

**THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL
IMPACTS OF TOURISM ON RURAL COMMUNITIES IN
THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE: A CASE STUDY OF
LEDIG VILLAGE (RUSTENBURG)**

by

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T S A T S I M P E

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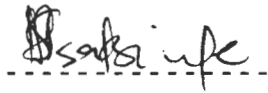
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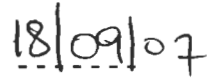
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Declaration

I, Dineo L. Tsatsimpe, declare that this research for the degree of Master of Indigenous Knowledge Systems in the faculty of Human and Social Sciences, North-West University (Mafikeng campus), has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this university or any other university.

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Date

Abstract

The study investigated the socio-economic and environmental impact of tourism on local communities in the North West Province with special reference to Ledig village, Rustenburg. An explorative research design was adopted to gain insight into the problem, given that there was insufficient knowledge about the problem. Both secondary data from literature and primary data from the survey were gathered. Qualitative and quantitative methods were used to analyse the data collected.

The study revealed that there was a positive cultural and economic impact of tourism and the contrary negative environmental and social impact of tourism on the study community. The government intervention was perceived to be playing a significant role in the promotion of tourism. The study revealed limited traditional leadership and community participation in tourism development. An overwhelming majority of respondents considered indigenous knowledge to be important in promoting tourism development.

Participation in tourism activities by all stakeholders ranging from the government, non-governmental organisations, traditional leadership, business, the study community, and other interest groups including youth and women will be desirable. This will contribute to the development of entrepreneurial activities through active participation in tourism activities and infusion of influence of indigenous knowledge system. Integration of indigenous knowledge system in relation to tourism development is crucial in ensuring sustainable livelihood of the local communities.

Preface

This research could not have been successfully completed without participation of the Ledig village community members who were willing to share information about the problem investigated together with the unwavering guidance of Professor H.O. Kaya.

A special thank you is to my loving husband (Kagiso Tsatsimpe) who was always compassionate and had an understanding during this project.

This research report is dedicated to my second son Gomolemo Tlotlo Tsatsimpe, and acknowledging my first son Boipelo Olebogeng Tsatsimpe who started Grade R in 2007.

It is also important to recognise the love of God and the spirit that has been given to us.

Abbreviations and Acronyms

ASGISA	Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
BBBEE	Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment
DAC	Department of Arts and Culture
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DoE	Department of Education
DoH	Department of Health
DST	Department of Science and Technology
DTI	Department of Trade and Industry
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HRD	Human Resources Development
IK	Indigenous Knowledge
IKS	Indigenous Knowledge Systems
PPP	Public Private Partnership
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SMME	Small Medium Micro Enterprises
TBCSA	Tourism Business Council of South Africa
WIPO	World Intellectual Property Organisation

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background

Politically, South Africa has finally emerged triumphant from the oppressions of apartheid in April the 27th of 1994 since the democratic government was elected by all the people for the first time in the history of the Republic of South Africa. The political battle has been worn, however the battle against poverty, unemployment and underdevelopment is still in its embryonic states. According to Hirschowitz and Orkin (1997: 3), poverty in South Africa is clearly differentiated along racial, gender, urban, and non-urban divides. In addition to the above Woolard (2002: 1) stated that South Africa is an upper-middle income country with stark contrasts and extreme inequality between the poor and the rich that is characterised by destitution, hunger and overcrowding side-by-side with affluence.

South Africa is a country with a significant proportion of the population, which is unemployed and underemployed, and as a result there is a need for economic transformation. Poverty eradication requires a variety of strategies on a variety of complementary fronts and scales, and a prerequisite of significant progress is pro-poor growth. One of the government strategies according to Mlambo-Ngcuka (2006) is AsgiSA (Accelerated and Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa) with the ultimate objective of halving unemployment and poverty by 2014.

The selected interventions of AsgiSA aim to address challenges related to infrastructure programmes, sector investment (or industry) strategies, skills and education initiatives, the second economy interventions, public administration issues as well as macro-economic issues.

It would be time consuming, expensive and complex to examine all the six interventions. The second intervention, sector investment (or industry) strategies focus on Business Process Outsourcing (BPO) and tourism which have been identified as the sectors with highest potential for impact within a short time and where extensive work has been done and therefore implementation is immediate to start in the first half of 2006. Other priority sectors under consideration are bio fuels, chemicals, metals and metallurgy, agriculture, agro processing, creative industries, wood pulp and paper, clothing and textile and durable consumer goods (Mlambo-Ngcuka, 2006) and consequently the study will only focus on tourism.

One of the strategy sector for government poverty alleviation is tourism and it has already grown rapidly in South Africa and is ready for second phase of growth that could take its contribution to GDP (Gross Domestic Product) from about eight percent to about 12 percent, and increase employment by up to 400 000 people by 2014 (Mlambo-Ngcuka, 2006). This indicates potential that tourism has in relation to poverty and unemployment and creates a need to examine its influence.

Tourism can be one source of growth since according to Ashley, Roe and Goodwin (2001: 1), it is currently affecting the livelihoods of many of the world's poor in most of the developing countries with high levels of poverty. Tourism in AsgiSA is recognised as a high priority sector that has already grown rapidly in South Africa but is ready for a second phase of growth that could take its contribution to GDP from about eight percent to about twelve percent and increase employment by up to 400 000 people. The established potential growth of tourism clearly indicates a need for investigating how tourism can contribute to poverty eradication and growth. According to Woodlard (2001: 1), South Africa is a country with extreme inequalities, and as a developing country South Africa then needs to encompass tourism as one of the strategies to foster growth.

According to Heath (2002: 1), the potential that tourism has to contribute to the economic growth, job creation and foreign exchange earnings is enormous considering that it is one of the largest and fastest-growing industry in South Africa. It is also regarded as one of the key global engines of growth in this millennium (third millennium), but again is regarded as a strategic industry in South Africa by the government and the private sector.

According to a review of development in the country's tourism industry over the past decade, Blacks own only five percent of South Africa's tourism products (AENS, 2004: 6). South Africa's tourism products include among others according to the scope of application of the tourism BEE charter accommodation, hospitality and related services, and travel distribution systems. The figures were released at a two-day meeting of a ministerial technical committee for tourism called MiPTech, in White River, Mpumalanga. In view of the fact that Blacks constitute 79 percent of the total South African population, and in the North West province they constitute 91.5 percent, this does not reflect the true demographics and this confirms the racial disparities (Hirchowitz and Orkin, 1997: 3).

Jackson and Cloete (2000: 2) stated that the then South African Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism Mr. Vally Moosa in his launch of South Africa Welcome Campaign confirmed that tourism follows manufacturing and mining in its contribution to the South African economy in terms of GDP (Gross Domestic Product) and could quickly overtake mining if tourism continues to grow both domestically and internationally. This was also outlined by the North West MEC of Finance in his 2004 Budget Speech, when he stated that the North West province differs significantly from the national economy in that mining and agriculture dominates the economy of the province. According to Monama (2003: 1), Dr. Popo Molefe the former Premier of the North West province confirmed that there has been a significant growth in tourism in the North West province. The above position of Mr. Vally Moosa, North West MEC

of Finance and Dr. Popo Molefe indicates that the government recognises that there is potential for growth in the tourism industry and thus the need for the study to therefore investigate government interventions of promoting tourism.

According to the National Responsible Tourism Development Guidelines for South Africa (2002: 10), tourist enterprises attract domestic and international tourists and create opportunities for small entrepreneurs and economic linkages, for example agriculture, hunting, handicraft production, and a wide range of service industries which tourists are likely to consume in the destination. The above tourist enterprise impact creates a basis to evaluate its relation to economic, cultural, social and environmental impact of tourism on the local communities.

Livelihoods according to Ashley (2001: 1), offers a useful perspective on tourism for local benefits since it contrasts with conventional tourism perspectives which tend to focus exclusively on either economic, commercial or environmental impacts. There is a need to have interaction between conventional tourism and tourism focussing on livelihoods of local communities. The motivation for this is that there is a need to address basic differences in South Africa, more especially those experienced by the previously disadvantaged.

Indigenous knowledge cannot be ignored since according to Pera and McLaren (1999), the emergence of new forms of tourism has focused the discussion of the impacts of tourism on indigenous people whose pristine and biologically diverse homelands have become natural targets for these. Dulnuan (2003) presents that indigenous people comprise five percent of the world's population and they occupy 20 percent of the world's land surface but nurture 80 percent of the world's biodiversity as ancestral lands and territories.

Given the fact that tourism affects different aspects of life in South Africa, the challenge is to examine how communities are affected by tourism socially, culturally, economically and environmentally. This is imperative considering that there can be pros and cons related to this subject matter. The former president of South Africa, Mr. Nelson Rolihlahla Mandela has confirmed that the rural people and rural women in particular, bear the largest burden of poverty in South Africa (ANC, 1995: 1), and given the fact that North West is characterised by high level of poverty and high rural areas habitation, this categorises North West province as one of the disadvantaged.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

There is a need to find coherent, balanced and feasible ways that have a potential to contribute to social development and poverty reduction in South Africa. The development of a country is not based only on one element, as a result there is a need to involve all feasible elements when focusing on development challenges. The rapid expansion of tourism has impinged on economic, cultural and social matters and other aspects in the communities, together with the environment and cultural and natural attractions.

This creates a need to investigate the related impact of tourism facing potential contribution and recognition in economic development, social development and quality of life and poverty reduction given that there are still unresolved issues that need to be shaped to have meaningful development. The level of government involvement in relation to the promotion of tourism also needs to be investigated considering that the government recognises the need for economic development, social development and quality of life, poverty eradication and inclusion of the indigenous knowledge.

In view of the research problem identified above, the statement of the problem is stipulated in the following research questions:

- (a) What is the social impact of tourism on the community of Ledig village?
- (b) What is the cultural impact of tourism on the community of Ledig village?
- (c) What is the economic impact of tourism on the community of Ledig village?
- (d) What is the environmental impact of tourism on the community of Ledig village?
- (e) What is the impact of tourism on the cultural and natural attractions in the community of Ledig village?
- (f) What is the level of the government involvement in relation to promotion of tourism?

1.3. Rationale of the Study

According to Leibbrandt, Poswell, Naido, Welch and Wollard (2006), inequalities continue to widen in the post apartheid South Africa. It is imperative to investigate how different activities can be employed for economic development, social development and quality of life, and poverty eradication to deal with persisting inequalities.

There are different programmes available that are employed to deal with poverty eradication. However this study focuses on finding answers on how tourism can among others contribute to poverty eradication. It is evident that most of the South African population is poor as it has been affected by the legacy of apartheid, and it has been segregated on racial dimensions. Tourism has been identified as one of the sectors that can help reduce poverty, improve employment rate and contribute to economic development.

The study has thus investigated the social, cultural, economic and environmental impact of tourism on local communities together with their impact on the cultural and natural attractions of the local communities. The government interventions in relation to promotion of tourism need evaluation since they have a regulatory connotation.

There is therefore a demand for research in the particular area of tourism in the South African society. The results of the research will be made available to society in general and policy makers so as to assist in alleviating the problem of poverty and inequalities, indigenous knowledge also encompassed.

1.4. Aim of the Study

To investigate the social, cultural, economic and environmental impact of tourism on the local communities of North West Province with specific reference to Ledig village in Rustenburg Bojanala district.

1.5. Objective of the Study

The study examined the following aspects:

- The social impact of tourism on the community of Ledig village.
- The cultural impact of tourism on the community of Ledig village.
- The economic impact of tourism on the community of Ledig village.
- The environmental impact of tourism on the community of Ledig village.

- The impact of tourism on the cultural and natural attractions of the community of Ledig village.
- The government interventions in relation to promotion of tourism

1.6. Literature Review and Theoretical Perspectives

Strydom (2002: 254) submits that literature review attempts to map out the main issues in the field being studied and point out where the research fits in. According to Mouton (1996:119), literature review provides background as to where other researchers have concentrated focus on a specific phenomenon and enables the researcher to be acquainted with any publication on major research already conducted on the field and most recent debates. Consequently literature review was used to establish background on the main issues in the field being studied.

1.6.1 Definition of Terms and Sources

The definitions of important terms used in the study intend to create a better understanding of related basic concepts.

According to Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Framework (2004), *black economic empowerment* is defined as an integrated and coherent socio-economic process that directly contributes to the economic transformation of South Africa and brings about significant increases in the number of black people who manage, own and control the country's economy, as well as significant decrease in income inequalities.

Black empowered SMME according to tourism BEE charter (2004) means a small, medium or micro enterprise (with a turnover of up to R10 million per annum) which has less than 25 percent and 50 percent direct ownership and management by black people.

According to the tourism BEE charter (2004), *black owned SMME* means a small, medium or micro enterprise (with a turnover of up to R10 million per annum) which has more than 50 percent direct ownership and management by black people.

According to Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act No. 53 of 2003, *black people* are Africans, Coloureds, and Indians who are South African citizens, and according to section 1 of Employment Equity Act, No. 55 of 1998 black people is a generic term which means Africans, Coloureds and Indians.

According to section 1 of Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act No. 53 of 2003, *Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment* means the economic empowerment of all black people including women, workers, youth, people with disabilities and people living in rural areas through diverse but integrated socio-economic strategies, which are not limited to:

- (a) increasing the number of black people that manage, own and control enterprises and productive assets;
- (b) facilitating ownership and management of enterprises and productive assets by communities, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises;
- (c) human resources and skills development;
- (d) achieving equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workforce;
- (e) preferential procurement; and
- (f) investment in enterprises that are owned or managed by black people.

A *community* usually refers to a group of people who interact and share certain things as a group. A local community include a municipality as an administrative local area generally composed of a clearly defined territory and commonly referring to a town or a village.

For the purpose of the World Heritage Convention Act No. 49 of 1999, the following shall be considered as: "*cultural heritage*": monuments, architectural works, works of monumental sculpture and painting, elements or structures of an archaeological nature, inscriptions, cave dwellings and combinations of features, which are of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science, group of buildings, group of separate or connected buildings which, because of outstanding universal value from the point of view of history, art or science, sites, works of man or the combined works of nature and man, and areas including archaeological sites which are of outstanding universal value from the historical, aesthetic, ethnological or anthropological point of view.

Culture according to Cronje, du Toit, Motlatla and Marias (2003: 296) comprises a complex system of values, norms and symbols, which have developed in society over time and in which all its members share. Haviland (1974) defines culture as man's learned behaviour, passed on from generation to generation by non hereditary means. Further culture according to MacCanell (1987: 356) includes many aspects that may attract tourists, including handicrafts, languages, traditions, food, music, architecture, religion, traditional dress, folklore, and cultural events.

Direct empowerment according Tourism BEE Charter (2004) means ownership of an equity interest in an enterprise where such equity interest comprises of the right to participate in the voting rights in that enterprise; and the right to receive unencumbered economic interest (such as dividends) flowing to the shareholders of that enterprise

According to McConnell (1987: 27) *economic growth* is an increase either in real output (gross national; product) or in real output per capita.

Eco-tourism is defined by Caballos and Lascurain (1998) in South African Tourism Collaborative Action Process (1999: 85) as travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated areas with the specific object of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery, its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations found in those areas.

Heritage tourism is defined in South African Tourism Collaborative Action Process (1999: 88) as the vehicle for providing tourists with unique South African experience.

Home language according to Statistics South Africa in Census 2001 (2003) is the language that most often is spoken at home which is not necessarily the person's mother tongue.

A *household* according to Statistics South Africa in Census 2001 (2003) is a group of persons who live together, and provide themselves jointly with food and / or other essentials for living, or a single person who lives alone.

Management in relation to Black Economic Empowerment according to Tourism BEE Charter (2004) refers to all senior and middle management who do not form part of executive management or the board.

Natural resources according to Cronje, Du Toit, Marais and Motlatla (2003: 11) include agricultural land, industrial sites, residential stands, minerals and metals, forests, water, and all such resources that nature puts at the disposal of mankind.

Tourism is the act of travel for predominantly recreational or leisure purposes, and also refers to the provision of services in support of this act. According to the world tourism organisation tourists are people who "travel to and stay in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited".

1.6.2. An Overview of Poverty and Inequality in South Africa - North West Province

South Africa is characterised by high levels of inequalities and poverty, and the challenge of the country is to reduce levels of poverty by different means. The government according to Mbeki (2004) recognises that the endemic and widespread poverty continues to disfigure the face of the country and it will always be impossible to fully restore the dignity of all South Africans as long as this situation persists. One of those means is through development of tourism and it is thus imperative to present a fundamental basis of understanding of poverty in South Africa.

