

# **Communication efficacy of South African Arts Festivals: the case of Klein Karoo National Arts Festival**

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**Dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree  
*Master of Commercii in Tourism Management*  
at the  
Potchefstroom Campus  
of the  
North-West University**

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**November 2010**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I dedicate this study to my father, Dr. Barry Kriel, who have always supported and believed in me. He has taught me to always follow my dreams and trust in God no matter what and you will pick the fruits of success. He has inspired me until the day of his death and will continue to do so for the rest of my life.

The completion of this study would not have been possible without the following people who encouraged me and continue to be a pillar of strength throughout my life:

- My Father God for giving me the strength and perseverance to complete this study. “I can do all things through Christ which strengthens me”.
- My mother, Louine and my loving family for their support and always being proud.
- Prof. Melville Saayman, my study leader and mentor, without whose assistance and continual guidance this dissertation would never have been completed.
- All my friends who have encouraged, supported and helped me to complete this study.
- My colleagues at Centurion Academy for their support and willingness to listen.
- Dr. Suria Ellis for the statistical data analysis.
- Mr Malcolm Ellis for the language editing.
- The fieldworkers who assisted with the survey at the KKNK.
- The National Research Foundation for their financial support.

## SUMMARY

**Key terms:** *events, festivals, communication, intercultural communication and mass communication.*

The primary objective of this study was to determine the communication efficacy at arts festivals with specific reference to the Klein Karoo Nasionale Kunstefees (KKNK). This goal was achieved by firstly discussing the concept of communication. Secondly, a literature study was conducted in order to examine the links between communication and events. Thirdly, the results of the empirical research were discussed, and finally conclusions were drawn from the research and recommendations were made with regard to the communication efficacy of events, as well as for further research.

From the literature, communication between the event organisers and the local community was defined. It was noted that communication plays an integral part in the success of an event. The host community plays an integral part in events as role players. By establishing and implementing an effective communication strategy to and from the organisers, the KKNK will harvest the fruits of a successful cultural event.

Participation, decision making and informing the stakeholders using different types of media was the means by which the KKNK organisers communicated with the host community.

Positive and negative impacts were measured in a questionnaire. The questionnaire that sought to measure whether there were significant differences between the two host communities of Oudtshoorn, and whether there were any differences in the results of the communication strategy of the organisers when comparing the opinions of the white and of the coloured communities. The questionnaires were distributed among the community members of Oudtshoorn, using on a stratified sampling method, and by using a random sampling method. A total of 258 questionnaires were completed, 110 from the white community and 148 from the coloured community.

Means and standards deviations were determined following the affected sizes to explore the differences between the importance of participation and communication in the two communities, based on the dimensions of the various factors as determined in the factor analysis. It became clear that there is a small effect (0.2-0.5) on the opinions of the two communities regarding their being informed, community participation and the communication from KKNK to the Oudtshoorn community in general. Decision-making and participation opinions resulted in medium effects. It is the major significance of these effect sizes that the

white and coloured communities do not believe they have equal decision making opportunities and participation.

The chi-square test of significance revealed a small significance (0.1 – 0.3) in the following areas: overall communication, information received and sought for through different types of media and importance of the KKNK to Oudtshoorn. A medium significance (0.3 – 0.5) was measured, and recommendations were made that programs meeting the needs of host communities, decision making and having the community become active in festival programs should be initiated.

This study contributes to the limited amount of literature available on the communication efficacy of events to their host communities.

## OPSOMMING

**Sleutelwoorde:** gebeurtenis, fees, kommunikasie, interkulturele kommunikasie en massa kommunikasie.

Die primêre doel van hierdie studie was om te bepaal wat die kommunikasie werkzaamheid van kunstefeeste is, met verwysing na die KKNK (Klein Karoo Nasionale Kunstefeeste). Hierdie doel is bereik deur eerstens kommunikasie te konseptualiseer. Tweedens is 'n literatuurstudie gedoen om skakel te vind tussen kommunikasie en gebeurtenisse. Derdens is die resultate van die empiriese navorsing bespreek en laastens is gevolgtrekkings gemaak, gebaseer op die studie asook aanbevelings rakende die kommunikasie werkzaamhede van gebeurtenisse, en aanbevelings oor verdere navorsing.

Uit die literatuurstudie is kommunikasie omskryf tussen die gebeurtenisorganiseerders en die plaaslike gemeenskap. Daar is waargeneem dat kommunikasie 'n integrale rol speel in die sukses van 'n gebeurtenis. Die gasheergemeenskap speel 'n kardinale rol in 'n gebeurtenis as rolspeler. Deur 'n effektiewe kommunikasiestrategie te ontwikkel en implementeer na en van die gebeurtenisorganiseerders sal die KKNK die vrugte pluk van 'n suksesvolle kulturele gebeurtenis.

Deelname, besluitneming en om ingelig te word deur verskillende tipes media was die hoof fokus oor hoe die KKNK bestuur kommunikeer met die gasheergemeenskap.

Die positiewe en negatiewe impakte is in 'n vraelys gemeet. Die vraelys is gebaseer op 'n sosiale impak vraelys. Die doel van die vraelys was om te bepaal of daar 'n waarskeimlikheid tussen die twee gasheer gemeenskappe van Oudtshoorn is en of daar enige verskil is na mate die kommunikasie strategieë wat die bestuur volg wanneer die resultate van die blanke en kleurling gemeenskap gemeet word. Die vraelyste is onder die gemeenskap van Oudtshoorn versprei volgens 'n stratifikasie-steekproefneming, gevolg deur 'n ewekansige steekproefneming. Altesaam 258 vraelyste is ingevul, 110 van die blanke gemeenskap en 148 van die kleurling gemeenskap.

Die gemiddeldes en standaardafwykings is bepaal, om die effekgroottes van die verskil tussen die belangrikheid van deelname en kommunikasie van die blanke gemeenskap en die kleurling gemeenskap te bereken, op grond van die verskeie faktore wat in die faktoranalise bepaal is. Dit is duidelik dat daar 'n klein effek is (0.2-0.5) tussen die twee gemeenskappe rakende om ingelig te word, gemeenskapsdeelname en kommunikasie van KKNK na die Oudtshoorn gemeenskap. Besluitneming en deelname het gelei na 'n middelmatige effek en is die grootste waarskeimlikheid in hierdie effek groottes wat beteken dat die blanke en

kleurling gemeenskappe nie gelyke besluitneming geleentede en deelname gegun word nie.

Die chi-vierkant toets van waarskynlikheid toon 'n klein waarskynlikheid (0.1 – 0.3) in die volgende areas: algehele kommunikasie, inligting ontvang en verlang deur verskillende tipes media an die belangrikheid van die KKNK vir Oudtshoorn. 'n Middelmatige waarskynlikheid (0.3 – 0.5) is gemeet en voorstelle is gegee vir die volgende: programme wat die behoeftes van die gasheer gemeenskap bevredig, besluitneming en of die gemeenskap aktief betrokke is in die fees programme. Hierdie studie dra by tot die skaarsheid van hoeveelheid literatuur beskikbaar is ten opsigte van kommunikasie waarskynlikheid van gebeurtenisse tot hul gasheergemeenskappe.

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# CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is widely perceived as a potential economic base, providing elements that may improve quality of life such as employment opportunities, tax revenues, economic diversity, festivals, restaurants, natural and cultural attractions, together with outdoor recreational opportunities. There are concerns, however, that tourism can have negative impacts on overall quality of life (Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004). These can take the form of crowding, traffic and parking problems, increased crime levels, increased costs of living, friction between tourists and residents, and unappreciated changes in the hosts' way of life (Ap & Crompton 1993; McCool & Martin 1994).

From an article by Fedline & Faulkner (2000), it seems that relatively little research has been done on host community reactions to the impacts of events. There will always be positive or negative impacts on residents caused by events. By managing events (and other elements of the destination associated with it), hinges the ability to ameliorate the negative impacts and accentuate the positive ones. These objectives are driven by ethical concerns, encompassing equity and quality of life issues. Marais (1988) notes that constructive communication demands that the relevant parties have an overview of the perceptions of participating community members, of their intentions, goals, options and needs. If the community initially understands the way to communicate their concerns, the probabilities of a successful outcome, of enhanced communication will be increased. Communication, specifically intercultural communication, is thus the method to lay foundations and to aid in reconciling people to sharing their information, insights, needs and beliefs for their common future. Understanding the complexities and needs of a multicultural South African society is the beginning, and thus it is necessary to accept the existence of other cultures and of working together towards the common goal of peaceful coexistence. Understanding all facets of communication should be a matter of interactional terms, of emphasising its complex, human, and multidimensional natures. Communication can be seen as a process involving all the partners in a creative relationship, defining as well as resolving, existing challenges. A central focus must therefore be placed on interactional perspectives.

Beyond constructs and models based on theory, the importance of examining factors such as destination planning, communities, stages of tourism development, characteristics of the tourists, as well as the controlling interests in the projects, is essential. It is critical to involve the community throughout the process and, through communication channels, involve all stakeholders in the planning and development of the industry (Teye, Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002).

Based on the above, the main objective aim of the chapter is to examine the reasons for the necessity of communication within an arts festival.

## **1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

As stated by Chacko and Schaffer (1993), Getz (1991), Grant and Pallwoda (1998) and Rolfe (1992) in Prentice & Anderson (2003), festivals and performing arts are presently worldwide tourism phenomena. The reasons for the explosion in festival numbers are multifaceted, ranging from demand factors (such as serious leisure, lifestyle sampling, socialisation needs and the desire for creative and “authentic” experiences by some market segments) through to supply factors (such as cultural planning, tourism development, and civic re-positioning).

Event tourism is the systematic planning, development, and marketing of special events as tourist attractions, as image-makers, as catalysts for infrastructure and economic growth, and as patrons of built attractions. Special events have proliferated and diversified in the course of the past two decades (Crompton & McKay, 1997; Getz, 1997). According to Mehmetoglu (2002), communities recognise their economic contribution as the number of events grows. Therefore, organisers begin to view these events from a tourism perspective.

According to Fredline and Faulkner (2000), relatively little research has been done on the reactions of host communities to the impacts of events. The results of Andereck, Valentine, Knopf and Vogt's (2005) study shows clearly that a community appreciates the way the industry enriches the community fabric, but may experience growing levels of discontent with the increased negative factors attributed to the event, such as crowding, congestion, traffic, litter and crime levels. Even so, residents are cognisant of the many ways festivals can benefit their community, economically, socially, culturally, and environmentally.

Jurowski and Gursoy (2004) note the support that local residents offer to tourism development is critical because the success and sustainability of the operation depends

heavily on their goodwill. Therefore, it is not very surprising that research on residents' reactions continues to be a topic of considerable interest. Many communities see tourism development as a way to improve their quality of life, and therefore these communities encourage tourism. The focus of the development activities usually lie in the economic benefits the industry can bring to the community in the form of tax revenues, jobs and other sources of income. The reactions of residents have been examined by researchers and it was found that the most serious effects involve not only the communities' economic values, but also changes to the quality of life seen from a social perspective. The acceptability of these changes is likely to be influenced by the perceptions of the benefits residents receive in exchange for the problems they observe.

As noted by Murphy (1985) in Teye *et al.* (2002), the acceptance and emphasis on local participation and community approach to tourism development nevertheless implies that host members are often excluded, not only from planning, but frequently from decision-making and management of projects also. Several factors affect the way residents evaluate rewards in relation to the costs. The expectations of economic benefits have the largest positive effect (Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004). Tourism is favoured by residents who receive the greatest economic benefits, more so than those who receive fewer or no benefits. There appears to be a direct relationship between the positive evaluation of social and cultural impacts and the support of the community.

However, Fredline & Faulkner (2000) note very little research has been done specifically on communication with the host communities in the context of events.

According to Jurowski and Gursoy (2004), positive and negative effects of tourism are evaluated by residents and are influenced by a number of factors. Recreation resources are used to attract tourists. Residents become concerned about overcrowding, and a need for infrastructure improvements is desired. Consequently, the recreation users will have a different perspective than the non-users. The impact of tourism will be evaluated differently by residents who are more knowledgeable about tourism and those who are most concerned about the local communities (Davis, Allen and Cosenza, 1988; Lankford, 1994). Evaluation of costs and benefits varies with socio-demographic characteristics, political and demographic position in society, the level of contact with tourists, environmental attitudes and the type and form of tourism offered (Jurowski & Gursoy, 2004).

One problem that arises is that communication between the event (tourism) planners and the local community is not always efficient. The host community does not know how a festival, such as KKNK, will affect their cultural, economic and personal needs and desires (Teye, Sönmez & Sirakaya, 2002). Human communication refers to the social interaction of sharing information for the purpose of, firstly, understanding and, secondly, social connection. Communication allows humans to express the shared set of physical, emotional and psychological needs that are extant inside a human at any given moment. When a person experiences either need-deprivation or need-satisfaction, communication allows the person to give this information to others with the intention of enriching life both for themselves and for others.

Oudtshoorn consists of a multi-cultural community who use different ways of communicating. The World Health Organisation, ANON (2003), states that if questions are to be developed, specifically concerning which systems or techniques of intercultural communication and negotiation might be effectively used between the multiple cultures in contemporary South Africa, answers to the following must be sought:

- What kind of system each culture is “used to using” – and why it is used;
- Which aspects of all approaches appear to be similar, dissimilar, or different; and
- What kind of a problem-solving (negotiation) system can possibly evolve out of communication between representatives of both or all cultures that:
  - Does not allow one culture approach to dominate the other/s; and
  - Makes possible a multiplicity of approaches to negotiations, both within and between cultural groups, to deal with different situations and tasks based on understandings that are mutually respected and accepted (World Health Organisation, 2003).

In order to achieve a realistic and workable communication strategy to a host community such as Oudtshoorn, intercultural communication must primarily be used for the best results. As noted by Avery and McCain, (1982) in Tubbs & Moss, (2000) intercultural communication involves communication that is mediated. That is, the source of a message that is communicated through some print or electronic media differs from personal encounters. In mediation, the message is intended for the consumption of masses of individuals rather than for a small number of individuals. Mass communication is the most formal and most expensive type of interpersonal communication.

According to Avery and McCain, (1982) mass communication as part of mass media is a term used to denote that section of the media specifically conceived and designed to reach a very large audience (typically, at least as large as the whole population of a community such as Oudtshoorn).

The question that the study attempts to address is how effective is communication between KKNK and the community?

### **1.3 GOAL OF STUDY**

Throughout the study, the focus will be on achieving the following goal and objectives:

#### **1.3.1 Goal**

- To determine communication efficacy for the KKNK and the community of Oudtshoorn.

#### **1.3.2 Objectives**

- To review literature concerning communication system;
- To review literature concerning events tourism;
- To determine the perceptions of communities regarding communication and the KKNK by using a questionnaire; and
- To draw conclusions from, and to make recommendations based on, the results of the research.

### **1.3.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

Different forms of research will be done. The research methodology for this study will take two parts, a literature study and an empirical survey of questionnaires distributed equally between the white and coloured communities of Oudtshoorn according to the overall population of each culture group.

### **1.3.4 Literature study**

Literature on communication as a whole and on the reaction of host communities to events will be used to define certain concepts, and will be used to examine and compare communication within an event. The Internet will be used to obtain information on the workings of the KKNK and the future trends of festivals. Science Direct and EBSCO-Host Research Databases will be used to locate published articles, specifically, Academic Search Premier, Business Source Premier and the Hospitality and Tourism databases. Articles in these databases will help to describe, identify and verify different concepts of communication and their applications in diverse communities. Articles and journals will be consulted to form a perspective of what the needs of communication for communities are, concerning a tourism event. Journals will be used to assist in the definition of concepts, and to compare different case studies. The journals will also serve as a guideline, in that similar studies that have already been completed may be used as a comparison.

The keywords that were used were events, festivals, communication, intercultural communication and mass communication.

### **1.3.5 Empirical survey**

The empirical survey was conducted in the following manner.

#### **1.3.5.1 Research design and method of collecting data**

To achieve the goal of this study, a quantitative research was designed to ensure that the information collected could be structured, systematic and would be applicable. The research was, therefore, descriptive in nature. A quantitative survey method involves the collection of data from large numbers of individuals. Representative data of the total population would be produced with the quantitative method. Subsequent to the design of the instrument, a structured questionnaire, the research consisted of one survey that distributed the questionnaire amongst both the white and coloured community.

A community survey was conducted in Oudtshoorn at the annual KKNK in 2007 using the questionnaire discussed. The survey was designed to focus on communication efficiency

between the Klein Karoo National (KKNK) arts festival and the host community of Oudtshoorn. It was anticipated that 300 questionnaires would be completed at the festival.

### **1.3.5.2 Selection of the sampling frame**

No detailed statistics could be provided by the municipality of Oudtshoorn on the number of households in Oudtshoorn. Accordingly, the STATS SA censuses of 2001 and 1996 were used to determine the number of households. Three hundred (300) questionnaires were handed out and later collected by the fieldworkers as explained below. The survey was conducted by seven post-graduate fieldworkers who are themselves trained in research methodology and the analysis of questionnaires.

Cooper and Emory (1995) state that using a stratified sampling method, as in this study, with a population (N) of 100 000, the recommended sample size (S) is 384. However, these authors also give, as a rule of thumb, that the law of diminishing returns will apply when the sample size increases above about 300.

According to Statistics South Africa and the 1996 and 2001 census, the Greater Oudtshoorn Municipal district has a population of 84 692, with an average of 4 people per household. A completed questionnaire is representative of the household; therefore  $84\ 692/4 = (N) 21\ 173$  households (Oudtshoorn, 2005). Applying the formula used by Cooper and Emory, it was found that 81 households (representing both white and coloured communities) would need to complete questionnaires to form a sufficiently representative sample of a household survey of Oudtshoorn. In the event, three hundred (300) questionnaires were distributed. This number of questionnaires encompassed much more than the required amount of questionnaires determined according to the formula of Cooper and Emory, (1995). Community survey questionnaires were distributed in the four residential areas (strata) of Oudtshoorn as explained below.

Of the 300 questionnaires, 262 were returned and were eligible to use for the study (110 white households and 152 coloured households).

### **1.3.5.3 Sampling method**

Stratified sampling first separates the population into different sub-groups (strata) and then selects random samples from each sub-group (Tustin *et al.* 2005). For this study, the starting point would be randomly selected. Thereafter, every second house in the various residential

areas was to be selected. The exact number of houses in each residential area could not be obtained and, according to the Municipality, was not available. If the selected respondent did not want to participate in the survey, the house on the immediate right or left was then selected to participate.

#### **1.3.5.4 Development of the questionnaire**

The questionnaire was adapted from the questionnaire used by Catharina Streuders in her study, Communication Efficacy of South African National Parks: A case study of the Karoo National Park.

Closed questions were asked to enable a perspective on:

- How the KKNK communicates to its host community;
- How many times a year the community receives information of the festival;
- How can the community give feedback to the KKNK organisers; and
- How did the community wish to be informed in the future?

This survey was carried out between 30 March 2007 and 6 April 2007.

