A framework for tourism value chain ownership in rural communities

M Chambwe



orcid.org/0000-0002-1170-2089

Thesis accepted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree Doctor of Philosophy in Tourism Management at the North-West University

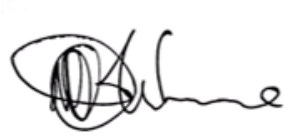
Promoter: Prof A Saayman

Co-Promoter: Prof P Viviers

Graduation: June 2022

DECLARATION

I, Michael Chambwe, do hereby declare that this thesis registered as “A framework for tourism value chain ownership in rural communities” is being submitted as my own , original, and independent work. This work is compliant with North-West University ’s code of academic integrity, regulations, rules, and procedures as well as other relevant policies; and has not been submitted before to any institution by me or any other person in fulfilment (or partial fulfilment) of the requirements for the attainment of any qualification.



Michael Chambwe **30 November 2021**

DEDICATION

To my wife, Thandiwe, and daughter, Kyra.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to give glory and honour to my Creator. Without His mercies, none of this would have been imaginable. Further, this thesis could not have been possible without the assistance and input of various people. As such, I would like to express my gratitude to them.

I am greatly indebted to my supervisor, Prof. Andrea Saayman, whose insights, motivation, and patience with me, proved invaluable to the completion and success of this study. I am eternally grateful for your guidance, mentorship, and for holding my hand every step of the way. You reminded me of the silver lining particularly when I was growing weary towards the end – I am forever in your debt. To Prof. Viviers, my co-supervisor, many thanks for your valued thoughts that helped shape the outcome of this study.

My sincerest gratitude goes to Prof. Elmarie Slabbert, Director of the Tourism Research in Economic Environs and Society (TREES), for availing funds that made this study possible and the various opportunities she accorded to me during my study that impacted positively on my CV and made me a better professional. Similarly, I am grateful to North-West University for the tuition bursary and the Faculty of Economic and Management Sciences for their bursary that went towards my research support and upkeep.

I was privileged to have had the assistance of Prof. Peet van der Merwe in managing the surveys in KwaZulu Natal. At a time when the COVID-19 pandemic made it very daunting to travel, he volunteered to be with me, away from his busy schedule, for the surveys to be a success. Thank you for your kind gesture and a memorable camping experience.

It would be a great injustice if I fail to mention Prof. Marco Scholtz, who was instrumental in determining the direction in which this study went. Many thanks to you for the reception and an amazing year of PhD orientation.

This thesis came at great mental, psychological, and emotional cost to my family, particularly to my wife, Thandiwe, and daughter, Kyra, whom I couldn't be with during the first year of her existence. The separation due to this study and a hard COVID-19 lockdown restricting travel was unbearable. Words cannot express how your love, encouragement, and support kept me going. I love you so very much. This victory belongs to you.

Special thanks to Zandile Mtambo and Sinehlahla Mhlongo of KZN Wildlife for arranging the meetings with the community traditional leaders and helping in the recruitment of field assistants for the community surveys.

Many thanks to Thabhani Hlongwane who acted as our translator, guide, and leader of field assistants in the communities of KwaZulu-Natal. I'm equally grateful to the role played by the fieldworkers in helping me gather data. Their patience and dedication were unparalleled.

Lastly, I am greatly indebted to my mom and siblings. To my mom, for her consistent encouragement, checking on me, and for her wish to see me in a 'red gown'; to my sister, Gylian, for being the constant sound of reason and her financial input in my travel and upkeep expenses; to my brother, Benard, for his never-ending confidence in me and his words of encouragement throughout this study. I love you all.

ABSTRACT

The lack of understanding and implementation of tourism community value chain ownership in South Africa inspired and compelled this research. This study aimed to develop a framework to close this gap by reviewing the various tourism community business ownership models as well as measuring the levels of tourism value chain ownership and business ventures by rural communities.