The definition of poverty can be given in its complexity and niche at different levels in society and according to Oucho (2002: 2), the United Nations Development Programme provides the following six definitions of poverty:

- Human poverty denotes the lack of essential human capabilities, such as literate or adequately nourished.
- Income poverty means the lack of minimally adequate income or expenditure.
- Extreme poverty is indigence or destitution, usually specified as the inability to satisfy even minimum food needs.

- Overall poverty refers to a less severe level of poverty, usually defined as the inability to satisfy essential non-food as well as food needs, the former varying considerably across countries.
- Relative poverty is poverty defined by standards that change across countries or overtime in terms of mean per capita income - and often used loosely to mean overall poverty.
- Absolute poverty is defined by a fixed standard, for example, the international "\$1 a day" poverty line, which permits comparison of poverty across different countries, or a poverty line whose real value stays the same over time in order to determine changes in poverty in one country.

It was noted by the president of South Africa, Mr. Thabo Mbeki in his inauguration and the 10th anniversary of freedom address held on the 27th of April 2004, that endemic and widespread poverty continues to disfigure the face of the country and it will always be impossible to fully restore the dignity of all South Africans as long as this situation persists. For this reason the struggle to eradicate poverty has been and will continue to be a central part of the national effort to build the new South Africa.

In 1997 a Participation Poverty Assessment (PPA) was undertaken in South Africa and the *poor were characterised* as follows:

- Alienation from kingship and the community: The elderly without care from younger family members were seen as "poor", even if they had old age state pension (which provides an income which is relatively high by local standards). Similarly, young single mothers without the support of older kin or the father of their children were perceived to be 'poor'.
- Food insecurity: Households where children went hungry or were malnourished were seen as living in poverty.

- Crowded homes: The poor were perceived to live in overcrowded conditions and in homes in need of maintenance.
- Use of basic forms of energy: The poor were perceived to live in overcrowded conditions and in homes in need of maintenance.
- A lack of basic forms of energy: The poor were regarded as lacking safe and efficient sources of energy. In rural communities, the poor - particularly women - walk long distances to gather firewood.
- A lack of adequate paid, secure jobs: The poor perceived lack of employment opportunities, low wages and lack of jobs security as major contributing factors to their poverty.
- Fragmentation of the family: Many poor households were characterised by absent father or children living apart from their living parents. Households may split over a number of sites as a survival strategy.

There is clear indication that poverty is multi-faceted and it can be linked with hunger, unemployment, exploitation, and lack of access to clean water, sanitation, health-care or schools.

Living standards are closely correlated with race in South Africa while poverty is not confined to any one racial group in South Africa but concentrated among Blacks Africans. According to Woolard (2002: 3), the neat division of the *South African population* into only four groups obscures the fact that there are some small ethnic minorities (such as the San) who live in extreme poverty, and these groups are therefore not adequately captured in the household surveys.

According Census 2001 (2003) there is a very strong correlation between *educational attainment* and standard of living and poverty rates drop significantly with the attainment of "matric" and further qualifications.

Poverty, morbidity and mortality are linked, and according to Woolard (2002: 4) the poor have particular difficulties in accessing health care, as a basic human need, because they do not have the most income for transport, food and basic clothing.

The following according to Woolard (2002: 4) further demonstrate the dimensions of poverty;

- 54 of every rural African infants die before age 1; compared with 39 urban African infants and 11 White infants.
- Health expenditure is seven percent of GDP, but less than half of this is on public spending.
- Less than one-fifth of South Africans belong to medical aid schemes, yet the private health care system employs 85 percent of pharmacists and 60 percent of medical specialists.
- There are health spending and service-level inequalities between rural and urban areas. For example, in 1998 public health spending in the Grahamstown district was four times the level of the Mount Frere district.

According to Woolard (2002: 5), *unemployment rate* among those from poor households is 52 percent, in comparison with an overall national rate of 29 percent. In addition, labour force participation is lower in poor than non-poor households and more than half of the working-age poor (or about 5 million adults) are outside of the labour market.

As a result of the above figures it is clear that the percentage of working age individuals is actually working in significantly lower than average.

The past policies of segregation and discrimination have left a *legacy of inequality and poverty* and, in more recent decades, low economic growth. Woolard (2002: 6) submits that the apartheid system was heavily biased towards providing health, education and housing services to the white minority, to the detriment of the black population who were denied the opportunity to accumulate human and physical capital. According to Parnell and Mosdell (2002: 16), apartheid as a strategy depended on the fact that not all black people were treated in the same way or treated equally badly.

The labour market policies were aimed at protecting the position of white workers through active policies such as job reservation, while inferior education, influx control and Group Areas Act ensured little competition from other race groups. Woolard (2002: 7) further states that apartheid also unequally distributed resources (including land, mining rights and accesses to capital) thereby marginalising a large sector of the population to menial and poorly paid sectors of the labour market, if granting access at all.

According to Parnell & Mosdell (2002:16) there are six aspects of the apartheid policy which caused black urban poverty, and they include the following; racist forced removals, the nature of housing provision for blacks, the character of urban jobs, the costing of urban services and the municipal base, the regulation of urbanisation, and the financial impact of struggle politics on the poor. Mpumalanga's director of tourism Calvyn Gilfellan stated that the department has realised that there are few black people involved in tourism and that need to be changed (AENS, 2004: 6).

1.6.3. The Social Impact of Tourism on Local Communities

Peace (1992: 31) maintains that tourism has been seen as a panacea for economic problems, for trade imbalances or for unemployment however planners fail to take into account the social implications, that is why it is also recognised as necessary to investigate social and cultural impacts of tourism on local communities.

The most difficult problem in identifying socio-cultural impacts according to Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris (1994: 101) is that they can take a very long time to emerge and be noticed. Unlike the economic effects of tourism which are readily seen, changes in society may be imperceptible but cumulative. It may also be very difficult to identify tourism as the cause of the changes as opposed to other influences, for example, radio, newspaper and television. Most likely services stimulated in relation to tourism are entertainment, leisure facilities like swimming pools, casinos and nightclubs.

According to Lea (1998: 62), there are three broad and complementary *ways of examining the impacts of international tourism* on social conditions in third world countries.

- The first portrays the tourist-host encounter as an identifiable amount with a number of positive and negative outcomes, the assessment of which depends on how the observer views the 'correct' path towards development with "Mass" tourism and Individual 'explorers'
- The second is a functional view of various elements of Third World society which may experience changes as a result of tourism, such as moral behaviour, language and health.
- The third perspective considers aspects of cultural change that come about through tourism's influence in resurrecting traditional skills and customs like handicrafts and dance.

Although there is wide agreement that tourism affects a range of social phenomena, it is much more difficult to attribute the extent of these impacts or to distinguish them from other modernising influences.

Lea (1988: 64) views that efforts on a host society will vary according to the size of population in relation to the flow of visitors. There is a "demonstration effect" which occurs when the presence of large numbers of tourists encourage consumption patterns which are inappropriate for the population as a whole. This can range from demands for expensive food imports to a newly found desire among the youth to spend money on entertainment activities, like gambling, whose introduction is often considered as new tourism development.

An extensive range of literature covering all the main tourist regions indicates that tourism is closely related to increases in the sale of sex (prostitution), crime of various kinds, and organised gambling. The recent threat of AIDS according to Lea (1988: 69) as incurable sexually transmitted diseases will have important implications for the popularity of some tourist destinations, in addition to its major health effects on the entire populations of some regions like central Africa. Lea (1988: 70) further states that with respect to crime and gambling, there is plenty of evidence in the developed metropolitan countries of a positive relationship between tourism and increases in crime.

Tourism has a dual effect of promoting the provision of improved health care in the Third World destinations but, in addition, acts as a vehicle to spread some forms of disease. It is not uncommon to hear of tourists dying of relatively simple complaints in places with poor hospital facilities or where certain tropical diseases are endemic. Part of the problem is that Western visitors occasionally disregard the fact that a low standard of public hygiene in parts of the

Third World rarely allows for a safe water supply, and hospitals find it difficult to attract or retain the services of skilled medical personnel.

It is not only tourists who may be affected by disease when they travel to exotic destinations since contact with tourists may introduce disease to host communities. UNAIDS (1999) estimates that some four million people in the SADC region have AIDS, with a further six million HIV-positive. The economic and social costs of HIV/AIDS are immense since the growing problem of prostitution and tourism supports the spread of HIV/AIDS.

Although prostitution cannot be blamed on tourism alone, it may contribute to sustaining this societal problem. For example certain Asian destinations are infamous for sex workers, and many tourists choose to visit these destinations with the express purpose of indulging in sexual activities that may be prohibited or strictly controlled in their area of origin and consequently the exploitation of local women and men is often related to the relative wealth of tourists.

According to Cater and Goodall (1992: 314), the relationship between tourism and prostitution is of growing concern to several international organisations, to the effect that the world tourism organization (WTO) has initiated a programme aimed at eradicating child prostitution in tourism, and breaking the relationship between tourism and prostitution in general.

The tourists-host relationship is often characterised by inequalities in material status. Furthermore, Cater and Goodall (1992: 314) submit that tourists are normally in a relaxed mood while on holiday, and may not be as security conscious as normal. The results are that some residents, perceiving tourists to be wealthy and soft targets, may commit acts of crime against tourists which may range from pick pocketing and mugging, through to rape and murder.

Casinos and other gambling facilities are often major attractors at tourists' destinations and local residents may not be able to resist the temptation of possibly earning some quick money by participating in gambling activities. Unfortunately, these residents are often the ones who can least afford to gamble, and may lose all their money in their quest for wealth. Associated with the financial problems created by gambling there may be other social vices such as alcoholism and drug abuse. The evidence on the effect of gambling casinos on local residents is inconclusive, with some studies indicating no direct relationship, others however lay the blame for an increase in gambling by residents solidly at the door of casinos.

Language and literature according to Hunter and Green (1995: 319) are crucial elements of local culture, and often considered when the impacts of tourism are reviewed. Internationally tourism may imperceptibly introduce vocabulary and elements of unfamiliar languages to the local languages of a destination. Inevitably these languages are those of the nations that have the highest propensity to travel. Whitely (1963) maintain that it is worth remembering that the desire to learn another's language springs only rarely from a disinterested wish to communicate with ones fellow humans.

There is, however, some evidence that the peculiarity of a local language or dialect may be maintained, despite an influx of tourists either as a conscious attempt to strengthen the cultural identity of the host community, or as an attraction for tourists.

According to Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris (1994: 95) where large members of tourists arrive in a country (often of one nationality) reaction is inevitable. Reaction may be in two forms, rejection of foreign tourist by locals, or adoption of foreigner's behaviour patterns to constitute a social demonstration. When tourists enter the host country, they do not just bring their purchasing power and cause amenities to be set up for their use. They also, and above

all, bring a different type of behaviour which can profoundly transport local social habits by removing and upsetting the basic and long established values and patterns of behaviour of the host population.

During the tourist season, as Badlender et al. (1994: 99) state, the resident population not only has to accept the effect of overcrowding, which may not exist for the remainder of the year, but they must often completely modify their way of life, increased work rhythm or dual activity and live in close contact with different type of population, mainly urban, who are there simply for leisure. This coexistence is not always easy and often leads to social tension, and xenophobia. This particularly noticeable in many popular tourist areas or where the population, for psychological, cultural or social reasons, is not ready to be submitted to the tourist invasion.

An impact commonly expressed as the demonstration effect result from the close interaction of divergent groups of people, and manifesting itself by a transformation of values. In most communities tourism, according to Badlener et al. (1994: 999), leads to changed social values resulting in raised expectations amongst the local population aspiring to the material stands and values of the tourists.

A decline in moral and religious values is also, considered by Badlender et al. (1994: 99 - 100), not uncommon and may show itself through increased crime levels, and not only is local attitudes changed, but the targets and opportunities for criminal activities are increased.

According Badlender et al. (1994: 100), social encounters that may be generated by tourism include the following:

- The threat to traditional customs specific to each country and sometimes to each region.

- Tourism may become the guarantor for the maintenance of certain original traditions which attract the holiday makers.

On a social level, planned tourism can favour contacts between holiday makers and the local population. It may encourage cultural exchanges and ethnic relations, will lead to friendly and responsible employment and finally will strengthen links between countries.

Tourism according to Peace (1992: 31) has been seen as a panacea for economic problems, for trade imbalances or for unemployment. However planners fail to take into account the social implications. The exploitation of human beings in any form, particularly sexual, especially when applied to children, conflicts with the fundamental aims of tourism and is the negation of tourism. As a result, this practice should be energetically combated with the co-operation of all resources concerned and penalised without concession by the national legislation even when carried abroad.

1.6.4. The Cultural Impact of Tourism on Local Communities

The increasing presence of international tourists in the Third World is, according to Lea (1998: 70), accepted by anthropologists as an important element in the process of acculturation, whereby people in contact borrow each others' cultural heritage. In this instance the presence of 'stronger' Western ideas and practices introduced by tourism means that the process is largely one of "assimilation" of the "weaker" host culture. This does not, according Lea (1988: 70 - 71), always happen of course, as can be seen in those countries under powerful Islamic religious influence, like Malaysia and Indonesia, where active steps are taken to resist the forces of assimilation.

The potential opposition between the economy and the cultural interests, according to Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris (1994: 95), lead to culture to be sacrificed for reasons of economic value at the prize of losing cultural values

Cross-cultural contact arising from tourism is thought to be a function of at least three factors being types of tourism, context in which the contact takes place and the role of cultural brokers.

The *type of tourists* will be regarded as tourist in the following types of tourism. According to the official site of Federal Agency for Tourism of Russian Federation the following are identified as types of tourism; ecological, sport and extreme, fishing and hunting, mountain skiing, sea and river cruising, event and gastronomic, and excursion tourism. According to the Wikipedia free encyclopedia website, for the past few decades other forms of tourism, also known as niche tourism, have been becoming more popular, particularly:

- Adventure tourism: tourism involving travel in rugged regions, or adventurous sports such as mountaineering and hiking (tramping).
- Agritourism: farm based tourism, helping to support the local agricultural economy.
- Ancestry tourism: (also known as genealogy tourism) is the travel with the aim of tracing one's ancestry, visiting the birth places of these ancestors and sometimes getting to know distant family.
- Armchair tourism and virtual tourism: not traveling physically, but exploring the world through internet, books, TV, and others.
- Audio tourism: includes audio walking tours and other audio guided forms of tourism including museum audio guides and audio travel books.
- Bookstore Tourism is a grassroots effort to support independent bookstores by promoting them as a travel destination.

- Cultural tourism: includes urban tourism, visiting historical or interesting cities, and experiencing their cultural heritages. This type of tourism may also include specialised cultural experiences, such as art museum tourism where the tourist visits many art museums during the tour, or opera tourism where the tourist sees many operas or concerts during the tour.
- Dark tourism: is the travel to sites associated with death and suffering. The first tourist agency to specialise in this kind of tourism started with trips to Lakehurst, New Jersey, the scene of the Hindenburg airship disaster.
- Disaster tourism: traveling to a disaster scene not primarily for helping, but because it is interesting to see. It can be a problem if it hinders rescue, relief and repair work.
- Drug tourism: travel to a country to obtain or consume drugs, either legally or illegally.
- Ecotourism: sustainable tourism which has minimal impact on the environment, such as safaris (Kenya), Rainforests (Belize) and hiking (Lapland), or national parks.
- Educational tourism: may involve traveling to an education institution, a wooded retreat or some other destination in order to take personal-interest classes, such as cooking classes with a famous chef or crafts classes.
- Extreme tourism is tourism associated with high risk.
- Gambling tourism: for example to Atlantic City, Las Vegas, Palm Springs, California, Macau or Monte Carlo for the purpose of gambling at the casinos there.
- Garden tourism: visiting botanical gardens and famous places in the history of gardening, such as Versailles and the Taj Mahal.
- Heritage tourism: visiting historical (Rome, Athens, Cracow) or industrial sites, such as old canals, railways, and battlegrounds.
- Health tourism: usually to escape from cities or relieve stress, perhaps for some 'fun in the sun'. Often to Sanatoriums or "health spas".