The data analysis was undertaken using Microsoft™ Excel™ to capture the data from the questionnaires and thereafter sorting the data to use for full examination of the aim of this study in usable text (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000).

#### **1.3.5.5 Data analysis**

The data was coded on EPI and statistically processed on SPSS (Version 15). Demographic information, effect sizes for the difference between means and chi square & phi-values of significance is determined and measured

### **1.4 DEFINING CONCEPTS**

The following concepts will be used in this study and therefore need clarification:

### **1.4.1 Community**

Garcia, Giuliani and Wiesenfeld (1999) defines community as a group of people sharing characteristics and interests that live within a larger society, from which those features distinguish it. It is also the sense in which one belongs to a net of mutually helpful relationships which one can trust in and which do not result in permanent feelings of loneliness that would cause one to act or to adopt a life style that distinguish anxiety and a predisposition to a more destructive subsequent anguish.

Community is the feeling of membership, which contains a) emotional security, b) belonging and identification, c) personal (material and nonmaterial) investment/contribution, and d) system of shared symbols (McMillan and Chavis, 1986).

### **1.4.2 Tourist**

A tourist is a person who visits a place and stays at least one night in collective or private accommodation (STATSSA, 2007). According to Saayman (2001), a person who voluntarily visits a place, for a period of at least 24 hours away from his normal residence, and contributes to the economic input in the new area, is a tourist.

STATSSA (2007) defines a tourist as a temporary visitor staying at least twenty-four hours in the country visited for a purpose classified as either holiday (recreation, leisure, sport and visit to family, friends or relatives), business, official mission, convention, or health reasons.

### **1.4.3 Tourism**

As defined by Saayman (2001), tourism is the total experience that originates from the interaction between tourists, job providers, government systems and communities. It is thus the process of attracting, interacting with, transporting and accommodating tourists. Transport, accommodation, catering, attractions and entertainment can be seen as the main elements of tourism.

Tourism can also be described as the business of providing and marketing of services and facilities for pleasure travellers. Thus, the concept of tourism is of direct concern to governments, carriers, and to the lodging, restaurant and entertainment industries and is of indirect concern to virtually every industry and business in the world (Amuquandoh, 2006).

#### **1.4.4 Events**

Events occur on a temporary basis, and can be either planned or unplanned. The duration of events is limited, and for planned events, such as cultural events, the duration is usually fixed and publicised in various relevant media. Events are short-term happenings, but hold potential long-term consequences for the cities that stage them. The specific event cannot be experienced again, once it is over (Getz, 1997).

Mega events are categorised and defined by Getz (1997) as, "planned occurrences of limited duration which have an extraordinary impact on the host area in terms of one or more of the following: tourist volumes; visitor expenditures; publicity leading to a heightened awareness and a more positive image; related infrastructural and organisational developments which substantially increase the destination's capacity and attractiveness".

Jago and Shaw, (1998) describe special events as infrequently occurring, or one-time events outside the normal activities or programme of the sponsoring or organising body. A special event, for the customer, is an opportunity for a leisure, social, or cultural experience with a public themed celebration, which offers value to the community. Special events have been created specifically to give people something to share, to inform them and to foster community pride (Allen, Harris, Jago and Veal, 2000).

#### **1.4.5 Festivals**

Festivals were primarily created to meet the needs of the local population, and often have been in existence for many years. Where there is a particular concentration of activities over a short period at festivals, it can be seen as part of a special event (Hughes, 2000). They are regular in that they often occur annually.

Hughes (2000) describes the aims of a festival as:

- Sharing common interests with others;
- Celebrating a particular art form; and
- Celebrating particular local culture.

#### **1.4.6 Klein Karoo National Arts Festival (KKNK)**

The Klein Karoo National Arts Festival is an Afrikaans arts festival and takes place annually in Oudtshoorn, South Africa, from the end of March to the beginning of April, for eight days. The festival, which first started in 1994, accommodates both visual and performing arts. Open-air concerts have also become a characteristic of the KKNK. Since 1994, the festival has grown to be a household name, and claims to be the largest arts festival in South Africa. Currently, Oudtshoorn draws approximately 1000 artists in more than 200 productions and exhibitions over the eight days (Oudtshoorn, 2005).

#### **1.4.7 Communication efficacy**

By definition, to communicate means the mutual giving and/or exchange of information and/or ideas. In this vein then, communication efficacy is to ensure that mutually given and/or exchanged information and/or ideas or not only clearly conveyed but also acutely understood by all parties involved in the circle of the communication (ANON, 2008).

### **1.5 CHAPTER CLASSIFICATION**

#### **Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement**

The focus of Chapter 1 is on the problem statement, followed by the research objectives and the method of research.

#### **Chapter 2: An in context analysis of the communication system**

Chapter 2 provides an overview of the development of communication globally, as well as in South Africa. This overview is followed by an exploration of the characteristics of communication in different situations. Gaps currently existing in literature concerning communication will also be addressed here. The efficacy of communication will be discussed, followed by the reasons for using effective communication.

#### **Chapter 3: Communication and Events**

Chapter 3 is the chapter describing the research used to find the link between events and communication, and to determine why it is important to for the event management to communicate with a host community of an event.

#### **Chapter 4: Empirical analysis**

Chapter 4 focuses on the empirical analysis enabled by the questionnaires and interviews that were completed at the Klein Karoo National Arts Festival in April 2007 by the local community of Oudtshoorn.

#### **Chapter 5: Conclusions and recommendations**

The focus of this chapter is the specific conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the communication efficiency of the KKNK and its external public.

# CHAPTER 2: AN ANALYSIS OF THE COMMUNICATION SYSTEM

## 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Blythe (2003) states that communication is one of the most human of activities and includes the exchanges of thoughts that characterise communication and are carried out through conversation, written word and pictures. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights, ANON (1948) states that to communicate is a fundamental human need and a uniquely human quality. It is rooted in the culture of each society and helps to define social needs and to devise strategies to meet them.

It is difficult to imagine a world without communication. Yet our earliest prehistoric ancestors were unable to produce the sounds of speech. Long before people were able to record language, they were obliged to describe and record daily activities by cave paintings. These paintings depict animals, human figures and geometric signs (Mersham & Skinner, 2002). According to Tubbs & Moss (2000), the speech function has been found to be unique to the species, *Homo sapiens*. However, research has proven that the Neanderthals, dating back 60 000 years, were the first creatures to use a form of spoken communication.

“In the nineteenth century, it was seen as an age of expansion, the twentieth century an age of innovation. If early signs are anything to go by, the twenty-first century is putting in a strong bid to become the age of communication” (Blythe, 2003). Mersham and Skinner (2002) note that “communication” is one of the most frequently used words in reports, conversations, speeches, articles and books today. For politicians, journalists, businesspeople and public relations practitioners, it has become the buzzword of the modern world. Hardly a problem arises without it being blamed on “breakdown in communication”. Communication has become the magic cure for the ills of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Yet, strangely, it seems that as the possibilities for communication increase, so the world becomes more violent and chaotic (Mersham & Skinner, 2002).

Communication is the medium for instruction, assessment, interpersonal relationships, group interactions, community relations and counselling. The way an individual communicates emanates from his or her culture. Communication can thus be described as culture bound

(Taylor, 2000). So marketers should not only pay attention to the internet, but also to changes and trends in social media in order to enhance communication with audiences by using such varied media as newsletters, pamphlets, meetings and SMS systems. Individuals share their opinions with many others and receive information about products easily. In addition, the process of the making of products can be affected, regardless of the requirements of arts organisations. This trend can benefit festivals for it offers a way to improve communication with their constituencies and to receive feedback on activities through community participation, decision-making and a shared feeling of involvement (Zacks, 2001).

The purpose of this chapter is to provide an understanding of communication, and of how communication is related to the festival industry in particular. To have efficient communication between the KKNK organisers and the host community of Oudtshoorn, a holistic concept of communication must be formed and understood. Understanding and implementing the communication model is an integral part of any societal gathering/meeting or inter-personal interaction. It can be readily seen that the context and the levels of communication apply not only to interpersonal communication, but also to a broader concept of communication between the KKNK organisers and the host community of Oudtshoorn, with each party having their own barriers and obstacles to open and clear communication.

## **2.2 DEFINING COMMUNICATION**

Communication is defined as the process of creating meaning between two or more people. This implies that any conversation between two people may be considered an interpersonal communication. Interpersonal communication can also be defined as a transactional process whereby two people (parties) share the roles of sender and receiver and exercise mutual responsibility for creating meaning (Verderber & Verderber, 1998).

Louw and du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) note that there are three things that need to be examined when seeking to understand communication.

The first point is that communication is an ever-changing, mutually interactive process. Everything involved in communication is always in a state of flux. The only constant is change itself that affects a person, relationships and their environments. All these factors influence communication behaviour.

Secondly, communication creates meaning. Understanding a message will create a reason and a context for meaning.

Thirdly, there is mutual responsibility for making sure that the meanings created are shared. Initially, this implies that both parties interacting with each other understand each other's messages.

It can be said, therefore, that communication is a deliberate attempt by two or more individuals to share meaning.

Communication must be understood as a functional process. The functions of communication can be organised into certain broad categories (Gamble & Gamble, 1998):

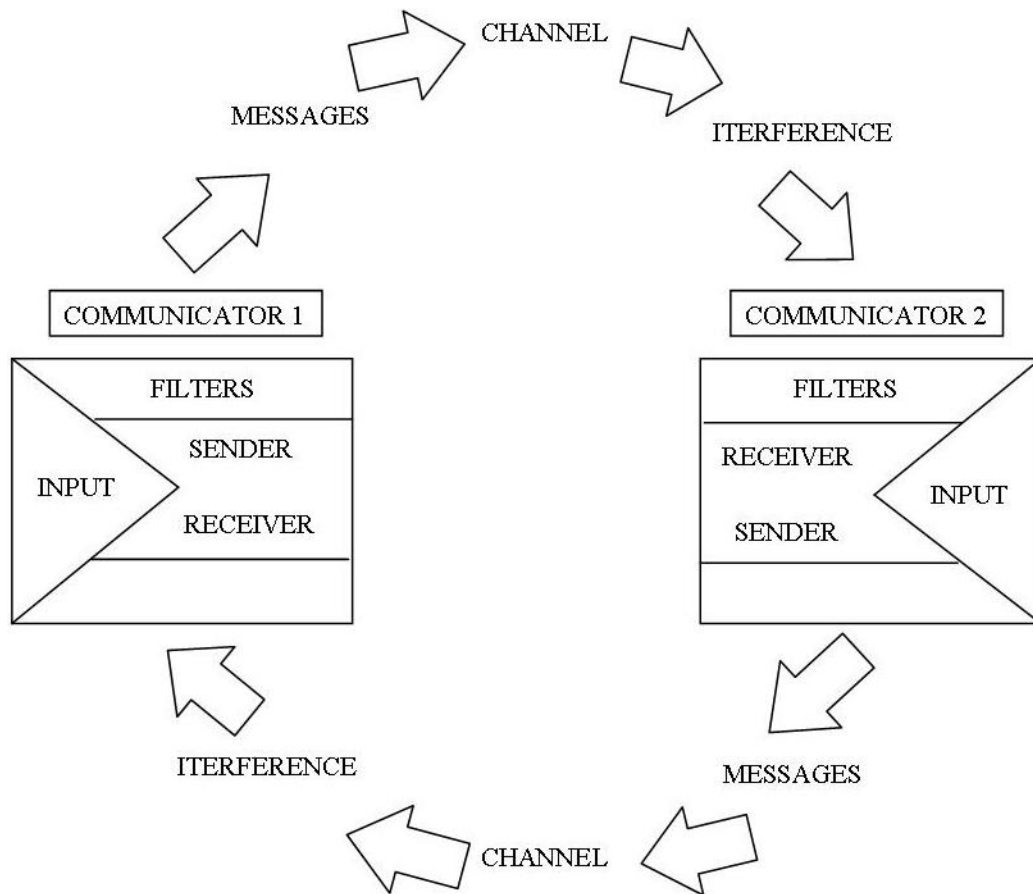
- Psychological function: This includes self-awareness and sense of self by means of feedback. It may be between one person to another, but the psychological function also plays an integral role concerning information given and participation in decisions.
- Social function: Psychologists sees the human being as social animals by nature. The importance of communication in this context lies in serving as a social function for interactivity.
- Information function: Information reduces the degree of uncertainty, and is vital as it helps with decision-making and mutual understanding.
- Influence function: Knowingly or unknowingly, a person or organisation influences someone else's behaviour or ideas at least once a day. Thus, anyone can be simultaneously both a user of, and a target for, persuasion.

The communication model shows the course of any interaction between two parties or stakeholders, in this case, the KKNK organisers and the host community of Oudtshoorn.

### **2.2.1 COMMUNICATION MODEL**

Communication is an intangible, ever-changing process (Tubbs & Moss 2000).

From with the models of Steinberg (1994); Beebe, Beebe & Redmond (2005); Gamble & Gamble (1998); Verderber & Verderber (1998); Tubbs & Moss (2000); Mersham & Skinner (2002); Blythe (2003); Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) and Cleary (2008), a communication model can be further developed to explain the most basic communication event which can thereafter be used as basis for understanding any communication that is taking place.



**Figure 2.1: Model of Communication**  
**Source: Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003**

To better understand Figure 2.1, Tubbs & Moss (2000) and Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) describe the following main components:

### **Communicator 1 & 2: Sender/Receiver**

Cleary (2008) states that communicator 1 is trying to transmit a message to Communicator 2. It must be borne in mind that both Communicator 1 and 2 are simultaneously sending and receiving messages all the time. Both Communicators are thus acting as senders and receivers of messages (Tubbs & Moss, 2000).

### **Communicator 1 as sender:**

Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) examine the role of the sender, and posit that it can be described as the initiator of a communication episode. Communication can thus not take place without a sender. As a sender, the person formulates the message and communicates it to others using verbal and non-verbal signs, symbols and codes. Symbols can represent

specific ideas and are generally understood. An important aspect of communication is the credibility of the sender.

Research by Beebe, Beebe & Redmond (2005) shows that people are attracted to persons who seem competent and credible. People invite credibility when they display a blend of enthusiasm, trustworthiness, competence and power. Credibility can be derived from the following three categories: *Initial credibility*, the attitude towards the sender before communication actually starts; *transactional credibility*, the perception formed of the other participant during communication, and; *end credibility*, the credibility ascribed to a person once a communication episode has ended.

## The Message

When examining at the figure, it is clear that the message is being conveyed along a route to be received by the receiver. Messages can be verbal or non-verbal. They can also be intentional or non-intentional. These are the four main types of messages (Tubbs & Moss 2000):

1. Intentional verbal;
2. Non-intentional verbal;
3. Intentional non-verbal; and
4. Non-intentional non-verbal

To explain the content of verbal and non-verbal messages, Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) offer the following definitions:

- Verbal messages:

According to Cleary (2008), a verbal message is any type of spoken communication that uses one or more words. Most of the communication used is *intentional verbal* messages, which means that language is intended to be used to assist people to communicate with others. The use of verbal symbols is most frequently used to communicate with others, but can be misunderstood because the words themselves do not contain meaning. Whereas *unintentional verbal* messages are the things that are said without the intention of saying them and are often described as “a slip of the tongue”, or “not expressing oneself with words that are relevant to the conversation” (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003).

- Non-verbal messages

Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) describe non-verbal messages as those messages people send without using words, or messages that are sent in addition to the words that are used. Vocal cues, facial expressions, body language, sign language, gestures and eye contact are all examples of the ways in which messages can be sent non-verbally. *Intentional non-verbal* messages are taken as an emphasis to the verbal message. For example, instead of just

saying “hello”, a wave of the hand can emphasise the message. Cleary (2008) notes that these non-verbal actions can also stand alone without any verbal communication. It must be noted that it is difficult to control non-verbal messages and *unintentional non-verbal* messages are often sent out unintentionally. For example, yawning in a meeting may not necessarily mean the listener is uninterested, but may just be tired. However, the *unintentional non-verbal* message is that the person yawning is uninterested in what the speaker has to say.

### **The channel:**

A channel forms a link between the sender and receiver (Gamble & Gamble, 1998). The channel can be seen as the route by which the message travels (Steinberg, 1994). The channels that are mostly used are light and sound waves. In mass media, electronic signals are used as channels that increasingly allow all five sensory channels to be used. These five channels include sound, sight, touch, taste and smell (Verderber & Verderber, 1998). The awareness of these channels only becomes clear when they are cut off. For example, someone that has hearing impairment cannot make use of the sound waves and has to rely on other channels to receive the message. The communication channels evaluated in this study was pamphlets, meetings, e-mail, SMS and newsletters.

### **Interference:**

After initiating a message, the sender usually assumes that the message has been received by the receiver, but interferences or noise may interfere with the transmission of the message. This interference or “noise” can be defined as anything that distorts the information transmitted to the receiver, or distracts him or her from receiving the message (Tubbs & Moss, 2000).

Interference can be divided into three categories:

- *External interference* refers to a physical noise that can be anything which draws a person's attention away from what is being said. External interference does not need to be a sound at all (Verderber & Verderber, 1998). For example, if a room is too hot or too cold, it can influence the attention span of the receiving person in the communication setup.
- *Internal interference*, on the other hand, consists of thoughts, feelings, perceptions, attitudes and stereotypes that influence the message (Gamble & Gamble, 1998). Racism, sexism, low self-esteem, excessive shyness or extroversion, tiredness and a headache, for example, can all interfere with our ability to send and receive messages effectively. It

is easier to cope with external noise than with internal noise. For example, it is easier to turn down the radio than to change an aspect of the person's personality.

- *semantic interference* occurs when the receiver does not ascribe the same meaning to a message as the sender, according to Tubbs & Moss, (2000). Semantic interference can take many forms; the most common is the language barrier within a message. If another person speaks a language the receiver does not understand, this is semantic interference. The receiver may be able to understand some of the message by making use of the non-verbal messages that is being sent, but the full meaning of the message is lost in translation. Jargon is also a form of semantic interference where academic words or "slang" is used in the message that the recipient is not familiar with (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003).

### **Communicator 2 as receiver:**

According to Tubbs & Moss, (2000) emphasis has traditionally been given to the communicator as message sender, but equally important to any viable model of human communication is an analysis of the communicator as a receiver. For most communications, visual perception will be an essential aspect of message reception (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003). As receivers, messages and behaviours are processed and a reaction is sought. According to Deaux, Dane & Wrightsman (1993), people more easily identify with and understand those with whom they share similar physical characteristics. The most important part the receiver plays is being the listener. It must be understood that listening and hearing are far from synonymous. When communicator 2 listens, four different yet interrelated processes will be involved: attention, hearing, understanding and remembering. For the message to be complete, the receiver must bear in mind the following:

- Feedback

Feedback is the response to a message. It indicates to the sender whether the receiver has heard and understood what has been said. According to Gamble & Gamble (1998), feedback is information received in exchange for messages sent. Feedback can be *positive*, reinforcing the original behaviour; *negative*, that discourages the original behaviour; *internal*, when a person assesses their own communication while communicating with someone else; and *external*, when the other party involved is sending feedback within the conversation (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003).