The study postulates that through ownership of the tourism value chain, not only do the rural communities have the rights to the usage of the owned property, but they also have the means to be involved in tourism activities in more rewarding ways than mere participation as they develop skills and knowledge to manage these products. Since tourism communities formulate larger society, the study used a hypothetical sociological approach to grasp a better appreciation of society, its institutions, and relationships. Societal set-up has tremendous influence on communities' perceptions and attitude towards tourism. Through participation, communities' attitudes towards tourism are positively influenced but the lack of equitable benefits renders it inadequate.

The study further examines the concept of ownership and community sense of ownership by reviewing various community ownership models, past and present, that reveal how community needs are dynamic and how they change over time. Through the ownership of the tourism value chain by local communities, the inadequacies of mere participation can be overcome.

A phenomenological approach from a mixed-method framework of empirical study was adopted for this research that utilised the concurrent triangulation research design. The empirical phase of the study sought to ascertain the selected communities' status quo, their support for tourism, as well as determine their levels of, and barriers to, ownership of the tourism value chain. Qualitative data collection and the collection of quantitative data were done concurrently before results were analysed independently and then compared. Five in-depth interviews were conducted, two with the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park community liaison officers, and three with the community traditional leaders, whilst a community survey gathered 325 completed questionnaires.

While this research reveals a gloomy picture of the communities' ownership of the tourism value chain, it also highlights the potential that ownership of the tourism value chain by rural communities has in the quest for equitable development. This potential is negatively impacted largely by the communities' lack of business skills and education; lack of tourism exposure; lack of institutional (governmental and non-governmental) support; as well as financial incapacitation. This is worsened by lack of secure land tenure rights by the rural communities.

This study suggests various equitable partnerships, capacitation, and funding of local communities for the ownership of the tourism value chain by rural communities to be a success. The study stipulates the desired role of external players in the various partnerships to foster self-reliance in local communities and discourage their dependence on outsiders for solutions to all their challenges.

This research makes a theoretical contribution to the body of knowledge pertaining to tourism communities and ownership of the tourism value chain to advance the equitable distribution of tourism benefits in rural areas of developing countries. From a practical standpoint, this research submits a tourism community value chain ownership framework envisaged for use by policymakers, various developmental organisations, planners, and scholars in developing economies.

Key words: communities; tourism community; rural community; tourism value chain; community participation; community ownership; equitable development

TABLE OF CONTENTS

DECLARATION ..... **I**

DEDICATION ..... **II**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ..... **III**

ABSTRACT ..... **V**

LIST OF TABLES ..... **XVII**

LIST OF FIGURES ..... **XIX**

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS ..... **XX**

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT **1**

1.1 Introduction 1

1.2 Background to the study 3

1.2.1 The importance of tourism to South Africa 3

1.2.2 The influence of tourism equitable development 4

1.2.3 Community ownership within tourism 5

1.2.4 The study area 10

1.3 Problem statement 12

1.4 Research goal and objectives 14

1.4.1 Research goal 14

1.4.2 Research objectives 14

1.5 Research methodology 16

1.5.1 Literature review 16

1.5.2 Empirical analysis 17

1.5.2.1 Quantitative approach 18

1.5.2.2 Qualitative approach 18
1.6 Ethical considerations 19
1.7 Contribution of the study 19
1.8 Defining the concepts 20
1.8.1 Communities 21
1.8.2 Tourism (local) community 21
1.8.3 Rural community 22
1.8.4 Tourism value chain 22
1.8.5 Community participation 23
1.8.6 Community ownership 23
1.8.7 Equitable development 24
1.9 Chapter classification 25
CHAPTER 2: SOCIOLOGY AND TOURISM 28
2.1 Introduction 28
2.2 Sociology demystified 29
2.2.1 Background to sociology 31
2.2.2 Contemporary theoretical perspectives within sociology 33
2.2.2.1 Functionalism 33
2.2.2.2 Conflict perspective 34
2.2.2.3 Symbolic interactionism 35
2.2.3 Tourism within sociological perspectives 36
2.3 Community and community roles in tourism 37