- Hobby tourism: tourism alone or with groups to participate in hobby interests, to meet others with similar interests, or to experience something pertinent to the hobby. Examples might be garden tours, amateur radio DX-peditions, or square dance cruises.
 - Inclusive tourism: tourism marketed to those with functional limits or disabilities. Referred to as "Tourism for All" in some regions. Destinations often employ Universal Design and Universal Destination Development principles.
 - Medical tourism, for example for what is illegal in one's own country, such as abortion or euthanasia, for advanced care that is not available in one's own country, in the case that there are long waiting lists in one's own country, and for use of free or cheap health care organisations
 - Pop-culture tourism: tourism by those that visit a particular location after reading about it or seeing it in a film.
 - Perpetual tourism: wealthy individuals always on vacation; some of them, for tax purposes, to avoid being resident in any country.
 - Pilgrimage Tourism: pilgrimages to ancient holy places (Rome and Santiago de Compostela for Catholics, Temples and stupas of Nepal for the Hindus and Buddhist, Mount Athos or Painted churches of northern Moldavia for the Orthodox, religious sites such as mosques, shrines, and others
 - Sex tourism: traveling solely for the purpose of sexual activity, usually with prostitutes
Solo Travel: traveling alone
 - Sport travel: skiing, golf and scuba diving are popular ways to spend a vacation. This could also include traveling to a major international sporting event such as the FIFA World Cup or following a tour such as the Ashes or British and Irish Lions.
 - Space tourism: traveling in outer space or on spaceships.
- Vacilando is a special kind of wanderer for whom the process of traveling is more important than the destination.

- Wine tourism: the visiting of growing regions, vineyards, wineries, tasting rooms, wine festivals, and similar places or events for the purpose of consuming or purchasing wine.

Clearly things such as length of stay, the environment under which the contact occurs, and the language ability will help to determine the depth of communication which takes place and the *contest in which the contact takes place*. The frenetic pace and tight schedules characteristic of Japanese tours of Asia and the Pacific is an example of minimal cross-cultural communication, and has been studied specifically for major tourist destinations like Singapore. *Cultural brokers* who according to Lea (1988: 71) are an intermediary occupational group such as interpreters and tour guides, are the conduits through which much of the contact occurs. Their activities are thought to have a considerable effect on the manner and speed with which new ideas and influences are transmitted.

Tourism can affect various aspects of a society's culture, such as the way in which people communicate, how art and material goods are produced, and attitudes and approaches to traditional events.

MacCannell (1976: 356) maintains that one of the aspects of culture affected by tourism is the way in which different cultural groups communicate as tourism may introduce exogenous conflict between cultures which originates from outside the community.

Culture shock and cultural arrogance are often the underlying cause of conflict between tourists and the host communities. Culture shock may be defined according to Havilnad (1974: 320) as the totality of reactions to new people and settings that can result in ineffective behaviours.

Either visitors or their host may experience culture shock. Tourists for example may be confused by the language, signs and symbolism of the visited culture, and unable to communicate clearly, thus experiencing frustration and confusion. On the other hand local people may also confront new behaviours and react when tourists break local rules. While some rule breaking is unintentional, and likely to be forgiven by the hosts, if there is continual disregard of local sensitivities, this will be perceived as a display of cultural arrogance.

Cultural arrogance is defined by Sinclair and Stables (1997: 313) as the continual process of following ones own cultural rules, while disregarding the feelings and perspectives of the host community. For example, tourists who invade privacy by taking photographs when they are requested not to do so are displaying cultural arrogance.

Similarly, tourists' behaviour that breaks down moral, religious, or social codes, such as wearing too little clothing, is an example of arrogance on the part of the visitor. These two factors work against improving communication between different groups of people and consequently if left unresolved, the frustrations and disappointments that may result can destroy local goodwill and lead to instances of community backlash, including hostility, rudeness, poor service, and anti-tourism protests.

One of the most obvious signs of cultural reawakening or deterioration is to be found in the state of traditional art forms in Third World society. The growth of a tourist handicrafts market has simulated local production in both positive and negative directions.

Positive influences, according to Lea (1988: 71), may be found in the financial success of traditional and artefact production in many places, but seems to have reached its greatest

expression among the aboriginal populations in developing countries like Canada (the Eskimos or Inuit) and Australia (aboriginal people).

In relation to the negative influence, the sheer pressure caused by a ready market for handicraft has, according to Lea (1988: 71 - 72), also led to a fall in the quality of workmanship and the manufacture of cheap imitations known as "airportare". Some observers claim that traditional designs are degraded in this way and old skills lost and accusations abound of the existence of 'fake' art on sale Africa to the Pacific. Most obvious is the product of small and unusable replicas of large items like the Australian 'didgeridoo' (Aboriginal musical instrument) because the originals are far too big to be transported easily.

The ability of modern tourism is to market its products as a commodity, part of which consists of promoting the cultural attractions of holding in an exotic environment. Although this process is criticised for deepening cultural events such as religious ceremonies, it is also responsible for the flow of funds into many local activities. Among the latter is the support of local musicians who might otherwise disappear under the onslaught of imported music spread through radio and television.

International tourists are considered, by Badlender et al. (1994: 99), to be bringing with them their traditional values and expectations. Their travel has been termed ecological bubble, that is a tourist infrastructure of facilities based on Western standards has to be created even in the poorest host country. This tourist infrastructure provides the mass tourist with the protective ecological bubble of most accustomed environment. In many countries, tourists are not sensitive to local customs, traditions and standards. In a sense, foreign visitors do not integrate into a society but rather confront it.

The commercialisation of traditional / cultural events, according to Badlender et al. (1994: 100) may lead to the erection of pseudo-culture, ersatz folklore for the tourist, with no culture for the local population or the visitor.

Furthermore international tourism, according to Badlender et al. (1994: 100 - 101), is certainly more than domestic tourism, tends to confront a host community rather than integrate into it. Tourists are short-stay visitors carrying on with their own cultural norms and behaviour patterns and they are usually unwilling to change the norms for a temporary stay and may be unaware that these norms are offensive or unacceptable to the resident host community.

1.6.5. The Economic Impact of Tourism on Local Communities

1.6.5.1. Fundamental Background of Economics

The purpose of economic activity according to Phillip, Louis and Associates (2004: 21) is to satisfy human wants by goods and service. Goods are tangible objects like food, clothing houses, books and motorcars while services are intangible things like medical services, legal services, financial services, the service of an economic lecturer and the services provided by public servants.

Economists according to Phillip et al. (2004: 62) usually distinguishes five macro-economic objects which can be used to judge the performance of the economy namely economic growth, full employment, price stability, balance of payments stability (or external stability) and equitable distribution of income.

Economic growth, according to Parkin (2003: 38), is the expansion of production possibilities that results from capital accumulation and technological change. The growing economy, according to Phillip et al. (2004: 62), is experienced when the total production of goods and services will increase from one period to the next. The first step in measuring the economic growth is to determine a country's total production of goods and services in a specific period. This, according to Phillip et al. (2004: 63), can be measured using the gross domestic product (GDP) which is the total value of all final goods and services produced within the boundaries of a country in a particular period (usually one year). The gross domestic product (GDP) is considered, by McConnell and Bruce (2005: 112), as the best and widely used barometer of the total market value of all final goods and services produced in a given year.

Other measures of aggregate economic activity are income and expenditure. The country's primary income payments to the rest of the world, that is, the remuneration of foreign-owned factors of production in the economy exceeded the country's primary income receipts, that is, the remuneration earned by the country's factors of production to the rest of the world.

The decline in economic growth in South Africa, according to Phillip, et al. (2004: 87), contributed to an increase in *employment*. In South Africa the problem of unemployment was aggravated by an almost deliberate tendency to underestimate unemployment among black workers during the apartheid era.

In a market economy, as the prevailing economic system in South Africa, according to Cronje, Du Toit, Marais & Motlatla (2003: 4), individual prices, according to Phillip et al. (2004: 62), should respond to changes in supply and demand. De Beer and Kritzinger (1999: 51) point out that, inflation is the process of continual rise in the prices of products and services.

Balance of payments, according to McConnell (1987: 857), reflects all the transactions which take place between a country's residents (including individuals, businesses, and governmental units) and the residents of all foreign nations. Nowadays there is a high degree of interdependence between different countries and South Africa is no exception. Phillip, Louis and Associates (2004: 62) maintains that, to pay for imports the country has to earn the necessary foreign currency for example dollars, pounds, euros, and yen, by exporting goods and services.

An equitable (or socially acceptable) *distribution of income* is regarded by Phillip et al. (2004: 63) as a means of stimulating savings and investment which will eventually also benefit the poor, and a highly unequal distribution of income tends to generate social and political conflict, and can also have important effects on the structure and development of the economy.

South Africa is considered by Phillip et al. (2004: 21) as having a highly skewed personal income distribution of personal or household income which has followed racial lines, with whites earning the most, followed by Asians (Indians), coloureds and blacks majority being the least.

Functional distribution of income is regarded, by Phillip, Louis and Associates (2004: 91), as the income received by the various factors of production, that is, rent (natural resources), wages and salaries (labour), interest (capital) and profit (entrepreneurship).

Geographic distribution of economic activity on provincial basis, Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape (in that order) contribute by far, according to Phillip, Louis and Associates (2004: 91), the largest of South African gross domestic product (GDP).

1.6.5.2. The Main Economic Impacts of Tourism

The main economic impacts of tourism according to Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris (1994: 92), relates to foreign exchange earnings, contributions to government revenues, generation of employment and income, and contribution to regional development. The first two effects take place at the macro or national level, whereas the other three impacts occur at such national or regional levels. It should be noted that with the exception of exchange earnings, the other impacts can be generated by domestic tourism activity.

According to Phillip, Louis and Associates (2004: 94), in South Africa only about 13 percent of the land surface is suitable for cultivation and the other major problem is climate since most of the country is arid or semi-arid with low and variable rainfall. As far as forestry is concerned, South Africa has some beautiful natural resources that enhance the country's tourism potential and little commercial value. The fishing industry according to Phillip, Louis and Associates (2004: 94), is relatively small, with 90 per cent of the commercial catches being taken in the cold waters of the west coast. The fishing industry has potential of attracting tourists as a natural attraction. Labour includes the number of people engaged in or available for the production of goods and services and their physical and intellectual skills and efforts and both quantity and quality of labour are thus important.

South Africa is blessed with a primary natural asset of a large variety of minerals like gold, diamond and platinum (Phillip, Louis and Associates, 2004: 94). The gold mines and museums provide infrastructure that can promote facilitation of tourism and on their own they act as tourism attractions. The underground mining operations, according to Mbendi (2006), reaching depths of over 3.8 kilometers.

Figures usually quoted for *foreign exchange earnings* from tourism, according to Lea (1988: 38), were gross amounts and did not take into account the real cost of imports found in the country. The importance of foreign exchange earnings as a yardstick is also questioned as a yardstick to be used in pledging the value of an economic activity. In terms of section 241 subsection (1) "foreign currency", according to Danziger and Stack (2002: 213), means in relation to any trade carried on by any person within the Republic, any currency which is not legal tender in the Republic.

Foreign exchange earnings, according to Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris (1994: 93), are the receipts of non-domestic currencies earned by selling goods and services to foreign tourist. Hard convertible currencies, for example US dollar, Deutschmark, Pound sterling, Swiss Franc, according to Badlender et al. (1994: 93 - 94) foreign exchange earnings are freely available, internationally acceptable, and can be exchanged without restriction. As the currencies are issued by the economically most advanced countries, they are mostly used in international trade. Soft currencies are not freely available, and have severe limitations imposed on exchange outside the country of issue, for example, the Indian Rupee.

There are some serious methodological issues relating to the measurement of foreign exchange derived from tourism, not least being that estimates are given in gross and current terms. Gross estimates of earnings, according to Badlender et al. (1994: 94), do not deduct the inputs (in foreign exchange) necessary to earn the foreign exchange, as current estimates on a year to year basis do not take into account consideration inflation or currency fluctuations. There are ways to overcome these problems, for example, using constant price indicators and a foreign exchange deflator. Multiplier analysis and input output procedures provide better estimates of net benefit. However despite these technical problems Badlender, et al. (1994: 92) considers tourism's contribution of foreign exchange earnings to be substantial as it is the

main contributor in the Bahamas, India and Thailand, and the third ranked contributor in the United Kingdom.

Government revenue from the tourism sector may be categorised as being direct and indirect. Direct contributions, arise from possibility of charging tax on income, both personal and company, generated by tourism employment and business. On the other hand, indirect sources of revenue will comprise the range of taxes and duties levied on goods and services supplied to tourists. According to Arendse, Jordaan, Kolitz & Stein (2002: 609), the Value Added Tax Act 89 of 1991 imposes a value-added tax calculated at the rate of 14 percent and it is regarded by Huxham and Haupt (2004:606) as an indirect system of taxation which was introduced on 29 September 1991: 606).

In many developing countries, according to Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris (1994: 94), the identifiable labour force is small, with the majority of employment found in agriculture often at a subsistence level. This low-level employment base means that direct taxation is not a major source of government revenue. In practice in most developing countries government's revenues are accrued from indirect taxes. For example, on crops, on land or on imports. As a result the ability of government to generate revenue by imposing high levels of taxation on personal and government income should be avoided, consequently excessive levels of taxation will be a disincentive to investors and might deter reinvestment.

In some countries where tourism is a major contributor to government revenue, for example, the Bahamas, Badlender et al. (1994: 95) maintains that no direct taxation on personal or company income is charged, however revenue is generated indirectly by a tax on goods and services.

Goods and services bought by foreign tourist may not be clearly defined for tourism taxes since the two may be difficult to identify. Therefore, according to Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins and Lickoris (1994: 95), a bed night tax might be paid by all users of accommodation, as might airport departure taxes, general sales tax, and others. In practice, according to Badlender et al. (1994: 95), government will attempt to raise taxes on main areas of economic activity where tourism is an important sector in the economy and it will be expected to generate its share of taxation revenue. Government provides a wide range of services for the tourism sector and will expect a return on that investment and a surplus

Inflation affects some industries more than others and fuel increases have a direct influence on the motor and transport industry, while a deterioration in the Rand / Dollar exchange rate will impact on the importers and exporters as this has been identified in AsgiSA as one of the constraints in development.

Peace (1992: 31) recognises that tourism has been seen as a panacea for economic problems, for trade imbalances or for unemployment however planners fail to take into account the social implications. That is why this study recognises the need to investigate social and cultural impacts of tourism on local communities.

There is a small share of tourism's economic benefits gained by a government from taxes and duties on things tourists use and buy. Thus duties on alcoholic drinks and petrol and how the tourism tax constitutes an extra source of national income from the tourism industry according to Lea (1988: 39). Based on the Taxation in South Africa 2005/2006 brochure (2006: 48) from 01 August 2005 passengers departing to Botswana, Lesotho, Namibia and Swaziland will pay R60 air passenger departure tax, and passengers departing to other international destinations will pay R1120 per passenger as air passenger departure tax.

According to Lea (1988: 39), the real value to the nation of the jobs [*generator of employment*] comes from tourism compared to investment in labour intensive industry. The labour market in South Africa in general, according to Hirschowitz (1997: 3), tends to be relatively more labour intensive when compared to the capital intensive trends of Western countries.

A failure to consider all the categories has a potential of resulting in rather crude analysis of the real employment situation in Third World countries.

According to Lea (1988: 46 - 48), it is possible to make several generalisations about tourism and employment from existing studies which include the following:

- There is a close but not perfect correlation between the income-generating effects of tourism and the creation of employment, meaning that high returns from the industry do not correspond directly into proportionately new jobs.
- The kind of tourist activity will influence employment because some types are more labour intensive. Jobs in restaurants and bars in Mexico, for example, have been shown to provide almost 40 percent more employment than in hotels and motels.
- The types of work skills available locally also have an effect on employment, as illustrated by the high demand for unskilled labour.
- Tourism may actually take employment away from other sectors of the economy or offer part-time jobs, both of which will have little effect in reducing overall unemployment figures.
- Much tourism employment is seasonal, for example, in the Caribbean members of hotel employees per room vary from an "in season" high of 1.4 to 0.9 "out of season".

Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris (1994: 95) submit that it should be noted that tourism in many countries is a seasonal activity and this factor together with the initial low-skills jobs provided in tourism has been a continuing problem which can only be mitigated by long-term policy initiatives relating to manpower development and training.

Three types of employment, according to Lea (1988: 46), are generally recognised in the travel industry as an employment generator. These are:

- Direct employment from expenditure on tourism facilities like hotels.
- Indirect employment in businesses affected by tourism in a secondary way like local transport, handicrafts and banks.
- Induced employment arising from the spending of money by local residents from their tourist incomes.

Tourism involves movement of people to different geographical locations, and establishment of social relations between people who would otherwise not meet. Cultural clashes can take place as a result of differences in cultures, ethnic and religious groups, values and lifestyles, language and levels of prosperity.

Employment generated by tourism, according to Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris (1994: 95), can be either direct or indirect. Direct employment, can be defined as jobs created specifically by the need to supply and serve tourists. Indirect employment, can be explained as a situation where hotel itself will have to buy certain services, for example, laundry, taxes and others, this will indirectly create jobs.

Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris (1994: 95) state that the disparate nature of tourism activity makes it difficult to estimate its employment impact. Even in developed economies such as the United Kingdom, the actual number of jobs in tourism is estimated. This problem is derived from the difficulty of defining what is to be included and excluded. In many countries, and certainly in developing countries, it may be necessary to undertake specific surveys to estimate employment generated by tourism.

In many developing countries with rapidly growing populations and high levels of unemployment productivity may not be a prime consideration. As labour is in abundant supply, is relatively cheap and employment has a low skills threshold, the industry is often seen as a good source of employment opportunities (Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris, 1994: 96)

Lea (1988: 45) has identified the following magnitude of tourism's economic impacts:

- Employment of foreigners in senior tourism jobs,
- Degree to which destinations are adjusted to seasonality of demands,
- Degree of revaluation of tourism expenditures,
- Degree of foreign ownership,
- Government involvement in providing infrastructure and incentives,
- Economic development of destination area,
- Volume and intensity of tourism expenditure,
- Nature of the tourism facilities and their attractiveness.
- Socio-cultural impact of tourism.

Over dependence of tourism, according to Lea (1988: 48 - 49), may occur when small Third World economies tend towards dependence on a single primary product and are badly affected by changes in community prices. In these circumstances the introduction of tourism appears initially as a welcome form of diversification. A problem arises when tourism earnings supplant traditional activities and open the country's economy to instability of a different kind. Changes in tourism fashion, often dictated by transitional travel groups, can devastate such destinations and soon lead to a downward spiral of diminishing standards and poor publicity.

In a study commissioned by American Express indicated that in 1987 based on an analysis of over 200 countries and using 35 different international data sources it was estimated that:

- i. Travel and tourism accounted for nearly US \$ 2 trillion sales in 1987. To put this in perspective, if travel were a country its Gross National Product (GDP) would rank fourth in the world after the United States (US \$ 4.5 trillion), Soviet Union (US\$2.5 trillion), and Japan (US\$2.4 trillion).
- ii. Travel and tourism is the largest employer in most countries, providing jobs for one of every 16 workers worldwide.

Travel and tourism gross output of nearly \$2 trillion accounts for more than 5 percent of all goods and services and is 15 percent of global service sector sales (Badlender, Jefferson, Jerkins & Lickoris, 1994: 92 - 93).

1.6.6. The Environmental Impact of Tourism on Local Communities

Section 24 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa states that everyone has the right-

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

The environmental negative impacts from tourism, according to the United Nations Environment Programme (2002), occur when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment's ability to cope with this use within the acceptable limits of change. Uncontrolled conventional tourism poses potential threats to many natural areas around the world and it can put enormous pressure on an area and lead to impacts such as soil erosion, increased pollution, discharges into the sea, natural habitat loss, increased pressure on endangered species and heightened vulnerability to forest fires, strain on water resources, competition for the use of critical resources by local population.

The negative environmental impact of tourism activities include among others shortages or depletion of water, degradation of water resources, pressure on local resources, land degradation, several forms of pollution, physical impact of tourism on the environment,

Mathieson and Wall (1992) identify three relationships that may exist between tourism and the environment as isolation, symbiosis and conflict. Focusing on isolation, tourism and environmental conservation exist in a situation where both camps promote their respective positions, remain isolated, and establish minimal contact with each other. According to symbiosis there is a mutually supportive relationship, where each one can benefit from the other. Environmental features are protected as assets for tourism, while tourism generates the motivation and finances to protect environmental resources. In conflict relationship tourism induces detrimental effects on the environment, degrading its resource base and ultimately, destroying itself.

1.6.6.1. **Depletion of Natural Resources**

Tourism development can put pressure on natural resources when it increases consumption in areas where resources are already scarce.

Water, and especially fresh water, is one of the most critical natural resources and the tourism industry generally overuses water resources for hotels, swimming pools, golf courses and personal use of water by tourists. This can result in water shortages and degradation of water supplies, as well as generating a greater volume of waste water. In dryer regions like the Mediterranean, the issue of water scarcity is of particular concern because the hot climate and the tendency of tourists to consume more water when on holiday than they do at home, the amount used can run up to 440 liters a day. This is almost double what the inhabitants of an average Spanish city use.

Golf course maintenance can also deplete fresh water resources. In recent years golf tourism has increased in popularity and the number of golf courses has grown rapidly. Golf courses require an enormous amount of water every day and, as with other causes of excessive extraction of water, this can result in water scarcity. If the water comes from wells, over pumping can cause saline intrusion into groundwater. Golf resorts are more and more often situated in or near protected areas or areas where resources are limited, exacerbating their impacts. The local communities end competing for limited water resources with tourism activities.

Tourism can create great pressure on *local resources* like energy, food, and other raw materials that may already be in short supply. Greater extraction and transport of these resources exacerbates the physical impacts associated with their exploitation. The seasonal

character of the industry forces many destinations to have ten times more inhabitants in the high season as in the low season and subsequently a high demand is placed upon these resources to meet the high expectations tourists often have such as among others proper heating and hot water.

Important land resources for tourism include minerals, fossil fuels, fertile soil, forests, wetland and wildlife. Increased construction of tourism and recreational facilities has increased the pressure on these resources and on scenic landscapes. Direct impact on natural resources, both renewable and nonrenewable, in the provision of tourist facilities can be caused by the use of land for accommodation and other infrastructure provision, such as highways, streets, roads, bridges, waste resources, electric power supply, telecommunication, and the use of building materials. Forests often suffer negative impacts of tourism in the form of deforestation caused by fuel wood collection and land clearing. For example, one trekking tourist in Nepal - and area already suffering the effects of deforestation - can use four to five kilograms of wood a day.

1.6.6.2 Pollution Caused by Tourism

Hunter and Green (1995) describe pollution as involving the anthropogenic introduction [created by/stemming from humans] of substances or energy into the environment. Pollution can cause hazards to human health, harm to living resources and ecological systems, damage to structures and amenities, and interference with the legitimate use of the environment.

Tourism can cause the same forms of pollution as any other industry such as air emissions, noise, solid waste and littering, releases of sewage, oil and chemicals, even architectural /

visual pollution. Most of the environmental impacts of tourism occur at the destination, however there are also impacts in areas of origin and while tourists are traveling, for example, the output of air-crafts, ferries, coaches, cars and promotional material consumes productive and energy resources, and generates waste in origin areas. Travel generates pollution in the atmosphere and adversely affects the environment of the areas that are traveled through.

Air pollution and noise pollution are also caused by tourism related activities. Transport by air, road, and rail is continuously increasing in response to the rising number of tourists and their greater mobility.

Transport emissions and emissions from energy production and use are linked to undesirable repercussions such as acid rain, global warming and photochemical pollution. Air pollution from tourist transportation has impacts on the global level, especially from carbon dioxide (CO₂) emissions related to transportation energy use and it can contribute to severe local air pollution. Some of these impacts are quite specific to tourist activities especially in very hot or cold countries where tour buses often leave their motors running for hours while the tourists go out for an excursion because they want to return to a comfortably air-conditioned bus.

Noise pollution from airplanes, cars, and buses, as well as recreational vehicles such as snowmobiles and jet skis, is an ever-growing problem of modern life. In addition to causing annoyance, stress, and even hearing loss for humans, it causes distress to wildlife, especially in sensitive areas. For instance, noise generated by snowmobiles can cause animals to alter their natural activity patterns.

In areas with high concentrations of tourist activities and appealing natural attractions, waste disposal is a serious problem and improper disposal can be a major despoiler of the natural

environment - rivers, scenic areas, and roadsides. Solid waste and littering can degrade the physical appearance of the water and shoreline and cause the death of marine animals.

In mountain areas, trekking tourists generate a great deal of waste since tourists on expedition leave behind their garbage, oxygen cylinders and even camping equipment. Such practices degrade the environment with all the detritus typical of the developed world, in remote areas that have few garbage collection or disposal facilities. Some trails in the Peruvian Andes and in Nepal frequently visited by tourists have been nicknamed "Coca-Cola trail" and "Toilet paper trail".

The construction of hotels, recreation and other facilities often leads to increased sewage pollution as wastewater has polluted seas and lakes surrounding tourist attractions thus damaging the flora and fauna. Sewage pollution can threaten the health of humans and animals and can cause serious damage to coral reefs because it stimulates the growth of algae, which cover the filter-feeding corals, hindering their ability to survive. Changes in salinity can have wide-ranging impacts on coastal environments.

Often tourism fails to integrate its structures with the natural features and indigenous architectural of the destination considering that large, dominating resorts of disparate design can look out of place in any natural environment and may clash with the indigenous structural design. A lack of land-use planning and building regulations in many destinations have facilitated sprawling developments along coastlines, valleys and scenic routes and the sprawl includes tourism facilities themselves and supporting infrastructure such as roads, employee housing, parking, service areas, and waste disposal.

One of the most widespread problems created by tourism development is water pollution through the discharge of inadequately treated sewage effluent. This is often related to inadequacies in planning and too rapid development of tourism. The rapid expansion of tourism and the associated construction of tourist facilities often outstrip the provision of treatment facilities. Furthermore, the responsible authority, the municipality or district council may find themselves unable to fund sewage facilities to accommodate excess demand during certain times of the year.

The unfortunate result is the dumping of raw or semi treated sewage into bodies such as lakes, rivers, lagoons and the sea. The use of pesticides, herbicides and fertilizers in resort and golf course landscaping is also a major cause of pollution to the fauna and flora. Water pollution from inadequately treated sewage and chemicals can have major consequences for local marine and riverine organisms, and for the health of tourists and locals who use the water for drinking, bathing, and as a source of food.

1.6.6.3. Physical Impacts of Tourism

Attractive landscape sites, such as sandy beaches, lakes, riversides, and mountain tops and slopes, are often transitional zones, characterized by species-rich ecosystems.

An ecosystem is a geographic area including all the living organisms (people, plants, animals, and microorganisms), their physical surroundings (such as soil, water, and air), and the natural cycles that sustain them. The ecosystems most threatened with degradation are ecologically fragile areas such as alpine regions, rain forests, wetlands, mangroves, coral reefs and sea grass beds. The threats to and pressures on these ecosystems are often severe because such

places are very attractive to both tourists and developers. Physical impacts are caused not only by tourism-related land clearing and construction, but by continuing tourist activities and long-term changes in local economies and ecologies.

Many destinations are characterised by seasonal flow of tourists, with short periods of intense concentration of numbers and according to Bercheri (1991: 320) the massive influx of visitors to an area can lead to problems of congestion and overcrowding. The sheer volume of people may reduce the quality of the tourism experience and cause damage to the environmental features visited.

The development of tourism facilities such as accommodation, water supplies, restaurants and recreation facilities can involve sand mining, beach and sand dune erosion, soil erosion and extensive paving. In addition, road and airport construction can lead to land degradation and loss of wildlife habitats and deterioration of scenery.

Construction of ski resort accommodation and facilities frequently requires clearing forested land. Coastal wetlands are often drained and filled due to lack of more suitable sites for construction of tourism facilities and infrastructure. These activities can cause severe disturbance and erosion of the local ecosystem, even destruction in the long term.

Development of marinas and breakwaters can cause changes in currents and coastlines furthermore, extraction of building materials such as sand affects coral reefs, mangroves, and hinterland forests, leading to erosion and destruction of habitats. In the Philippines and the Maldives, dynamiting and mining of coral for resort building materials has damaged fragile coral reefs and depleted the fisheries that sustain local people and attract tourists.

Overbuilding and extensive paving of shorelines can result in destruction of habitats and disruption of land-sea connections (such as sea-turtle nesting spots). Coral reefs are especially fragile marine ecosystems and are suffering worldwide from reef-based tourism developments. Evidence suggests a variety of impacts to coral result from shoreline development, increased sediments in the water, trampling by tourists and divers, ship groundings, pollution from sewage, over fishing, and fishing with poisons and explosives that destroy coral habitat.

Trampling tourists using the same trail over and over again trample the vegetation and soil, eventually causing damage that can lead to loss of biodiversity and other impacts such as erosion. Such damage can be even more extensive when visitors frequently stray off established trails. Anchoring and other marine activities in marine areas (around coastal waters, reefs, beach and shoreline, offshore waters, uplands and lagoons) is where many tourist activities occur in or around fragile ecosystems. Anchoring, snorkeling, sport fishing and scuba diving, yachting, and cruising are some of the activities that can cause direct degradation of marine ecosystems such as coral reefs, and subsequent impacts on coastal protection and fisheries.

Tourism leisure activities can alter ecosystems and subsequently that habitat can be degraded. For example, wildlife viewing can bring about stress for the animals and alter their natural behaviour when tourists come too close. Safaris and wildlife watching activities have a degrading effect on habitat as they often are accompanied by the noise and commotion created by tourists as they chase wild animals in their trucks and aircraft. This puts high pressure on animal habits and behaviors and tends to bring about behavioural changes. In some cases, as in Kenya, it has led to animals becoming so disturbed that at times they neglect their young or fail to mate.

1.6.7. The Impact of Tourism on the Cultural and Natural Attractions of the Local Communities

South Africa, according to Phillip, Louis and Associates (2004: 96), is a beautiful country with a variety of attractions and a wonderful sunny climate for tourists, which has not been exploited fully as yet as a natural tourist potential

Some of the objectives of the World Heritage Convention Act No. 49 of 1999 in terms of section 3 are to;

- (a) Provide for the cultural and environmental protection and sustainable development of, and related activities within, World Heritage Sites,

This subsection is based on the principle that recognises that development must be socially, culturally, environmentally and economically sustainable. The tourism industry is benefiting from the heritage sites, in the Republic of South Africa and as a result this indicates that the government is recognising that tourism development needs to be culturally and socially sustainable.

- (b) Ensure the identification and transmission to future generations of the cultural and natural heritage of the Republic of South Africa.

The promotion of community well being and empowerment through cultural and natural heritage education, the raising of cultural and natural heritage awareness is one of the means of transmitting knowledge to the future generations. In addition to that, the specific sharing of knowledge and experience and other appropriate means is also important.

- (c) Ensure that effective and active measures are taken for the protection, conservation and preservation of the cultural and natural heritage of the Republic of South Africa,

The principle of holding the cultural and natural heritage in public interest is crucial in ensuring that there is effective and active measures in protecting, conserving and preserving the cultural and natural heritage.

(d) Encourage job creation in connection with World Heritage Sites

Job creation in this regard may be achieved through the principle of ensuring that all people have the opportunity to develop the understanding, skills and capacity necessary for achieving equitable and effective participation. In addition to that, this could also be achieved through ensuring participation by vulnerable and historically disadvantaged persons. Access to information must be provided in accordance with applicable laws.

(e) Promote the development of culturally, environmentally and, if applicable economically sustainable projects in connection with World Heritage Sites

There is a need that the unnatural disturbances of ecosystems and loss of biological diversity are avoided, and pollution and degradation of the environment are avoided.

(f) Promote empowerment and advancement of historically disadvantaged persons in projects related to World Heritage Sites

This objective can be achieved through the principle of pursuing equitable access to World Heritage Sites and taking special measures to ensure access thereto by the historically disadvantaged. The historically disadvantaged need to benefit from tourism and have equal access to the resources of tourism.

The World Heritage Convention Act, No. 49 of 1999 is based on the principle that cultural and natural heritage management must be sensitive to the people and their needs and must equitably serve their physical, psychological, developmental, cultural and social interests.

1.6.8. The Government Intervention in Relation to the Promotion of Tourism

In his inauguration and the 10th anniversary of freedom address on the 27th of April 2004, Mr. Thabo Mbeki, the president of South Africa, confirmed that none of great social problems that have to be solved are capable of resolution outside the context of the creation of jobs and the alleviation and eradication of poverty. This relates to everything, from the improvement of the health of the people, to reducing the levels of crime, raising the levels of literacy and numeracy, and opening the doors of learning and culture to all.

It has been confirmed that tourism has the potential of creating employment and the recognition of the government that tourism has potential for growth is also a means of engaging in the creation of employment and thus addressing the challenges that have been identified.

According to the 10 year review (1994 - 2004), before 1994, tourism and environmental matters had very low profiles in terms of government priorities. That changed rapidly with the advent of democracy and consequently from being a junior portfolio, the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) has been repositioned as a core economic growth department.

According to Phillip, et al. (2004: 395), the role or rationale of the government in the economy can be summarised by distinguishing three broad function of government:

- The allocation of function, which refers to the role of government in correcting market failure and achieving a more efficient allocation of resources.

- The distribution function, which refers to the steps taken by government to achieve a more equitable or socially acceptable distribution of income than that generated by market forces
- The stability function, which refers to the measures taken by government to promote macroeconomic stability, for example full employment, price stability and balance of payment stability.