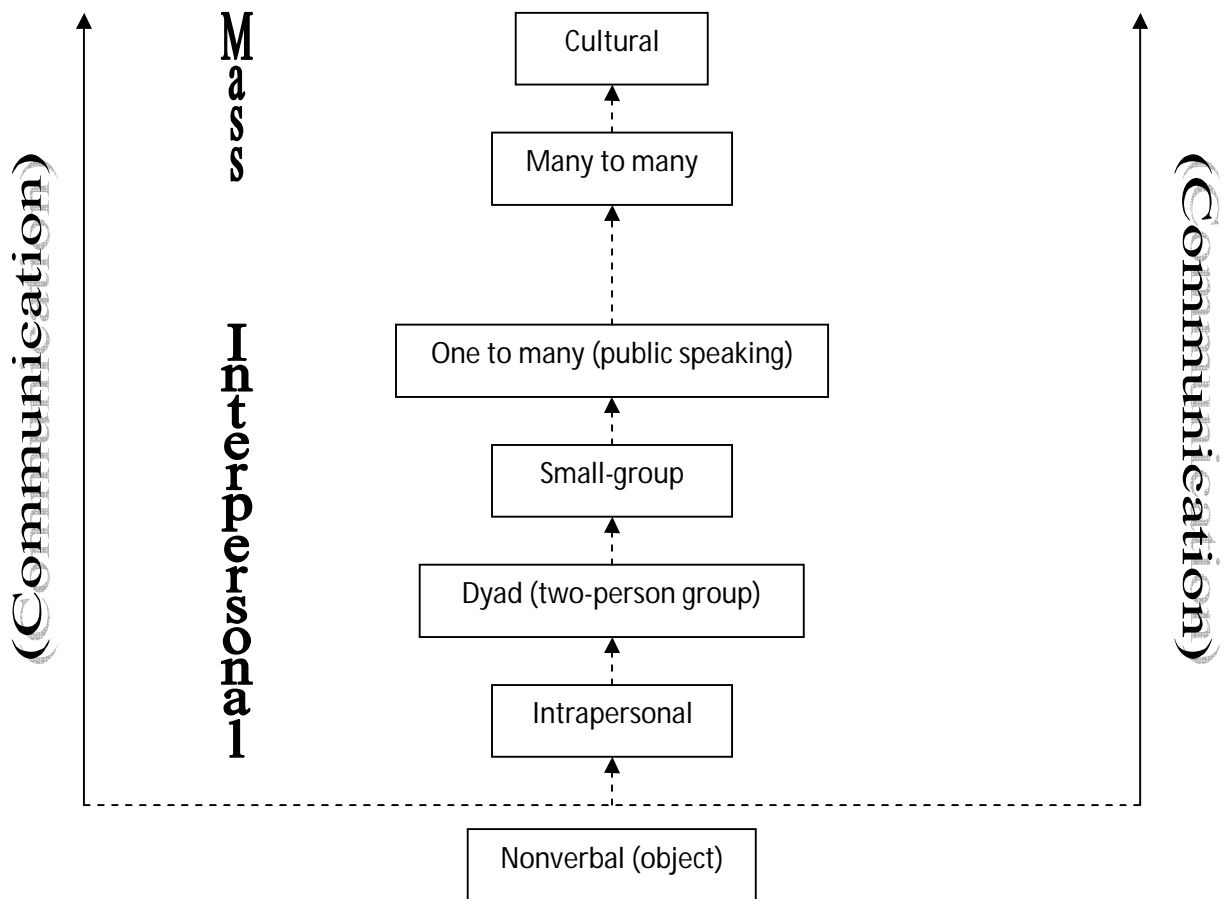
- Context

Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) offer the idea that communication does not take place in a void but within a context. At times, the context is neither obvious nor intrusive. At other times, it dominates and the way in which it restricts or stimulates messages will then be startling obvious. Communication literature agrees on five different context types:

- *physical* - refers to the concrete environment in which communication takes place;
- *social* - the nature of the relationship;
- *historical* - the background provided by previous communication episodes that have occurred between participants;
- *psychological* - is determined by the moods and feelings that each person brings to an interpersonal encounter; and
- *cultural* - the set of beliefs, values and norms that are shared by a large group of people (Cleary, 2008).

### **2.3 CONTEXT AND LEVELS OF COMMUNICATION**

Combining Barker *et al.* (2001) and Cleary (2008), the levels of communication can be placed in the following levels as seen in Figure 2.2 below.



**Figure 2.2: Levels of Communication**  
**Source: Cleary, 2008**

In Figure 2.2, the outline defines the many levels of communication that are put into two categories, those of interpersonal communication and of mass communication.

- **Interpersonal communication.**

Interpersonal communication can be defined as a transactional process where two people sharing the roles of sender and receiver exercise mutual responsibility in assigning meaning to the message (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003).

Interpersonal communication is itself sub-divided as follows:

- **Intrapersonal communication.**

This refers to the communication with ourselves. Intrapersonal communication is important in the formation on an individual's self-image (Cleary, 2008).

- **Dyadic communication.**

Cleary (2008) defines dyadic communication as communication that occurs between two people and accounts for the most informal, everyday communication transactions, including personal and intimate relationships, as well as many business situations.

- Small-group communication.  
A small group is a collection of individuals, from three to fifteen in number, who meet in face-to-face interaction over a period of time, generally with an assigned or assumed leader, who possess at least one common characteristic, and who meets with purpose in mind (Barker *et al.* 2001).
- One-to-many communication.  
Otherwise known as public speaking in Barker *et al.* (2001), one-to-many communication takes place in public arenas rather than in private places. It is usually one-way communication and is often formal in nature.
- Mass communication.  
Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) refer to mass communication as the transmission of a message to a mass audience. Essentially, it is a one-way form of communication as feedback is limited and consists of very little direct or personal contact.

Mass communication is divided in the following sub-categories:

- Many-to-many.  
Better known as organisational communication, it consists of groups of people who work together to reach a specific goal. The individuals have to communicate with each other and so share information if they are to reach shared goals (Cleary, 2008).
- Cultural.  
Cleary (2008) defines cultural communication as the communication between people who belong to different cultures, and who thus have different values, beliefs, behaviours and ways of communicating. Because shared or common meaning is essential for communication to occur successfully, people from different cultures need to establish some common ground and to cultivate an open, positive attitude toward one another.

For this study to be successful, great emphasis will be placed on intercultural communication.

## **2.4 COMMUNICATION BARRIERS AND GUIDELINES**

The causes of communication misunderstanding are referred to as barriers. A barrier is defined as any factor that hampers or prevents the smooth flow of the message from the sender to the audience, be the audience one person or many. Barriers can affect all four communication skills, that is, speaking, reading, listening and writing (Cleary, 2008).

Cleary (2008); Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) and Blythe (2003) identify and categorise five main communication barriers that often overlap. The five barriers are:

- perceptual barriers;
- language barriers;
- physical barriers;
- physiological barriers; and
- psychological barriers

These different categories of barrier will be explained below.

#### **2.4.1 Perceptual barriers.**

People tend to equate their own perceptions with reality, not realising that they can see only a small part of reality from their frame of reference. People believe that they perceive the whole of reality. This leads to a perception that each other person believes the same in their own reality (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003).

Cleary (2008) states that perception is the process of selecting and organising information gained through the senses in such a way that the information gained makes sense. It is a way of interpreting information or giving meaning to the world around you. Because perception is selective, two people may witness the same event but their perception of that event will differ. With this in mind, perceptual barriers occur because of the following factors:

- **Cultural background.**  
Being part of the same social system does not mean that people are all the same. People are unique, even people who grow up in the same family are different from one another. This makes communication a difficult and complex phenomenon (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003). However, it has been that when members of a particular cultural group recognise and respect the cultural practices of others, miscommunication is less likely to occur. Nevertheless, what too-frequently happens is that people perceive the practices of others in terms of their own cultural practices. The result is a judgement of the other people and their culture. Regrettably, the judgement is usually negative. This leads to stereotyping and results in a failure to recognise the individuality of people within a culture (Cleary, 2008).
- **Past experience.**  
Cleary (2008) states that perceptions are learned through experiences. As no two people have identical experiences, people will perceive the same situation in somewhat different ways.

- **Selection.**  
 People tend to select which they want to give attention to, usually what they either expect or are familiar with Cleary (2008). This selection of traits can be categorised in either a positive or a negative perspective. The *halo effect* occurs when, having perceived one or more favourable trait(s) in a person or thing, all subsequent transactions with that person or thing are then perceived in the same favourable way. Conversely, the *horn effect* perceives unfavourable trait(s) perceived in someone and colours all subsequent traits with the same negative view (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003).
- **Needs**  
 Cleary (2008) states that people are also influenced by their own physical and psychological needs. Figure 2.3 shows how Maslow put forward a hierarchy of basic human needs supporting the theory that people are motivated by universal human needs. When lower-level needs are left unsatisfied, it is very difficult to motivate people by appealing to higher-level needs (Bennet *et al.* 2006).

Higher	5 <i>Self-actualisation:</i> Personal self –fulfilment (Self-fulfilment, realizing one’s potential)
↑	4 <i>Esteem, self-esteem:</i> Esteem of others (Self-respect, achievement, self-confidence, reputation, recognition, prestige)
	3 <i>Belonging and love:</i> Affection, giving and receiving love (Feeling of belonging, affectionate relationships, friendship, group membership)
	2 <i>Safety, security:</i> Freedom from fear and anxiety (Freedom from threat of danger; a secure, orderly and predictable environment)
Lower	1 <i>Physiological:</i> Hunger, thirst, rest, activity (Hunger, thirst, sex, sleep, air)

**Figure 2.3: Maslow’s hierarchy of needs**  
 Source: de Wet (2010)

To overcome this barrier a communicator must strive to meet the needs of the audience so that unfulfilled needs do not become barriers to communication (Cleary, 2008).

- Education.

Cleary (2008) states that both education and intelligence play a major role in moulding people's perceptions. People of different intelligence levels will perceive the same situations from different points of views.

#### **2.4.2 Language barriers.**

Cleary (2008) states that language, and the way people use it, often turns into barriers. This happens in different ways:

- Meaning and understanding. This refers primarily to the accurate reception of the context of the intended stimulus. In this sense, a communicator is said to be effective if the receiver has an accurate understanding of the message the communicator has tried to convey. If this does not happen, meaning and understanding themselves become a barrier (Tubbs & Moss, 2000).
- Jargon. Tubbs & Moss, (2000), Cleary (2008) and Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) all define jargon as a specialised language of a particular field or profession. The terms used have different meanings to people who may have no knowledge of the jargon. The only time it is acceptable to use jargon is when communicating to other people from the same field who are familiar with the terms in the context they are used.
- Difficult words. Using words that are too complex for the intended audience causes a barrier of not understanding (Cleary, 2008).
- Insensitive use of language. Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) define this as taboo language. This perhaps profane language is language that is generally considered unacceptable, showing contempt for that which is sacred or of great value to people.
- Pronunciation. Incorrect pronunciation confuses the audience who might hear a different word to the one intended, or might be unable to recognise the word at all (Cleary, 2008). Words that sound the same may have different meanings and so can create ambiguity, leading to confusion and misunderstanding (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003).

- Incorrect grammar. As with poor pronunciation, a communicator's application of the rules of grammar can confuse or distract the audience and cause a major communication barrier (Cleary, 2008).
- Long sentences. Tubbs & Moss (2000) state that when speaking and writing, some communicators use long sentences that are very difficult to decode and usually result, in the case of written messages, in the audience having to go back to the beginning of the sentence to read again. In spoken messages, however, the result is often total confusion, as the option of revisiting the beginning of the sentence is not available.
- Spelling or punctuation errors. Errors of spelling or punctuation in a written document are distracting and may lead to confusion as punctuation (or phrasing) and pronunciation errors do in verbal transactions (Cleary, 2008).

### **2.4.3 Physiological barriers**

Physiological barriers are experienced internally, in other words, within the body of the sender or audience (Cleary, 2008). This internal barrier consists of the physical body sending the receiving person signals, such as hunger, a cold, a headache or sleepiness that prevents reception of the message intended (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003).

### **2.4.4 Physical barriers**

Physical barriers are factors or elements in the external environment that hamper communication (Cleary, 2008). Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers (2003) define physical barriers as a type of external noise that consists of anything in the environment that draws your attention away from what is being said (Verderber & Verderber, 1998).

### **2.4.5 Psychological barriers**

This psychological barrier is again an internal barrier and consists of thoughts, feelings, perceptions, attitudes and stereotypes that interfere with the message, and that are experienced in the mind of the communicator or listener (Louw & du Plooy-Cilliers, 2003 and Cleary, 2008).

### 2.4.6 Guidelines for effective communication

Effective communication is an integral part of any successful organisation. To be effective, communication should be free from barriers. It is a two way process where the message sent by the sender should be interpreted in the same terms by the recipient. The characteristics of effective communication can therefore be elucidated as follows:

- **Clarity of Purpose:** The message to be delivered must be clear in the mind of sender. The person to whom it is targeted and the aim of the message should be clear in the mind of the sender.
- **Completeness:** The message delivered should be complete. It should be supported by facts and observations. It should be well planned and organised. No assumptions should need to be made by the receiver.
- **Conciseness:** The message should be concise. It should not include any unnecessary details. It should be short but complete.
- **Feedback:** Whether the message sent by the sender is understood in same terms by the receiver or not can be judged by the feedback received. The feedback should be timely and in person. It should be specific, rather than general.
- **Empathy:** Empathy with the listeners is essential for effective verbal communication. The speaker should be able to step into the shoes of the listener and so be sensitive to their needs and emotions. This way the speaker can understand things from the audience's perspective and thus make communication more effective.
- **Modify the message according to the audience:** The information required by different people in the organisation differs according to their differing needs. What is relevant to the middle level management might not be relevant to the top level of management. Use of jargon should be minimised as it might lead to misunderstanding and misinterpretations. The message should be modified according to the needs and requirements of the targeted audience.
- **Multiple Channels of communication:** To facilitate effective communication, multiple channels should be used as these increase the chances of clarity of message. The message is reinforced by using different channels and there are fewer chances of deformation of message.
- **Make effective use of Grapevine (informal channel of communication):** The employees and managers should not always discourage informal communications, perhaps better known as the grapevine. They should instead make effective use of grapevine communication. The managers can use grapevine to deliver formal messages and for identification of issues which are significant for the employees. The managers can get to know the problems faced by the employees and can work upon

them without the degree of formality sometimes imposed by official channels of communication (ANON, 2010).

### **2.4.7 CONCLUSION**

The aim of this chapter was to analyse and to examine the communication system. This aim was realised by contextualising communication, starting from a historical perspective and then describing where the context stands currently. Models and contexts of communication were described and similarities were found between the historic and modern uses of communication. The reasons for effective communication were clarified, thus leading to the development of more efficient communication strategies in a broader sense.

In order to find the link between events and communication and its importance when communicating with a host community of an event, the next chapter will focus on the integral part the host community plays as major role-player within any event. The necessity of communication between the KKNK organisers and the host community will also be emphasised.

## CHAPTER 3: COMMUNICATION AND EVENTS

### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Events can be used as a mechanism to improve tourism development in certain areas (Fredline, Jago & Deery, 2003). However, there has been a lack of research in this area in South Africa and it becomes necessary to evaluate the impact of events on the hosting community in a holistic manner.

The community involvement in the celebrations of festivals is one feature that distinguishes them from other events (Arcodia & Robb, 2000). "Festivals are a celebration of something the local community wishes to share and that involves the public as participants in the experience". Festivals can be defined as secular or religious cultural celebrations, which are hosted and designed by the public, for the public. They could take place alongside other events or individually; and "festivals include bringing buyer and seller together in a festival atmosphere" (Silvers, 2008).

Festivals are important to hosting communities because they expand and build the cultural and social aspects of the community. They also have the capability of creating business opportunities and generating income (Allen *et al.* 2000). Festivals have the ability to attract many tourists to a destination (Slabbert, 2004) but, for this to take place, the management of the event has to be of the highest standard since this could contribute to an improved image of the event and of the community (Saayman, 2007; Derret, 2000).

A festival too is the platform where tourists make contact with the local community. This interaction is where cultural tourism begins (Derrett, 2000). Getz (1997) states that a festival, "is of the community, by the community, and for the community". The vivid community celebration atmosphere of festivals (Arcodia & Robb, 2000) is what gives them their "specialness" (Getz, 1997). This special atmosphere is created and experienced because of the "festive spirit, uniqueness, quality, authenticity, tradition, hospitality, theme and symbolism" of events. Governments and corporate marketers have noted the economic importance of festivals and, as a result, festivals are being held for many different motives including economic, political, environmental and socio-cultural reasons (Getz, 1997).

The aim of this chapter is to analyse factors that determine the role of the host community as role players of the KKNK and to the communication of events to them. In order to achieve this aim, an assessment of the current situation will be made and discussed. The results of this analysis are important to ensure the continuing success of the event.

### **3.2EVENTS AS A GROWING PHENOMENON**

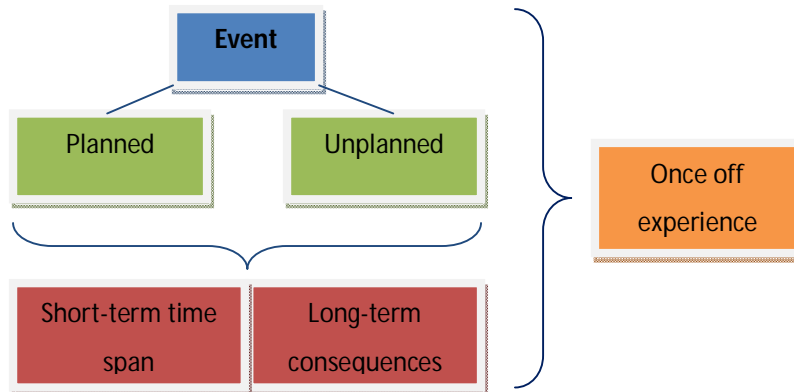
The events sector of tourism encompasses a wide range of interlinked activities, and is not solely concerned with the provision of activities, entertainment, refreshment and equipment. Although the basic events may require only these things, the larger and more elaborate the events become, the greater the need for increased technical and logistical support. As the complexity of needs and demands increases, the standard of organisation required increases exponentially and specialist activity suppliers have been founded to service these needs. An event such as the KKNK provides host communities with a strong platform to highlight expertise, to host potential investors and to promote new business opportunities. The success of such an event generates favourable media exposure and can dramatically illustrate the capacity, innovation and achievements of event participants or of the host community. Special events can thus be seen as enabling mechanisms and ones that present opportunities. The community must thus be willing and able to capitalise on these opportunities (Allen *et al.* 2000).

Festivals were primarily created to meet the needs of the local population and have existed for many years. Festivals are regular in that they occur annually. Where there is a particular concentration of activities over a short period at festivals, this concentration can be seen as part of a special event (Hughes, 2000). According to Gursoy *et al.* (2002), the growth of festivals and special events in numbers, in diversity and in popularity has been enormous. Communities have developed, and are actively developing, new festivals and events not only as leisure and as cultural pursuits for residents, but also for their economic and community development benefits. This significant growth brought a parallel increase in the professional management of events and festivals.

