of planning for tourism development implies that due process should be followed in developing tourism. It is in this regard that the next section deals with the tourism planning process.

3.3 THE TOURISM PLANNING PROCESS

While acknowledging the plethora of literature available on the tourism development process, this study focuses on two approaches; that of the Australian government and the other proposed by the Gauteng provincial government in it

responsible tourism planning manual. This is due the relevance of both processes to this study in terms of the inclination to community development and the explicit nature of both approaches.

The ten steps to sustainable tourism (Australian government, 2004:7) elaborately explain the process of developing tourism in a sustainable manner. These ten steps (Figure 3.2) consist of finding answers to the following scenarios:

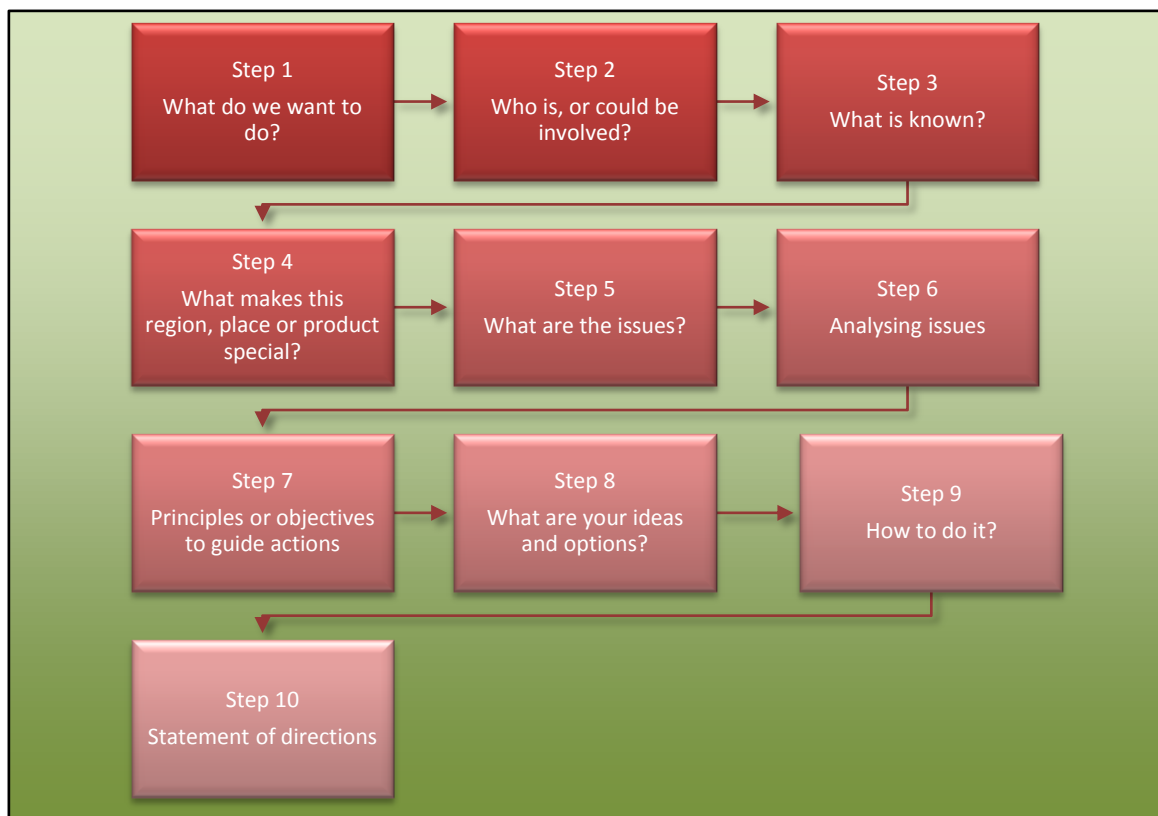


Figure 3.2: The ten steps to sustainable tourism

Source: Commonwealth of Australia (2004:7)

In view of the Australian government strategy presented in Figure 3.2 above, it is important to approach tourism development by providing answers to the basic questions regarding the “what, who” and “why” of tourism development. In other words, by answering basic questions such as “What type of tourism is to be developed, who the stakeholders or affected parties are, what challenges and opportunities exist for tourism development in the situation, etc.,” the process of developing tourism would be more relevant and practical.

Similarly, the Gauteng provincial government in its Responsible Tourism Planning Manual proposes the strategy (Figure 3.3) for the successful implementation of responsible tourism as follows:

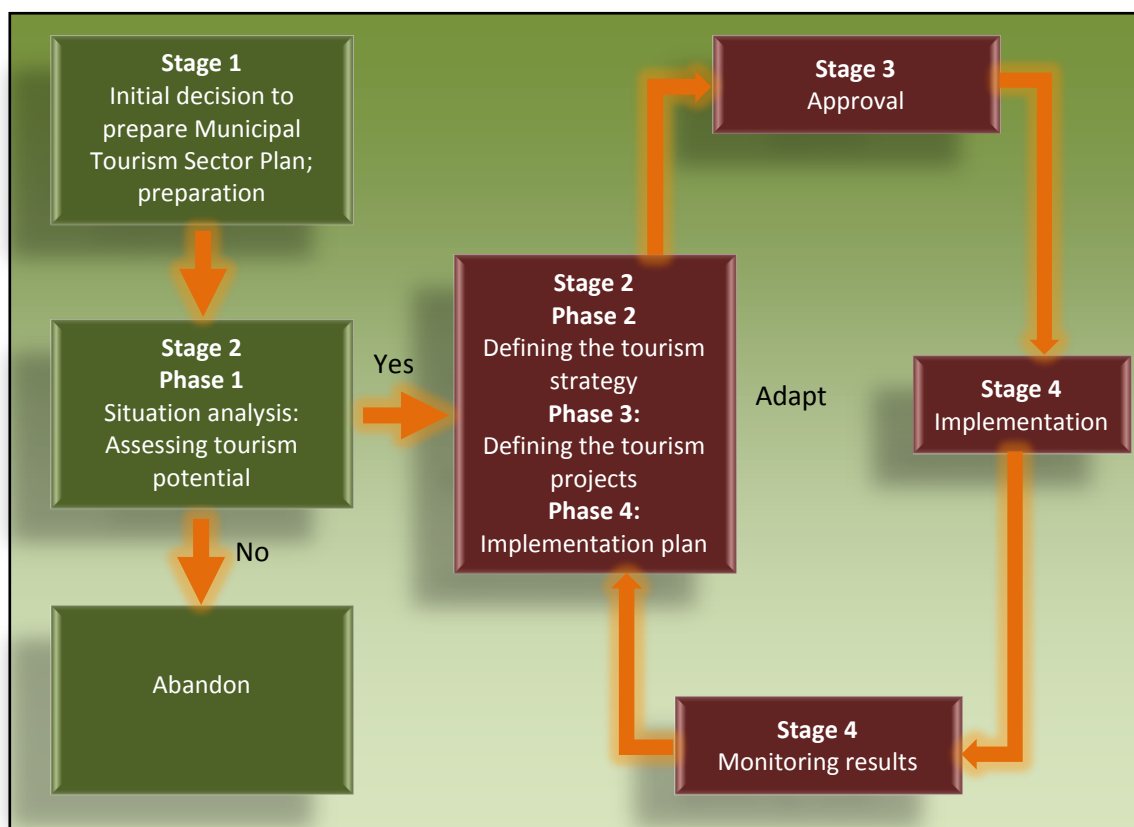


Figure 3.3: The tourism planning process

Adapted from: GTA (2006:64)

Following the process presented by the Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA), the tourism division of the Gauteng provincial government (Figure 3.3) above, the tourism development process should be initiated by the local government through the preparation of a Municipal tourism sector plan which presents a situation analysis of the destination and informs the decision to continue or discontinue with the initiative. A positive response leads to a definition of the tourism projects to be involved and the development of an implementation plan, the approval of this plan, the implementation of the plan and the monitoring of results.

Two major differences stand out between the two approaches presented above. While the one presented by the Australian government (Figure 3.2) is more

exploratory (asking questions and seeking answers), the other presented by the Gauteng Tourism Authority (Figure 3.3) is more prescriptive as everything is decided in advance. Furthermore, the Australian government strategy implies the unfolding of a consultative process involving all stakeholders, the approach adopted by the GTA shows government dictating the process. It therefore comes as no surprise that the document on the development of Soshanguve township as a unique tourism destination (GPS Architects, 2005:1) is still in the tourism division of the City of Tshwane without community leaders having any knowledge of its existence.

In conclusion, this study adopts the exploratory and consultative approach proposed by the Australian government in the empirical study and the proposed strategy for the development of sustainable community tourism in Soshanguve, while advocating strong government leadership proposed by the GTA in matters of policy and the enabling environment for tourism development.

The planning and development of tourism inevitably leads to impacts, both positive and negative. This necessitates an analysis of literature on tourism development impacts in the following section.

3.4 IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The sheer magnitude of the tourism industry as the largest and fastest growing economic sector in the world, surpassing other major industries such as mining, manufacturing and agriculture, inevitably draws attention to its impacts (Saayman, 2013:110). Fletcher *et al.* (2013:126) further add that the simultaneity of production and consumption of the tourism experience at the point where the resources are found, further compound tourism impacts and necessitate proper investigation of the industry's impacts. Hence, Keyser (2009:305) cautions that for tourism destinations to remain competitive and successful over a long period, they should be able to balance industry demands against resource sustainability. The choice of tourism as a development option should be preceded by a comprehensive analysis of its impacts on the socio-cultural, environmental and economic resources from which it draws (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:126).

3.4.1 Economic impacts of tourism development

Early studies of tourism impacts were exclusively limited to the economic sphere, not only because these impacts were easily measurable and quantifiable, but also because industry experts were anxious to illustrate that tourism provided net economic advantages to destinations (Singh, 2008:1152; McCool & Moisey, 2008:3; Holden, 2008:111). However, it soon became apparent that a more comprehensive approach to the study of tourism impacts was necessary, considering that in some cases the negative socio-cultural and environmental impacts could quite easily offset the economic gains.