1.6.8.1. Instruments that the Government Uses to Achieve its Objectives of Intervening in the Economy

Since 2000, the government has, according to Phillip, et al. (2004: 395), also entered into a number of public private partnerships (PPPs). Public private partnerships (PPPs) is defined as a contractual arrangement whereby a private party receives a fee according to predefined performance criteria, and example include hospitals, nature reserves, toll roads and the provision of accommodation to the government departments. AsgiSA considers tourism to be entailing a strong government / private-sector partnership.

The primary purpose of taxation is to finance government expenditure, and the level and structure of taxation can be used to achieve various objectives. Taxation can be used to redistribute income, to promote certain desirable activities and to penalise other socially undesirable activities for instance tax incentives as tax holidays or lower rates to stimulate investment spending and small business development

Government formulates regulations regarding laws, rules and regulations that affect private behaviour, for example labour laws, competition policy that can, according to Phillip, et al

(2004: 396), be enforced through a system of fines and criminal penalties.

The following is evidence, confirmed by President Thabo Mbeki in his inauguration and the 10th anniversary of freedom address on the 27th of April 2004, the government does recognise the challenges facing South Africa together with the fact that the country can not operate in isolation:

- The violence that continues to claim lives in various countries in the Middle East, including Palestine, Israel, Iraq and Saudi Arabia.
- The acts of terrorism that took away many lives in Nairobi, Dar-Es-Salaam, New York, Madrid and elsewhere.
- The negative outcomes of the process of globalisation, the growing impoverishment of billions across the globe, and the failure of the multilateral institutions, including the United Nations, to respond quickly and effectively to the needs and aspirations of those who are poor and do not dispose of immense power.

1.6.8.2. The Tourism BEE Charter

The objective of the Tourism BEE Charter (2004) is to advance the objectives of the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act No. 53 of 2003. The Act aims at establishing a framework and establishing the principles upon which BEE will be implemented in the tourism sector; representing a partnership programme as outlined in government's Strategy for Broad-based BEE; provide the basis for the sector's engagement with other stakeholders including government and labour; establishing targets and sector in respect of each principle; and outline processes for implementing the scorecard. The commitment of all the stakeholders in the tourism sector is expressed in commitment to empowerment and transformation of the sector

and working collectively to ensure that the opportunities and benefits of the tourism sector are extended to black South Africans.

The tourism BEE charter applies to all privately owned enterprises within the Tourism sector, and to all parts of the value chain in that sector, including inter alia:

Accommodation (hotels, resorts properties and timeshare, bed and breakfasts, guesthouses, game lodges, and backpackers and hostels); hospitality and related services (restaurants not attached to hotels), conference venues (not attached to hotels), professional catering, attractions and consulting, and professional services companies; and travel distribution systems (tour wholesalers, tour operators, travel agents, tourist guides, car rental companies, and coach operators).

The three *components* of Black Economic Empowerment are direct empowerment, human resource development and indirect empowerment.

Direct empowerment component comprises of equity ownership and management elements of which the key focus is on economic impact on the equity holders, executives and other owners, and managers of economic resources. The beneficiaries are expected to assume direct economic risk for their involvement and expect returns that are commensurate to that risk.

Human resource development component also comprises of two elements namely employment equity and skills development. The focus of this component is internal transformation that will accelerate the development of an entity's black employees, as well as any potential employee of the enterprise. This component aims to ensure that there is demographic representation of black people in the workplace and prevent income inequality across the different population

groups in the same occupation. It also measures the contributions made by enterprises to advance the skills of its employees.

Employment equity specifically is a mechanism used to achieve equity in the workplace by: promoting equal opportunities through the elimination of unfair discrimination, and implementing affirmative action measures to redress the disadvantages in employment experienced by black people, in order to ensure their equitable representation in all occupational categories and levels in the workplace. Skill development on the other hand refers to the development of core competencies of black people to facilitate their interaction in the mainstream of the economy.

The last component, indirect empowerment, enables and encourages an enterprise to facilitate broad-based BEE in entities and communities with which it interacts. The preferential procurement element promotes broad-based BEE by allocating preference to enterprises with higher broad-based BEE contributions during the procurement process as an effective way of creating market access for black people.

In the second element, enterprise development, entrepreneurs are further supported with the creation and enhancement of the entrepreneur's operational and financial capacity. In the last component of, social development, black communities also gain since it focuses on education programmes, health programmes, and other relevant social development areas such as community programmes, job creation initiatives, conservation, community tourism initiatives, and participation in marketing initiatives to develop the local black tourist, especially those accredited and recognised by Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) and Tourism Business Council of South Africa (TBCSA).

The scope of the Tourism BEE Charter (2004) applies to all privately owned enterprises within the tourism sector, and to all parts of the value chain in that sector, *inter alia*, accommodation (hotels, resort properties and timeshare, bed and breakfast, guesthouses, game lodges, and backpackers and hotels), hospitality and related services (restaurants (not attached to hotels), conference venues (not attached to hotels), professional catering, attractions, and consulting and professional services companies), and travel distribution systems (tour wholesalers, tour operators, travel agents, tourist guides, car rental companies and coach operator).

1.6.8.3. Key Issues in Tourism Sector According to Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa

Government has already initiated interventions to address deep-seated inequalities and target the marginalised poor, to bridge the gap with the second economy, and ultimately to eliminate the second economy using Accelerated and Shared Growth Strategy in South Africa.

There is an increased level of public expenditure, especially investment expenditure to promote small businesses and broad-based empowerment addressing such issues as access to finance, preferential procurement and review of the impact of regulations on labour-intensive sectors.

The second leverage is to link small businesses to opportunities deriving from the 2010 FIFA world cup. In this leverage private companies will also be persuaded to engage in affirmative procurement and the implementation of the relevant provisions of the Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) Codes of Good Practice and the relevant sector empowerment charters will be closely monitored. The infrastructure projects will be labour intensive where feasible to include the extended public works programmes

Key issues in tourism sector in accordance with AsgiSA are marketing, air access, safety, and skills development. AsgiSA regards tourism as a labour intensive, rapidly growing sector worldwide, suited to South African circumstances and open to opportunities for Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBEEE) and small business development.

Marketing, according to Cronje, et al. (2003: 283), consists of management tasks and decisions directed at successfully meeting opportunities and threat in a dynamic environment. It occurs by effectively developing and transferring a need-satisfying market offering to customers in such a way that the objectives of the business, the consumer and society will be achieved. This in relation to tourism will allow tourism players, more especially small businesses from the previously disadvantaged, to market their tourism products and services to the customers or clients.

According to the South African Collaboration Action Process (1999: 47 - 48), transportation services have grown in response to the increase in tourist arrivals and growth in the supply and improvements in the quality of transportation services has been achieved in the airlines, airports and car hire industry, airline industry in South Africa, and airports in South Africa.

It is important to note that other means of transportation such as taxis, railway and cruise ship have been lagging in terms of services required to serve the tourism industry.

According to the South African Collaboration Action Process (1999: 50), South Africa's tourism is at risk if the country's *safety* and security issues, both the reality as well as the international perception, are not handled quickly and effectively. It has also been claimed that crime and violence can, more than any other factor, derail the best case scenario for creating jobs in South Africa.

Skills development, according to the Tourism BEE Charter (2004), is regarded as one of the two elements of the core component of human resources development in Black Economic Empowerment. Under Black Economic Empowerment there is a need for investment in skills development in addition to skills development levies. Skills development in the context of black economic empowerment refers to the development of core competencies of black people to facilitate their interaction in the mainstream of the economy and it is imperative that there be a focus on core and technical skills that would enable black people to participate in the wider economy in a meaningful manner.

AsgiSA recognises that for both public and private investment programmes, the single greatest impediment is shortage of skills, including professional skills such as engineers and scientist, managers such as financial, personnel and project managers, and skilled technical employees such as artisans and IT technicians. Skills projects include the deployment experienced professionals and managers to local governments to improve project development, implementation and maintenance capabilities.

The Umsobomvu Youth Trust is driving a number of initiatives, many of which entail youth volunteers, to support a range of skills development programmes.

A new institution is the Joint Initiative for Priority Skills Acquisition (JIPSA) led by a committee of Deputy President, key leaders, trade unionists and education and training providers or exports. Its job will be to identify urgent skills needs and quick and effective solutions. The solutions may include special training programmes, bringing back retirees or South Africans and Africans working out of Africa, and drawing in new immigrants where necessary. It may also include mentoring and oversees placement of trainees to fast-track their development.

There will be a one-year placement programme in the United Arab Emirates focused on developing skills in infrastructure project management and project financing as well as tourism.

1.6.9. Indigenous Knowledge in Relation to Tourism

1.6.9.1. Background of Indigenous Knowledge

Indigenous knowledge systems in South Africa, according to the Business Studies, National Curriculum Statement Grades 10 - 12 (2003), refers to a body of knowledge embedded in African philosophical thinking and social practices that have evolved over thousands of years. According to the Wikipedia website indigenous knowledge (IK), traditional knowledge (TK), and local knowledge generally refer to the matured long-standing traditions and practices of certain regional, indigenous, or local communities. Traditional knowledge also encompasses the wisdom, knowledge, and teachings of these communities.

According to Hanekom (2006) Indigenous knowledge has always been and continues to be the primary factor in the survival and welfare of the majority of South Africans. In addition, the Indigenous Knowledge Systems (IKS) policy, created an enabling framework to stimulate and strengthen the contribution of indigenous knowledge to social and economic development in South Africa.

In many cases, indigenous knowledge has been orally passed for generations from person to person. Some forms of traditional knowledge are expressed through stories, legends, folklore, rituals, songs, and even laws and other forms of traditional knowledge often expressed through different means.

According to the Geneva Declaration with regard to the Plan of Action of the Global Forum on indigenous Peoples and Information Society (2003), indigenous people interested in building partnerships with other indigenous peoples, the international system (including financial bodies), and the private sector should focus at the following with regard to education:

- Assist indigenous media in transmitting information (through print, audio and video) without excessive cost.
- Adapt information technologies to the needs of indigenous communities.
- Assist indigenous peoples to publicise their realities, recognising that indigenous peoples should decide what should be published and what should not.
- Develop and promote information computer technology (ICT) projects that motivate all young learners (including indigenous youth) to understand other cultures and also to take part in the preservation of their own cultures.
- Promote education and capacity building about information technology to ensure that indigenous peoples can utilize it effectively and appropriately.
- Ensure that relevant United Nations (UN) bodies including the United Nations Permanent Forum on Indigenous Issues (UNPFII), World Intellectual Property Organisation (WIPO), and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) work together on these issues to ensure that these issues (that are cross-cutting) are adequately addressed, recognising that no single United Nations (UN) body has a mandate that allows for the comprehensive addressing of these issues. Such a partnership should encourage complimentary in addressing these issues.
- Produce a secure database portal of Indigenous languages written and oral.
- Create educational programs, where indigenous students can be trained to improve their technical skills.
- Assist indigenous peoples to develop their own strategies of communications.

Lillejord and Mashile (2004) maintain that there is evidence in the literature that shows how “Western scientific practices” were implemented in foreign communities resulting in the compromise of well established indigenous practices. Reverting back to indigenous practices proved to be sustainable since sustainable development has more of a bottom-up participation approach as opposed to top-down modernisation approach. Lillejord and Mashile (2004) further submit that it is increasingly recognized that development initiatives that pay attention to local perceptions and ways of local communities are more likely to be relevant to people’s needs and to generate sustainable interventions.

According to Lillejord and Mashile (2004), beyond the Western-Indigenous divide, there is also a need for a political agenda that seeks to accommodate all indigenous knowledge within nation states. Valorization and formal institutionalisation of a body of knowledge as “indigenous knowledge” depends on the power of the social group claiming indigenous status. There is also a call for indigenous research to also focus on indigenous people, their knowledge and modes of understanding.

Some communities depend on their traditional knowledge for survival. According to Pera and McLaren (1999), recently many government bodies, international environment treaties, and other policies made about sustainable tourism have not invited indigenous people to participate adequately in these policies which will have a negative consequence for the rest of time.

Tourism is deeply rooted in a history of colonisation and unequal relations between people and regions. Therefore, the effects of tourism cannot only be measured in terms of employment generation, degree of pollution, infrastructure development, and loss of biodiversity. In addition there are many societal and psychological effects which are often immeasurable but have

grave impacts and must be part of the critical analysis of tourism and its effects on indigenous communities (Pera, 1999).

During the World Ecotourism Summit, held in Quebec, Canada, it was stressed that to achieve equitable, social, economic and environmental benefits from ecotourism and other forms of natural areas, and to minimise or avoid potential negative impacts, participative planning mechanisms are needed that allow local and indigenous communities, in a transparent way, to define and regulate the use of their area at the local level, including the right to opt out of tourism development.

The challenge for governments the world over, according to Mangena (2004), is how to provide protection for Indigenous Knowledge Systems. This is why the South African government has placed a great degree of emphasis on the development of Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) Policy and Legislation, which will significantly protect, develop and promote Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) and will help improve the livelihood and economic well-being of the Indigenous and local communities, by ensuring equitable and fair benefit sharing.

The Government of the Republic of South Africa has also registered its commitment to the recognition, promotion, development, protection and affirmation of Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS). According to the vision and goals for an Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) policy for South Africa, the participation of practitioners and holders of Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) have been of critical importance to the Government. Under apartheid, Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) in South Africa, as well as practitioners within such systems, were marginalised, suppressed and subjected to ridicule. This resulted in profound negative effects on the development of South Africa's economy and society, resulting in the distortion of the social, cultural and economic development of the vast majority of its people.

To coordinate the Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) policy the Government of the Republic of South Africa with the Department of Science and Technology (DST) has the following key departments:

- Trade and Industry (DTI),
- Arts and Culture (DAC),
- Department of Agriculture (DoA),
- Health (DoH),
- Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT),
- Education (DoE),
- Foreign Affairs (DFA),
- Land Affairs (DLA),
- Sports and Recreation (DSR),
- Provincial and local Government (DPLG),
- Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAF), and
- All the respective relevant statutory agencies.

Mangena (2004) points out that his Department of Science and Technology (DST) is committed to recognising that the undisputed wealth of Indigenous Knowledge (IK) that survived the past centuries of repression is validated in various projects under the Unit of Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) and the poverty Relieve Sub-Programme.

The Department of Science and Technology (DST) will, according to Mangena (2004), create an environment that welcomes the participation of indigenous people in the development work.

This has already according to Mangena (2004) been started in the following ways:

- Co-operation of holders and practitioners of Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) with the Department of Science and Technology,

- Ensuring that projects actually benefit indigenous and local people on many fronts such as promoting their human rights, reducing poverty in their communities, and strengthening their ability to get organised and advocate for change,
- Getting more involved in the design, implementation and evaluation of projects.
- The Department of Science and Technology (DST) together with Department of Provincial and local government (DPLG) looking at the role that Traditional leaders can play in the protection and promotion of Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS),
- Working relationships established with the Department of Health (DoH) with respect to medicinal plants,
- Working relationships established with the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI) regarding Intellectual Property Rights. The Law of intellectual property, according to Visser, Pretorious, Sharrock and van Jaarsveld (2003: 706), seeks to create a system whereby the creator of original works or intellectual property is afforded a qualified monopoly in the use or exploitation of his work. This is done, first to compensate and reward him for the effort, creativity and talent expended and utilised in the creation of his work. Secondly, to act as an incentive for him to use talents and efforts to create more and better works or items of intellectual property. Intellectual property according to WIPO refers to creations of the mind: inventions, literary and artistic works, and symbols, names, images, and designs used in commerce
- Working relationships established with the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) on benefit sharing.

1.6.9.2. The Impact of Indigenous Knowledge on Tourism

Tourism, according to the Statement of the Indigenous Peoples Interfaith Dialogue on Globalisation and Tourism (2002), in the context of globalisation brings in market competition, appropriates lands and resources of indigenous communities, and forces Indigenous Peoples to become showcases and "human museum exhibits". Indigenous Peoples are becoming increasingly vulnerable to exploitation by bioprospectors and biopirates, where traditional wisdom and knowledge and natural resources have been expropriated for business interests.

According to Pera and McLaren (1999), the destructiveness of tourism industry (environmental pollution and enormous waste management problems, displacement from lands, human rights abuses, unfair labour and wages, modification of cultures) has brought great harm to many indigenous people and communities around the world.

According to the Statement of the Indigenous Peoples Interfaith Dialogue on Globalisation and Tourism (2002), the modern tourism industry leaves limited choices to indigenous communities to reject it. They are trapped by the powerful corporate interests at work, the lure of economic incentives, and the perception that it will enable the preservation of indigenous cultures and traditions.