Hughes (2000) describes the aims of a festival as one or more of the following:

- Sharing common interests with others;
- Celebrating a particular art form, and
- Celebrating particular local culture.

Festivals and special events provide important activities and spending outlets for locals and visitors alike, and play a significant role in the lives of communities in that they provide opportunities to enhance the local community's image (Gursoy *et al.* 2002).



**Figure 3.1: Event temporality**  
**Source: Gursoy *et al.* (2002)**

Figure 3.1 indicates that events occur on a temporary base and can be either planned or unplanned. The length of events is limited and for planned events, such as cultural events, the length is usually fixed and publicised in various relevant media. Although events are short-term, they hold potential long-term consequences for the cities that stage them. The event cannot be experience again, once it has finished (Getz, 1997).

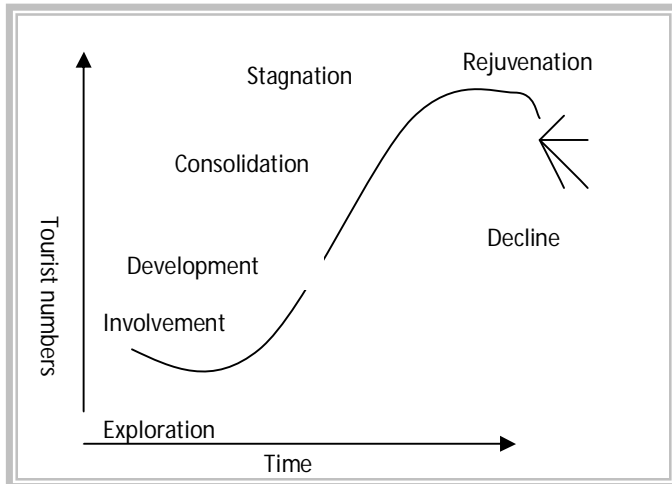
Festivals are one of the fastest growing forms of community and visitor activities (Delamere, Wankel & Hinch, 2001). Festivals are also unique travel attractions because they do not always rely upon expensive physical development. The success of special events and festivals lies rather in the dependence upon the enthusiasm of the event organisers and the local community rather than upon unique natural or built attractions (Gursoy *et al.* 2002).

This further suggests that by building strong ties within a community, festivals and special events reinforce the social and cultural identity of that community. This cultural identity can be explained by the Butler's resort cycle model that focuses on different types of tourists and different community groups.

**Butler's resort cycle model**

Butler's Resort Cycle model (1980) is one of the most quoted concepts to explain the evolution of tourist systems. Butler believes that, over time, tourist destinations pass through a number of identifiable stages. The Butler model graphically takes the form of an S-shaped curve. This curve represents a cycle of rapid growth followed by stabilisation. The model also

illustrates possible future scenarios, including continued growth at a reduced rate, decline and/or rejuvenation (Thomas, Pigozzi & Sambrook, 2005).



**Figure 3.2 Butler's resort cycle model**  
Source: Thomas *et al.* (2005)

The exploration stage focuses on a few adventurous tourists that visit a site with no public facilities (Mason, 2005). Natural and physical features attract the tourists to the resort (Howie, 2003).

The 'involvement' stage sees local communities deciding whether to encourage tourism positively through the provision of the facilities that the communities assume to be desired by tourists, often in conjunction with the local authorities. Appropriate tourism organisations may be set up (Howie, 2003; Mason, 2005), for example, the introduction of the KKNK to the community of Oudtshoorn and the tourists.

The development stage is seen as the development of additional tourist facilities and increased promotion efforts of the event. The number of tourists at peak periods may now outweigh the size of the resident population, inducing rising antagonism by the latter towards the visitors (Howie, 2003; Mason, 2005).

The stage of consolidation is where tourism becomes a major, defined, part of the local economy, and the levelling of the growth rates. A delineated business district has taken shape. Some of the deteriorating facilities are now perceived as second rate and local efforts are made to extend the tourist season (Mason, 2005).

The stagnation stage shows the number of tourist and capacity levels reach a peak. This last stage can be divided into two, depending on the strategy chosen by the destination. Firstly, is the 'decline' is the result of poor or inappropriate attempts to halt the fall-off of visitors? Are

tourists now favouring new or revitalised destinations? It is a time of (overdue) introspection, of asking, 'What went wrong? What can be done?' (Howie, 2003).

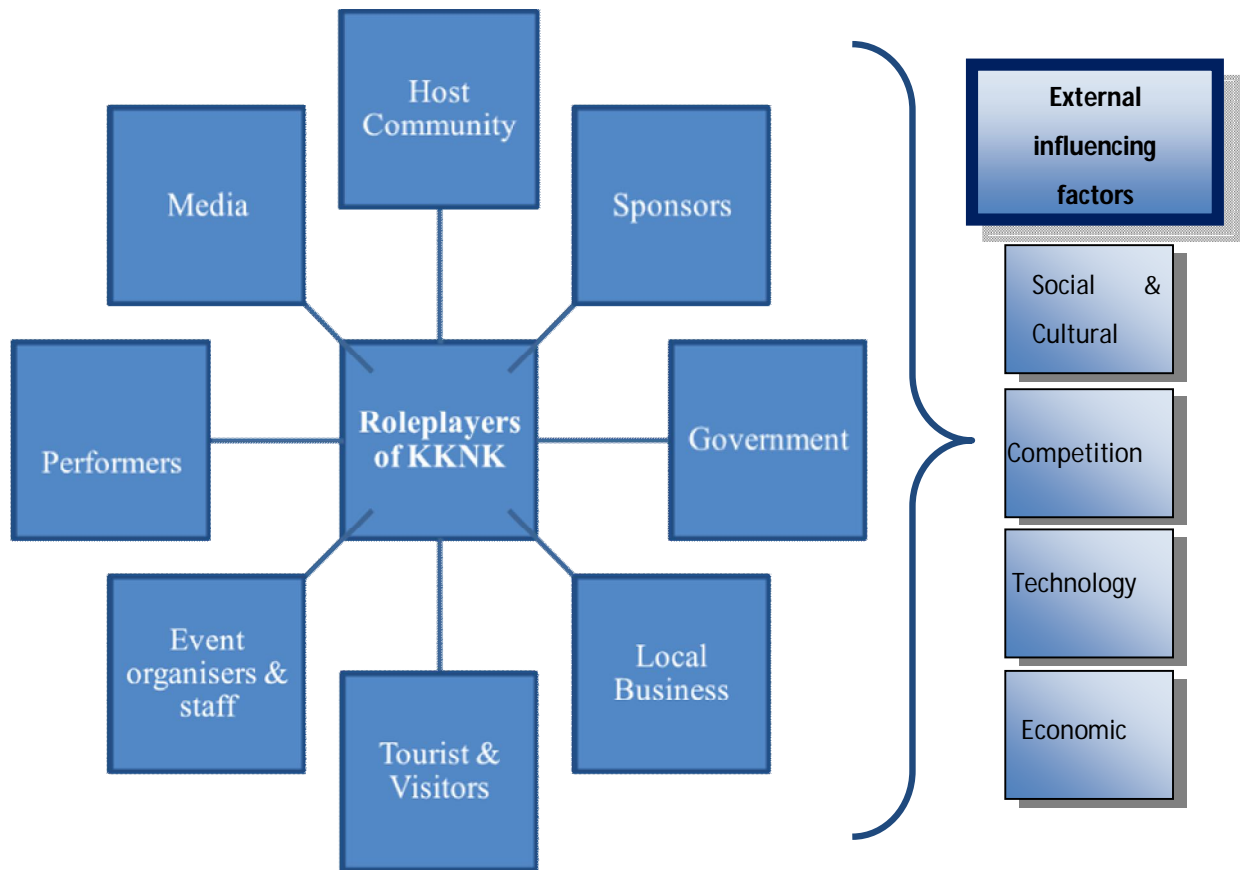
Secondly, 'rejuvenation' is the result of successful strategies rising from the introspection and of drawing insight and lessons from similar destinations. Restrictions on development are inevitably forced by the built environment since tourism has now been built into the way of life of the destination (Howie, 2003).

The destination lifecycle model has an appealing simplicity. However, it overlooks the fact that tourism is unlikely to be the sole economic activity within a destination. The model works well for 'destinations' where tourism is the principal activity, but in more complex places it is less useful (Howie, 2003).

Butler's Recycle model works well in conjunction with the development of 'destinations' but it does not concentrate on how communities are compensated for the imposition that the events industry places upon them. The theoretical perspectives offered by the destination lifecycle model are valuable. However, the responses to the process of change are equally important. At the various stages, there is interaction between the social, cultural, economic and environmental factors (Howie, 2003). These all require measurement, analysis and evaluation. The social exchange theory includes each of these aspects and will be discussed below.

### **3.3 ROLE PLAYERS**

Due to the development of the events industry, greater emphasis is being placed on the role of the major players in event management. An event can develop most successfully when the needs of each key role player are understood and if each role player can make a satisfactory investment. Ongoing consultation with the key role players through regular briefings, awareness raising and promotion can minimise negative impacts and encourage useful cooperation. The following role players each play a vital part in events such as the KKNK.



**Figure 3.3: Role players and external influencing factors of the KKNK**

Each of the mentioned role players in Figure 3.3 is set out as an integral part of the communication efficacy of the KKNK. Communication between different role players, as well as external influences that may have an effect of the efficacy of the festival as a whole, is diagrammed to emphasise their importance.

### 3.3.1 Host community

A community emerges when a number of people living in the same general locality, realise that they are sharing a common interest and have mutual needs because of the fact that the people are living near one another. As the residents work together to satisfy common needs, a community develops. A community is characterised by social interaction, involving the use of space, that the residents occupy (Dressler, 1969).

The host community is often overlooked but is an important role player concerning events held in their town or city. The local community is one of the most important factors in determining the success of an event (Fredline & Faulkner, 2002; Jago *et al.* 2003). Involving

the broader community ensures fewer problems and greater community acceptance than if only the business community or others from outside the community are involved (Dimmock & Tiyce, 2001).

The local community provides many of the businesses, public places and hospitality services used by visitors. Staff, volunteers and a great many resources come from the local community. Opportunities for residents to share their views on aspects of the festival through consultation or community *fora* that bring issues and views together are important. The mood, needs and desires of the community will determine the receptiveness of the local community to event styles and fashions (Allen *et al.* 2000). It is important to recognise the impact of the event on the host community and for that community to own and participate in the event. The host community may include residents, traders, lobby groups and public authorities such as council, transport, police, fire- and ambulance-services. Community leaders should be identified and involved in planning the event. Host communities have past experience of different local events, and event organisers can draw on this knowledge to ensure an event's success (Allen *et al.* 2000).

As events grow, it is probable that feelings of hostility between the local community and the tourists/visitors intensify. It is the local communities that must endure the socio-cultural impacts of mass tourism: the disruption of established activity patterns, any anti-social behaviour, crime and overcrowding caused by the tourism developments, and even impacts on local lifestyles and quality of life (Wearing, 2001).

The local people are often very well-informed concerning the local attractions, and can be employed as guides or guest speakers (Saayman, 2002). If the local community see themselves as an integral part of the event, and are interested in the event, their enthusiasm will have a positive effect on the way that visitors view both the event and the destination (Jago *et al.* 2003). Interaction between organisers, local businesses and the general community over the period of the event's organisation raises awareness of community resources and expertise, produces social links between previously unconnected groups and individuals, identifies possibilities for the development of the community's resources and generally encourages a stronger interaction between existing community organisations (Arcodia & Whitford, 2002). However, host communities often are the weaker party in interactions with their guests and service providers, unable to leverage any influence they might have. The influences on the host communities of the events are difficult to measure, depend on value judgements and are not always clear, but are often indirect or hard to identify (UNEP, 2002).

Haley, Snaith & Miller, (2004) state that an important factor that needs to be considered in planning is the information about the consequences and impacts of tourism from the perspective of the hosts. Residents are important players who can influence the success or failure of the local industry, irrespective of how tourism is introduced and developed in a community. The residents may contribute to the welfare of the community through their involvement in planning development, and through the operation of attractions and by extending their hospitality in exchange for reimbursement obtained from tourism. On the other hand, residents may be influential in discouraging the industry by opposing it or exhibiting aggressive behaviour toward tourism advocates, or worse towards the tourists themselves. A balance must be sought between the benefits and costs for all stakeholders, particularly residents, not only for tourists and the tourism industry (Haley, Snaith & Miller, 2004).

Delamere, Wankel & Hinch, (2001) state that, as the number and size of festivals continue to swell, many locals are faced with challenges relating to their roles in the development of festivals in their own communities. The social impact of the festivals of a community is often seen to be “external” to most forms of economic assessment. These impacts are less tangible than economic impacts, and are more difficult to understand and determine.

Although past research has made significant steps towards better understanding of the relationship between positive and negative perceptions of tourism and of support for specific policies, historically most research on residents’ perceptions has been theoretical.

The social exchange theory has been the dominant theory, which concentrates on the extent to which residents receive something beneficial in return for the burden the industry places upon them (Haley, Snaith & Miller, 2004).

### **3.3.1.1 Participation**

Community participation is an empowerment device aimed to allow the community control over their environment by equipping beneficiary communities with the capacity to identify, define, analyse and proffer solutions to their own problems (Soola, 2002). Offering an alternative approach to development, community participation requires alternative communication types, channels and strategies in the pursuit, actualisation and sustainability of development objectives. The micro and communal nature of community participation in the

development process requires a shift from the big to small, and in participatory community media (Soola, 2002).

For the role of communication in community participation, three steps need to be taken in consideration:

1. Research into the cultural, socio-economic and political environment of the receivers of media messages and beneficiaries of development benefits must be completed;
2. Serious consideration need to be given to the messaging, to form and design, drawing from an understanding of the audience; and
3. The best, most appropriate, medium or media mix must be chosen.

In the process of public participation in South Africa, poverty and the legacy of apartheid has been a major barrier. Existing physical barriers such as distances and infrastructure lack are compounded by, for example, limited services and communication channels.

To facilitate public participation and to allow positive expression to influence the development processes, communication strategies should be crafted. Information should be communicated in accessible formats, for example, by using community radio stations, workshops and other participatory programs. Time should be taken to identify the “correct” stakeholders for the particular situation. This is crucial because these individual and/or groups are in a position to constructively participate and monitor progress of the development (Soola, 2002).

Both suppliers, through community participation and support, and the tourists/visitors are members of the community involved (Molloy, 2002). The compatibility of an event with host community values and expectations is important if the local residents are not to see themselves and their community as being exploited (Williams, Hainsworth & Dossa, 1995). Should the local community come to believe that repeated tourist development is destroying their physical and social environment, and that tourists are the reason for this process, the interaction between the tourists and the local community will be damaged. This will adversely influence the image of friendliness of the locals (Hall, 2000; Jurowski *et al.* 1997). Chwe (1998) suggests that public events also play an important role in creating a general common knowledge by providing a communication mechanism for residents to communicate social information. Literature also suggests that events provide social incentives for residents to become actively involved in community activities.

The two words, 'local' and 'participation', are regularly used together to emphasise the need to include and involve local people. It is the combination of these two words that implies that it is local people who have so often been left out of the planning, decision-making and operation of tourist schemes (Mowforth & Munt, 2003). Involving local communities in managing tourism is one of the foundational precepts of sustainable tourism development. The overall aim of community involvement is to reduce potential conflict between tourism and the residents. Methods of community involvement are diverse, but may include discussion with the host community about tourism tactics and proposals or seeking some input into policies (Page, Brint, Busby & Connell, 2002).

Some of the opportunities created by tourism may include the following:

- cultural exchanges;
- revitalised local traditions;
- increased quality of life; and
- an improved image of the community.

Through participating in a festival or a special event, residents demonstrate their loyalty by being active members of the community – good citizens, potential partners in mutually reciprocal relationships. Festivals and special events also provide a communication instrument for residents to communicate social information (Gursoy *et al.* 2002). Traditionally, it was expected that if people were employed in tourism, they were more likely to form and hold a positive attitude towards the industry. However, a negative attitude towards the industry would be shaped if the working experience was found to be depressing (Haley, Snaith & Miller, 2004).

Through the participation in planning, growth and process of attractions, residents can make input into the welfare of the community (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Haley, Snaith & Miller, 2004). If residents have a sense of ownership of the planning policies and have trust in the event organisers, there is more likely to be a positive perception of the result of the process. Partaking in the planning process is often advocated as a device for implementing social justice by integrating residents and tourism growth objectives (Waitt, 2003).

Mowforth & Munt (2003) offer that the standard of local participation can easily be promoted. Participation can be promoted in a number of different ways. Pretty's typology of participation

is helpful in understanding the factors that have an effect on the development of tourism schemes in local communities (Mason, 2005).

**Table 3.1: Pretty's typology of participation**

Typology	Characteristics of each type
Passive participation	People participate by being told what has been decided or what has already happened. Information being shared belongs only to external professionals.
Participation by consultation	People participate by being consulted or by answering questions. The process does not concede any share in decision-making, and professionals are under no obligation to take on organisers or other people's views.
Bought participation	People participate in return for food, cash or other material incentives. Local people have no stake in prolonging technologies or practices when the incentives end.
Functional participation	Participation is seen by external agencies as a means to achieve goals, especially those of reduced costs. People participate by forming groups to meet predetermined objectives.
Interactive participation	People participate in joint analysis, the development of action plans and formation or strengthening of local groups or institutions. Learning methodologies are used to seek multiple perspectives and groups determine how available resources are used
Self-mobilisation and connectedness	People participate by taking initiatives independently of external institutions to change systems. People develop contacts with external institutions for resources and technical advice needed, but retain control over resource use.

**Source: Mowforth & Munt (2003)**

Table 3.1 states the contradictory interpretations of the term 'participation', local circumstances and the uneven distribution of power between local and other interest groups and explains them in this participation typology of Pretty. Pretty's typology is particularly helpful in developing an understanding of the factors that affect the development of tourism schemes in local communities (Mason, 2005; Mowforth & Munt, 2003). This can be helpful

with regards of communicating positive participation within the KKNK and its host communities.

### **3.3.1.2 Perceptions**

Eccles & Costa, (1996) refers to the relationship between tourists and locals as “hosts’ perceptions”, and considers the way locals respond to tourists. The reactions of hosts differ and vary in ways such as complete resistance to an event through to the complete adoption of other cultures. In order to overcome resistance, the perceptions of residents need to be carefully considered, as they are fundamental to tourism planning and development.

Tourism can have both positive and negative outcomes for residents in communities where sharing and preserving their culture could be seen as conflicting goals (Besculides *et al.* 2002). Even so, the local community can be seen as the nucleus of the tourism product, and greater involvement of the community in tourism development has become a widely accepted aim amongst planners (Henderson, 2000). Events make a difference in the lives of the community because they provide important activities for locals and spending outlets for visitors, and enhance a local community’s image.