Notwithstanding the potential pitfalls in tourism development, a number of economic advantages accrue from properly planned and managed tourism activities. These benefits include direct and indirect employment opportunities, foreign exchange earnings, tax revenue and the economic spin-offs that other economic sectors servicing the tourism industry usually enjoy (Lozano-Oyola *et al.* (2012:659); Coccossis (2008:8); Matarrita-Cascante (2010:1141); Angelevska-Najdeska & Rakicevik (2012:210). Furthermore, tourism's potential to re-distribute wealth, diversify the economy and exert a favourable effect on the balance of payments has enticed many governments to invest in the industry (Saayman, 2013:306; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:254).

Kwaramba *et al.* (2012:885) point to the strategic role that small, micro and medium-sized Enterprises (SMMEs) offering tourism related services have played in recent years in poverty alleviation in many communities. In recognition of this positive impact, and as a response to the United Nations' Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) to eradicate extreme poverty by 2015, the UNWTO initiated the "Sustainable Tourism as a Tool for the Elimination of Poverty" (ST-EP) programme. After its launch at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg in 2002, the UNWTO recruited a representative group of government, industry, UN specialised agencies and civil society to adopt the declaration "Harnessing Tourism for the Millennium Development Goals" in New York on 13 September 2005 (UNWTO, 2005). This declaration urged the United Nations General Assembly, governments, international and bilateral development

assistance agencies, financial institutions, private corporations, NGOs and other interested parties to recognize the potential for sustainable tourism to act as an effective tool in the realization of the MDGs. The ST-EP programme outlines seven mechanisms through which tourism can and should help alleviate poverty among people living in disadvantaged communities. These include:

- ✚ Employment of the poor in tourism enterprises;
- ✚ Supply of goods and services to tourism businesses by the poor or by enterprises employing the poor;
- ✚ Direct sales of goods and services to visitors by the poor (informal economy);
- ✚ Establishment and running of small, micro or community-based tourism enterprises or joint ventures by the poor (informal economy);
- ✚ Redistribution of proceeds from tax or charges on tourists or tourism enterprises;
- ✚ Voluntary giving and support by tourists or tourism enterprises; and
- ✚ Investment in infrastructure stimulated by tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality, directly or through support to other sectors (UNWTO, 2005).

Despite the foregoing benefits, tourism development has in some instances caused economic problems such as leakages, inflation and sacrifices that are made (opportunity costs) when developing tourism. The economic impacts of tourism development are summarized in Figure 3.3. Keyser's summary points to four specific negative economic impacts of tourism development. The first of these refers to the cost of tourism development. The cost of developing tourism infrastructure is usually exorbitant, especially considering the challenges facing many developing countries.

Inflationary commodity prices are also among some of the unintended economic consequences of tourism development. The fact that many tourists come from more affluent countries and the perception that tourists are wealthy generally prompts the temptation to charge higher prices for commodities sold to tourists. However, this tendency soon spreads across the entire economy leading to higher prices being charged to locals as well.

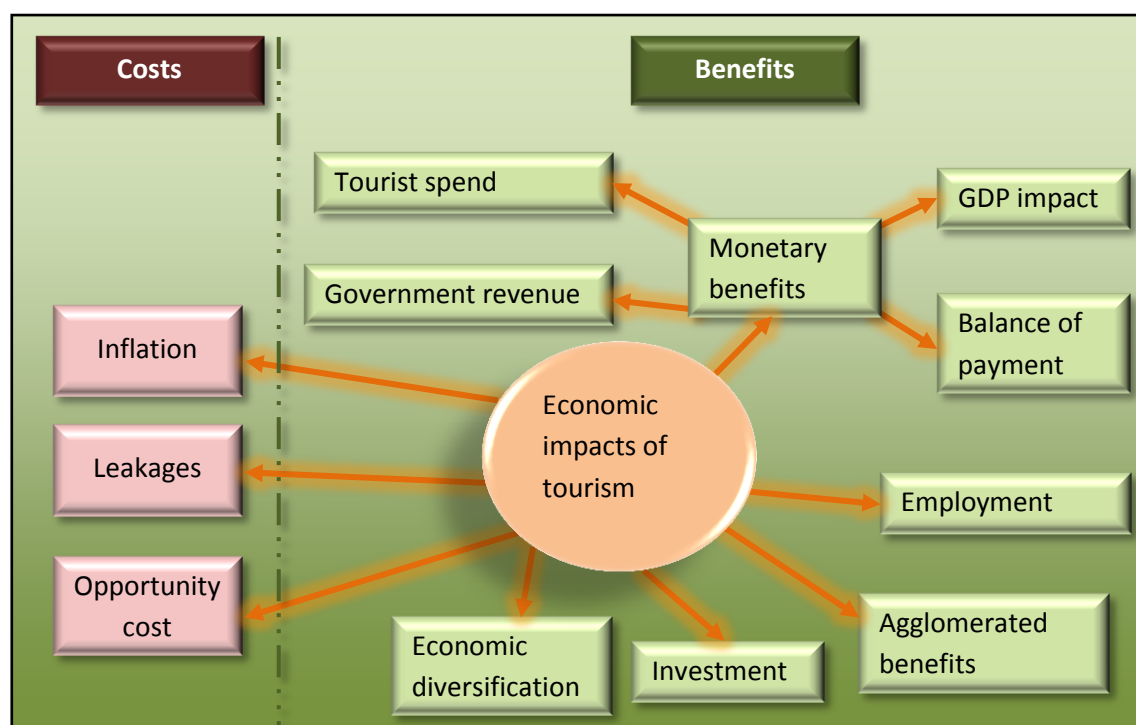


Figure 3.4: Economic impacts of tourism

Adapted from: Keyser (2009:307)

Leakages in tourism result from the importation of either goods and services or labour for tourism purposes. This leads to tourism income being used to pay for these imported things, resulting in the outward flow of this income from the local economy. Tourism development always comes at the expense of something else that could have been developed for the community or the local economy, such as hospitals, or schools. These facilities and services are therefore the opportunity costs of developing tourism. Considering the above, the next section examines the contribution of tourism to the South African economy. It is evident from Table 3.1 that there is a persistent positive trend in the contribution of tourism to the South African economy. This is encouraging for a study seeking to develop a strategy for sustainable community tourism in Soshanguve (Setshedi, 2007:21).

Table 3.1: Tourism's contribution to the South African economy

Factor	2012 ZAR bn	2012 % of total	2013 Growth (ES)	2023 ZAR bn	2023 % of total	Growth
Direct contribution to GDP	102.0	3.2	1.7	161.4	3.2	4.5
Total contribution to GDP	315.4	9.8	1.9	492.7	9.8	4.4
Direct contribution to employment	620	4.6	0.5	786	4.9	2.4

Total contribution to employment	1,400	10.3	1.1	1,750	10.9	2.1
Visitor exports	93.7	10.1	2.3	150.3	10.9	2.1
Domestic spending	127.5	4.0	0.9	197.7	3.9	4.4
Leisure spending	148.8	2.1	2.0	238.1	2.2	4.6
Business spending	72.5	1.0	0.5	109.9	1.0	4.2
Capital investment	52.1	8.3	2.0	74.9	7.6	3.5

Source: WTTC (2013:11)

However, it is interesting to observe that the percentage direct contribution of tourism to the South African GDP is projected to remain the same at 3.2% between 2012 and 2023, while the percentage direct contribution of tourism to employment is projected to increase slightly from 4.6% in 2012 to 4.9% in 2023. Based on this, a detailed cost-benefit analysis of the economic impacts of tourism can be presented as in Figure 3.5.

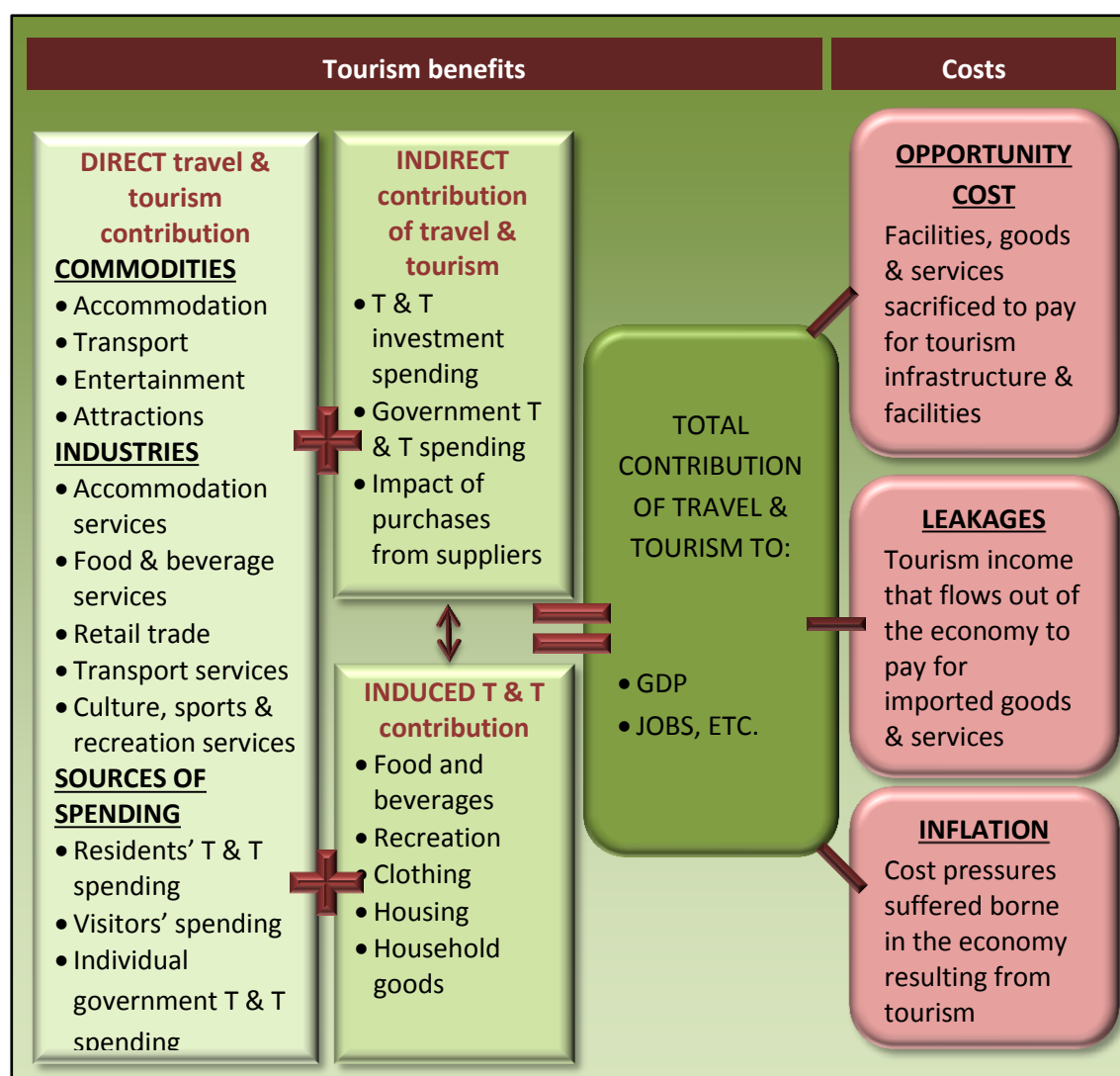


Figure 3.5: Summary of cost/benefit economic impacts of tourism

Adapted from: Saayman (2013:141) Inskeep (1991:388)