2.3.1 Previous community definitions 37
2.3.2 Tourism community 38
2.4 Community participation in tourism 39
2.4.1 Pretty's typology of participation 39
2.4.2 Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation 42
2.4.3 Stakeholder theory 43
2.5 Community participation: challenges and guidelines 46
2.6 Social impacts of tourism 48
2.6.1 Social impact explained 49
2.6.2 Theoretical models and frameworks predicting perceptions 51
2.6.2.1 Acculturation and social exchange theory 51
2.6.2.2 Social representation theory 52
2.6.2.3 Smith's model of cross-cultural contact 53
2.6.2.4 Doxey's irridex model of host irritation 55
2.6.2.5 Butler's tourism area life cycle model 57
2.6.2.6 Perez and Nadal's host community perception clusters 60
2.6.2.7 Similarities and differences between models 61
2.6.3 Factors influencing social impact 62
2.6.3.1 Community factors 63
2.6.3.2 Visitor factors 65
2.7 Chapter summary 67

CHAPTER 3: COMMUNITY OWNERSHIP 68

3.1 Introduction 68

3.2 Community ownership 68

3.2.1 Lachapelle's critical elements for community ownership 70

3.2.1.1 Ownership in process 70

3.2.1.2 Ownership in outcome 71

3.2.1.3 Ownership in distribution 72

3.2.1.4 Ownership through trust 73

3.2.2 Building community ownership 74

3.2.2.1 Challenges of outside solutions and funding 74

3.2.2.2 Benefits of local solutions and resources 75

3.2.2.3 Common mistakes made by outsiders in local projects 75

3.2.2.4 Desirable outsiders' role in community ownership development 76

3.3 Earlier community ownership models 77

3.3.1 Customary and common ownership model 77

3.3.2 Community ownership model 78

3.3.3 Cooperative and mutual ownership model 79

3.3.4 Charitable ownership model 80

3.3.5 State and municipal ownership model 80

3.4 Ownership of the tourism value chain by the communities 82

3.4.1 Benefits of community tourism business ownership 83

3.4.1.1 Business benefits 83

3.4.1.2 Development benefits 85
3.5 Contemporary community tourism ownership models 87
3.5.1 Outsiders own and run the business, paying fees to the community 89
3.5.2 Locals own the land and structures, while outsiders own the business 89
3.5.3 Locals and outsiders in joint ownership of the business 90
3.5.4 Locals own the business with outsiders as managers 90
3.5.5 Locals own and run the business 91
3.5.6 Comparative analysis of the models 91
3.6 Barriers to community ownership of the tourism value chain 92
3.6.1 Maintenance work 92
3.6.2 Tourist activities 92
3.6.3 Making of crafts 93
3.6.4 Food and beverage 93
3.6.5 Transport services 94
3.6.6 General construction 94
3.7 Chapter summary 95
CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY 96
4.1 Introduction 96
4.2 Research design 96
4.2.1 Philosophical underpinnings of the study 97
4.2.2 Mixed research methods 101
4.2.3 Methods of research 103

4.3 Empirical survey 104
4.3.1 Selection of sampling frame 104
4.3.2 Sampling 108
4.3.2.1 Quantitative sampling: communities 108
4.3.2.2 Qualitative sampling: key informants 110
4.3.3 Data collection instruments 111
4.3.3.1 Community survey questionnaire 111
4.3.3.2 Key informant interview guides 114
4.3.4 Data analysis 115
4.3.4.1 Qualitative data analysis 115
4.3.4.2 Quantitative data analysis 116
4.4 Research ethical considerations 121
4.5 Chapter summary 122
CHAPTER 5: QUANTITATIVE RESULTS 123
5.1 Introduction 123
5.2 Response rate 123
5.3 Demographic and socio-economic profile of respondents 124
5.3.1 Gender 124
5.3.2 Age 125
5.3.3 Marital status 126
5.3.4 Occupation 127
5.3.5 Income 128

5.3.6 Years in community 130

5.3.7 Access to land 130

5.3.8 Years of intended stay 131

5.3.9 Household demography 132

5.4 An exploration of the socio-economic impact and community perceptions of the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park 138

5.5 Discussion on the findings pertaining to the socio-economic impact and community perceptions of the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park 142