(Fredline *et al.* 2003) states that, historically, most research on the perceptions of residents has been theoretical. Social and economic factors such as community attachment, length of residence in an area, and economic dependency on tourism can all influence resident’s perceptions of, and attitudes towards, tourism (Besculides *et al.* 2002). It is also true that even when overall attitudes towards tourism are positive, residents living in close proximity to attractions can have greater concern about tourism impacts than do those living further away.

Positive aspects of tourism include improvements in local infrastructure, increased employment opportunities, and increased recreational opportunities (Haley, Snaith & Miller, 2004). Residents who perceive rewards of either maintenance and/or improvement of social and economic well-being are overall more likely to evaluate the event positively. Fulfilment of benefits suggests that residents may well be aware of the negative effects, but accept tourism because residents perceive the positives as satisfactory, reasonable, or as acceptable levels of benefits from the social exchange relationship rather than seeking the maximisation of benefits (Waitt, 2003).

Haley, Snaith & Miller, (2004) states that negative perceptions of the attitudes of the host communities are highlighted concerning increased noise, increased litter, heavier traffic, increased crime, overcrowding, and tourism-induced price increases. Some researchers have found that a resident's level of attachment to a destination is related to negative attitudes toward tourism. Residents who have the strongest attachment to the community are more likely to have negative attitudes toward tourism than those who are less attached (Fridgen, 1996). Research has revealed how some residents may adjust to these fluctuations by scheduling holidays at peak periods in order to avoid the negative impacts (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997).

Haley, Snaith & Miller, (2004) include other significant findings such as the personal and demographic factors known to influence attitudes and perceptions, such as distance of residence from the central tourism zone, and the influence of the length of residence in the community. However, a threshold of tolerance towards tourism is assumed to exist that varies both spatially and temporally and that, once exceeded, unleashes negativities (Waitt, 2003). These perceptions and attitudes are felt generally by residents toward the impacts of tourism and they are an important planning and policy consideration for successful development, and communication, and for operation of existing and future tourism programmes (Ko & Stewart, 2002).

### **3.3.2 Sponsors**

In recent years, large increases in event sponsorship have been seen. A corresponding change has been found in how events are now perceived by sponsors. Large organisations consider sponsorship as an important part of marketing. Successful major events are seen as desirable properties, capable of increasing brand awareness and driving sales providing key opportunities for relationship building through hosting associates and clients (Allen *et al.* 2000). Event sponsorship has become one of the most rapidly growing forms of advertising of consumer products (Coughlan & Mules, 2001).

Finding sponsors is never easy, and placing too great a reliance on sponsorship can be fraught with peril. If the event is to be more than a one-off event, there is also a danger of losing sponsors. Mismatching of events and sponsors will cause problems for both sponsor and the event. As with ABSA and the KKNK, corporate sponsorship is dependent on the benefits the company will receive, while the size of the sponsorship will affect the level at which the sponsorship decision is made (Watt, 1998). Sponsors should have the support of

the host community where the event is held, otherwise, negative reactions may result from potential visitors to the event (Goldblatt, 1997).

### 3.3.3 Government

With increasing frequency, governments are using special events as a platform for industrial and economic development (Burgan & Mules, 2001). Government provides support by partnerships between different role players, and protects the essentially unpredictable quality of events.

The South African Government has opted to use tourism as a tool to grow the economy (SA, 2004). Three levels of government are identified, national, provincial and local. All these levels are involved in tourism where each can formulate its own policies and legislation subordinate to national laws. The national government plays five key roles in the development and promotion of the tourism industry,

- Facilitation;
- planning and policy-making;
- coordination;
- regulating and monitoring; and
- the development of promotion.

Events are used by different levels of government to increase the tourist numbers to a specific area (SA, 2004).

Government authorities often control public resources that are important for the planning of the event and the cooperation, and its support is therefore critical. It is important to ensure a cooperative approach with sufficient planning and management to ensure public resources are appropriately accessed, managed and protected (Allen *et al.* 2000). Government expenditure items can include the following:

- Public expenditure on construction of facilities and supporting infrastructure (for example, road works);
- Public expenditure on provision of additional police, ambulance officers and other protective services; and
- Government subsidies relating to events

High profile events may also be viewed as a strategy whereby the hosting of such a mega-event propels a government to invest in new and update infrastructure (Richards, 1992). This will additionally provide a strong motivation for the community to act as host for the event (Allen *et al.* 2000).

### **3.3.4 Local businesses**

Little is known of an event's significance to individual industries within a designated economy. Without a better understanding of the impact distribution in the local economy, local businesses may be unaware of the total impact due to the event on each individual business. Consequently, it becomes important to know the distribution of the impacts among local industries (Yu & Turco, 2000).

Though economic impact studies continue to suggest that event tourism benefit local tourism-related businesses, income generation alone is not enough proof. At the Albuquerque International Balloon Fiesta, Yu & Turco (2000) did a study and found that hotel and lodging, eating and drinking, food stores, automobile repair and services, and owner-occupied dwellings were the five largest output and income receivers from the festival. The shopping expenditures too directly produced impacts on the general retail stores, clothing and accessory stores, wholesale trade and diverse retail sectors. Hence, cooperation between festival organisers and local tourism-related industries should be encouraged (Yu & Turco, 2000).

Events provide incentives for businesses to become involved in the community because they provide promotional opportunities for businesses (Gursoy *et al.* 2002). Strategic planning provides a sense of ownership among stakeholders in the selected objectives and approach. The chosen framework encourages stakeholders to determine their roles and to work cooperatively. In the context of a changing environment, strategic planning helps tourist destinations to optimise the use of human and natural resources, and to take into account the needs of all stakeholders (Bramwell, 1997).

### **3.3.5 Tourists/visitor**

The tourist/visitor plays one of the most important roles in the event. If the visitor does not attend or is not pleased with the result of the event, all positive impacts are lost. Literature is not clear as to what is needed to satisfy the tourist/visitor in order to host an event

successfully (Gursoy & Kendall, 2006). Nevertheless, it is apparent that satisfying the needs of visitors must be a key objective for organisers (Allen *et al.* 2000). The five senses must be incorporated into event planning to satisfy tourists/visitors needs – touch, smell, taste, sight and hearing (Goldblatt, 1997). While tourists/visitors have particular expectations, there must be a balance between community expectations and visitor expectations (Dimmock & Tiyce, 2001).

Tourists/visitors judge an event by the following criteria:

Primary issues:

- ❖ Programme content;
- ❖ Location;
- ❖ Substance and operation;
- ❖ The ease with which they can see the event activities; and
- ❖ Access to food, drinks and amenities.

Secondary issues:

- ❖ Mixing with the celebrities;
- ❖ Social opportunities;
- ❖ Corporate hospitality; and
- ❖ Capacity to move from general admission to premium guests (Allen *et al.* 2000).

The needs and motivations of the tourist/visitor must be understood, both current visitors and potential visitors (Yoon *et al.* (2000). The characteristics and behaviour of tourists/visitors that attend events must be understood, as must the purpose of their visit, the information and media used for trip planning and their socio-economic and demographic characteristics. Tourists/visitors have certain expectations once they have arrived at the event (Black, 2001). In order to attract as many tourists/visitors as possible, these expectations must be satisfied.

### **3.3.6 Event organiser & Staff**

Organising events take a lot of individual, and of collective, effort to make the event a success. The organiser and the event staff has to be able to dedicate a lot of time personally, and should also be able to inspire volunteerism (Derrett, 2003).

### 3.3.6.1 Event organiser

Events are often organised by strong community leaders. These leaders create the vision that attracts the support needed to host the event, building strategies, setting goals and inspiring others to follow their vision. Leaders need the ability to inspire and motivate others, and must have excellent communication skills. Events organisers have to influence the actions of others to empower them to seek opportunities, to make decisions, to take responsibility, to focus on goals and results and to remain flexible (Dimmock & Tiyce, 2001).

The event organiser must first identify the key role players and organisations likely to be affected by the event (Allen *et al.* 2000). The need to satisfy all key role players is an ongoing challenge for the event organiser. Key role players are the groups, organisations and individuals with an interest or investment in the successful outcome of the event.

All aspects must be integrated in the planning process to ensure coordination between every part of the event. Planning is the process in which goals are set and policies elaborated to achieve the set goals. It is important that planning for events is both strategic and integrative. Hall, (2000), states that planning is not only concerned with meeting the needs of the visitor, but should also include meeting the needs of the host community.

The team formed by the event manager plays a crucial role in implementing the event. The vision and philosophy of the event must be shared by all of the team, from the key organisers, artists, right through to the stage manager, crew, gatekeepers and cleaners, for the event to be truly effective (Allen *et al.* 2000). Community events require the involvement of many people, and volunteers provide significant input. These volunteer contributions are invaluable for the ratio of paid staff to unpaid staff is often very low in community events. The contribution of the volunteers engenders local support for the events and benefits or extra skills or perhaps employment for the individual concerned (Dimmock & Tiyce, 2001). No matter how big or small, the event team is the face of the event and each is a significant contributor to the success or failure of the community event.

### 3.3.6.2 Human resources (staff)

Volunteers are one of the key factors in the success of events. Without volunteers, events such as the KKNK could not continue. The vast majority of events are entirely volunteer-driven (Elstad, 2003). Recruiting, training, coordinating and rewarding the volunteers effectively is a vital part of many event management operations (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003). Allen *et al.* (2000), state that another vital element of volunteerism is their motivation. Without appropriate motivation, paid staff and volunteers can lack enthusiasm for achieving the event's group goals, or for delivering quality service.

A major challenge for event organisers is the recruiting of new volunteers and encouraging them to continue to work as volunteers in the future (Elstad, 2003). Because volunteers are not dependent on the event economically, it is much easier for them to cease to offer their services as a volunteer compared to resigning from their paid jobs. Recruitment often involves a process of 'word of mouth' within the ranks of the member organisations involved on the committee. Some event organisers turn to schools and tertiary institutions to recruit volunteers. For a successful event, the majority of the volunteers should be recruited from within the host community (Allen *et al.* 2000).

Determining what can be given to volunteers in return for their services helps the event to succeed. Some volunteer workers have just as much responsibility as a full-time employee. It must be determined what is an "appropriate workload" for each volunteer (Elstad, 2003). The employment of volunteers often means that the people involved are unqualified or perhaps lack sufficient experience for the work to be carried out. Training need not be time-consuming but it must be comprehensive and must fit the volunteer for the task they are expected to carry out (Goldblatt, 1997).

Watt, (1998) suggests that there should be two different levels of training:

- Desirable training – improving skills (such as catering and bookkeeping); and
- Essential training – such as that ensuring compliance with legal rules and requirements, of health and safety regulations.

Every group of volunteers will require a different method of training in order to help them learn, and it does not matter how the training is delivered as long as it is delivered

successfully. It is critical to test the knowledge and skills after the training is completed (Goldblatt, 1997).

### 3.3.7 Performers

Performers at events or festivals will include different types of artists (both performing and figurative). Kitshoff, (2004), stated that performers are important role players in the KKNK. Literature does not often regard performers as stakeholders in an event, but literature does indicate that performers add certain aspects to events.

One definition of “a stakeholder” states that a stakeholder could be anyone influenced by, or with an influence on, the event. This dissertation takes the view that artists are an important stakeholder due to the influences they could have on the event. It is important to point out that not all events have performers, or at least, not the same type of performers. The following section will indicate how performers can influence an event, and so must therefore be regarded as stakeholders. The following indicates some of the influences performers have on events:

- Performers add a “thrill” to events. Leenders *et al.* (2005) stated that visitors attend music festivals for “the thrill of physical proximity to the artist(s) – which cannot be experienced through listening to CDs”.
- Ticket prices increase with performers’ popularity or professionalism (Leenders *et al.* 2005).
- The professionalism or quality of the event could be enhanced by performers (Gwinner, 1997).
- Performers’ popularity could contribute to an event’s “brand identity” (Johns & Mattsson, 2005).
- The event’s image could be enhanced by popular performers (Gwinner, 1997).
- Visitor attendance numbers increase with greater popularity of performers and professional performance (Dobson & Goddard, 2001).
- Performers influence attendance numbers with their support crew, including managers, coaches, and reserves (Allen *et al.* 2000).
- Performers could contribute to the ambience of an event, which in turn could influence visitor attendance (Slabbert, 2004).
- “Star players” could influence earnings and increase the number of supporters who watch a performance on television, which then leads to greater media coverage of the event.

- Time schedules – Performers have to be booked in advance to ensure availability of the artist for performances, media conferences and rehearsals. The availability of artists could influence the use of a stage where more than one act takes place (Allen *et al.* 2000). The line-up could also be a determinant of event attendance at certain times of the event.
- “Contracts and legal requirements” – Performers’ compensation could take up much of an event’s income (Slabbert *et al.* 2007). Artists’ rates are normally influenced or determined by a union, and are certainly influenced by their perceived “pulling power”. Public liability and copyright are other aspects that could influence costs involved with the reproduction of performances (Allen *et al.* 2000).
- The opportunity may arise that the host community can interact with the performers. Interaction should be well organised and correctly communicated to both parties involved (Allen *et al.* 2000).

### **3.3.8 Media**

The media’s role in events can either be to become a partner and/or producer, to be a sponsor, or a combination of these. Events attract a lot of public interest thus providing the media with “good television” and broadcasting material (Bowdin *et al.* 2006). In the case of the KKNK, the media is a founding member and is represented as one of the premium sponsors, three senior sponsors, and five project sponsors at this event (KKNK, 2007).

Event organisers have to understand and meet the media’s needs completely because the media, in the case of the KKNK, is a very important event role-player since they provide the advertising that draws visitors to the event (Slabbert, 2004). The media could build the event’s image by means of publications, radio and television coverage (Yeoman *et al.* 2004) and the interaction between the media and the event would increase the event exposure. The benefit the media receives from this is that the media becomes synonymous with the event (Allen *et al.* 2000). The media can also act as a link between the host community and event organisers (Slabbert, 2004).

### **3.3.9 External influencing factors**

Slabbert (2004) stated that the external environment consists of five influential areas, each with underlying factors that could inhibit or improve the communication outputs of an event.

These external factors (that cannot be controlled by the event organiser) include social and cultural, competition, technological, economic and political areas.

### **3.3.9.1 Social and Cultural factors**

Social and cultural factors imply that social changes caused by the effect of visitors on different cultural groups should be taken into consideration. For communication to be effective, the event organiser also has to take into consideration the possible changes that might occur in visitor values, norms, levels of education, free time, and demographic changes (Slabbert, 2004).

Residents are easily influenced positively toward huge events that might only occur once in their community. It is, however, a more difficult task to keep residents positive toward recurring events such as the annual Aardklop National Arts Festival (Slabbert, 2007), which is the biggest competitor of the Klein Karoo National Arts Festival.

### **3.3.9.2 Competition**

The rapid growth of the events industry makes it fundamental for event organisers to understand the market, new trends in the consumption of the tourism market and the competition in the market (Derret, 2000). Slabbert (2004) stated that if the event organiser does not plan to overcome these threats, some aspects of the event could be unsuccessful.

Competition in the events market could influence an event's success and outputs as similar events would divide the market (Saayman, 2001). There are four National Arts festivals in South Africa. Slabbert (2004) recorded three (KKNK, Aardklop and Grahamstown National Arts Festival), while the fourth is Innibos. Each of them compete for a share of the events market. However, Aardklop is indicated to be the most visited other Afrikaans festival, thus Aardklop is the largest competition for the KKNK. It is important to keep up with competitors' differentiation of tourist demand and with communicating tourist trends and changes to the host community.

### **3.3.9.3 Technology**

Technology is another external influencing factor on the output of events, and this too influences the way in which events are organised and managed. Technology adds comfort to the organising process and to the bookings of event tickets.

For event management, technology is more than just a tool. Various changes and development in technology have revolutionised the way that people undertake tasks (Bowdin *et al.* 2006). These changes can encompass so many aspects of the event, from planning to evaluation, to scenario building to communication, but the principal focus of the use of technology is to improve the service levels at the event. This desire is all-pervasive and can redefine the event, the event management process and the event organisation (Allen *et al.* 2000). Whether the purpose of the event is to educate or to entertain or even both, the technology that is selected will help to achieve the goals and objectives of the event.

Before organisers choose technologies to be used during the event and they embark on the planning necessary, the requirements of the technological devices need to be understood clearly. Crowd size and venues influence the type and sizes of technology needed. The technological staff has to have specialised knowledge of the operations of the implemented technology (Slabbert, 2004). As technology becomes more advanced, more functions in the planning of events become electronically managed, and to some extent, this implies that the need for human capital decreases (Goldblatt, 1997). The use of technology is one of the greatest communication tools in information distribution between the host community and the KKNK organisers.

### **3.3.9.4 Economy**

Economic conditions could influence the demand for events and thus influence the magnitude of the event and of its impact. Demand is influenced by impacts such as the income levels of the visitors and the price of tourism (Slabbert, 2004). The higher a person's income level, the more disposable income a person is presumed to have; the cheaper the tourism product is, the better are the chances of a person buying the product. Certainly, lower prices make the product available to a wider market. Other major determinants in the magnitude of event impacts are economic multipliers and leakages.

The economic climate affects the volume and value of goods and services produced in a region. Economic features such as unemployment, inflation, interest rates and levels of

wages and salaries can affect the demand for a particular event. In an area of high unemployment, an event featuring conspicuous consumption of material goods would be inappropriate (Saayman, 2002). The impacts of events are also influenced by the economic conditions prevailing in a country overall. It is good planning, therefore, that the prevailing economic conditions should be considered before hosting an event (Saayman, 2002).

### 3.4 COMMUNITY TOURISM

The main outcomes of sustainable, local, economic development seek to combine satisfying work, wealth creation, social inclusion and a healthy environment. The following activities are seen as essential for the development of a sustainable local economy (O'Sullivan & Jackson, 2002).

**Table 3.2: Agenda for sustainable local economic development**

<b>THEME</b>	<b>AGENDA</b>	<b>ROLE OF EVENTS</b>
Capacity Building and Training	Providing a platform to tackle social exclusions and to ensure that people are able to make the most of available opportunities	Festivals have the potential to provide opportunities for community development
Community Enterprise	Providing support for institutions that promote sustainable community regeneration and offer encouragement to social entrepreneurs, to community businesses and co-operatives that generate jobs and income and meet wider social and environmental objectives.	Community organisations can use festivals and events as a starting point for their businesses.
Access to Credit and Capital	Mechanisms that provide access to and control of low cost credit and capital should be fostered for individuals, businesses and community enterprises.	Festivals can put profits and surpluses from the festival back into the community.
Local business development	A suitably-supportive framework can assist the creation of new businesses	Festivals help some local organisations to grow and

	and help local organisations to grow and prosper. This includes existing business support agencies, and making the most of new business opportunities such as in the cultural and environmental sectors	prosper. Festivals are about supporting existing businesses and not necessarily about creating new businesses.
Sustainable approaches to inward investment	A selective approach is needed which considers all the impacts of a development and related infrastructure. Only those proposals that have positive impacts on the local community, businesses and the environment should be actively promoted	Local suppliers are encouraged to partake in events. This can sometimes be challenging due to a lack of suitable suppliers in the area.
Responsible Business practice	Promoting responsible business practice in terms of good environmental management, valuing employees and developing links with local communities. This should be viewed as part of the challenge to support the survival and growth of businesses.	Issues such as food safety and hygiene, as well as quality of craft production, have to be considered by event organisers
Access to and distribution of work	Can be improved through good childcare support systems and the provision of public transport, as well as mechanisms such as local labour schemes that match employers' needs with local skills, and Intermediate Labour Markets that offer paid work experience while meeting community needs.	There is little evidence of a sustained positive impact on job creation from many festivals studied. Normally students or volunteers are used at the festivals. Skills may be transferred.
Trading Locally	Supply chains between local organisations can benefit businesses and the environment, and by making the most of local resources jobs can be created so reducing the 'leakage'	Business should be encouraged to work together in order to encourage the support of local businesses.