3.4.2 Socio-cultural impacts of tourism development

The fact that the tourism product is consumed where it is produced means that there will inevitably be impacts on the local society and its culture. The host-guest interaction has the potential to affect the community's basic value and logic system, individual behaviour, religious beliefs, social relationships, lifestyles, modes of expression, community structure, traditions, customs, dress code, sense of time budgeting and attitude towards strangers (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:194, Saayman, 2013:148). Keyser (2009:380-381) identifies three contact points where the host-guest interaction takes place, with the social contact taking place when tourists and locals share space on the public transport system or restaurants, the economic interaction taking place during the buying and selling of souvenirs and other commercial items and the cultural/education impacts arising from the cultural exhibitions put up by locals to entertain tourists. These social contacts between tourists and locals are characteristically short-lived, unbalanced because tourists are at leisure while local people are at work, unequal as a result of tourists being seen as living in affluence while the local people live in deprivation, and lacking spontaneity because many of the smiles and acts of goodwill have purely commercial motives. However, du Plessis (2002, as cited in Saayman, 2013:148) holds that successful tourism destinations are those where visitors experience genuine smiles and true warmth and hospitality.

3.4.2.1 Theoretical models of socio-cultural impacts of tourism

The subject of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism development has been extensively explored in tourism literature. Most of these studies have been grounded on theories such as the host-guest irritation index developed by Doxey (1975:195), the tourism area life cycle (Butler, 1980:5-12) and the social exchange theory (Ap, 1992:665). Since there is an elaboration on the social exchange theory elsewhere in this study, only the host-guest irritation index and the tourism area lifecycle will be explored here.

3.4.2.1.1 *The host-guest irritation index*

The host-guest irritation index put forth by Doxey (1975:195) suggests that as tourism development takes root in a destination, the attitude of local community residents towards tourists changes along a four-stage irritation index, following the progressive increase in tourism activity. These stages (Table 3.2) express the host community's initial excitement towards the first few tourists, then their increasing indifference as tourists numbers grow, followed by community hostility and rudeness towards tourists as the negative impacts of tourism become more apparent, and eventually obviously aggressive attitudes as tourism reaches saturation point.

Table 3.2: Host-guest relationship index

Level	Description	Characteristics
1	Euphoria	Excitement and enthusiasm in welcoming tourists
2	Apathy	Business-oriented relationship between tourists and hosts
3	Irritation	Hostility generated between hosts and visitors due to competition for scarce resources
4	Final	Saturation point in tourism development leading tourists to seek new destinations

Adapted from: Fletcher et al. (2013:206)

It is evident from the above that the relationship between tourists and the host community is unstable and manifests differently at various stages in the tourism development process. The excitement and euphoria characteristic of the initial stages of the tourism development process gradually transform into a rather passive business relationship. However, even this transactional relationship is not static as it eventually degenerates into one of hostility as the impacts of tourism development become more apparent with the two parties competing over scarce resources or complaining about various socio-cultural differences.

3.4.2.1.2 *Tourism Area Life Cycle*

The Tourism Area Life cycle (TALC) seems to mirror this sequence in the rise and fall of tourism. However, rather than focus solely on the changing attitude of the residents, Butler examined the changing stages in tourism development. Using the increasing number of tourists as a variable, Butler concludes that tourism development in a destination progresses in five stages from exploration to

involvement, development, consolidation, and finally stagnation and decline (Figure 3.6).

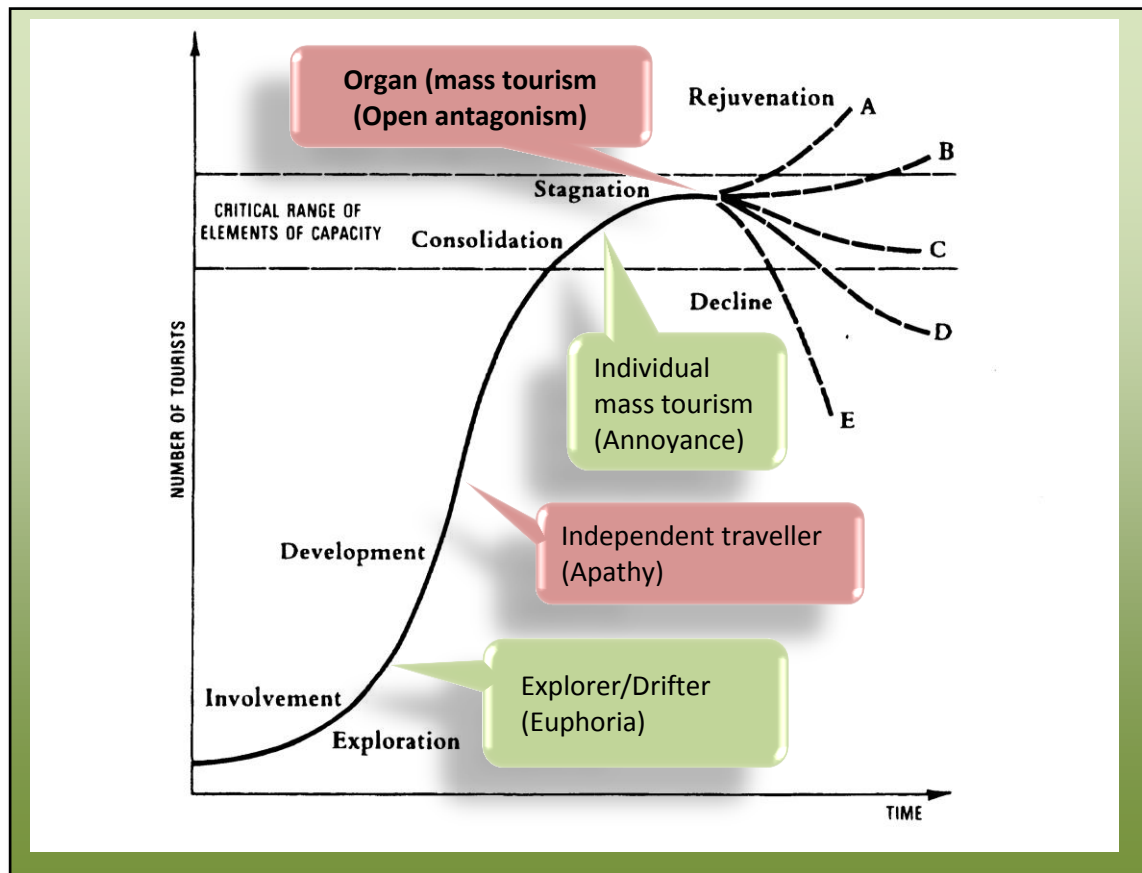


Figure 3.6: Tourism development and respondent community attitudes

Adapted from: Saayman (2013:152), Fletcher et al., (2013:207)

As illustrated in Figure 3.6 above, the exploration stage of tourism development is usually characterised by a few tourists drifting from the mainstream path to discover the new destination. The novelty of the encounter creates curiosity and admiration among the local residents who tend to welcome their new visitors (Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012:804). However, with the development of tourism and the increase in the number of tourists, the response from the residents changes to indifference (apathy) as the relationship is mainly driven by business transactions. Further changes to the guest-host relation occur as tourism development matures and eventually stagnates with the increasing number of tourists to the destination, annoyance and open hostility from the host community towards the tourists.

As earlier mentioned, the common denominator in the two theories lies in the initial rise and eventual fall in the fortunes of tourism development. If both theories were to hold true in every situation, tourism development should not be considered a reliable tool for community development as the benefits generated would dissipate and disappear over time.

However, there are obvious weaknesses in both theories considering that tourism destinations are not homogeneous, therefore neither the attitudes of communities nor the progression of tourism development in the communities (destinations) will be (Gu & Ryan, 2008:638; Zamani-Farahani & Musa, 2012:802).

In addition to this, both theories seem to ignore the influence of the social exchange theory, negating the fact that benefits that accrue to the community from tourism generate positive attitudes from residents towards tourists even as tourism development grows (Mbaiwa, 2004:165; Kim & Patrick, 2005:27).

Slabbert (2007) cited in Thetsane (2010:71) explains that various defining characteristics of the host community and the visitors have the potential to influence the attitudes of communities towards tourism development. These factors (table 3.3) will influence the intensity and level of progression of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism development.