Pera and McLaren (1999) identify another threat that expanding global tourism industry brings to indigenous communities as biopiracy. Bioprospecting and biopiracy often happen under the guise of ecotourism. There are concerns about numerous ecotourism trips where scientists, tourists, students and researchers enter into forests to collect information about local plants and ecosystems, stealing biodiversity and, in some cases, attempting to patent life and the stealing of knowledge developed over centuries. The concern, according to Pera and McLaren

(1999), is that indigenous world views are not taken into consideration as scientific knowledge when policies and decision making regarding bioprospecting are made.

Unsustainable tourism is recognised by Pera and McLaren (1999) as another threat to indigenous knowledge as it damages the environment and violates indigenous people's and local communities' human rights and rights to access and ownership to land and natural resources essential to food security, self sufficiency and cultural identity.

It is stated in the Statement of the Indigenous Peoples Interfaith Dialogue on Globalisation and Tourism (2002) that according to as statement of the Indigenous People Interfaith Dialogue on Globalisation and Tourism it was affirmed that a priori rights of Indigenous Peoples to their traditional lands, territories, and resources, the integrity of which has been sustained by generations through their traditional way of life in harmony with nature.

A further negative impact of tourism identified by Pera and McLaren (1999) is when tourism commercialises and markets local communities and their cultural heritage, and sacred sites integral to traditional cultural and indigenous knowledge systems. According to the Statement of the Indigenous Peoples Interfaith Dialogue on Globalisation and Tourism (2002) Indigenous Peoples have come to realise that much has been lost while gaining little under the process of globalisation and expansion of tourism. It is further recommended that representatives of Indigenous Peoples' organisations and movements, have to strive for regaining indigenous people's rights as understood by their communities and as recognized under existing international rights covenants, conventions, and laws.

It is recommended by Pera and McLaren (1999) that, indigenous people and other local communities should enjoy the full measure of human rights, collective rights, and fundamental freedoms without hindrance and discrimination. Freedom of religion, belief and opinion;

freedom of association, and the right to cultural, religious and linguistic communities and access to information enshrined in The Constitution of South Africa are closely related tourism rights. This includes the right to reject as well as accept tourism amplified by the right to access to information related to Promotion of Access to Information Act, No. 2 of 2000 which applies to a record of a public body and a record of a private body regardless of when the record came into existence.

There should be prime decision makers with regard to tourism that will impact on their cultures and environment as, according to the Bill of Rights in The Constitution of South Africa, every one has the right to use the language and to participate in the cultural life of their choice, but no one exercising these rights may do so in a manner inconsistent with any provision of the Bill of Rights.

Tourism is considered by Pera and McLaren (1999) to have the tendency of threatening and often destroying local traditional means of livelihood, or local self-reliance, and can ruin local industries with its build up of transportation, communications, and economic infrastructure. The liberalisation in economic sectors such as agriculture, or expansion of other industries such as logging or mining, according to Pera and McLaren (1999), further create conditions ripe for tourism development since they erode a community's self-sufficiency and create dependency upon a market over which locals have no control. This is a clear infringement of the right to freedom of trade, occupation and profession.

According to Mbeki (2007), implantation of detailed programmes intended to among others promote the growth of the small and medium business sector indicates, or confirms that the struggle to eradicate poverty has been and will continue to a central part of the national effort to build the new South Africa. Trevor Manuel (2007) in the budget speech of 2007 alluded that

human life has equal worth and entrepreneurship remains a vital ingredient in the growth of the economy.

Indigenous knowledge typically distinguishes one community from another as it becomes their identity. For many communities, traditional knowledge takes on a personal and spiritual meaning, and traditional knowledge can also reflect a community's interests. Ndhlovu (2004: 153) add that when knowledge systems are indigenous they have been shaped and mediated by local communal needs and challenges.

According to Ndhlovu (2004: 150) for any meaningful development to take place in contemporary Africa, traditional social practices must take centre stage in giving direction to the changes taking place, whether they originate internally or externally. The White Paper on the development and promotion of tourism in South Africa recognised that ensuring that tourism takes note of cultural heritage resources within specific communities and environments will ignite the engine of tourism growth. Pera and McLaren (1999) cement this argument by stating that there is a need for indigenous people to be active agents in the tourism industry.

It is recognised in the Geneva Convention of the plan of Action of the Global Forum of Indigenous People and the Information society (2003) that Indigenous peoples were identified as vulnerable groups by the World Conference against Racism, Racial Discrimination Xenophobia and Related Intolerance, and as peoples, suffer multiple forms of discrimination. In particular, indigenous women were at the intersectionality of race and gender discrimination. Therefore, particular attention should be given to the negative uses of modern technologies to promote and proliferate racial hatred, discrimination, gender bias and stereotyping. As the World Conference recommended, special measures should be adopted to address discrimination against indigenous peoples.

Tourism has been recognised as one of the strategies for development by President Thabo Mbeki in his 2007 State of the Nation Address, when he stated that in order to further speed up the implementation of AsgiSA, government will intensify implementation of customised sector measures to facilitate investment in among other tourism. This position clearly indicates the need to acknowledge and utilise indigenous knowledge related to the traditional social practices of communities. It is acknowledged in the Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) policy that in South Africa, Indigenous Knowledge System (IKS) is owned by and provides services to people who are prone to unemployment.

According to Ndhlovu (2004: 153), the traditional natural resource management techniques, reflected through taboos, prohibitions and local folklore have been ignored and modern western-orientated paradigms have been imposed. Lillejord and Mashile (2004) maintain that “Western scientific practices” were implemented in foreign communities resulting in the compromise of well-established indigenous practices. The quest for preserving local human and natural resources, according to Ndhlovu (2004: 153), motivates people to develop their own homegrown strategies for looking after their environment. As a result, the need to manage and preserve natural resources through indigenous knowledge implies that there should be a well coordinated system of local cultural, political, religious and economic institutions which serve as repositories of local values and wisdom.

Jones and Hunter (2004: 105) submit that the relationship between the survival of indigenous peoples and the environment is founded upon the belief that the environment is an embodiment of the people’s indigenous knowledge, spiritually, culturally and socially. Indigenous peoples according to Jones and Hunter (2004:104), generally find it a duty to steward the land with the same regard as the care given to family and tribe. The survival of

indigenous people is thus dependent on their ancestral land and they have a duty to preserve it since they care about it as family or tribe.

According to the Statement of the Indigenous Peoples Interfaith Dialogue on Globalisation and Tourism (2002), the traditional values and very fabric of Indigenous Peoples systems, which include social, cultural, resource management, belief, education, agricultural, technological, political, judicial, health, and economic systems, can contribute alternatives to our current human, economic and environmental crises are noted to be upheld by the Indigenous Peoples Interfaith Dialogue on Globalisation and Tourism.

The affirmation of African cultural values in the face of globalisation is considered to be the main Indigenous Knowledge Systems Policy drivers in the South African context. Languages, according to Jones and Hunter (2004:104), as indicators of cultural diversity, represent the repository of "peoples' intellectual heritages and frameworks for each society's unique understanding of life.

The rapid rate of extinction of languages according to Jones and Hunter (2004:104 - 105), threatens to erase the world's cultural diversity as many languages are losing the ecological contexts that allow them to be living languages. Chiromo (2004: 126) points out that cultural rules and norms are transmitted through given mechanisms, for example, language, and this demonstrate that it is important to preserve cultural heritage. It is also important to preserve the indigenous language as, according to Monyatsi and Nleya (2004: 117), indigenous education aims to preserve the cultural heritage.

Indigenous education, according to Monyatsi and Nleya (2004: 117), aims to preserve the cultural heritage of the extended family, clan and tribe; adapt members of the new generation

to their physical environment and teaching them how to control and use it; and explain to them (members of the new generation) that their own future, and that of their community, depend on the understanding and perpetuation of the institution, laws, language and values inherited from the past. Indigenous language has been identified in the Indigenous Knowledge Systems Policy as one of the practical measures for the development of services provided by indigenous knowledge holders and practitioners.

According to the Statement of the Indigenous Peoples Interfaith Dialogue on Globalisation and Tourism (2002), the following plans and strategies need to be implemented to uphold rights of indigenous communities in the face of mounting challenges of commercial tourism:

1. Informal education for the community and incorporation of indigenous knowledge systems into the curriculum of formal schooling as a way of passing down the traditional wisdom and values will be given the top priority.
2. More active global networking among indigenous organisations and supporting groups, strong indigenous rights advocacy and campaigns in the United Nations system, and other international organisations and bodies will be promoted.
3. Recognising the importance of sharing of information, newsletters, email groups and other forms of communication will be launched. Exchanges amongst indigenous leaders at the grass-root level will be encouraged. News on traditional events in indigenous communities will be circulated among this collective. Local level workshops, seminars and community training on tourism will be organised to provide alternative perspectives on tourism and cultural exchanges.

4. Understanding the diverse political systems within which Indigenous Peoples organisations negotiate their struggles, the collective would adopt flexible strategies in its campaigns.
5. It is important for indigenous peoples to articulate their own experience with tourism and reflect on its impacts and meaning. It is this view that should form the basis for future action. WCC (World Council of Churches), ECTWT (Ecumenical Coalition on Third World Tourism/ECOT-Ecumenical Coalition on Tourism) and other international organisations can provide for such regional studies by Indigenous Peoples.

1.6.9.3. Progress of Indigenous Knowledge Related to Tourism

According to the Indigenous Knowledge System Policy, there are over 400 museums receiving public money in South Africa and municipalities in the provinces support the majority of these. However, some particularly large ones are funded by the department of Arts and Culture. South African museums fulfill unique research and service functions, particularly in the taxonomic and even forensic sciences.

Internationally, museums are important participants in indigenous knowledge system research. In South Africa, the research role of museums must be defined and encouraged. Museums can also play a positive and visible role in fostering public awareness of indigenous knowledge systems and consequently the possibility of establishing an IKS museum with a strong public awareness orientation must be investigated.

The establishment of indigenous knowledge system centers within existing structures, such as universities and community centers will act as a facilitating and enabling mechanisms, and their services, programmes, and projects should involve broad participation and collaboration of members of local and indigenous people within the borders of South Africa. The indigenous knowledge system centers working in close proximity to local communities will be dedicated to facilitating collaboration between tertiary institutions, non-governmental organisations and indigenous knowledge system holders and practitioners working in development and promotion of indigenous knowledge system (IKS).

Ecotourism is particularly damaging to indigenous people who have maintained high biological diversity within their traditional territory over generations and millennia. Their homelands and cultures are now the prime target globally for rapid commercialisation and exploitation by the ecotourism industry. The only successful models for tourism involving indigenous people are those designed by themselves, on the basis of their own traditional knowledge, practices and innovation systems, including their own customary laws.

Chiang (2002) points out that international financial institutions such as Asian Development Bank (ADB), World Bank, International Monetary Fund (IMF) as well as intergovernmental bodies like the WTO have taken positions on issues concerning indigenous peoples that have far-reaching consequences for their survival. These events and policies are likely to be ratified by the countries where indigenous peoples are struggling for recognition and the affirmation of their rights.

1.7. Hypothesis

Hypothesis is considered by Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999: 434) as a research idea that serves as a premise or supposition that organises facts and guides observation. McDaniel and Gates (2001: 28) considers a hypothesis to be a conjectural statement about a relationship between two or more variables that can be tested with empirical data.

The following are the hypotheses that enabled the study to have direction of guiding arguments;

- (a) Tourism has a negative social impact on the local communities.
- (b) Tourism has a negative cultural impact on the local communities.
- (c) Tourism has a negative economic impact on the local communities.
- (d) Tourism has a negative impact on the environmental aspects relating to local communities.
- (e) Tourism has positive impacts on the natural and cultural attractions in relation to local communities.
- (f) There are generally insufficient interventions by the government in relation to promotion of tourism.

1.8. Significance of the Study

South Africa is faced with challenges of poverty and unemployment and tourism has been identified as a priority sector that is labour intensive, rapidly growing, suited to South African circumstances. It is also open to opportunities for Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment

(BBBEE). Accordingly, the magnitude of the study was to investigate and present recommendation to stakeholders as to how tourism can contribute as an approach to economic, social, and cultural development with poverty eradication taken into cognisance and also recognising the environmental impacts where government is expected to play an intervention role.

The study was undertaken in order to identify practical useful lessons related to social, cultural, economic and environmental impact of tourism on the local communities. It also indicates how the natural and cultural attractions of local communities relate to tourism. This study further reviewed practical experience in making tourism work for the poor considering that the North West Province is mostly rural and its population is densely populated at the rural areas with high levels of unemployment. In this study, the level of the North West government involvement in promoting tourism was examined looking at making recommendations on how to engage it effective and efficiently. Indigenous knowledge systems cannot be neglected more especially in rural areas, that is why this study has considered the impact of tourism in tourism development. This study aimed to unlock opportunities for the poor, rather than to expand the overall size of the tourism sector.

1.9. Research Methodology

Research methodology looks at developing a suitable approach to solving a research problem and it defines what the activity of research is, how to proceed, how to measure progress, and what constitutes success. According to Strydom (2002: 255), a comprehensively described research methodology enables the reader to develop confidence in the methods used in research.

Research methodology includes experimental and quasi-experimental research, action research, analytical survey, phenomenological research, and heuristic inquiry which were not used in this research. In this study, an analytical research methodology was adopted since, according to Gray (2004: 27), an attempt is made to test a theory in the field through exploring the association between variables, and careful random selection of samples so that the results can be generalised to other situations or contexts.

1.9.1. Research Design

According to McDaniel and Gates (2005: 61), research design is the plan designed for addressing the research objectives or hypothesis, and according to Malhotra and Birks (2006: 736), a research design is a framework or blueprint for conducting the marketing research project and it specifies the details of the procedures necessary for obtaining the information needed to structure or solve marketing research problems. Miller (1991: 121) states that there are different research methods that can be used to study a particular problem, like exploratory research, descriptive research or causal research.

An exploratory research design was used since, according to Fouché (2002: 109), it is conducted when one needs to gain insight into a situation, phenomenon, community or individual. The need for a study could arise out of lack of basic information on a new area of interest, in order to become acquainted with a situation so as to formulate a problem or develop a hypothesis. According to Malhotra (1996: 86 - 87), the primary objective of exploratory research is to provide insights into, and an understanding of, the problem confronting the researcher, where the problem needs to be defined more precisely.

The current minimum or insufficient understanding of the problem motivates the need to increase familiarity with the problem and clarify related concepts in a flexible and unstructured exploratory research design that will create an opportunity for outcomes to be followed by exploratory or conclusive research.

The use of exploratory research design enable the use of secondary data which have already been collected for purposes other than the problem at hand that offers the advantage of relatively low cost, short time of collection and rapidity and ease of collection process. Both internal and external secondary data was considered so as to increase the scope of the information gathered and in addition primary data was considered where possible.

In view of the abovementioned statements and the perspective of the aim of the study, it was necessary to consider using both quantitative and qualitative research designs to complement each other.

1.9.2. The Scope of the Study

The scope of the study was in Ledig village (Rustenburg), North-West Province. The motivation for the particular focus on Ledig village is that it is just within one kilometre from the internationally renowned Sun City complex located in Rustenburg which is considered to be the fastest growing city in South Africa and one of the host cities of the 2010 Football World cup.

1.9.3. The Sampling Technique

Probability sampling was adopted in this study since this is a sampling method in which according to Martins, Loubser & Van Wyk (1999: 5), every element to be selected for sample has a known non-zero probability of being selected. The motivation for using probability sample is that, according to McDaniel and Gates (2001: 30), every element in the population has a known nonzero probability of being selected. On the other hand a non-probability sample could not be used since, according to McDaniel and Gates (2001:31), little or no attempt is made to ensure that a representative cross section of the population and statistical calculation of the sample cannot be achieved and the degree of sampling error can not be expected, and Wright and Crimp (2000: 102) maintain that every member of the population does not have an equal chance or known probability of being picked in probability sampling.

The use a simple random sampling technique, according to Rosnow and Rosenthal (1999: 207), ensures that the sample is selected from an undivided population and that the sample is chosen by a process that will give each sample unit in the population the same chance of being selected

1.9.4. The Sample

The term census, according to McDaniel and Gates (2001: 238), refers to those situations where data are obtained from or about every member of the population of interest and the associated costs and time required to take a census of the population preclude the possibility of its use in this study. The alternative is the use of a sample which, according to Brightman and Schneider (1992: 12), is a representative collection of some, but not all, elements of a

population. The use of a relatively small but carefully chosen sample, according to McDaniel and Gates (2001: 328), can quite accurately reflect the characteristics of the population from which it is drawn.