	<p>of skills and wealth from an area. Local economic systems can also encourage people to better value, develop and use their skills.</p>	
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Source: (O’Sullivan & Jackson, 2002)

Table 3.2 explains community tourism through the agenda for sustainable local economic development. Each theme is stipulated for its agenda and role such that optimal success of the event will be achieved at the same time as sustainable local economic development.

The host community of Oudtshoorn can be included in the enterprise by providing access to credit and to capital. Local businesses can be developed with the help of sustainable approaches to inward investment. Through responsible business practices, the host community can communicate with the organisers and *vice versa*. By trading locally, the board communicates indirectly with the host communities and helps them access and distribute work equably amongst the community. By doing this, the hosts become a part of the decision-making processes, and more readily understand the advantages to be derived from the event.

### 3.5 COMMUNICATION WITH HOST COMMUNITIES AND THE IMPACT OF VISITORS

According to Adcock *et al.* (1998), a destination’s main route to survival lies in communicating effectively with its major role players. Messages and promotional materials produced and distributed by tourist destinations are expected to be:

- Informing: giving information and building awareness on attractions/products of the destination;
- Persuading: creating a favourable attitude and providing a stimulus for potential tourists to prefer the destination over others;
- Reinforcing: ensuring a good climate for future visits and eliminating any doubts that may be connected to the destination; and
- Finally, encouraging the tourists actually to visit the destination.

To differentiate between the white and coloured communities of Oudtshoorn it is important to understand that intercultural communication or communication between people of different cultural backgrounds has always been and will probably remain an important precondition of human co-existence on earth. The term intercultural is chosen over the largely synonymous

term cross-cultural because it is linked to language use such as “interdisciplinary” that is cooperation between people with different scientific backgrounds (Allwood, 1985)

Allwood (1985) differentiates between the following four primary cultural dimensions:

- Patterns of thought – common ways of thinking, where thinking includes factual beliefs, values, norms, and emotional attitudes.
- Patterns of behavior – common ways of behaving, from ways of speaking to ways of conducting commerce and industry, where the behavior can be intentional/unintentional, aware/unaware or individual/interactive.
- Patterns of artifacts – common ways of manufacturing and using material things, from pens to houses (artifact = artificial object), where artifacts include dwellings, tools, machines or media. The artifactual dimension of culture is usually given special attention in museums.
- Imprints in nature – the longlasting imprints left by a group in the natural surroundings, where such imprints include agriculture, trash, roads or intact/ruined human habitations. In fact, “culture” in the sense of “growth” (i.e. a human transformation of nature) gives us a basic understanding of what the concept of culture is all about.

All human activities involve the first two dimensions. Most activities involve the third dimension, and ecologically important activities also involve the fourth. When a particular activity lastingly combines several of these traits, one usually says that the activity has become institutionalised and that it is thus a social institution (Allwood, 1985).

According to Gursoy *et al.* (2002), public events like festivals and special events play an important role in creating a general common knowledge by providing a communication mechanism for residents to communicate social information. Literature also suggests that festivals and special events provide social incentives for residents to become actively involved in community activities.

Evolving a community participatory communicating culture will require a good knowledge of the target audience and message effectiveness, particularly in respect to community participation. This requires that the audience be involved at every stage of the communication planning process, and particularly in the decision-making about message type, design, delivery and reception (Adcock *et al.* 1998). Perhaps unfortunately,

communications systems are not subject to a public review process where distortions can be corrected so that the information may serve the needs of the majority of the population. Because of the frequency of interaction and communication between residents and tourists, the residents' willingness to serve as hospitable hosts is critical to the success of events (Ko & Steward, 2002).

Fredline & Faulkner, (2000) further explain that social representation shared by groups within a society helps to facilitate communication. However, not all groups are uniformly cohesive. Because of this, there are three levels of consensus of social representations:

- Hegemonic - stable and homogeneously accepted by the whole community;
- Emancipated - exist when sub groups have somewhat differentiated opinions and ideas; and
- Polemical - exist in the context of group conflict, with sub groups having opposing outlooks.

These social representations are given a degree of stability because of their prescriptive power, together with their social reinforcement. It would be misleading, however, to suggest that they are the sole determinants of individual perception. They determine how people see the world but, together, they determined by their interactions and communications within society (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000).

Sources of social representation can be divided into three groups:

- Direct experience - existing representations have strong prescriptive powers, but experience of an event provides residents with more information on which to base their perceptions, and thus information is more directly under the control of the individual than that from other sources;
- Social interaction - including interaction with friends, family, colleagues, casual acquaintances and strangers. This is a powerful way of the transmission of social representations and is closely related to group membership. People are likely to be affiliated with groups that have similar social identities to themselves, and they are liable to adopt representations comparable with other group members; and
- Media – the media has the potential to influence perceptions through the actual content of stories, as well as through the decision to either report or not report particular issues. In addition, it is common for the media to present some issues in the context of a conflict between various subgroups, which enables observers to identify with a particular group's perspective (Fredline & Faulkner, 2000).

Organising events take a lot of individual and collective effort. Therefore, the event organiser has to be able to give a lot of personal time, and to be able to inspire volunteerism to make the event a success (Derrett, 2003). Events are often founded and organised by strong community leaders. The leaders create the dream that subsequently attracts the support of an organisation team needed to host the event. The organisers need to have the ability to inspire and motivate others, and need to have excellent communication skills. Events organisers have to influence the actions of others, have to empower people to seek opportunities, make decisions, take responsibility, focus on goals and results and remain flexible (Dimmock & Tiyce, 2001).

The key to identifying social representations within a community is to identify commonality or consensus of residents' perceptions. The social impact and obstacles faced by the KKNK organisers and host community will be emphasised in 3.5.1 and 3.5.2 to give an understanding of the requirement for communication between these two role players.

### **3.5.1 Social impact of tourism**

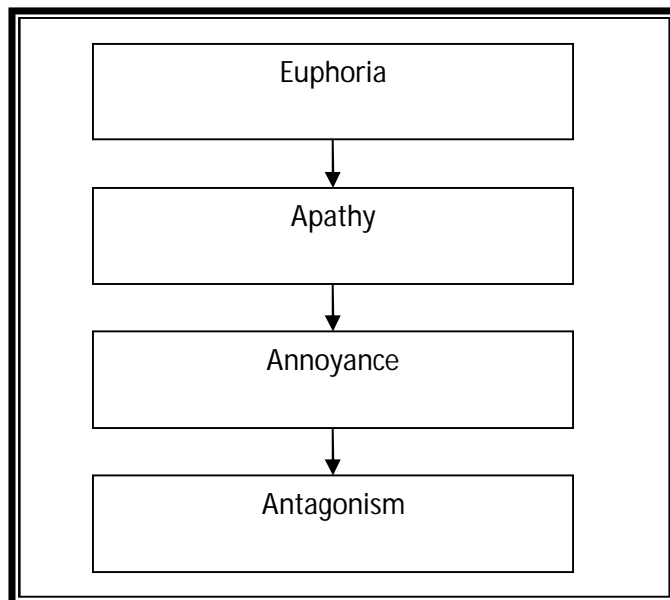
Traditionally, the social exchange theory accepts that if people are employed in tourism, they could be expected to hold a positive attitude towards the industry. However, when experiencing negativity in employment and the organisation, it will transform their attitudes and can result in a negative attitude to the industry as a whole (Haley, Snaith & Miller, 2004).

Gursoy & Kendall, (2006) state that, since community involvement in planning is a relatively recent phenomenon, it is to be expected that research into locals' support for hosting these venues is quite limited. Happily, research into the support of residents for these occasions is generally plentiful. Community involvement's importance has been widely recognised by planners and businesses that have to take the views of their host communities into account for the success and sustainability of their investments. A resident can demonstrate their commitment to being an active member of the community by participating in a festival or a special event – as a good citizen, as a potential partner in mutually shared relationships. Residents can also involve other families in a mutually enjoyable, associational activity that builds trust and a sense of obligation by spending money on festivals. In turn, this allows residents to develop strong relationships with other residents (Gursoy *et al.* 2002).

One of the earliest theories of resident-tourist interrelationships was Doxey's 'Irridex'. As the title indicates, the relationship is seen as unidirectional and unavoidably apocalyptic, with

increased exposure to tourism leading to increased negative reactions from residents (Saayman, 2007). The model suggests that communities pass through a sequence of reactions as the impacts of an evolving tourism industry in their area become more pronounced and as their perceptions change with experience. Saayman, (2007), states that host societies in tourist destinations pass through successive stages of euphoria, apathy, irritation, antagonism and loss in the face of tourism development. The compatibility of each group, which is related to culture, economic status, race and nationality, as well as by the total numbers of tourists, is determined by the progression through this cycle.

Doxey's Irridex is concerned with the social relationships between tourists and communities as the tourism industry evolves. This tourist-host relationship goes through four phases, as shown in Figure 3.4 (Howie, 2003).



**Figure 3.4: Doxey's irredex model**  
Source: Shaw & Williams (1994)

- Euphoria  
In the early stages of development, local residents are excited about the influx of visitors and are likely to greet visitors with enthusiasm. The new industry brings employment and revenue. Local customs and lifestyles are appreciated by the early visitors. Little planning is needed in this stage. Visitors merely arrive and are served by the community, as it then exists. The state of euphoria is particularly noticeable in areas where there are few alternative forms of employment, and when the travel of

tourist activity is not overwhelming (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Saayman, 2007; Weaver and Opperman, 2000).

- Apathy

'Apathy' is the stage where tourists become seen as commonplace and ordinary. Contact between resident and visitor becomes more commercialised and less personal. As the volume of visitors increases, the visitors also demand more facilities, built specially for them. Formality has become part of the process of dealing with the multitudes of visitors. The industry is now taken for granted and local people develop a more apathetic attitude to the activity (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Saayman, 2007; Weaver and Opperman, 2000).

- Annoyance

The community might begin to develop tourism services and expand amenities to accommodate the visitors (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Saayman, 2007; Weaver and Opperman, 2000). If development continues, community-tolerance thresholds may be exceeded because of increased congestion, rising prices, and the perceived threat to traditional ways of life. The residents become concerned by and irritated with tourists. The community is saturated by tourists and residents are becoming fed up. Apathy can then turn to annoyance, as residents feel their community is being altered around them and the costs of accommodating the industry are beginning to exceed perceived benefits.

- Antagonism

As the development continues, annoyance turns to outright antagonism. The last stage is 'antagonism' in which a strong dislike is felt and expressed toward the tourists. Local residents express open hostility to tourism facilities and visitors as they are seen to be the cause of all their economic and social problems in this stage. The final two stages occur when local residents have perceived changes to their lifestyle and identification, which they will not tolerate. Residents now feel very differently toward the tourists that were previously welcomed to the community. While feelings are changing among residents, the types of tourists arriving are probably changing as well. Before any effective management can be applied, structural changes need to be controlled, requiring political decisions at the highest level (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Saayman, 2007; Weaver and Opperman, 2000).

Doxey's model suggests a unidirectional sequence, where residents' attitudes and reactions will change over time in a predictable sequence. The biggest gap that can be filled in this model is that efficient communication should be implemented and coordinated in the first two steps (Euphoria and Apathy) so that the host community of Oudtshoorn would be appropriately informed and would not evolve into the last two steps of Annoyance and Antagonism.

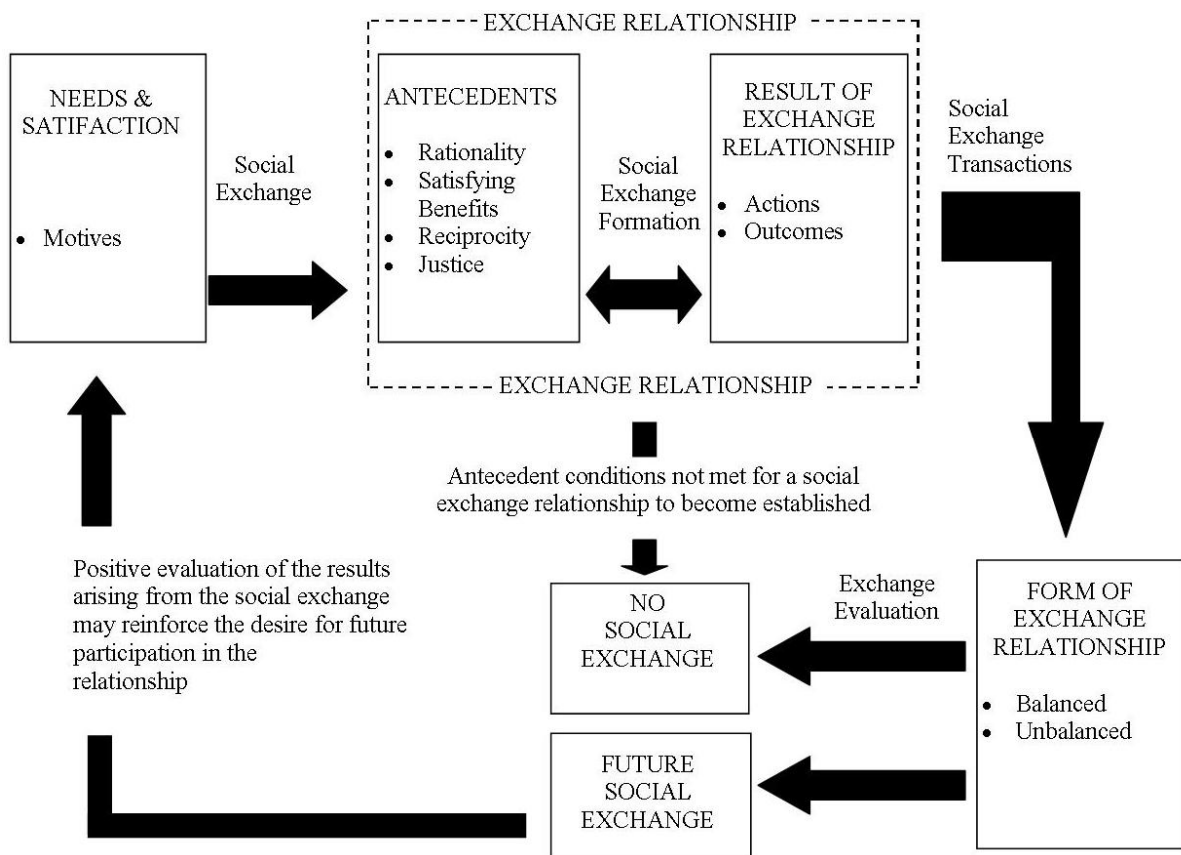
The Irridex is also a useful tool in gaining an understanding of the changing overall status of a tourist destination, and in drawing attention to the need for suitable management and planning, if the changes feared are to be avoided (Howie, 2003). However, not all residents would develop the same negative reactions and the attitudes of local residents towards visitors would be influenced by a variety of factors (Murphy & Murphy, 2004). Doxey can be criticized as assuming a homogeneous community – one in which everyone thinks alike. In reality, there is no single set of attitudes towards tourism shared by the whole community. It is possible that there will be generation differences where the elderly strongly dislike change to the established ways of life, whereas young adults and children may have longed for just such a change (Mowforth & Munt, 2003; Saayman, 2007; Weaver and Opperman, 2000).

Although regarded as important, Doxey's Irridex was not based on detailed empirical research, but largely on speculation (Mason, 2005). Faulkner & Tideswell, (1997), note that Doxey's (Irridex) model assumes a degree of homogeneity and uni-directionality in community reactions that has been questioned. In particular, the inherent heterogeneity of communities and the consequent variety of responses that can occur have been challenged. Saayman, (2001), chooses the social exchange theory, as divergent resident evaluations of tourism impact primarily in terms of experiential or psychological outcomes. In yet another view, the social exchange theory concentrates on the extent to which residents receive something for the impositions that the industry places upon them (Haley, Snaith & Miller, 2004).

In essence, this framework views the relationship between residents and guests in terms of a trade-off between costs and benefits on both sides, with the outcome for either party depending on the overall balance between costs and benefits (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Waitt, 2003). Feelings of psychological states result from the experiences conveyed symbolically through the objects exchanged, the functions performed by the exchange, or from the meanings attributed to the exchange. This theory suggests that residents evaluate tourism/events as either positive or negative in terms of the expected benefits or costs deriving from the services they supply. A positive perception is suggested to occur only when both role players have high levels of social power within the exchange relationship.

According to social exchange theory, power derives from having, controlling or influencing resources that another role-player needs and values. Negative perceptions in contrast are related to low, social power levels among role-players, since they perceive little gain from the exchange (Saayman, 2001).

The degree of involvement in the tourism industry of individuals will have a significant bearing on the resolution of this trade-off, by virtue of its influence on the extent to which benefits are perceived to outweigh costs. A number of studies have observed a tendency among those residents who are dependant upon tourism for their livelihood to either emphasise positive impacts or to accept the negative impacts of tourism on the community more readily (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Waitt, 2003).



**Figure 3.5: Social Exchange Theory**  
 Source: Saayman, 2001

The social exchange theory analyses how residents perceive the impact of events through their participation and involvement in the event. Thus, the different impacts that events may have on the community, as well as the participation of communities and the communities' attitudes towards events, are explored (Murphy & Murphy, 2004).

From Figure 3.5, it is clear that there needs to be a mutually beneficial exchange relationship between the two parties. Communicating the exchange relationship between the hosts and the organisers is the biggest obstacle in overcoming miscommunication between the two parties. Understanding the needs and wants of the host community, the KKNK organisers should aim for a balanced relationship with a positive future social exchange.

### 3.5.2 Obstacles

Mason, (2005) identifies seven obstructions of local participation in tourism planning which are:

- The community has difficulty to understand complex and technical planning issues;
- The community does not necessarily understand how the planning process works or how decisions are made;
- The problem of attaining and maintaining representation of all views in the decision-making process;
- Apathy amongst some of citizens;
- The increased cost in relation to staff time and money;
- The fact that decision-making takes longer as a result of community participation; and
- The overall efficiency (particularly in terms of time/money and smooth running) of the decision-making process is affected negatively (Mason, 2005).

According to Henderson (2000), the absence of community participation in tourism projects and the exclusion of the resident population from what become, mainly, tourism venues is a problem. Whenever and wherever this happens, authenticity and meaning are lost, possibly forever. Jurowski *et al.* (1997), suggest reducing opposition through internal marketing campaigns that explain the benefits of tourism/event to the host community. Lasting social benefits are potentially available to the host community through properly planned and promoted events. The benefits for all will potentially lead to stronger, more vibrant and capable sets of local institutions and residents. The excitement generated by events also helps to compensate for the associated costs incurred by the host community (Williams *et al.* 1995).