Table 3.3: Factors influencing residents' opinions about tourism

Community/destination characteristics	Visitor/tourist characteristics
• Community attachment • Economic dependency on tourism • Distance of tourism activity / centre from residents' home • Involvement of residents • Level of knowledge • Demographic characteristics	• Type and number of tourists • Length of stay • Economic characteristics • Pace of tourism development • Ethnic / racial characteristics

Source: Thetsane (2010:72)

In other words, the progress of tourism development, community attitudes and visitor characteristics are not always as simplistic as indicated by Doxey and Butler. On the contrary, aspects such as community attachment evident in the

degree of social bonding within the community, the extent to which the community members rely on tourism for subsistence, how far removed the residents are from the centre of tourism activity, and the visitors' characteristics as seen in type and volume of visits, the duration of the visits, the value of the visits, the speed at which tourism development takes and other demographic characteristics all have an influence on the pace and intensity of community response to tourism development. Therefore the rate of transition between the various phases of tourism development, and the subsequent rate of changing community attitude towards tourists is not identical between communities or destinations, prompting the need to study the socio-cultural impacts of tourism development in each community/destination independently and giving due consideration to community specificities.

In the light of the above, tourism in Soshanguve township can be described as still in the exploration stage as a few occasional tourists stray to the Tswaing meteorite crater and return to the City of Tshwane CBD without visiting other attractions in the township. This explains the need for a strategy that would ensure that tourism development takes root and develops in a way that would mitigate adverse socio-cultural impacts in the Soshanguve community.

Coles, Fenclova and Dinan (2013:122) purport that in an attempt to further reduce the negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism development and improve host community attitudes towards tourism, there has been a significant paradigm shift towards Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) in discussions surrounding management and governance issues in tourism. Similarly, there has been persistent advocacy for greater responsibility among producers and consumers of tourism products (Frey & George, 2010:625; Mekawy, 2012:2095). While entrepreneurs, managers, employees, administrators and other tourism stakeholders are being called upon to assume greater responsibility in demonstrating positive behavioural change, the supply-side of the spectrum is particularly summoned to intensify CSR as a means of ensuring that the demand-side (clients, tourists) is welcomed with broader smiles, and seen-off with more genuine fun farewells. In this way positive socio-cultural impacts will be accentuated at the expense of negative ones such as crime, prostitution and

staged authenticity (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:201). The socio-cultural impacts of tourism development are summarised in Table 3.4 below.

Table 3.4: Summary of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism

Positive impacts	Negative impacts
Improved quality of life	Demonstration effects
Promotion of cultural exchange	Cultural tension
More economic opportunities	Disproportionate level of jobs
Creation of employment and occupational structure	Language and cultural effects
Facilitation of development	Prostitution
Facilitation of civic involvement and pride	Other moral problems such as gambling and littering
Creation of peace	Displacement of communities for tourism development
Strengthening communities	Disruption to social life

Adapted from: Thetsane (2010:76); Mason & Cheyne (2000:399-411)

In conformity with Table 3.2 above, sustainable community tourism should be geared towards improving the lives of community residents, promoting cultural exchange, strengthening communities and facilitating development in general. At the same time, efforts should be made to minimize adverse impacts such as demonstration effects, cultural tension, displacement of communities and disruptions to social life.

Furthermore, indicators should be established and monitored through the collection of primary data (Table 3.5) in order to stay current with the existing socio-cultural impact.

Table 3.5: Indicators for monitoring socio-cultural impacts of tourism

Indicators (changes in)	Primary data (collection method)	
	Survey	Observe
Crime rates/levels	X	
Prostitution		X
Drug abuse	X	
Promiscuity	X	X
Gambling	X	
Family relationships	X	
Social values	X	X
Creative expressions	X	X
Traditional ceremonies	X	X
Safety levels	X	
Health	X	
Community organisations	X	
Infrastructure	X	X
Collective lifestyles	X	X
Economic independence	X	
Population dispersion	X	
Cultural commercialisation	X	X
Host/tourist hostility	X	
Demonstration effects	X	X
Economic and social dualism	X	
Psychological stress	X	
Living standards	X	

Adapted from: Fletcher et al. (2013:217)

By closely monitoring the above and taking remedial actions, the deterioration in the host/guest relationship (Doxey) can be slowed down, if not avoided. Remedial actions would seek to accentuate positive indicators and mitigate negative indicators. Many of these indicators have been incorporated in the Soshanguve residents' empirical study in order to ascertain the community perceptions of these impacts within their community.

Closely related to the socio-cultural impacts of tourism development are the environmental impacts, as they have the potential to affect both the community and the sustainability of the tourism sector.

3.4.3 Environmental impacts of tourism development

The environment, either natural or man-made, constitutes the primary ingredient for the tourism product. The United Nations Environmental Programme (UNEP) cited in Keyser (2009:346) defines the environment as “all of the external factors, conditions, and influences which affect an organism or a community.” This comprises everything that surrounds an organism or organisms, including both natural and human-built elements. In greater detail, the National Environmental Management Act 107 of 1998 defines the environment as the surroundings within which human beings live, with examples being the land, water, atmospheric conditions, micro-organisms, plant and animal life, including the interrelationship among and between plants and animals, the physical, chemical, aesthetic and cultural properties and conditions that influence human health and well-being (p. 8, section 1(Xi)).

The strong association between tourism and the environment is compounded by the fact that the tourism product is consumed at the production point. This means that the environment is inevitably impacted upon as soon as tourism activity takes place, either during the production/consumption process, or through the process of enabling (facilitating) the consumption process (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:162). Tourism activities which impact directly on the environment include: hunting and fishing, walking on vegetation, lighting campfires, the construction of tourism superstructures, the disfiguring of ancient monuments through graffiti, improper disposal of litter and waste, and scarcity of potable fresh water due to excessive demand (Keyser, 2009:354; Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:163).

Table 3.6 illustrates the summary of environmental impacts of tourism by Myburgh and Saayman (1999) as cited by Saayman (2013:191-192):

Table 3.6: The direct impacts of tourism on the environment

1. Physical environmental components	
Geology	The removal of minerals, gemstones and fossils has an impact on the environment, as do mountain climbing and adventurers
Soil	Major impacts of tourism include the moving of topsoil, soil compacting and erosion
Water	Tourism activities largely influence the quality of water, which in turn influences aquatic life. Water pollution is also a major problem.
2. Natural vegetation	
Mechanical distortion and damage to natural vegetation	The vulnerability of plants causes a chain reaction of factors relating to the morphology of species, types of species, frequency trampling, soil moisture and type of soil
Change of species of natural vegetation	The most common problem is the removal of certain species, such as cycads and cacti, from a specific area.
Change of growth rate of plants	The frequency of recreational activities in a certain area reduces the growth rate of some plants.
Influence of rotten plant material	A micro-system develops, for instance when a branch lies on the ground, and when the wood is removed (perhaps for firewood, or for aesthetic reasons) the micro-system is destroyed.
3. Practices that influence animal life	
Intrusion and frightening of animals	Recreational activities such as motorcycling and motor boats disturb birds and animals
Trophy hunting	Trophy hunting reduces animal populations and disturbs the balance in the sensitive ecosystem
Angling	Angling reduces fish populations and disturbs the balance in the sensitive ecosystem.
Strange species in an animal population	The presence of strange species can influence the animal population and the absence of certain animals can lead to a population explosion, for instance the absence of birds of prey.
Nature conservation	Nature reserves lead to an increased animal population of certain species, which can have a negative influence on the ecology.
Influence on marine ecosystems	Activities such as angling, collecting species and developing of coastal zones impact greatly on marine ecosystems.

Source: Saayman (2013:191-192)

The above discussion of the various impacts of tourism development emphasises the importance of undertaking adequate planning before tourism is adopted as a development strategy. Hence, tourism planning takes place at every level of the political hierarchy from the international to the local government level. The following section deals with the involvement of various governing structures in tourism planning.

3.5 LEVELS OF TOURISM PLANNING

Tourism planning takes place at all administrative levels; namely international, national, regional and local government. The next section discusses the unfolding of tourism planning at these respective levels, with emphasis on the South African scenario.

3.5.1 *International level*

At the international level, the course of tourism is championed primarily by two organisations, namely the United Nations World Tourism organisation (UNWTO) and the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) (Keyser, 2009:178). While the UNWTO is the agency of the United Nations responsible for promoting responsible, sustainable and universally accessible tourism, the WTTC is the Travel and Tourism business leaders' forum with its key mandate to:

- ✚ Urge governments to recognize Travel and Tourism as a top priority;
- ✚ Balance business with economics, people, culture and the environment; and
- ✚ Pursue shared long-term growth and prosperity (WTTC, 2003)

Similarly, the UNWTO's prime mandate is to promote tourism as a pillar of economic growth, inclusive development and environmental sustainability (UNWTO, 2013). To achieve the foregoing the UNWTO has developed a global code of ethics for tourism of which the implementation should ensure the maximisation of socio-economic benefits of tourism while minimising negative impacts from the industry. Adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on 21 December 2001, the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (GCET) highlight the following:

- ✚ The contribution of tourism to mutual understanding and respect between peoples and societies;
- ✚ The role of tourism as a vehicle for individual and collective fulfillment;
- ✚ Tourism as an instrument of sustainable development;
- ✚ Tourism's use and enrichment of mankind's cultural heritage;
- ✚ Tourism's potential benefit to host countries and communities;

- ✚ The obligations of various stakeholders in tourism development;
- ✚ The rights to tourism;
- ✚ Liberty of tourists' movements;
- ✚ The rights of workers and entrepreneurs in the tourism industry; and
- ✚ The implementation of the principles of the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism (UNWTO, 2001).

The activities of the UNWTO include the promotion of competitive and sustainable tourism policies and instruments, fostering tourism education and training, making tourism an effective tool for sustainable development and the generation of market knowledge. Above all, the organ works towards enhancing the role of tourism in the attainment of the United Nations' millennium Development Goals (MDGs).

The WTTC has been lauded for its contributions to the formulation of Agenda 21 and the launch of the "Blueprint for New Tourism" which encourages governments to adopt its policy framework for developing sustainable tourism (George, 2007:153, Weaver, 2006:13).

3.5.2 National level

Many governments find tourism attractive because of the economic benefits such as job creation and income generation that accrue from the industry. However, the potential for tourism development to generate serious socio-cultural and environmental impacts might also necessitate government intervention (Connell, Page & Bentley, 2009:868; Liu, 2006:878; Frey & George, 2010:621; Frauman & Banks, 2011:128). The following functions have generally been attributed to national governments:

- ✚ Policy-making, legislation and planning;
- ✚ Co-ordination;
- ✚ Marketing strategies;
- ✚ Regulation;
- ✚ Monitoring;
- ✚ Growth facilitation;
- ✚ Infrastructure development; and

- ✚ Education/training and manpower programmes (Fletcher *et al.*, 2013:260, Keyser, 2009:158).