5.6 An assessment of the community tourism involvement and tourism value chain ownership 144

5.6.1 Nature of tourism involvement by the community 144

5.6.2 Current community involvement in tourism 147

5.6.3 Discussion on the findings with regards to the nature of and current tourism involvement by the community 149

5.6.4 Barriers to community business ownership 150

5.6.5 Discussion on the findings on the barriers to community business ownership 152

5.6.6 Ideal tourism businesses for the community 152

5.7 Comparing the communities 154

5.7.1 Community mean descriptions on the socio-economic impact and involvement in tourism 154

5.7.2 Results of analysis of variance 157

5.7.3 Results of Cramer's V effect sizes 159

5.8 Predicting business ownership 160

5.8.1 Probit model results on consideration of business ownership 161

5.8.2 Probit model results on the ownership of a tourism related business 162

5.9 Discussion on the findings relating to community comparisons and business ownership prediction 164

5.10 Chapter summary 167

CHAPTER 6: QUALITATIVE RESULTS 168

6.1 Introduction 168

6.2 Selection of interviewees 168

6.3 Establishing the participants' roles, mandate, and engagement efforts . 169

6.3.1 Theme 1: Respondents' roles, mandate, and challenges 169

6.3.2 Theme 2: uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park - community engagement channels 172

6.4 Community involvement in tourism and the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park 173

6.4.1 Theme 1: Communities' main economic activity 173

6.4.2 Theme 2: Satisfaction levels with the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park community role 174

6.4.3 Theme 3: Community support for the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park's existence 176

6.4.4 Theme 4: Sustainability of local participation in the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park's activities 177

6.4.5 Theme 5: Community ownership versus participation 179

6.5 Discussion on findings relating to community involvement in tourism and the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park 180

6.6 The communities' current business standing and potential 182

6.6.1 Theme 1: Knowledge of uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park business suppliers 182

6.6.2 Theme 2: Policies to support local businesses 183

6.6.3 Theme 3: Communities' potential to own successful businesses 184

6.6.4 Theme 4: Community leaders' business ability 186

6.7 Discussion on findings with regards to the communities' current business standing and potential 187

6.8 Ideal community business models, challenges, and support 188

6.8.1 Theme 1: Ideal community business ownership models 188

6.8.2 Theme 2: Community challenges in business ownership 189

6.8.3 Theme 3: Supporting business ownership 190

6.9 Discussion on the findings relating to the ideal community business models, challenges, and support 192

6.10 Triangulation of quantitative and qualitative findings 193

6.10.1 Socio-economic impact of the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park and the community perceptions of the park 193

6.10.2 Levels of community involvement in tourism 194

6.10.3 Community tourism business ownership 196

6.11 The tourism community value chain ownership framework 197

6.12 Framework implementation 200

6.13 Chapter summary 201

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS 203

7.1 Introduction 203

7.2 Research conclusions 204

7.2.1 Conclusions pertaining to the sociological perspective on how the communities function and the role played by communities in the tourism industry 204

7.2.2 Conclusions relating to the analyses of the concept of ownership and community sense of ownership 207

7.2.3 Conclusions with respect to the measurement of the levels of ownership and control of the tourism value chain by the selected communities 210

7.3 Contributions of this study 213

7.3.1 Literature contributions 213

7.3.2 Methodology contributions 213

7.3.3 Practical contributions 214

7.4 Limitations 215

7.5 Recommendations 216

7.5.1 Managerial and practice recommendations 216

7.5.2 Recommendations for future research 217

BIBLIOGRAPHY 219

APPENDICES 246

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1-1: Previous studies that have been undertaken on community involvement, ownership, and control of the tourism value chain 6

Table 2-1: Pretty's typology of participation 40

Table 2-2: Social impacts of tourism 50

Table 2-3: Impacts of tourist numbers on host communities 55

Table 2-4: Doxey's irridex model of host irritation 56

Table 3-1: Dimensions of inclusiveness 88

Table 4-1: Major philosophical approaches 99

Table 4-2: uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park Camps 105

Table 4-3: Sampling frame community demographics 106

Table 4-4: Community sampling 110

Table 5-1: Response rate 123

Table 5-2: Distribution of respondents by gender 125

Table 5-3: Distribution of participants by income 129

Table 5-4: Households' profile 132

Table 5-5: Exploratory factor analysis on the equity impact of the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park 139