## 3.6 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to analyse all factors contributing to the planning, communication and management of sustainable events. By managing events, such as the KKNK, from a

sustainable development perspective, participation by and incorporation of the local community will result in the development of the community itself.

It is pertinent to say that the key role players need to work together as a team in order to make an event such as the KKNK successful. The organiser of the event plays one of the most important roles in the planning of events. The event organiser also bears the responsibility of coordination between the key role players. S/he actually coordinates the key elements in the process of event planning. The success of an event relies on community participation in every aspect, from planning to implementation and evaluation. Keeping the host community satisfied, while explaining the advantages the event holds for them, will help preventing the failure of the event.

## CHAPTER 4: EMPIRICAL RESULTS

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The communication efficacy of tourism focuses on the attitudes and perceptions of the community towards tourism, in this case, of the KKNK held in Oudtshoorn. It was the aim of this research to determine the differences and similarities between the two main cultural groupings in Oudtshoorn, the white and coloured communities. The survey was conducted in 2007 during the Festival in the residential areas of the two communities under review. Two hundred and sixty-two (262) questionnaires were completed by the community of Oudtshoorn during the festival, of which 110 were white, and 152 were coloured respondents.

Organisations that communicate well with their publics and create relationships know what to expect from their publics, and their publics know what to expect from the organisation.

To analyse the communication effectiveness and efficiency of the KKNK, the research was aimed at examining the external communication with the local community using questionnaires as a quantitative research method. Tustin *et al.* (2005) point out that the purpose of using the questionnaire design as a quantitative research method is to collect relevant data; make data comparable; minimise biases; and motivate respondents to participate in the survey.

The purpose of this chapter is to reflect on the results of the questionnaire. Statistical analyses included tables, calculation of effect sizes and chi-square values in order to indicate the differences and/or similarities. The results will subsequently be discussed according to the demographic information, the communication efficacy's effect sizes and, lastly, the chi-square values that measure communication efficacy's significance.

### 4.2 DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

This section deals with the demographic profile of the respondents, focusing on gender, occupation, age, occupation and highest educational qualification.

### 4.2.1 Gender

Sixty-six (66) percent of the respondents were female and 34% male. The questionnaires were completed in the morning as well as at certain times in the afternoon (Figure 4.1).

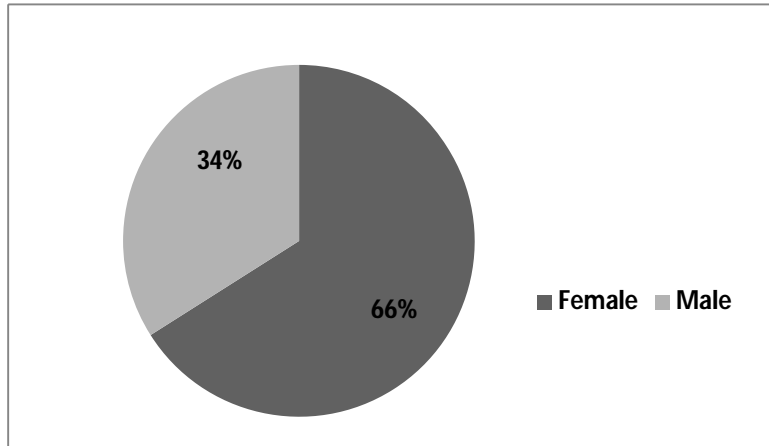


Figure 4.1: Gender

### 4.2.2 Age

Figure 4.2 shows that most of the respondents that participated were between the ages of 46-60 (31%), followed by those persons between the ages of 36 and 45 years (23%), and then by persons older than 60 years (21%). The average age of people completing the questionnaire was 54 years.

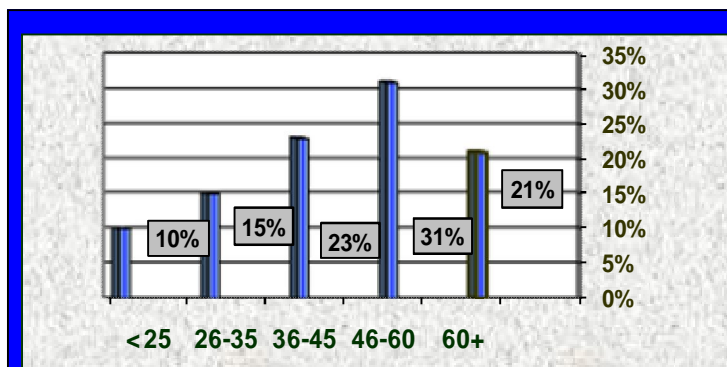


Figure 4.2: Age

### 4.2.3 Occupation

**Table 4.1: Occupation**

<b>OCCUPATION</b>	<b>PERCENTAGE</b>
Professional	<b>10%</b>
Manager	6%
Administrative	5%
Technical	3%
Sales personnel	5%
Farmer	1%
Government worker	8%
Own employer	6%
Education	6%
Pensioner	<b>14%</b>
Household duties	<b>12%</b>
Unemployed	<b>14%</b>
Other	<b>10%</b>

Table 4.1 shows that 14% of the respondents are either retired or unemployed, while 12% fulfil house duties, 10% have professional positions and 6% are either self-employed, in managing positions or in education, respectively. Other careers included those of community workers and students.

### 4.2.4 Highest qualification

Thirty (30) percent of the respondent's highest qualification is either matric or other types of qualifications. This is followed with 23% of respondents with a diploma or degree and 8% with no formal qualification. Some of the 'other' qualifications include Grade 10, Grade 11 and so forth.

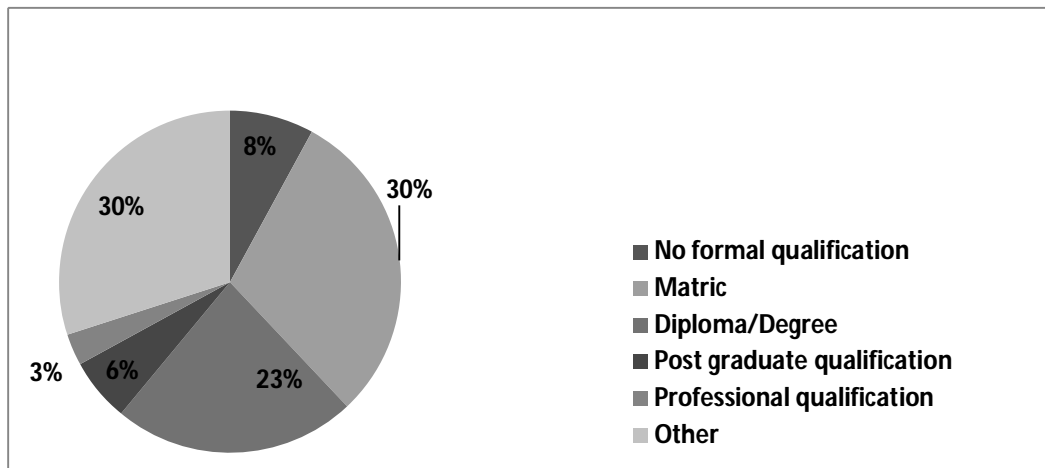


Figure 4.3: Highest qualification

### Summary of demographic information

As seen in paragraph 4.1.1 – 4.1.4 the gender, age, occupation and education was representative of the whole community of Oudtshoorn. In Table 4.2 below, these aspects will be tabulated into two groups, representing the white and coloured communities of Oudtshoorn.

Table 4.2: Demographic information

DEMOGRAPHIC ATTRIBUTES		WHITE (N = 110)	COLOURED (N = 152)
<b>Gender</b>	Male	39%	30%
	Female	<b>61%</b>	<b>70%</b>
<b>Age</b>	< 25	8%	11%
	26 – 35	9%	20%
	36 – 45	22%	24%
	46 – 60	<b>35%</b>	<b>28%</b>
	60+	26%	17%
	<b>Occupation</b>	Professional	16%

	Manager	8%	5%
	Self-employed	6%	5%
	Technical	3%	3%
	Sales person	6%	3%
	Farmer, Forester	1%	0%
	Mining	0%	0%
	Administrative	9%	3%
	Civil service	7%	9%
	Education	5%	7%
	Home duties	9%	16%
	Pensioner	<b>18%</b>	12%
	Unemployed	4%	<b>22%</b>
	Other	8%	11%
<b>Education</b>	No formal qualification	0%	14%
	Matric	<b>39%</b>	24%
	Diploma/Degree	36%	13%
	Post-graduate qualification	8%	4%
	Professional qualification	7%	1%
	Other	10%	<b>44%</b>

From Table 4.2 it is clear that 61% of the white respondents were female, between the ages of 46 – 60 (35%). Eighteen (18) per cent are pensioners who have a matric qualification (39%).

Seventy (70) percent of the coloured respondents were female, between the ages of 46 – 60 (28%). Twenty-two (22) percent are unemployed with only a high school qualification such as Grade 8 or 10 (44%).

For both groups, a high number of females completed the questionnaires. This could be because the questionnaires were distributed to residences during business hours. Thus, it could be expected that the male breadwinner would be at work. The education level of the coloured community is lower than that of the white community.

The demographic profile of the host communities of Oudtshoorn seeks to determine the communication efficacy between the KKNK organisers and its host communities, as this is the reason for this study. Effect sizes for the difference between means and the chi-square value tests will be done and discussed to determine the significance of communication efficacy.

### **4.3 EFFECT SIZES FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MEANS**

Effect sizes were calculated to explore the effect of the differences between the communication efficacy of the festival on the white and coloured communities by means of the significance between them.

Means and standard deviations were determined, to calculate the effect sizes of the study.

The following guidelines may be used for the interpretation of the effect size in the current study (Ellis & Steyn, 2003):

- Small effect:  $d=0.2$
- Medium effect:  $d=0.5$  and
- Large effect:  $d=0.8$ .

Data with  $d \geq 0.8$  are practically significant, since it is the result of a difference having a large effect.

Table 4.2 represents the descriptive statistics (means and standard deviations) for the white and coloured communities on the dimensions of the various factors. The data shows the effect sizes and is followed by a brief discussion of the size of the effect and its interpretation.

**Table 4.3: Importance of participation and communication**

<b>IMPORTANCE</b>	<b>Race</b>	<b>N</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>Std. Deviation</b>	<b>Std. Error Mean</b>	<b>Effect sizes</b>
<b>Decision making</b>	White	141	2.1631	1.18094	.09945	-0.50
	Coloured	111	2.8198	1.30870	.12422	
<b>Participation</b>	White	140	1.8714	.99526	.08411	-0.57
	Coloured	109	2.6147	1.29749	.12428	
<b>Being informed</b>	White	139	3.0360	1.10604	.09381	-0.28
	Coloured	109	3.3853	1.26863	.12151	
<b>Community participation</b>	White	139	3.6547	1.12747	.09563	-0.45
	Coloured	111	4.1622	1.08327	.10282	
<b>KKNK to Oudtshoorn</b>	White	141	4.6879	.75720	.06377	0.29
	Coloured	106	4.3491	1.17953	.11457	

It is clear from Table 4.3 that a small effect (0.2 to 0.5) exists between the coloured and white communities concerning being informed (0.28), community participation (0.45) and regarding communication from KKNK to the Oudtshoorn community(0.29).

However, decision-making (0.50) and participation (0.57) resulted in medium effects, and is the major significance in these effect sizes. The coloured community do not have as much decision-making opportunities nor participation in decision-making as the white community.

Event organisers should thus be alerted to the belief that there is not equal participation and decision making between the two major culture groups of Oudtshoorn. The decision makers need to address this short-coming and let role players representing all culture groups partake equally in these aspects that concern them.

#### **4.4 CHI SQUARE & PHI-VALUES OF SIGNIFICANCE**

According to Sharp (2008), the most widely used nonparametric test of significance is probably the chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) test.

It is particularly useful in tests involving nominal data, but can be used for higher scales. Typical are cases where persons, events, or objectives are grouped in two or more nominal categories such as “yes-no,” “favour-undecided-against”, or class “A, B, C or D.”

Using this technique, significant differences are tested between observed distribution of data among categories and expected distribution based on the null hypothesis. Chi-square is useful in cases of one-sample analysis, two independent samples or  $k$  independent samples. It must be calculated with actual counts rather than percentages (Sharp, 2008).

In one-sample case, a null hypothesis is established and based on the expected frequency of objects in each category. Then the deviations of the actual frequencies in each category are compared with the hypothesized frequencies. The greater the difference between them, the less is the probability that these differences can be attributed to chance. The value of  $\chi^2$  is the measure that expresses the extent of this difference. The larger the divergence, the larger the  $\chi^2$  value (Sharp, 2008).

The formula by which the  $\chi^2$  test is calculated is

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

in which

$O_i$  = Observed number of cases categorized in the  $i^{\text{th}}$  category

$E_i$  = Expected number of cases in the  $i^{\text{th}}$  category under  $H_0$

$k$  = the number of categories

There is a different distribution for  $\chi^2$  for each number of degrees of freedom (d.f.), defined as  $(k-1)$  or the number of categories in the classification minus 1.

$$\text{d.f.} = k - 1$$

With chi-square contingency tables of the two-sample or  $k$ -sample variety, we have both rows and columns in the cross-classification table. In this instance, d.f. is defined as rows minus  $(r - 1)$  times columns minus 1  $(c - 1)$ .

$$\text{d.f.} = (r - 1)(c - 1)$$

In many cases, it is important to know whether relationships between two variables are practically significant, for example, between gender and the preference for or against a new medical scheme for workers. For random samples, the statistical significance of such relationships are determined with Chi-square tests, but actually what is sought to be known is whether the relationship is significant enough to be important. In the special case of a table, the effect size is given by the phi coefficient (Sharp, 2008).

The following guidelines is given for the interpretation of it in the current case:

(a) small effect:  $\phi \sim 0.1$ , (b) medium effect:  $\phi \sim 0.3$ , (c) large effect:  $\phi \sim 0.5$  (6).

A relationship with  $\phi > 0.5$  is considered as practically significant.

Table 4.4 to 4.7 will be based on the Chi-square values of significance.

**Table 4.4: Efficiency of Communication and programmes**

KKNK EFFICIENCY	Efficiency				Chi- square value	df	Significance level	Phi- value
	No	Moderate	Yes	N/A				
<b>COMMUNICATION</b>								
<i>White</i>	43%	35%	16%	6%	1.049	3	0.790	0.065
<i>Coloured</i>	49%	30%	16%	5%				
<b>PROGRAMMES MEETING NEEDS</b>								
<i>White</i>	18%	37%	38%	7%	26.332	3	0.000	0.332
<i>Coloured</i>	50%	23%	22%	5%				

The significance of the KKNK efficiency at meeting the needs of programmes required by the host community and communication between the white and coloured communities is not worth mentioning. Overall communication to the host community (0.065) has a small effect and programmes meeting needs of the host community (0.332) has a medium effect with the coloured community not satisfied.

A number of studies have observed a tendency among those residents who are dependent upon tourism for their livelihood and satisfaction of their needs either to emphasise positive

impacts or to accept the negative impacts of tourism on the community more readily (Faulkner & Tideswell, 1997; Waitt, 2003).

Event organisers should take in consideration the need to properly plan and promote events so that lasting benefits are potentially available to the host community. Benefits for all will potentially lead to a stronger, more vibrant and capable set of local institutions and residents (Williams *et al.* 1995).

**Table 4.5: Existing and longed communication channels**

<b>EXISTING COMMUNICATION CHANNELS</b>	<b>INFORMATION RECEIVED</b>	<b>CHI-SQUARE VALUE</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL</b>	<b>PHI-VALUE</b>
<b>Pamphlets</b> (White)	Yes=35% No=65%	0.678	1	0.410	0.051
<b>Pamphlets</b> (Coloured)	Yes=40% No=60%				
<b>Meetings</b> (White)	Yes=18% No=82%	0.036	1	0.849	0.012
<b>Meetings</b> (Coloured)	Yes=19% No=81%				
<b>E-mail</b> (White)	Yes=22% No=78%	4.496	1	0.034	0.131
<b>E-mail</b> (Coloured)	Yes=12% No=88%				
<b>SMS</b> (White)	Yes=14% No=86%	5.636	1	0.018	0.147
<b>SMS</b> (Coloured)	Yes=5% No=95%				
<b>Newsletter</b> (White)	Yes=29% No=71%	0.685	1	0.108	0.051
<b>Newsletter</b> (Coloured)	Yes=33% No=67%				

<b>LONGED COMMUNICATION CHANNELS</b>	<b>INFORMATION RECEIVED</b>	<b>CHI-SQUARE VALUE</b>	<b>DF</b>	<b>SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL</b>	<b>PHI-VALUE</b>
<b>Pamphlets</b> (White)	Yes=26% No=74%	1.037	1	0.308	0.063
<b>Pamphlets</b> (Coloured)	Yes=32% No=68%				
<b>Meetings</b> (White)	Yes=22% No=78%	2.206	1	0.138	0.092
<b>Meetings</b> (Coloured)	Yes=30% No=70%				
<b>E-mail</b> (White)	Yes=29% No=71%	4.806	1	0.028	0.136
<b>E-mail</b> (Coloured)	Yes=17% No=83%				
<b>SMS</b> (White)	Yes=11% No=89%	0.106	1	0.745	0.020
<b>SMS</b> (Coloured)	Yes=10% No=90%				
<b>Newsletter</b> (White)	Yes=44% No=56%	3.651	1	0.056	0.118
<b>Newsletter</b> (Coloured)	Yes=56% No=44%				

Table 4.5 explains the significance between the white and coloured community of Outdshoorn concerning the information received and information sought. Concerning information received, there is a small (<0.3) effect with regard to pamphlets (0.051), meetings (0.012), e-mail (0.131), SMSs (0.147) and newsletters (0.051). The trend of small effect also continues with the information sought where pamphlets (0.063), meetings (0.092), e-mail (0.136), SMSs (0.020) and newsletters (0.118) all have a chi-square value being <0.3.

From the statistics above, it is clear that the two communities are satisfied with the KKNK's communication channels. The host communities of Oudtshoorn do not seek further communication through any channel.

According to Butler's Resort Cycle Model, it is clear that information received and sought has reached the stagnation stage and may have reached a peak (Howie, 2003). Event organisers should have plans in place to rejuvenate this aspect; otherwise the tendency of the event to "decline" will occur because of insufficient information distribution.