However, as Saayman (2013:329) points out, governments' contribution to the development of tourism has been most noticeable in the provision of legislation and policy as opposed to attempts to actively getting involved in the delivery of tourism services. This is primarily because governments have generally performed poorly in the management of profit-making businesses.

3.5.2.1 The South African tourism situation

The South African government operates on three levels, namely national, provincial and local government (Keyser, 2009:158, George, 2007:155). The relevance and activities of each sphere of government is discussed separately, starting with the national government. Saayman (2013:296) presents the South African National tourism structure as illustrated in Figure 3.7 below:

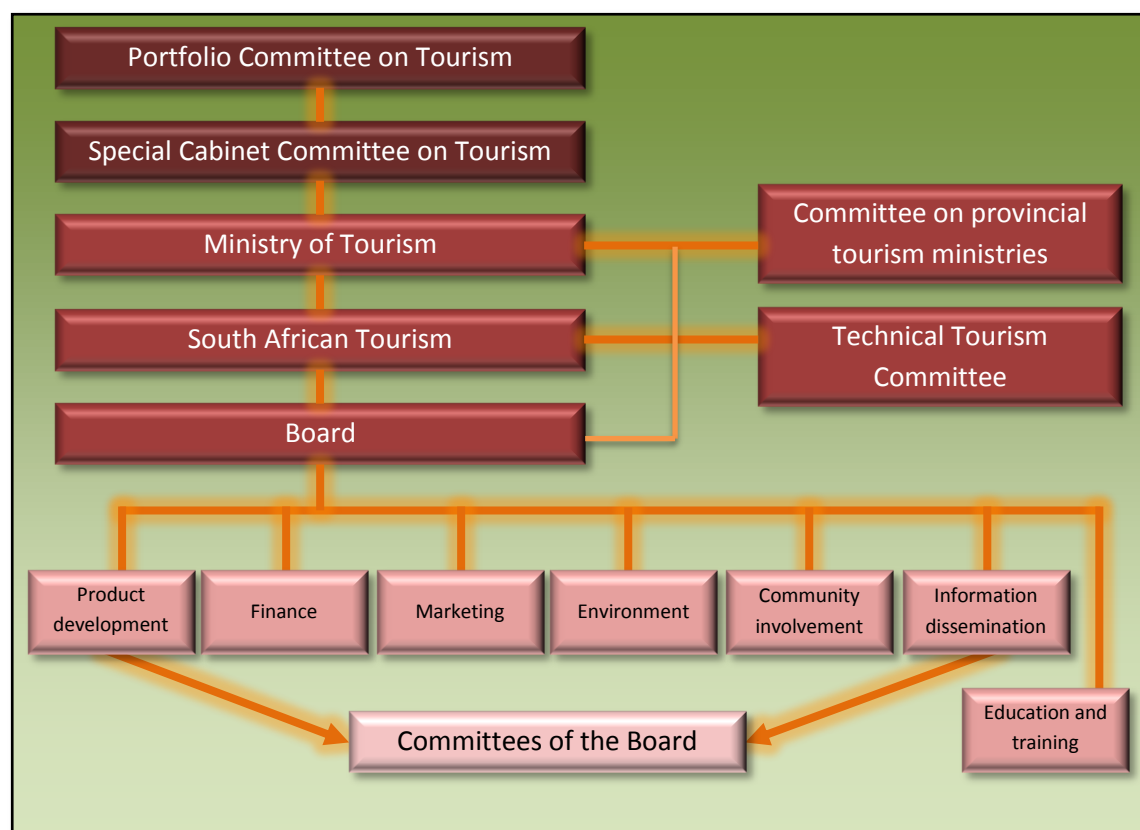


Figure 3.7: The South African National Tourism Structure

Adapted from: Saayman (2013:296)

In order to fulfill its key mandate which is the development and promotion of tourism in South Africa, the White Paper on Tourism (DEAT, 1996) attributes five key functions to the national government: growth facilitation, coordination, planning and policy making, regulating and monitoring, and marketing and promotion (Keyser, 2009:158, Saayman, 2013:296).

According to Kwaramba, Lovett, Louw and Chipumuro (2012:886), many developing countries only adopted tourism as a development strategy following pressure from external institutions, notably the World Bank and the International monetary fund (IMF) through the structural adjustment lending mechanism. This is quite ironic considering that the Tourism Action Plan (TAP) instituted by the New Partnership for Africa Development (NEPAD) recognises the enormous potential of tourism to contribute to the economic recovery of the continent (Rogerson & Visser, 2004, cited in Frey & George, 2010:622). However, on the dawn of its first democratic elections in 1994 South Africa responded promptly to the window of opportunity offered by the tourism sector by publishing the White Paper on the development and promotion of tourism in South Africa in 1996 (DEAT, 1996). Faced with the daunting task of transforming the economy and developing the country, the new government sought to tap into its highly attractive tourism industry consisting primarily of accessible wildlife, diverse cultures, beautiful scenery, among many other attractions (DEAT, 1996:1, Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004:189).

As a strategic tourism policy document, the White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism elaborately puts the case for using tourism to drive economic development in South Africa and equally outlines the path that this should take. The path of responsible tourism is emphatically chosen by South Africa based on its unique challenges and opportunities, but also considering international dynamics in the industry (DEAT, 1996:19). With the aim of driving the tourism industry towards attaining global competitiveness while playing a major role in the reconstruction and development of the country, the White Paper outlines the following principles to guide its operations:

- Developing a tourism industry that is private sector driven;

- ✚ Creating an industry in which the government provides the enabling framework while the industry prospers;
- ✚ Basing industry prosperity on effective community involvement;
- ✚ Implementing sustainable environmental practices to underpin and guide tourism development;
- ✚ Using tourism being as an instrument for the empowerment of people, particularly women in previously neglected communities;
- ✚ Prioritising cooperation with other Southern African countries in tourism development; and
- ✚ Using tourism development as a vehicle to drive the economic, social and environmental goals and policies of the government.

The South African National Development Plan (NDP) identifies high unemployment, poverty and inequality as the major challenges facing the country (NDP, 2012:25). As a solution to this scourge, the country's leaders plan to capitalise on the gains and opportunities presented by tourism and the service industry where it currently enjoys comparative advantages (Zuma, 2013:5; NDP, 2012:39). Tourism that is developed in a sustainable manner can indeed yield economic benefits such as job creation, foreign exchange earnings and invigorate other economic sectors (Simpson, 2008:3; Sebele, 2010:136; Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004:7).

The National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS) published by the Department of Tourism elaborates on the approach and strategy that the government of South Africa has in place to maximise the benefits from tourism. While recognising tourism as a “priority economic sector”, the government plans to use tourism to achieve the following specific goals:

- ✚ Create decent work and sustainable livelihoods;
- ✚ Education;
- ✚ Health;
- ✚ Rural development, food security and land reform; and
- ✚ Fight crime and corruption, and build cohesive and sustainable communities (NTSS, 2011:1).

According to the NTSS, South Africa's vision is "to be a Top 20 tourism destination in the World by 2020" from its current world ranking of number 29, and its mission "to grow a sustainable tourism economy in South Africa, with domestic, regional and international components, based on innovation, service excellence, meaningful participation and partnerships" (NTSS, 2011:11). The key values underpinning this tourism development strategy are: trust, accountability, respect for culture and heritage, responsible tourism, transparency and integrity, service excellence, upholding the values of the constitution, commitment to transformation and flexibility, and adaptation to change. More importantly, the NTSS identifies fourteen factors that will be critical in ensuring South Africa sustains its competitiveness in the tourism sector. These are:

- ✚ That the NTSS is continuously aligned with key macro technological, environmental, socio-cultural, political and economic developments and trends;
- ✚ That it is guided by a leadership that is strategic and visionary and is enjoys the support of both public and private sector stakeholder;
- ✚ That community participation and beneficiation are recognized as underlying and strategic priorities;
- ✚ That human resources and capacity building are prioritised;
- ✚ That all political and opinion leaders across the three spheres of government advocate the importance of tourism in sustainable development and job creation;
- ✚ That future product development is value and market-driven and underpinned by a culture of service excellence;
- ✚ That a powerful and distinctive destination brand (aligned across the three spheres of government) is positioned, accompanied by an innovative marketing strategy in the new market place;
- ✚ That timely reaction to new knowledge and research is used as an instrument to tourism planning, marketing and management;
- ✚ That the tourism structure from national to local level is results-driven;
- ✚ That mutually beneficial partnerships are orchestrated between stakeholder and across regions;
- ✚ That ensures sustainable competitiveness while balancing economic, social and environmental needs;

- ✚ That actively participates in a review of the air-life strategy and ensures its implementation to improve implementation and access;
- ✚ That effectively implements risk mitigation plans; and
- ✚ That strategically realigns target markets with the changing market landscape to balance the portfolios (NTSS, 2011:66-67).

The NTSS recognises the important role that key stakeholders have to play in the delivery of the South African tourism strategy. These stakeholders are presented in Figure 3.8.