For the purpose of the study the sample was selected from the community members of Ledig village in the North West province Rustenburg area in Bojanala region.

According to Strydom and Venter (2002: 199 - 200), the larger the population, the smaller the percentage of that population sample needs to be, and if the population is small, the sample should comprise a reasonably large percentage of the population. A sample size of 50 respondents was used considering among others the limited budgetary constraints. In addition to the sample size, Strydom and Venter (2002: 201) state that the sample needs to be representative of the total population when there is a need to generalise or draw conclusions about the population from which the sample came. This was addressed in this study.

1.9.5. Data Collection

Both primary data as well as secondary data were used in this study since, according to Malhotra and Birks (2006: 85), primary data is data originated by a researcher for the specific purpose of addressing the problem at hand, and secondary data is data collected for some purpose other than the problem at hand.

Little information is known about the study as a result there was a need to gather as much information about the problem as possible so as to enable the study to make informed recommendations and conclusions about the problem investigated.

The use of secondary data is advantageous since, according to Martins, Loubser and Van Wyk (1999: 100), it is readily available, generally much cheaper than primary data, and serves as a source of comparative data for interpretation and evaluation of primary data. In addition to the above, primary data was used for complementing secondary data already gathered.

This research adopted a combination literature study (secondary data) and questionnaires (primary data) as data collection method. This is because the use of one method of data collection may tend to be biased and to distort the researcher's picture of the particular slice of reality under investigation.

The use of literature study provided a theoretical background to the study. According to Neuman (1997: 89), the use of literature helps the researcher to demonstrate familiarity with a body of knowledge and to establish credibility; to show the path of prior research and how a current project is linked to it; to integrate and summarise what is known in an area; and to learn from others and stimulate new ideas.

For the purpose of this study, the literature gathered acted as a point of departure in an attempt to understanding the impact of tourism on local communities and the questionnaire was used to gather primary data to fulfil gaps of information not provided by the literature gathered.

A closed-ended (structured, fixed response) question according to Neuman (1997: 240) gives the respondent fixed responses from which to choose while an open-ended (unstructured, free response) question asks a question to which respondents can give any answer. Both closed-ended and open-ended format of questions hand delivered were administered in person since

Delpont (2002: 174) maintain that hand delivered questionnaires save time and cost, and it also raises the response rate.

1.9.6. Statistical Analysis

Qualitative research approach, according to Martins et al. (1999: 133 - 134), provides the study with the opportunity of generalising about the specific population and also to uncover new ideas from hidden feelings of respondents. On the other hand quantitative research approach, according to Davis (2000: 265), offers the study an opportunity to numerically analyse data. In addition, according to Davis (2000: 125), quantitative research offers the study an opportunity to generalise about a population based on the results of a representative sample of the population.

The study adopted both qualitative and quantitative research approaches termed triangulation according to De Vos (2002: 365), with the object of enabling both to complement each other and offer the study an opportunity to make a well informed analysis from different fields.

Quantitative data obtained through a questionnaire were analysed using excel computer programme. The questionnaire as Delpont (2002: 177) states was compiled in a manner that will facilitate the eventual processing of the data.

Data was then presented in a form of tables and qualitative data gathered as comments from participants was analysed to determine meaning since, according to Krathwohl (1993: 356), data can be categorised into themes or meanings.

1.9.7. Limitations of the Study

The activities and impacts of tourism influence and infringe on virtually all aspects of everyday living and all sectors of the society. The study was however focused on how tourism impacts on the social, cultural, economic and environmental aspects together with the level of the government involvement in promoting tourism. In addition to the above it would have been time consuming and expensive to study the impact of tourism on all aspects in South Africa as a result the study has only focused on North West province more especially Ledig village.

1.9.8. Ethical Considerations

The ethical consideration pertaining to the research, according to Malhotra (1996: 784), relates to avoiding or ignoring pertinent data, compromising the research design, deliberately misusing statistics, falsifying figures, altering research results, misinterpreting the results with the objective of supporting a personal view or withholding information.

The highest level of ethical and safety standards when conducting research particularly when human subjects are involved was maintained together with observing the above ethical considerations identified by Malhotra. Social values and conditions for the society as the population of the study was respected. Clear explanation and right to voluntary participation in the study and anonymity and confidentiality was accorded to the respondents so that benefits of research can be distributed fairly to relevant stakeholders.

The establishment of trust with participants in the research was observed by informing them what they are getting into and that nothing will be done to jeopardise the trust relationship.

Scientific integrity was observed by pursuing valid quality of the design and data analysis, and in the interpretation and presentation of the results without any form of deception.

Consideration of ethics in a research enabled the research to arrive at some rational, logical and convincing conclusions more satisfactorily and accurately disclose the research findings that can be honourably employed.

1.9. Organisation of the Final Report

Chapter one of the research has provided a basic background to the problem under study in relation to what is investigated based on the aims of the study and the descriptive hypothesis providing guiding arguments.

Chapter two will focus on the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the community of Ledig village.

In **chapter three** the focus is on the socio-cultural, economic and environmental impact of tourism on local communities.

The emphasis on **chapter four** is on the level of the government involvement in relation to promotion of tourism, community tourism initiatives participation, importance of indigenous knowledge system, and participation of traditional leadership in promoting tourism.

The last chapter of the research (**chapter five**) will focus on conclusions and recommendations.

The literature references in the text will be supported by a reference containing full bibliographical details of the works referred to in the text.

Annexure relate to valuable presentation of data that cannot be included in the text. Data is then presented in an annexure, for example questionnaire.

CHAPTER TWO

THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE RESPONDENTS

It is imperative to present the demographic profile of respondents such as age, education or occupation since, according to Churchill (1996: 260), this information can be matched with the data collected to gain insight into the subject under investigation. The demographic profile was evaluated based on the following variables; gender, population group, age group, education, home language, type of employment, family / household income per month.

2.1. Gender and Age Distribution

The rationale for examining the gender and age distribution of respondents was to present their position with regard to the social, cultural, economic impact of tourism in the Ledig community, together with their position regarding the government involvement in the promotion of tourism.

Table 2.1 Gender and Age Percentage Distribution of Respondents

Age Group	Male	Female
Less than 20 year	0	0
20 to 25 years	32	24
26 to 30 years	20	16
31 to 35 years	12	12
36 to 40 years	4	8
41 to 45 years	4	4
46 to 50 years	8	8
51 to 55 years	12	20
56 to 70 years	8	-
71 to 75 years	-	-
76 to 80 years	-	8
Over 80 years	-	-

Table 2.1. shows that the majority of respondents (58%) were in the age group of 20 years to 35 years and none were less than 20 years. Table 2.1. also indicates that there was an equal number of male and female participated in the study. This distribution of respondents implies that views of respondents from a more mature age of above 35 years were limited.

Indigenous knowledge is generally well known around individuals of mature age and this imply that the study did not have a good opportunity to have views form matured age respondents as to how indigenous knowledge systems is important in promoting tourism development.

2.2. Population Group Distribution

The study aimed to determine the population groups of respondents in terms of Africans, Coloureds, Indians and whites.

Table 2.2. Percentage Distribution of Population Groups of Respondents

Population Group	Male	Female
African	50	50
Coloured	0	0
Indian/Asian	0	0
White	0	0

Table 2.2 shows that all of respondents were Africans, indicating that the community under investigation has a high number of Africans, which closely reflect the North West Province situation with 91.5 percent. This prevalence indicates that residents still are exclusively composed of a particular population group.

2.3. Educational Level Distribution

Table 2.3. Percentage Distribution of Educational Level of Respondents

Educational Level	Male	Female
No Schooling	8	20
Primary	12	8
Secondary	4	8
Grade 12 / Matric	16	8
Diploma	32	40
Degree	12	16
Post-Graduate	16	-
Other	-	-
Total	100	100

Table 2.3 shows that most of the respondents (40%) had a diploma level of education and they were females. It also indicates that 32 percent of male respondents had a diploma education level, eight percent had no schooling; 12 percent had primary education level, one percent had secondary education level; 16 percent had matric education level; 12 percent had a degree education level and 16 percent had postgraduate qualification education level. Twenty percent of female respondents had no schooling education level, eight had primary education level, eight percent had secondary education level, eight percent had matric education level, and lastly, 16 percent had a degree education level.

2.4. Home Language Distribution

The study also gathered information regarding the home language of respondents within the study area and the results are indicated in table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4. Percentage Distribution of Home Languages of Respondents

Home Language	Male	Female
Setswana	60	52
Isi-Xhosa	12	16
Sesotho	28	32
Other, Specify	-	-
Total	100	100

Table 2.4. shows that the majority of the respondents, represented by 60 percent of male respondents and 52 percent of female respondents, were Setswana speaking. Sesotho was the second language spoken by most respondents represented by 28 percent of male respondents and 32 percent of female respondents. Twelve percent of female respondents were speaking isi-Xhosa, and 16 percent of female respondents were speaking isi-Xhosa.

2.5. Employment Status Distribution

The study investigated the economic activities of respondents within the study area and the results are shown on the table 2.5.

Table 2.5. Percentage Distribution of Employment Status of Respondents

Employment Status	Male	Female
Full-Time	20	32
Part-Time	8	12
Self-Employed	32	20
Unemployed	40	36
Total	100	100

Table 2.5. indicates that more male respondents, 40 percent, were unemployed, 20 percent were full time employed, eight percent were part time employed, and 32 percent were self employed. It has been established that 32 percent of female respondents were full time employed, twelve (12) percent were part time employed, twenty percent were self employed, and 36 percent were unemployed.

The total unemployment rate of respondents of the Ledig village was at 38 percent representing an average of 40 percent male unemployment and 36 percent female unemployment. This gives a clear indication that the first economy is only accommodating only 32 percent of the respondents. More males were unemployed as compared to females, and more males (32 percent) were self employed as opposed to females (20 percent).

An almost 40 percent unemployment rate is of serious concern. The study failed to determine the type and reason for unemployment so that it could be determined whether there is potential to engage in which type of support necessary for development. The type of employment could have also given an indication of the extent of tourism related employment.

2.6. Income Level Distribution

The study also examined the level of income for different households within the study area.

Table 2.6. Percentage Distribution of Income Level of Respondents

Family / Household Income per month	Male	Female
Less than R 500	24	32
R 500 to R1 000	16	8
R1 001 to R2 000	16	16
R2 001 to R5 000	24	12
R 5 001 to R10 000	16	12
R10 001 to R15 000	-	20
R15 001 to R20 000	4	-
Above R20 000	-	-
Total	100	100

Table 2.6. indicates that majority of respondents household income per month was not more than R 5 000. Thirty-two percent of female respondents had household income less than R500, and eight (8%) percent was between R500 and R1 000, 16 percent was between R1 001 and R 2000, 12 percent was between R2 001 and R5 000, 12 percent was between R5 001 and R10 000, 20 percent was between R10 001 and R15 000, and none was above R20 000 per month.

With regard to males, table 2.6. shows that majority of male respondents household income per month was less than R 10 000. Twenty four percent males respondents earned less than R 500, 16 percent was between R 500 and R1 000, 16 percent was between R1 001 and R2 000, 24 percent was between R2 001 and R5 000, 16 percent was between R5 001 and R10 000, four percent was between R15 000 and R20 000, and non was above R 20 000.

There was a weakness in the questionnaire since the study could not determine the type of income, even if it would have been difficult for respondents to divulge such income information. The type and / or form of income would have given the study an indication as to how tourism related employment is generating income for the local communities.

CHAPTER THREE

THE SOCIO-CULTURAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT OF TOURISM ON LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Respondents were not offered an opportunity to specifically present their position with regard to socio-cultural impact of tourism on the community since the questions were closed-ended. However they were given an opportunity to make any general comment about the problem investigated and the majority failed to respond.

3.1. The Social Impact of Tourism on Local communities

Based on data collected from the questionnaire, 20 percent of the respondents strongly agreed that tourism related activities brings about negative social implication to the Ledig community, and 30 percent agreed that tourism related activities brings about negative social implication to the Ledig village. On the contrary, 20 percent of the respondents did not agree and 20 percent of the respondents definitely did not agree that tourism related activities bring about negative social implication to the Ledig community. Only 10 percent of the respondents were unsure whether tourism related activities brought or did not bring about negative social implication to the Ledig community.

The implication is that half of the respondents of the community under study had a belief that tourism related activities brought out negative social implications to Ledig community.

3.2. The Cultural Impact of Tourism on Local Communities

Respondents who strongly agreed that tourism had a negative cultural impact on the Ledig community represent 10 percent of the respondents and 20 percent agreed that tourism had a negative cultural impact on the Ledig community, with only again 10 percent being unsure about their position regarding the premise of tourism having a negative cultural impact on the Ledig community. An overwhelming majority of respondents, 50 percent, did not agree that tourism has a negative cultural impact on the Ledig community, and 10 percent strongly did not agree that tourism was having a negative cultural impact on the Ledig community.

There is a clear indication that tourism was not viewed as having a detrimental cultural impact on the Ledig community given the fact that 60 percent of the respondents maintained this position.

3.3. The Economic Impact of Tourism on Local Communities

It was established in the literature review that tourism is regarded as one of the sectors that have a potential of contribution to employment and the economy of the Province of North West together with the Republic of South Africa. Data gathered on the presupposition that tourism has a negative economic impact on the local communities was based on the two questions being; tourism has a negative impact on Ledig community and members of the Ledig community derive income from tourism related activities.

The respondents did not agree with the argument that tourism had a negative economic impact on the Ledig community represented by less than half, since 20 percent did not agree that

tourism had a negative economic impact on Ledig community and 30 percent strongly did not agree that tourism had a negative economic impact on Ledig community. Those who agree that tourism had a negative economic impact on the Ledig community represented 20 percent of the respondents and those who strongly agreed that tourism had a negative economic impact on Ledig community represented 20 percent of the respondents. Those who were unsure about the idea of tourism having a negative economic impact on Ledig community represented 10 percent of the respondents.

Regarding the second question of economic impact of tourism on local communities, it is interesting to note that 30 percent of respondents were unsure as to whether members of the Ledig community derived income from tourism related activities. Half of the respondents agreed with the argument that members of the Ledig community derive income from tourism related activities, represented by 40 percent who agreed that members of the Ledig community derived income from tourism related activities and 10 percent of respondents who strongly agreed that members of the Ledig community derived income from tourism related activities. Only 20 percent strongly did not agree with the argument that members of the Ledig community derived income from tourism related activities.

The latter argument that purports that members of the Ledig community derived income from tourism related activities was accepted by half of the respondents and the former argument that tourism had a negative economic impact on Ledig community was rejected by half of the respondents. Less than half neither accepted nor rejected this argument given the fact 30 percent and 10 percent were not sure about the second and first arguments respectively.

3.4. The Environmental Impact of Tourism on the Area around Ledig

Tourism is known to be undermining the environment, cultural and natural attractions of communities where it is practiced and there has been confrontation with the local communities.

More than half of the respondents accepted the premise that tourism has a negative environmental impact on the area around Ledig, represented by 20 and 40 percent of the respondents who strongly agreed and agreed respectively that tourism has a negative environmental impact on the area around Ledig. On the other hand, 20 percent of the respondents did not agree that tourism has a negative environmental impact on the area around Ledig and 20 percent of respondents strongly disagreed that tourism has a negative environmental impact on the area around Ledig.

3.5. The Impact of Tourism on Cultural and Natural Attractions of Ledig Village

More than two thirds of the respondents maintained that tourism has a positive impact on the cultural attractions of the Ledig community, represented by 50 percent and 20 percent of respondents who strongly agreed and agreed respectively that tourism has a positive impact on the cultural attractions of Ledig community. On the other hand only 20 percent strongly disagreed and 10 percent of respondents were unsure about the argument that tourism impact negatively on the cultural attractions of the Ledig community.

The same belief was noticed in the perceptions of respondents regarding natural attractions, where 60 percent believed that tourism had a positive impact on the natural attractions around Ledig. Thirty and ten (10) percent of respondents respectively disagreed and strongly

disagreed with the view that tourism has positive impact on the cultural attractions of the Ledig community.

The majority of the respondents agreed that tourism related activities bring about negative social impacts, and that tourism has a negative environmental impact. The negative environmental impact of tourism is also confirmed by the majority of respondents who believed that tourism have a negative impact on cultural and natural attractions.

On the other hand the majority of respondents believe that tourism related activities do not have a negative cultural impact and negative economic impact.

The views of respondents were thus positive to tourism with regard to bringing positive related to economic and cultural benefits. This implies that there is an associated negative impact of tourism activities with regard to the environment and social activities.