Table 4.6: Information received, wanted and feedback from KKNK organisers

INFORMATION RECEIVED	Feedback					Chi-square value	df	Significance level	Phi-value
	No	1xYEAR	1x4MONTHS	MONTHLY	WEEKLY				
<b>GENERAL INFORMATION</b>									
<i>White</i>	48%	36%	6%	5%	5%	4.707	4	0.319	0.137
<i>Coloured</i>	62%	27%	5%	3%	3%				
<b>NEW DEVELOPMENT</b>									
<i>White</i>	55%	29%	9%	5%	2%	10.155	4	0.038	0.202
<i>Coloured</i>	62%	27%	6%	3%	2%				
<b>COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION</b>									
<i>White</i>	55%	25%	9%	5%	6%	8.391	4	0.078	0.185
<i>Coloured</i>	72%	16%	5%	5%	2%				
<b>NEWSLETTERS</b>									
<i>White</i>	69%	21%	2%	6%	2%	6.100	4	0.192	0.157
<i>Coloured</i>	73%	19%	5%	1%	2%				
<b>INFORMATION WANTED</b>	Feedback					Chi-	df	Significance	Phi-

	No	1xYEAR	1x4MONTHS	MONTHLY	WEEKLY	square value		level	value
<b>GENERAL INFORMATION</b>									
<i>White</i>	20%	34%	36%	8%	2%	6.756	4	0.149	0.167
<i>Coloured</i>	20%	20%	31%	22%	7%				
<b>NEW DEVELOPMENT</b>									
<i>White</i>	17%	35%	26%	18%	4%	6.014	4	0.198	0.157
<i>Coloured</i>	20%	21%	33%	21%	5%				
<b>COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION</b>									
<i>White</i>	20%	25%	31%	19%	5%	6.192	4	0.185	0.159
<i>Coloured</i>	16%	18%	29%	30%	7%				
<b>NEWSLETTERS</b>									
<i>White</i>	20%	29%	34%	14%	3%	10.805	4	0.029	0.212
<i>Coloured</i>	18%	15%	35%	24%	8%				
<b>EXISTING FEEDBACK FROM ORGANISERS</b>	<b>Feedback</b>					<b>Chi-square value</b>	<b>df</b>	<b>Significance level</b>	<b>Phi-value</b>
	<b>No</b>	<b>1xYEAR</b>	<b>1x4MONTHS</b>	<b>MONTHLY</b>	<b>WEEKLY</b>				
<i>White</i>	40%	29%	8%	15%	8%	4.411	4	0.353	0.147

<b>Coloured</b>	39%	25%	18%	11%	7%				
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According to Adcock *et al.* (1998) a destination's main *rationale* for survival lies in effectively informing its major role players. Messages and promotional materials produced and distributed by destinations are expected to be:

- Informing: giving information and building awareness on attractions/products of the destination;
- Persuading: creating a favourable attitude and providing a stimulus for tourists and host communities.
- Reinforcing: ensuring a good climate for future visits and eliminating any doubts that may be connected to the destination; and
- Finally, encouraging the tourists actually to visit the destination and the host to welcome those tourists.

In Table 4.6 above, the significance between the two host communities (white & coloured) was measured on information received, information wanted and existing feedback. Information received showed a small significance effect concerning general information (0.137), new development (0.202), community participation (0.185) and newsletters (0.157). Concerning the information wanted with regards to general information (0.167), new development (0.157), community participation (0.159) and newsletters (0.212), none of them are practically significant as each falls in the small effect category ( $\phi < 0.3$ ). Lastly, the existing feedback from the KKNK organisers (0.147) had no significant effect. With regard to the data in Table 4.6, the KKNK organisers can be satisfied with the information distribution for each of the two host communities as there are no (small) significances between them.

Seeing that the event organisers have accomplished success with the above literature, they should prepare themselves for any new trends that may arise in the future and should concentrate on keeping the host communities happy with sufficient feedback throughout the year.

Table 4.7: Community participation

PARTICIPATION	Importance					Chi-square value	df	Significance level	Phi-value
	Not important	Slightly important	Important	More important	Very important				
<b>DECISION-MAKING</b>									
<i>White</i>	33%	38%	15%	6%	8%	35.427	4	0.000	0.375
<i>Coloured</i>	22%	14%	41%	7%	16%				
<b>ACTIVE IN FESTIVAL PROGRAMS</b>									
<i>White</i>	42%	39%	11%	4%	4%	33.114	4	0.000	0.369
<i>Coloured</i>	26%	21%	31%	10%	12%				
<b>RECIEVE FESITVAL INFORMATION</b>									
<i>White</i>	9%	16%	52%	8%	15%	9.410	4	0.052	0.195
<i>Coloured</i>	10%	8%	44%	8%	30%				
<b>COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION</b>									
<i>White</i>	2%	11%	39%	14%	34%	16.734	4	0.002	0.259
<i>Coloured</i>	3%	2%	27%	11%	57%				

<b>IMPORTANCE OF KKNK TO OUDTSHOORN</b>									
<b><i>White</i></b>	1%	2%	7%	8%	82%	13.538	4	0.009	0.234
<b><i>Coloured</i></b>	5%	5%	15%	2%	73%				

Table 4.7 is used to measure the significance in participation of the festival. The Chi-square test was again used to determine differences between the white and coloured communities. With regard to information received (0.195), community participation (0.259) and importance of the KKNK to Oudtshoorn (0.234) there was only a small effect. However, in the case of decision-making (0.375) and active in festival programs (0.369) a medium effect was measured, whereby the coloured community feels that they did not have enough decision-making responsibilities or are active in festival programs. The outcome of this table clearly shows that the perceptions and participation differ between the white and coloured communities concerning decision making and being active in festival programs. These aspects may awaken a feeling of favouritism to those who participate and has a say in the planning and running of the festival.

Event organisers should keep in mind that facilitating public participation has a positive influence on the development process, thus efficient communication strategies should be developed. Information can be communicated in accessible formats, for example, community radio stations, workshops and other participatory programs. Time should be taken to identify the “correct” stakeholders for the particular situation. This is crucial because these individuals and/or groups are in a position constructively to participate in and to monitor the progress of the development (Soola, 2002).

## 4.5 CONCLUSION

The aim of this chapter was to analyse the data for 2007 and to compare the responses of the white and coloured communities. The data presented and analysed gives a clear indication of the social impact of the KKNK festival on the community of Oudtshoorn. Demographics were analysed and discussed by means of tables. The following conclusions were made regarding the demographics: The white respondents are female (61%), between the age of 46-60 years (35%), mostly pensioners (18%) and had obtained a matric certificate (39%). The coloured respondents are mostly female (70%), between the ages of 46–60 years (28%), are unemployed (22%) and with no formal educational qualification (44%).

A small effect (0.2 to 0.5) exists between the coloured and white communities concerning being informed (0.28), community participation (0.45) and communication from KKNK to the Oudtshoorn community (0.29). Decision making (0.50) and participation (0.57) resulted in medium effects and is the major significance in these effect sizes. The implication of this is that the white community have more decision-making opportunities and event participation than the coloured community.

According to the Chi-square test of significance on the communication efficacy between the two cultural host communities, the major effects are clear and significant concerning the different programs, meeting the needs of the host community (0.332) and host communities participation in decision-making (0.375), again giving the white community more advantage than the white community. The rest of the effects are small and not worth mentioning.

From the statistics quoted above, it is clear that the different communities are satisfied with the KKNK's well-established communication channels. The host communities of Oudtshoorn do not seek further communication through any channel (neither pamphlets, meetings, e-mail, SMS nor newsletters).

The Chi-square tests reveals that decision-making (0.375) and being active in festival programs (0.369) have a medium significance. This outcome shows that the perceptions and participation differs between the white and coloured community concerning decision making and being active in festival programs whereby the white community have the advantage of participation. These aspects may awaken a feeling of antagonism concerning who participates in, and who has influence over, the KKNK festival.

Nevertheless, the KKNK can be satisfied with the information distribution to the two host communities, as there is no (small) significance between them.

The following chapter, Chapter 5, discusses the conclusions drawn from the study and the resulting recommendations.

## CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will give an overview of the conclusions of each of the preceding chapters. Its aim is to draw conclusions from the conducted research as well as to make recommendations based on the outcomes of the research.

The main goal of this research was:

- To analyse the communication efficacy and efficiency of the KKNK. The research was aimed at examining the external communications with the local community by means of questionnaires as a quantitative research method.

To reach the main goal, four sub-objectives were formulated. They were:

- to undertake a literature review concerning communication system;
- to conduct a literature review with regard to events tourism;
- to determine the perceptions of the two communities regarding communication and the KKNK by means of a questionnaire; and
- to draw conclusions from, and make recommendations based on, the results of the research.

Chapter 1 introduced the key terms of this study and formulated the problem statement, which was to determine how communication could be more effective within an arts festival like the KKNK. The goal and secondary objectives were discussed, as well as the research methods that this study would follow.

The first objective was to do a literature review concerning communication system in the context of an event. This was achieved in Chapter 2.

Chapter 3 analysed the development of communication globally, as well as in South Africa. This was followed by exploring the characteristics of communication in different situations. Gaps that currently exist in literature concerning communication and its role between event organisers and the host community were addressed here. The efficacy of communication was discussed, followed by the benefits of using effective communication.

The third objective was to determine, by using a questionnaire, the perceptions of communities regarding communication and the KKNK. A link was sought between events and communication, and the importance of communication with the host communities of an event. The results and interpretations of this empirical research were discussed in Chapter 4 and these research results enabled the researcher to draw the conclusions that will be discussed later in this chapter.

## **5.2 CONCLUSIONS**

Conclusions will be drawn according to the results of the literature review and from the empirical research.

### **5.2.1 Conclusions with regard to the analysis of communication and events**

The main conclusions derived from Chapter 2, *An Analysis of Communication and Events* pertain to the first research objective (cf. 1.4.2):

- To understand communication, it must be realised that it is constantly changing, that it creates meaning and that there is a mutual responsibility for communication (c.f. 2.2).
- Communication has a psychological, social, information and influential function (c.f. 2.2).
- The communication model consists of the following elements: the sender (transmitting message to receiver), the receiver (decoding message from sender), the message (verbal or non-verbal indication of understanding), the channel (route along which message travels), and the interferences (background noises) (c.f. 2.2.1).
- Messages can be intentional, non-intentional, intentional non-verbal or non-intentional non-verbal (c.f. 2.2.1).

- Communication is divided into certain levels which are: intrapersonal (communication with one's self); dyad (communication between two people); small-group (communication between 3 to 15 people); one-to-many (public speaking); many-to-one (interview); many-to-many (organisational communication), and cultural (communication between people who belong to different cultures) (c.f. 2.3)
- Certain barriers exist within communication and can be defined as perceptual (only seeing part of reality), language (confusion regarding meanings and understanding), physical (elements in the external environment that distract the communicator), physiological (internal elements that distract the communicator), and psychological (referring to thoughts, feelings, attitudes, etc.) (c.f. 2.4)

## 5.2.2 Conclusions with regard to communication and events

The conclusions derived from Chapter 3, *Communication and Events* pertain to the second research objective (cf. 1.4.2):

- The events sector encompasses a wide range of interlinked activities and is not solely concerned with the provision of activities, entertainment, refreshment and equipment (c.f. 3.2).
- Sharing a common interest with others, celebrating a particular art form and celebrating particular local culture are the aims of a festival (c.f. 3.2).
- Events may be planned or unplanned and could have a short time span with long-term consequences. Events may also be a once-off experience (c.f. 3.2).
- The success of special events and festivals lies in dependence upon the enthusiasm of the event organisers and local community, rather than upon unique natural or built attractions (c.f. 3.2).
- Butler's resort cycle model illustrates possible future scenarios, including continued growth at a reduced rate, decline and/or rejuvenation (c.f. 3.2).
- All of the role players of the KKNK were discussed in the following categories: (c.f. 3.3): host community (where participation and perceptions differ) (c.f. 3.3.1); sponsors (who seek the support of local community) (c.f. c.3.2); government (who provide resources and have rules and regulations in place) (c.f. 3.3.3); local businesses (who benefit from the event) (c.f. 3.3.4); tourists and visitors (who have needs to be satisfied) (c.f. 3.3.5);

event organisers and staff (who created the vision to host the event) (c.f. 3.3.6); performers (who benefit by displaying their talent) (c.f. 3.3.7), and media (responsible for communicating events to tourists) (c.f. 3.3.8).

- Residents are more easily influenced positively toward huge events that might only occur once in their community (c.f. 3.3.9.1).
- Competition in the events market could influence an event's success and outputs since similar events elsewhere would divide the market (c.f. 3.3.9.2)
- The use of technology is one of the greatest communication tools in information distribution between the host community and the event organiser (c.f. 3.3.9.3).
- The impacts of events are influenced by the economic conditions prevailing in a country (c.f. 3.3.9.4)
- The main outcomes of sustainable local economic development combine satisfying work, wealth creation, social inclusion and a healthy environment (c.f. 3.4).
- Messages and promotional materials produced and distributed by destinations are expected to be informing, persuading, reinforcing and encouraging (c.f. 3.5).
- Because of the frequency of interaction and communication between residents and tourists, the residents' willingness to serve as polite hosts is critical to the success of events (c.f. 3.5).
- Sources of social representation include direct experience, social interaction and media (c.f. 3.5).
- Doxey's Irridex is concerned with the social relationships between tourists and communities as the tourism industry evolves and goes through the following phases:
  - Euphoria. (Local residents are excited about the influx of visitors and are likely to greet visitors with enthusiasm in the early stages of development)
  - Apathy. (The stage where tourists are seen as common and ordinary)
  - Annoyance. (If development continues, community-tolerance thresholds may be exceeded because of increased congestion, rising prices, and its threat to traditional ways of life), and
  - Antagonism. (The last stage in which a strong dislike is felt and may be openly expressed toward the tourists; where local residents express open hospitality to tourism facilities) (c.f. 3.5.1).
- The social exchange theory analyses how residents perceive the impact of events through participation and involvement in the event. Thus, the different impacts that

events may have on the community, as well as the participation of communities and the communities' attitudes towards events, are explored (c.f. 3.5.1)

- Lasting social benefits are potentially available to the host community through properly planned and promoted events, benefits to all, potentially leading to a stronger, more vibrant and capable set of local institutions and residents. The excitement generated by events also helps to compensate for the associated costs incurred by the host community (c.f. 3.5.2)

### **5.2.3 Conclusions with regard to communication efficacy**

The next section will review the results from the empirical research. The conclusions will highlight some of the main findings of the significances between the white and coloured communities of Oudtshoorn concerning communication efficacy.

- Sixty-six (66) percent of the respondents were female and 34% male (c.f. 4.2.1).
- The largest grouping of respondents that participated were between the ages of 46-60 (31%), followed by persons between the ages of 36 and 45 years (23%), as well as those older than 60 years (21%). The average age of people completing the questionnaire was 54 years (c.f. 4.2.2).
- Fourteen (14) percent of the respondents are either retired or unemployed, while 12% fulfil house duties, 10% have professional positions and 6% are either self-employed, in managing positions or in education. Other careers recorded included community workers and students (c.f. 4.2.3).
- Thirty (30) percent of the highest qualifications respondents were either matric or other types of qualifications. This figure is followed with 23% of respondents with a diploma or degree, and by 8% with no formal qualification. Some of the 'other' qualifications include Grade 10, Grade 11 and so forth (c.f. 4.2.4).
- A small effect size (0.2 to 0.5) exists between the coloured and white communities regarding being informed (0.28), community participation (0.45) and communication from KKNK to the Oudtshoorn community (0.29). Decision making (0.50) and participation (0.57) resulted in medium effects and is the major significance of these effect sizes. This means that the white have better decision-making opportunities and participation in decision-making than the coloured community (c.f. 4.3).

- The significance of the KKNK efficiency in meeting the needs of programs wanted by the host community and communication between the white and coloured communities as measured by the Chi-square test is not worth mentioning. Overall communication to the host community (0.065) has a small effect. However, when examining programs meeting needs of the host community (0.332), there is a medium effect with the coloured community being unsatisfied. There needs to be more effective communication with the coloured community. This is the biggest problem area in this section (c.f. 4.4).
- Regarding information received there is a small ( $<0.3$ ) effect with regard to pamphlets (0.051), meetings (0.012), e-mail (0.131), SMSs (0.147) and newsletters (0.051). This shows that communication received is effective (c.f. 4.4).
- The trend of small effects also proceeds with the information sought where pamphlets (0.063), meetings (0.092), e-mail (0.136), SMS (0.020) and newsletters (0.118) all showed chi-square values being  $<0.3$ . Communication sought for is adequate (c.f. 4.4).
- Information received again showed only a small significance effect concerning general information (0.137), new development (0.202), community participation (0.185) and newsletters (0.157) (c.f. 4.4).
- Information sought concerning general information gave insignificant chi-square values (0.167). So too did new development (0.157), community participation (0.159) and newsletters (0.212). None of them are practically significant as each falls in the small effect category ( $\phi < 0.3$ ) (c.f. 4.4).
- The existing feedback from the KKNK organisers (0.147) also had no significant effect (c.f. 4.4).
- The significance of participation was found to be as follows: information received (0.195), community participation (0.259) and importance of the KKNK to Oudtshoorn (0.234). These were small effects.
- The picture changes somewhat in the case of decision-making (0.375), while active in festival programs (0.369) again measured a medium effect. The concern here lies in insufficient communication concerning active participation in festival programs and decision-making of the coloured community (c.f. 4.4).

## 5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

This section provides the recommendations made based on the results of this study. Recommendations are grouped into two subsections. The first subsection presents recommendations regarding the findings of the empirical analysis. In the second subsection, recommendations are made for possible research improvements or expansions.

### 5.3.1 Recommendations regarding communication efficacy

- Event organisers should be alerted to the perception that there are not equal opportunities for participation and decision making between the two major culture groups of Oudtshoorn. It is recommended that all role players partake equally in the aspects that represent all culture groups. Different culture groups have different views concerning certain norms and values, nevertheless, organisers should combine the suggestions from the different culture groups, as well as different stakeholders, to create a peaceful environment where every person can partake in decision making in planning for the success of the event.
- Event organisers should take in consideration proper planning and promotion of events so that lasting benefits are potentially available to the host community. Benefits for all can potentially lead to stronger, more vibrant and capable sets of local institutions and residents. These benefits may include discounted coupons for the festival. They could include financial incentives to companies to extend their business hours during the KKNK.
- Event organisers should have plans in place to rejuvenate the festival in the event of stagnation. If this is not done, the tendency to “decline” will occur because of insufficient information distribution. By differentiating the “offer” of the festival, the organisers can include much more than just a cultural experience. They can seek to bring adventure activities and different types of sporting events into the ambit of the Festival.
- Event organisers must keep in mind that facilitating public participation should affect positively on the event development process, thus efficient communication strategies need to be developed.
- Information can be communicated in accessible formats, for example, community radio stations, workshops, Twitter, Facebook, and other social networking programs. Time

should be taken to identify the “correct” stakeholders for the particular situation. These stakeholders should be representative of the whole community and other stakeholders.

- The stakeholders should have an equal say in the goals of the festival so that the needs of each participant stakeholder can be fulfilled.

### **5.3.2 Recommendations regarding further research**

- A shortage of national, as well as international, literature exists concerning the role of communication within an event, especially that comparing communication between different cultures within a host community. Therefore, research that is more extensive is needed to gain further insight into this topic.
- Research must be done concerning the efficacy of the different communication channels used at upcoming events in South Africa.
- Further research is needed on the differences between cultures within a community, and into the way they tend to communicate with event organisers.

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