Figure 3.8: Role players in the South African Tourism Industry

Adapted from: NTSS (2011:70-73)

3.5.3 Provincial level

The role of the provincial government regarding the development and promotion of tourism in South Africa is equally critical. This is because, aligned with national policies, the provincial government has the responsibility to formulate policies that will guide the development and promotion of tourism in their respective provinces (Saayman, 2013:298). In executing this function, the Gauteng Responsible Tourism Planning Manual (RTPM) prescribes that the provincial government

should adopt a hands-on approach to tourism development through working with the local communities, involving environmental managers, ensuring the safety and security of visitors and providing the necessary infrastructure (GTA, 2006:27). The following structure (Figure 3.9) oversees the fulfillment of this mandate:

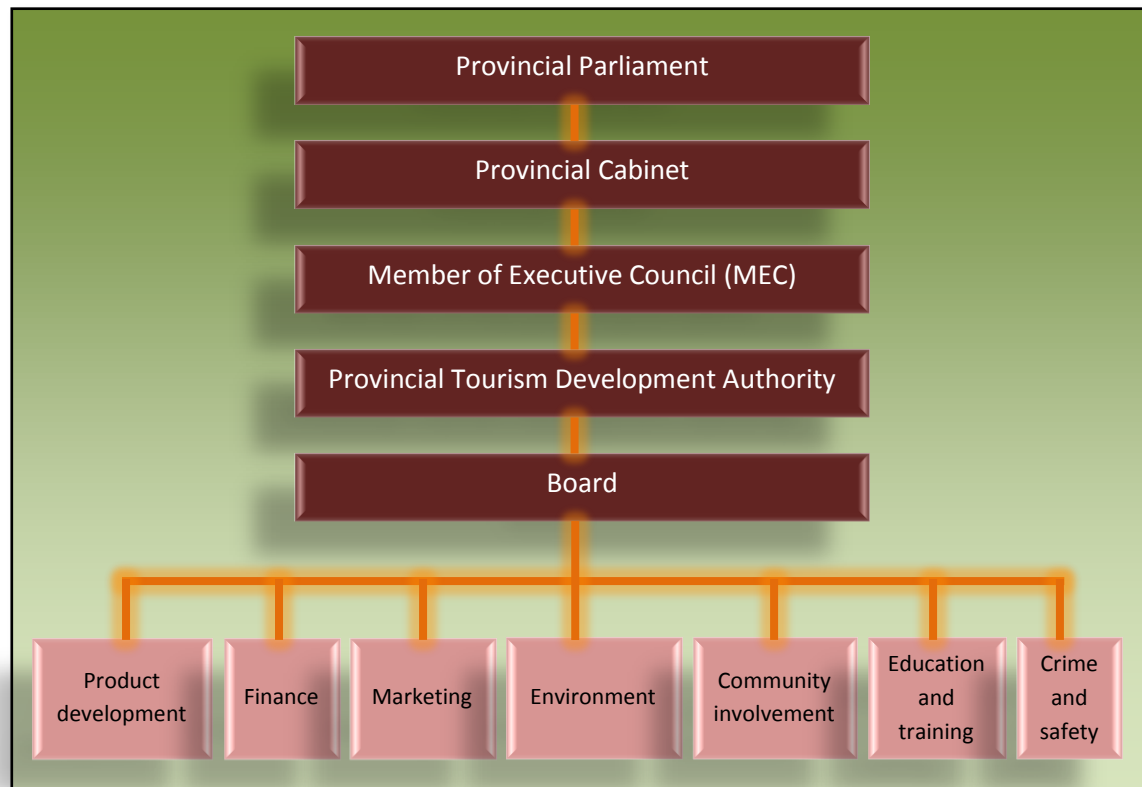


Figure 3.9: The provincial tourism structure

Source: Saayman (2013:298)

The White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa further emphasises the role of provinces in tourism by indicating that their proximity to the destinations and attractions means they will be more effective in facilitating and developing the tourism product, and also in promoting and marketing the product (DEAT, 1996:47). The following section focusses on Gauteng province, since this is the region where the site of the present study is located, falling under the jurisdiction of Tshwane Municipality.

In accordance with and in order to exercise its constitutional mandate with regard to tourism development, management and promotion in the province, the Gauteng province promulgated the Gauteng Tourism Act (Act 10 of 2001) which created the

Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA) to oversee the execution of the tourism function in the province (GTA, 2006:27-28). The Gauteng Tourism Act (section 4) specifies the functions of the GTA as follows:

- ✚ To promote, foster and develop tourism in the province;
- ✚ To encourage the sustainable development, provision and improvement of tourist amenities;
- ✚ To establish guidelines for tourism development;
- ✚ To initiate and implement activities and actions nationally and internationally intended to attract tourists to the province;
- ✚ To develop strategic and business partnerships and other cooperative activities with tourist organisations locally and internationally;
- ✚ To coordinate, support and interact with organisations and institutions that promote and develop tourism;
- ✚ To solicit membership with, and become a member of, organisations for tourism development and marketing;
- ✚ Working in conjunction with the members of the executive council, to provide finance for any project that will develop tourism in the province;
- ✚ To function properly as a juristic person within the laws of the Republic of South Africa, possessing all the powers necessary for the authority to function as such; and
- ✚ To register tour guides in accordance with the Tourism Act (Act 72 of 1993) (GTA, 2006:29).

It is in conformity with this mandate that the strategy proposed by this study for the development of sustainable community tourism in Soshanguve advocates the strong leadership of government in the coordination of the tourism development process, overseeing the policy implementation and ensuring a favourable enabling environment.

3.5.4 Local government level

Finally, the role of the local government in the case of the Soshanguve community is exercised by the Tshwane Metropolitan municipality (Figure 3.10) which,

according to the White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa is responsible for:

- ✚ Land-use planning, urban and rural development;
- ✚ The control of land-use and land allocation;
- ✚ The provision and maintenance of tourist services, sites and attractions, and public services;
- ✚ The provision of road signs in accordance with guidelines from the national government;
- ✚ Ensuring public health and safety;
- ✚ Facilitating the participation of local communities in tourism;
- ✚ Ownership and maintenance of certain plants such as ports and airports;
- ✚ Provision of parking space;
- ✚ Facilitating the provision of public transportation services;
- ✚ Licensing establishments in accordance with the national framework; and
- ✚ The promotion and provision of assistance, including finance, for community tourism, publicity organisations, and marketing organisations; as well as to facilitate, market and coordinate other tourism initiatives. (DEAT, 1996:51-52).

The City of Tshwane (COT) Integrated Development Plan (IDP, 2011-2016) approximates the population of City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality (CTMM) at two and a half million inhabitants with a projected growth rate of 4.1 percent. The previously disadvantaged areas (townships) of Atteridgeville, Mamelodi, Olievenhoutbosch, Soshanguve, Garankuwa, Ekangala, Zithobeni, Rethabiseng, Refilwe, Onverwacht and Jakaranda Park have the highest population densities. The unemployment rate in the COT is estimated at 20 percent (COT, 2011:20-22). The geographical space of Tshwane is presented in Figure 3.10 below:

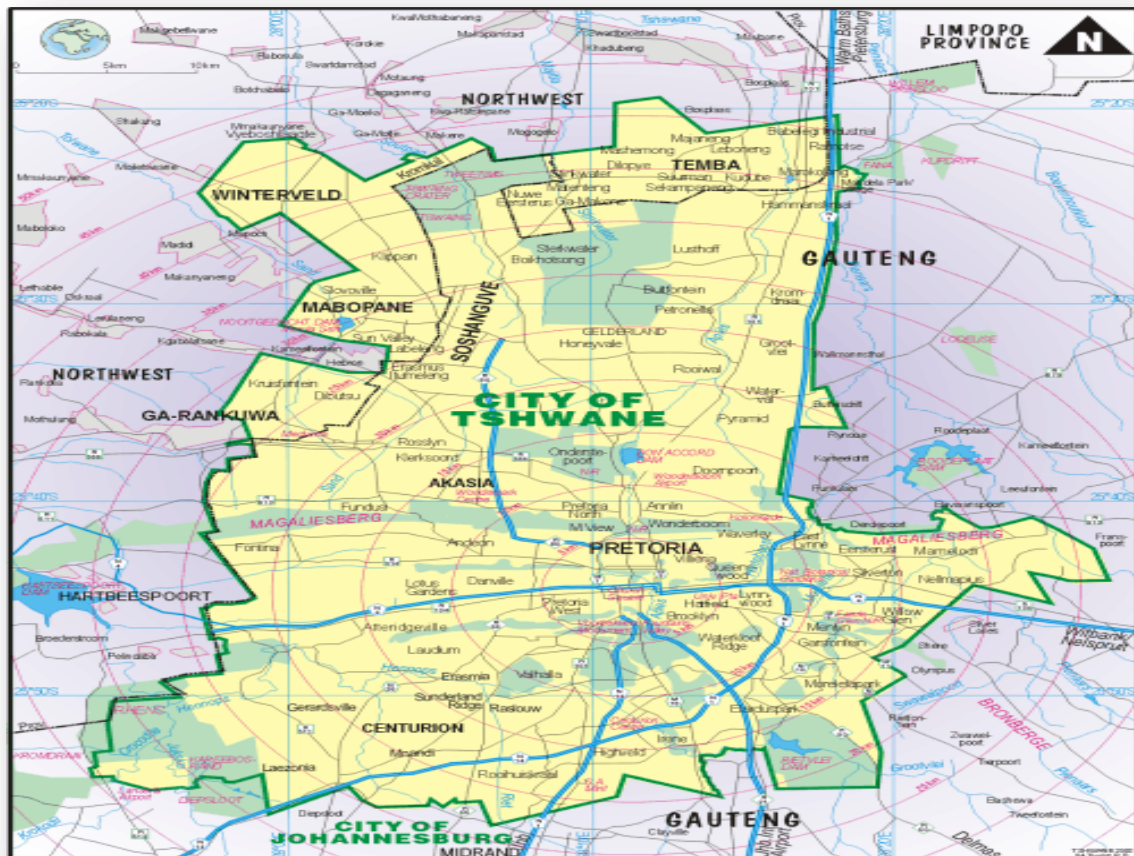


Figure 3.10: Map of the City of Tshwane Metropolitan Municipality

Source: COT (2005:14)

According to the Tshwane Metropolitan Spatial Development Framework (TMSDF) the City's vision is to be the African Capital City of Excellence with a mission of ensuring sustainable livelihoods for the residents through a system of developmental local government that delivers effective, efficient and affordable services (TMSDF, 2012:10). Being the administrative capital of South Africa, the city is endowed with a great tourism potential ranging from good infrastructure, to major tourist attractions, the seat of many foreign government representations in the country, and a significant number of tertiary and research institutions.

The draft Growth and Development Strategy for Tshwane (COT, 2005:27) indicates that the City sees a role for tourism in its development strategy. It is envisaged that tourism would be used as a tool to alleviate poverty and create jobs for poor communities. In order to achieve this, the City of Tshwane plans to:

- ❏ Improve the geographical spread of tourism activities to the poor areas;
- ❏ Improve the seasonality patterns of tourism;
- ❏ Accentuate the pro-poor tourism transformation agenda; and
- ❏ Work towards increasing the staying periods of tourists in the city.