CHAPTER FOUR

INITIATIVES AND INTERVENTIONS FOR TOURISM PROMOTION

It has been established that the government also recognised the importance of tourism in dealing with poverty and unemployment and the intervention of the government is recognised by Cronje et al. (2003: 23) as regulatory. Other aspects that were evaluated included community tourism initiatives where the Ledig community members are actively participating in, indigenous knowledge importance in promoting tourism development, traditional leadership participation in the promotion of tourism and local community members opportunities in participating tourism development.

4.1. The Government Interventions in Relation to Promotion of Tourism

More than two thirds of the respondents maintained that the government was playing a significant role in promoting tourism around Ledig. Ten (10) and 60 percent strongly agreed and agreed respectively that the government is playing a significant role in promoting tourism around Ledig. Twenty percent of respondents were unsure and a mere 10 percent disagreed with the premise that the government was playing a significant role in promoting tourism around Ledig.

4.2. The Participation of Ledig Community in Community Tourism Initiatives

It has been established above that the majority of the respondents maintained that the government was playing a significant role in promoting tourism around Ledig. However, an overwhelming majority amounting to 70 percent of respondents disagreed that there were community tourism initiatives where the Ledig members were actively participating in. Only ten percent agreed that that there were community tourism initiatives where the Ledig community members were actively participating in and 20 percent were neutral about this presupposition.

4.3. Importance of Indigenous Knowledge in Promoting Tourism Development

An astounding 80 percent of respondents maintained that indigenous knowledge is important in promoting tourism development represented by 50 percent who strongly agreed and 30 percent who agreed that Indigenous knowledge is important in promoting tourism development. The remaining 40 percent was represented by 20 percent who did not agree and the other 20 percent who strongly did not agree that indigenous knowledge is important in promoting tourism development. Indigenous knowledge was undoubtedly regarded as important in promoting tourism development.

4.4. Participation of Traditional Leadership in Promotion of Tourism

Respondents maintained that the traditional leadership was not actively participating in the promotion of tourism, in which only 20 percent agreed that traditional leadership was not actively participating in promotion of tourism, and an enormous 40 percent disagreed that traditional leadership was not actively participating in promotion of tourism. It is interesting to note that 40 percent of respondents were unsure about the presupposition that traditional

leadership was not actively participating in the promotion of tourism. This may imply that community members were not aware of the traditional leadership activities or there was poor communication between the traditional leadership and the local community members.

4.5. Opportunities Offered to Ledig Village Community Members in Participating in Tourism Development

Half of respondents maintained that the local community members were not offered opportunities of participation in tourism development. This represented by 30 and 20 percent respondents who disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively. On the contrary, only 10 percent of respondents agreed that local community members were offered opportunities of participation in tourism development with an interesting 40 percent unsure whether or not local community members were not offered opportunities in participation in tourism development.

In general respondents believed that the government was playing a significant role in promoting tourism around Ledig. An overwhelming majority of participants believed indigenous knowledge is important in promoting tourism development. However, given the fact that the majority of respondents did not agree that participation of traditional leadership was promoting tourism and opportunities were offered to Ledig village community members in participating in tourism development, the success of indigenous knowledge systems would not be realised. Participation of traditional leadership and local communities is important since these are the parties who have information about the indigenous knowledge. It is desirable for the government to create the playing field that enables participation of traditional leadership and the local community so that indigenous knowledge can be infused into tourism development activities.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of the study was to investigate the socio-cultural, economic and environmental impact of tourism on local communities in the North West Province, the case of Ledig village in Rustenburg. Community members of Ledig village have experienced both negative and positive impacts of tourism development taking place in and around their area and information gathered from the literature and from affected community members of Ledig village have enabled the study to present conclusions and recommendations on how to deal with the socio-cultural, economic and environmental impact of tourism.

5.1. Conclusions

The community of Ledig village believed that tourism has a negative *social impact* on the local communities. It is thus imperative to identify tourism related aspects that impact negatively on the local communities and engage all the parties involved to circumvent their detrimental effect. Government, non-governmental organisations, traditional leadership, business and the community need to engage in activities that will assist in creating an environment that will not breed the negative effects.

The community of Ledig village was opposed to the presupposition that tourism has a negative *cultural impact* on the local community.

There was a general opposing argument to the theory that tourism has a negative *economic* impact on the local communities, and the respondents believed that community members derived income from tourism related activities.

As tourism is regarded as the fastest growing sector having the potential to contribute to the economic growth, poverty alleviation and employment creation, there is thus a need to accordingly award the sector the recognition it deserves. Other potential benefits include contribution to foreign exchange and government revenue. However, the existing power relationships and the domination of large tourism related enterprises severely constrain the growth of the small, medium and micro enterprises in the tourism sector.

This is due to the fact that the small locally owned tourism establishments are left to fend for themselves by scratching around for any crumb that might fall from the table of the large dominant businesses. This relationship is, according to Kirsten and Rogerson (2002), promoted by the supply push rather than demand-pull considerations, since reasons for establishing tourism enterprises from the previously disadvantaged include unemployment, retrenchment from formal job opportunities or dissatisfaction with low-paid formal work.

Tourism is perceived to be having negative *environmental* impact in the area around Ledig. It also seen to be having a positive impact on the cultural and natural attractions of the Ledig community. The study failed to gather information from respondents specifically with regard to specific environmental impact and the impact on the cultural and natural attractions.

Government interventions were seen to be playing significant role in the promotion of tourism around Ledig village and surprisingly, traditional leadership and community members were seen to be marginalised with regard to active participation in tourism related activities.

Unless deliberate, practical and implementable policy interventions are put in place to counter the power of large tourism businesses and / or to foster positive linkages with the small, medium and micro enterprises, the best and only available prospect is for small, medium and micro enterprises development appear to lie with alternative tourism.

Without the support, participation and ownership of tourism by community members the foundation of hospitality, service and facility standards will remain weak and the tourism sector will not be able develop in a sustainable way.

Indigenous knowledge was recognised to be of paramount significance in the promotion of tourism development. Currently indigenous knowledge in South Africa is owned by, and provides services to, people who are prone to unemployment.

5.2. Recommendations

It is imperative to have government tourism programmes that monitor the *social* impact of tourism, given that related social impacts can take long time to emerge, and are cumulative and are overt in nature. These programmes need to focus on the identified and known negative and positive impacts so that the local communities may not be adversely affected and may learn to positively interact with the social impacts of tourism.

It is recommended that various aspects of a *society's culture* that can be affected by tourism activities need to be identified. Also, it should be ensured that negative cultural impact is not created. This exercise can be achieved by regulating and / or monitoring the circumstances in which cultural

encounters are experienced by the affected communities.

Tourism policies and activities should be conducted with respect for the artistic, archaeological and cultural heritage, which should be protected and passed on to future generations. Particular care should be devoted to preserving and upgrading monuments, shrines and museums as well as archaeological and historic sites which must be widely open to tourist visits. Encouragement should be given to public access to privately owned cultural property and monuments, with respect to the rights of their owners, as well as to religious buildings, without prejudice to normal needs of worship.

Financial resources derived from visits to cultural sites and monuments should, at least in part, be used for the upkeep, safeguard, development and embellishment of the heritage. Tourism activity should be planned in such a way that allow traditional cultural products, crafts and folklore to survive and flourish, rather than causing them to degenerate and become standardised.

Initiatives for developing and marketing products which specifically provide a unique authentic African experience, such as cultural villages will drive new business linkages with emerging tourism small, medium and micro enterprises.

It will be desirable to establish sustainable development activities where community members can formally participate in entrepreneurial endeavors ultimately forming tourism related enterprises and not just participating as employees. *Economic* participation of the local community members of Ledig village is encouraged since this can assume a critical role in improving the livelihoods of poor communities and alleviate poverty. An economic participation

is advised to take among others the following; procurement, outsourcing, subcontracting, consortiums, or other arrangements.

The provisions of the government intervention like Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment (BBBEE) including the tourism Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) Charter need to be communicated to communities and desirably forming part of the school and tertiary education curriculum.

There is a need to institute an *environmental* impact assessment for all and any tourism related activity to ensure that negative effects on the fauna and flora is not adversely affected and for the community to maintain their livelihoods. Short-term and long-term effect need to be identified and projected to ensure that the natural and cultural attractions are preserved for the current and future generations so that sustainable development can be experienced.

One can say that government must intervene by aiming to reduce the negative impacts that happen in and around Ledig village due to tourism developments. The impacts can be reduced by implementing environmental management strategies such as Environmental Impact Assessment and Limits of Acceptable Change.

There is a need to engage the *traditional leadership* and members of the community in tourism activities. Proper private-public partnership that will ultimately benefit community including extended public works programmes should be engaged. Well coordinated structures through or in conjunction with the traditional leadership will enable active participation in BBBEE and Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative for South Africa (AsgiSA) issues. The government strategies with regard to tourism development need to be sustainable.

There is a need for the North West Parks Board (NWPB) to establish programs and structures where cooperation and development can be realised by community members. Entrepreneurial attitudes of communities with regard to the tourism sector need to be promoted and formal assistance availed where necessary.

The *government* as the public authority should provide protection for tourists and visitors and their belongings. Particular attention must be paid to the safety of foreign tourists for the particular vulnerability they may have. Facilitation of the introduction of specific means of information, security, insurance and assistance consistent with their needs is imperative. Any form of attacks, assaults, kidnappings or threats against tourists or workers in the tourism industry, as well as the wilful destruction of tourism facilities or of elements of cultural or natural heritage should be severely condemned and punished in accordance with the respective national laws.

The public authority should ensure that tourism activities should promote human rights, and more particularly, the individual rights of the most vulnerable groups, notably children, the elderly, the handicapped, ethnic minorities and indigenous peoples.

Access to economic and natural resources and favourable environment has to be provided by the government to bring much needed income flows into the rural communities that will deal with the negative social and economic impact of tourism, and general and specific implications related to tourism activities.

There will also be an economic benefit for promoting domestic tourism growth since this exercise will provide significant value to the South African economy and create opportunities for the untapped value and potential for growth of the existing domestic market.

Across the developing world, it is argued that alternative tourism strategies might be prompted to foster greater *community participation* in tourism planning, a more equitable distribution of costs and the benefits of tourism, and more culturally appropriate and environmental sustainable forms of tourism. This suggests that in the absence of formalised planning or intervention, the possibilities for local community members of Ledig village to benefit from business opportunities linked to alternative tourism may be increased. The promotion of local community members in tourism can be through participation as stakeholders rather than passive recipients as they will be given legal stake in investments, enhancing their voice at policy level through their own organisation, and facilitating participatory planning progress at all levels.

It is recommended that the community of Ledig village, as indigenous people need, to regulate their activities in accordance with treaties and constructive agreements between states, as well as with existing and emerging institutions / bodies to have control over tourism initiatives, to become successful partners with governments or industry, and to take part in the decision making process and policy making regarding tourism.

It is desirable to have tourism mechanisms that will establish well coordinated structures that will identify, organise and coordinate tourism related indigenous knowledge to be used for the current and future tourism activities. The *indigenous knowledge* will be expected to assist the current knowledge that is predominantly Western so that information can be suitable for the current conditions and situation.

It is also very important to involve local communities in tourism projects taking place around their area since the local people are often very knowledgeable about flora and fauna including the indigenous knowledge system of their area. It is crucial to treat indigenous worldviews as

scientific knowledge when policies and decisions are made about the tourism impact on the local communities as demonstrated in this study that their wealth of indigenous knowledge more especially about their regional geographic environment of importance.

Currently indigenous knowledge in South Africa is owned by and provides services to people who are prone to unemployment. Therefore, consideration need to given innovatively to employing indigenous knowledge system in creating employment and sustainable development. It is therefore desirable to have tourism mechanisms that will establish well coordinated structures that will identify, organise and coordinate tourism related indigenous knowledge to be used for the current and future tourism activities.

The indigenous knowledge will be expected to assist the current knowledge that is predominantly Western so that information can be suitable for the current conditions and situation. It is also very important to involve local community in tourism projects taking place around their area since the local people are often very knowledgeable about flora and fauna including the indigenous knowledge system of their area.

As the interrelationship between the natural environment and its sustainable development and the cultural, social and economic well being of local communities has been established, it is imperative for national and international efforts to implement environmentally sound and sustainable development. This will be geared at recognising, accommodating, promoting and strengthening the role of indigenous knowledge people as members of the local communities.

Structured and coordinated involvement of local community members in tourism need to engage control over tourism initiatives, successful partnership with government or industry, participation in decision making process and policy-making regarding tourism.

Unless tourism is viewed and developed as a strategically important industry, the greater potential of growth for the South African economy and the wealth creating potential of the tourism sector will never be realised.

To achieve equitable, social, economic and environmental benefits from ecotourism and other forms of natural areas, and to minimise or avoid potential negative impacts, participative planning mechanisms are needed that allow local and indigenous communities, in a transparent way, to define and regulate the use of their area at the local level, including the right to opt out of tourism development.

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Appendix

The Questionnaire

Dear resident of Leedig village (Rustenburg)

*Your sincere participation would be greatly appreciated
in taking some of your time to complete the attached questionnaire.*

*Please note that information on the questionnaire will be confidentially treated and
used only for the purpose of this research.*

*The research is conducted by a student, for the Master of Arts (Indigenous Knowledge
Systems) in the faculty of Human and Social Science at the North West University
(Mafikeng Campus) investigating the social, cultural, economic and environmental impact
of tourism on local communities in the North West Province (Leedig village - Rustenburg).*

*A letter of introduction for field research is attached to confirm the legitimacy of the
research.*

*To answer the questionnaire, tick the appropriate box or give a written reply where
applicable.*

Thank you, in anticipation, for your participation

Mrs. Dineo Lucille Tsatsimpe

A: Please tick the appropriate boxes

1	<u>Gender</u>	Female [1]		Male [2]	
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2	<u>Population Group</u>	African [1]	Coloured [2]	Indian / Asian [3]	White [4]
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3	<u>Age Bracket</u>	Less than 20 [1]	20 to 25 [2]	26 to 30 [3]	31 to 35 [4]
		36 to 40 [5]	41 to 45 [6]	46 to 50 [7]	51 to 55 [8]
		56 to 70 [1]	71 to 75 [2]	76 to 80 [3]	Over 80 [4]

4	<u>Education</u>	No Schooling [1]	Some Primary[2]	Some Secondary [3]	Grade 12 / Standard 10 [4]
		Diploma [5]	Degree [6]	Post Graduate [7]	Other (Specify)----- [8]

5	<u>Home language</u>	Setswana [1]	Isi-Xhosa [2]	Sesotho [3]	Other (Specify)----- [4]
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6	<u>Type of Employment</u>	Full Time [1]	Part Time [2]	Self Employed [3]	Unemployed [4]
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7	<u>Family / Household income per month</u>	Less than R 500 [1]	R 500 to R1 000 [2]	R1 001 to R 2000 [3]	R2 001 to R5000 [4]
		R5 001 to R10 000 [1]	R10 001 to R15 000 [2]	R15 001 to R20 000 [3]	Above R 20 000 [4]

B: Please indicate your position regarding the following statements, in a continuum of 1 to 5 where 1 is Strongly Agree, 2 is Agree, 3 is Unsure, 4 is Do Not Agree, and 5 is Definitely Do Not Agree.

8	<i>Tourism related activities brings out negative social implications to Ledig community</i>	1	2	3	4	5
9	<i>Tourism has a negative cultural impact on the community of Ledig</i>	1	2	3	4	5
10	<i>Tourism has a negative economic impact on Ledig community</i>	1	2	3	4	5
11	<i>Members of the Ledig community derive income from tourism related activities</i>	1	2	3	4	5
12	<i>Tourism has a negative environmental impact on the area around Ledig</i>	1	2	3	4	5
13	<i>Tourism has positive impact on the natural attractions around Ledig</i>	1	2	3	4	5
14	<i>Tourism has positive impact on the cultural attractions of the Ledig community</i>	1	2	3	4	5
15	<i>The government is playing significant role in promoting tourism around Ledig</i>	1	2	3	4	5
16	<i>There are community tourism initiatives where the Ledig community members are actively participating in</i>	1	2	3	4	5
17	<i>Indigenous knowledge is important in promoting tourism development</i>	1	2	3	4	5
18	<i>The traditional leadership is actively participating in promotion of tourism</i>	1	2	3	4	5
19	<i>Local community members are offered opportunities in participating in tourism development</i>	1	2	3	4	5

C: Please present your comment about the social, cultural, economic and environmental impact of tourism on local communities in the North West Province (Leedig village - Rustenburg) or any other related matter.

Thank You,

For Your Participation

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