The document further states that the tourism development strategy of the City of Tshwane will be underpinned by:

- ❏ Greater capacity building through training and community empowerment;
- ❏ Minimising the negative environmental impacts of tourism on the poor;
- ❏ Giving due attention to the socio-cultural impacts of tourism;
- ❏ Promoting local community involvement in tourism; and
- ❏ Encouraging the private sector to form pro-poor partnerships.

The Tshwane Integrated Development Plan (TIDP), further elaborates on efforts that have been made to foster tourism development in the city. Prime among the marketing initiatives was the inaugural Tshwane Trade Fair (TTF) held from 6 to 7 October 2008 with the purpose of optimizing opportunities for existing tourism niches, such as cultural, business and the capital city position, while creating an enabling environment for new tourism SMMEs to develop (COT, 2011:92-95). The Tshwane Tourism Awards held on 27 March 2009 was aimed at promoting excellence in the delivery of tourism services in the city, while exposure was accorded to the city's tourism businesses through their participation at the Tourism Indaba in Durban in May of 2008. International marketing was undertaken through the city of Tshwane's participation at the international Süd Afrika Tage exhibition in Germany in 2009.

To support the emergence of quality SMMEs offering accommodation, the Tourism Division in the City of Tshwane, in partnership with the Tourism Grading Council of South Africa (TGCSA) and the Bed and Breakfast Association in Tshwane (BBAT), identified a number of accommodation establishments in the townships for grading. The 57 accommodation service providers graded to date enjoy the following advantages:

- ❏ Free advertisement on partners' websites;
- ❏ Tourism signage (brown and white signs erected by the tourism division);

- ✦ Inclusion in brochures distributed at local and international exhibitions;
- ✦ Free entrance into tourism awards programme implemented by the City of Tshwane (COT);
- ✦ Selection by partners for exhibitions in both local and international events;
- ✦ Free training by the COT and partners;
- ✦ Selection to participate in mentorship programmes, that is Adopt a Guest House, initiated by Southern Sun; and
- ✦ Preferential treatment to render services to the government.

In the area of training and skills development, the City of Tshwane identified and facilitated the training of forty-five tour guides, fifty-seven “SA Hosts” to serve in customer care centres, and fifteen operational tourism SMMEs using the eight toolkits developed by the Tourism Enterprise Partnership (TEP). As part of the critical infrastructure development programme to promote tourism in the city, five hundred new sign posts have been erected to guide tourists to tourism facilities and services. Transport has also been enhanced to facilitate movement into and out of the Central Business District (CBD). Further efforts are on the way through the implementation of the Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) system to run from Soshanguve to Mamelodi and the opening of the Atteridgeville to Mamelodi corridor.

From the preceding it is clear that the administrative structure supporting the development of tourism from the global to the local level has been firmly established. It is within this context and framework that the strategy for the development of sustainable community tourism in Soshanguve has been developed. The strategic importance of the literature review to the present study is that it informs the tourism development process proposed for Soshanguve and the relevance of stakeholders and their participation. Although the government documents reviewed above sound eloquent and exhaustive, the weak link is evidently the prescriptive nature of the plans, and the absence of stakeholder involvement in the development of the plans, resulting in reluctance of the local communities to take ownership and participate in the implementation of the plans (Setshedi, 2007:11).

The last section of this chapter examines the subject of community tourism and some common forms it assumes.

3.6. COMMUNITY TOURISM

The purpose of this section is to review literature on the defining characteristics of community tourism, as well as various theories relating to the nature of community tourism and success of community tourism .

3.6.1 *The relevance of community tourism*

According to Noakes (2007:10) Community-based tourism (CBT) is a form of sustainable tourism with the specific aim of alleviating poverty in a community setting. Likewise, Tourism Concern (2012:1) points out that the goal of community tourism is the beneficiation of indigenous people and villagers through tourism ventures.

Regardless of the angle from which community tourism is viewed, the participation of local communities seems to be pivotal to its implementation. Zahra and McGehee (2013:25) assert that tourism literature has advocated the inclusion of local communities in tourism since the 1980s. Developing tourism from the local community level is considered crucial to the success of tourism at the national level. This is because communities play a key role in the tourism product sustainability and their positive interaction with tourists helps to build a good image for the destination (Sebele, 2010:136). Tosun (2006:615) further adds that involving local communities in tourism helps to ensure a balance between communities, developers and local authorities. In this way, communities benefit from tourism taking place in their local environment, exhibit positive attitudes towards tourists and work towards the conservation of resources. Some researchers have indicated that the sustainability of tourism depends to a large extent on the feeling of ownership, sense of responsibility and practical involvement in tourism issues by local people (Simpson, 2008:1; Ballesteros & Ramirez, 2007:679; Zahra & McGehee, 2013:23; UNWTO, 2004).

3.6.2 Theories related to community tourism

Several theories have been put forth to explain effective stakeholder participation and management. This study examines the Social Exchange Theory (SET) and the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) for the purpose of developing a sustainable community tourism strategy for Soshanguve township.

3.6.2.1 Social Exchange Theory (SET)

Social Exchange Theory holds that people or communities tend to trade their support for projects in exchange for the benefits they stand to get from those initiatives. In other words, the local residents' support for tourism will depend to a large extent on the benefits that they get or are likely to get from tourism. Hence it is by weighing the economic, social, cultural and environmental concerns that residents of a community decide whether to support tourism ventures or not (Lee, 2013:39; Frauman & Banks, 2011:130; Nunkoo & Ramkissoon, 2011:1005). Residents' attitude towards tourism is one indicator of its successful application as a development tool. This is illustrated by the fact that attitude is related to behaviour, hence favourable attitudes towards tourism would translate to pro-tourism behaviour manifested in pro-conservationist behaviour and participation in tourism (Lepp, 2007:876).

3.6.2.2 Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA)

Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) explain the relationship between positive attitude and positive behaviour using the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA). This hierarchical model states that one's behaviour is determined by behavioural intent which in turn is influenced by attitudes and subjective norms (perceived social pressure for a particular behaviour) and both of these stem from one's set of beliefs. Research has established the validity of this (TRA) in a tourism context as it has been observed that tourists' perceptions about a certain activity influence their attitudes towards the activity and subsequently affect their behaviour when they participate in the activity (Kim, Kim & Goh, 2011; Sekhar, 2003:341; Lee, Graefe & Burns, 2004:75). This implies that if local residents have positive perceptions about tourism, their attitudes would be favourable to tourism development and they would behave and act in a friendly way towards tourism resources and tourists.

However, the TRA is not without its flaws as Kaiser and Gutscher (2003:590) and Ryan (2000:346) have demonstrated. These studies found that tourists' attitudes about conservation were poor predictors of environmentally compliant behaviour, probably because environmentally compliant behaviour requires a considerable amount of effort. This therefore suggests that the TRA is not a good predictor when general attitudinal measures are applied to specific (individual) behaviour patterns. In spite of the above, Lepp (2007:878) concludes that the TRA is still a useful model in the planning and management of community tourism as it illustrates that fostering positive attitudes among community members towards tourism could lead to positive behaviour towards tourism.

The strategy proposed for the Soshanguve community at the end of this study is informed by both the Social Exchange Theory and the Theory of Reasoned Action. By involving all stakeholders, especially the local community at every stage of the tourism development process, this strategy intends to ensure maximum benefit, both to the Soshanguve community and other stakeholders. Furthermore, through participation in the entire process, the community and other stakeholders take ownership and responsibility for the end product. Following the Social Exchange Theory the spirit of mutual benefit sustains every stakeholder in the project by making it worthy of their support, and in line with the Theory of Reasoned Action the positive attitude arising from the positive gains fosters positive behaviour towards tourism and tourists to Soshanguve.

In an effort to pursue the four themes mentioned above, various forms of community-centred tourism initiatives have been developed worldwide. These include pro-poor tourism, slum tourism and township tourism.

3.6.3 *Pro-poor tourism*

The British Department of International Development (DFID) is credited with pioneering the promotion of the concept of pro-poor tourism by successfully placing it on the report of the commission on sustainable development in April 1999 (Ashley, Boyd & Goodwin, 2000 cited in Zeng & Ryan, 2012:240; Goodwin, 2009:91, Ashley & Maxwell, 2001:394) However, with the release of the report on

poverty alleviation and tourism by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 2002) at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) in Johannesburg (South Africa) in 2002, the pro-poor tourism agenda gained further prominence. The launch of the Sustainable Tourism and the Elimination of Poverty Programme (ST-EP) by the WTO gave additional impetus to the pro-poor tourism concept (Qiu, 2010:43; Guo & Han, 2010:1597).

Tourism is described as pro-poor when it generates either economic, social, environmental or other benefits for the poor (Wattanakuljarus & Coxhead, 2008:930). Wearing and McGehee (2013:121) further state that certain attributes of tourism make it favourable to the poverty alleviation agenda. These characteristics include the diversity of the tourism product which encourages wider participation, its simultaneity of production and consumption thereby compelling the consumers to come to the host community, tourism's high dependence on natural capital such as wildlife and culture (assets local communities can easily afford), and its labour intensive nature facilitating job creation for a large number of people. In spite of these favourable factors, Spenceley and Seif (2003:8) point out some factors that limit the participation of local people in tourism. These include the fact that access to the tourism industry depends on where you are (proximity to resources), who you are (ability to contribute to decision-making), what you have (possession of financial and physical assets necessary to enter the market) and what you know (understanding of how the industry operates). Inhabitants of local communities can hardly afford all of these, hence the high elusiveness of their participation and benefit from the tourism industry. This therefore implies that the development of sustainable community tourism necessitates the successful exploitation of local community tourism resources, the inclusion of community members in the ownership and management structures, the provision of access to development finance and the empowerment of community members to be able to make astute and economically sound decisions.

The implications and relevance of the preceding to this study lies with the greater understanding of the role of other stakeholders, especially the government in supporting poor communities in performing their role in tourism development. In other words, government's financial and educational support in the form of tourism

awareness and training programmes is indispensable to communities playing a functional role in tourism development. It is for this reason that part of the empirical study deals with issues related to government support.

3.6.4 *Slum tourism*

According to Crossley (2012:235) slum tourism presents an interesting deviation from existing literature on tourism and poverty alleviation in the sense that it focuses on the tourists' themselves demanding poverty stricken destinations as a tourism product. In this perspective, slum literature explores the motivations for tourists travelling to poor destinations and their responses to encounters with poverty. The United Nations Human Settlements Programme (2003) defines a slum as "a heavily populated urban area characterised by substandard housing and squalor". Steinbrink (2012:222) has the following (Figure 3:11) representation of slums:

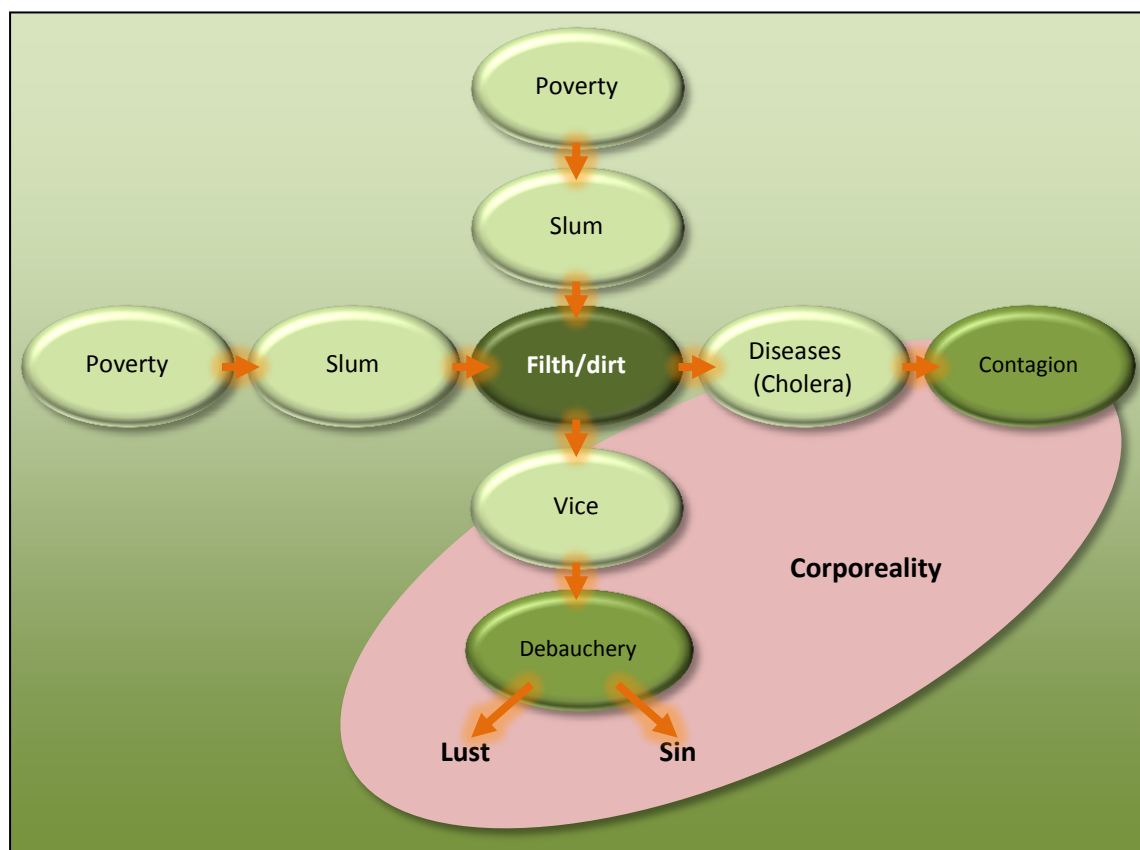


Figure 3.11: Poverty, slum and dirt as close semantic association

Source: Steinbrink (2012:222)

While these places bear their origins to specific historical situations, their socio-political circumstances differ, hence the localization of the phenomenon as *favela tours* (Brazil), *Kibera tours* (Kenya) and *township tours* (South Africa) (Frenzel & Koens, 2012:197). It has been argued that tourism has contributed to bringing a positive image to the slum destinations as they are seen as providing some degree of cultural “authenticity” (Freire-Medeiros, 2009:583; Frenzel, 2013:117 Meschkank, 2010:110). However, slums are mostly associated with poverty, drug trade and violence (Mekawy, 2012:2092).

The major weakness in slum tourism research has been in its conceptual frivolity arising from the multiplicity of approaches and also from the fact that much of the research has been in the form of case studies prompting a divergence of scenarios (Frenzel, 2013:120). However, a historical approach has often been adopted in order to harmonise perspectives on the concept (Hernandez-Garcia, 2013:45). In this regard, Mayaka and Prasad (2012:49) identify different periods in continental Europe during which slum tourism developed to what they refer to as “global slumming” today. Taking a different view, Freire-Medeiros (2009:582) points to the absurdity in commodifying poverty and considering slum tourism as a business transaction in which buying and selling take place. This is contrary to the Marxist view of poverty as the only thing that cannot be sold or bought (Freire-Medeiros, 2009:586).

The motivation for slum tourism has been attributed in part to growth in volunteerism which has witnessed the movement of many affluent tourists to impoverished communities to assist in their development (Crossley, 2012:236). Frenzel (2013:122) traces the concept of slum tourism as emanating from earlier concepts of alternative and sustainable tourism, both of which are associated with community tourism. Slum or poverty tourism has also been “romanticized” in some works to the effect that the material deprivation of poor people is adequately compensated for in happiness and spiritual, emotional and community “wealth” (Simpson, 2004:688). In a slight shift of focus, Zahra and McIntosh (2007:117) state that what tourists encounter with poverty (slum tourism) evokes high emotions which last longer than many other touristic experiences. They concluded that the depth and significance of tourist encounters with poverty as evidenced in

the physical manifestations of emotional outburst of grief, action, giving away of money and even escape, could not be found in mainstream tourism. This is in sharp contrast with the positive views of happiness, human resilience and spiritual wealth of poor communities expressed by Simpson (2008:3). Wearing and McGehee (2013:123) consider the phenomenon of volunteer tourism in slums as evidence of a paradigm shift from the passivity of mainstream tourism to one of intimacy and reciprocity where tourists invest in the happiness and suffering of poor communities while departing with dilemmatic feelings of philanthropy and guilt.

While a great part of the scenario on slum tourism does not apply to Soshanguve regarding the extent of filth and absence of facilities and service, most of the literature is still relevant in the context of attracting tourists to economically disadvantaged communities.

3.6.5 Township tourism

The phenomenon of township tourism is characteristic of post-apartheid South Africa following the emergence of the democratic dispensation in 1994 (Rogerson, 2004:250). Kim, Uysal and Sirgy (2013:528) assert that the arrival to power of the first black-led government ushered in a new era in tourism, one in which the notion of heritage was no longer limited to the exclusivity of the white culture, but included the legacy of other South African race groups as well. Hitherto, many black areas were infested with crime, filth and violence and therefore regarded as “no go” territories for people of other race groups. Herein lies the similarity between “slum tourism” and “township tourism”.

However, the peaceful transition to democracy and the subsequent economic boom in South Africa triggered a new wave of increased tourist arrivals. With the rich political history and the anti-apartheid history, South Africa suddenly had a new tourism niche for attracting tourists. The bulk of these could be found naturally in the townships which were anti-apartheid “hot spots” or the breeding ground for anti-apartheid icons (Bak, 2008:256). Township tourism, in essence, is the visiting of legacies of the anti-apartheid struggle, heritage sites and poverty-stricken

communities in the historically oppressed parts of South Africa (Murray, 2013:43; Rogerson, 2013:60)

3.6.6 *The Soshanguve tourism situation*

Soshanguve Township is situated approximately 40 kilometers to the north of the City of Tshwane central business district (Setshedi, 2007:4). The township shares a similar history with other South African townships by virtue of being the product of apartheid legislation enacted in the 1950s to effect racially discriminatory governance (Setswe, 2010:38).

However, the unique history attribute of Soshanguve Township lies in the fact that it was not designed to accommodate one, but four ethnic groups, hence its name, “So” for Sothos, “Sha” for Shangans, “Ngu” for Ngunis and “Ve” for Vendas. In addition to this historical factor is the special natural advantage that Soshanguve enjoys by having the Tswaing crater within its precincts.

The historical and natural factors mentioned above offer the Soshanguve community a unique competitive advantage over other townships. Furthermore, the City of Tshwane recognises the potential for the development of other tourism products in Soshanguve in the areas of architecture, arts, natural environment, culture and heritage, and shopping and entertainment (COT, 2005:6). Recent infrastructural developments especially in the road network, electricity supply to 97, 431 out of 106, 056 households, tap water provision to 62, 277 homes (Stas SA, 2013:76) and the opening of shopping centers such as the Soshanguve crossing and Soshanguve plaza only go to buttress the Soshanguve tourism prospects.

Unfortunately, most of the tourism potential of Soshanguve still lies untapped as evidenced in the fact that currently only a few tourists trickle to Soshanguve, mainly to see the Tswaing crater (Setshedi, 2007:12). Hence, prompting this study aimed at turning the situation around by developing a strategy that will maximise benefits from the tourism potential of Soshanguve.

3.7 CONCLUSION

In essence, the purpose of this chapter was to analyse literature on tourism planning, the impacts of tourism development, the South African tourism situation and community tourism in order to develop a community tourism strategy for Soshanguve that conforms to existing guidelines, realises maximum positive impacts for the community and functions well within the South African scenario. This was realised by advocating an exploratory and inclusive approach to planning, adopting a pro-poor community-based approach that accentuates job creation and other economic benefits and translates the good policies formulated by the South African government into concrete gains for local communities such as Soshanguve.

The empirical study and strategy proposed at the end of this study is therefore informed by this theoretical position. The next chapter discusses the research design, methodology and approach employed in developing a sustainable community tourism strategy for Soshanguve township.