Table 5-6: Responses to community tourism involvement questions 145

Table 5-7: Community perceptions on local tourism 148

Table 5-8: Barriers to community business ownership 151

Table 5-9: Ideal tourism businesses for the community 153

Table 5-10: Average community mean responses on the socio-economic impacts of tourism, tourism involvement and barriers to business 155

Table 5-11: Multiple community mean comparisons on the socio-economic impacts of tourism, tourism involvement and barriers to business 157

Table 5-12: Community differences on business ownership and tourism involvement 159

Table 5-13: Regression results on consideration of business ownership 161

Table 5-14: Regression results on consideration of tourism-related business 163

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1-1: Diagram of the Triple Bottom Line 5

Figure 2-1: Chapter layout 29

Figure 2-2: Arnstein's ladder of participation 42

Figure 2-3: The organisation and its primary stakeholders 45

Figure 2-4: Butler's tourism area life cycle 59

Figure 4-1: Research design framework 97

Figure 4-2: Concurrent triangulation strategy 103

Figure 4-3: Sample communities 107

Figure 4-4: Interaction of descriptive and inferential analysis with the sample 118

Figure 5-1: Distribution of respondents by age 126

Figure 5-2: Distribution of participants by marital status 127

Figure 5-3: Distribution of participants by occupation 128

Figure 5-4: Distribution of participants by years in community 130

Figure 5-5: Distribution of participants by access to land 131

Figure 5-6: Distribution of respondents by their years of intended stay 132

Figure 6-1: Tourism community value chain ownership framework 198

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Analysis of Variance	ANOVA
Black Economic Empowerment	BEE
Build-Operate-Transfer	BOT
Community-Based Tourism	CBT
Community Liaison Officer	CLO
Coronavirus Disease 2019	COVID-19
Community Health Evangelism	CHE
Exploratory Factor Analysis	EFA
Gross Domestic Product	GDP
Integrated Management Plan	IMP
KwaZulu-Natal	KZN
Non-Governmental Organisation	NGO
Principal Component Analysis	PCA
Social Representation Theory	SRT
Statistical Package for the Social Sciences	SPSS
Statistics South Africa	Stats SA
Tourism Area Life Cycle	TALC
uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park	UDP
United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation	UNESCO
World Wildlife Fund	WWF

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 Introduction

Tourism is the world's fastest-growing industry involving millions of tourists travelling internationally every year (Mason, 2008; Woo *et al.*, 2018). The World Tourism Organisation contends that international global tourism arrivals surpassed the 1 billion mark in 2012, reached 1.5 billion in 2019 and was envisaged, in 2019, to reach 1.8 billion by 2030 (UNWTO, 2020). According to Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) (STATS-SA, 2019), in South Africa, international arrivals rose from 8.9 million in 2015 to 10.47 million in 2018, and the number is expected to continue on an upward trajectory in the coming years. These trajectories were, however, affected by the Coronavirus disease 2019 (COVID-19) pandemic which saw global destinations welcoming a billion fewer tourists in 2020 than they had in 2019 (UNWTO, 2021).

On the economic front, tourism has propelled many countries by providing them with invaluable revenue and infrastructure development, as well as creating employment, to mention only a few (Mlungu & Kwizera, 2020; Wang *et al.*, 2019). In 2019, before the COVID-19 pandemic, the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC, 2021), contend that the global tourism industry contributed 10,4% of the global Gross Domestic Product (GDP) at US$ 9.2 trillion, accounted for 334 million jobs (one in every 4 jobs globally), and international tourist spending totalled US$ 1.7 trillion. In South Africa, tourism contributed 1.5 million jobs and R425.8 billion to the economy in 2018, representing 8.6% of GDP (WTTC, 2019).

It should be emphasised that most tourism activities in South Africa, just as in other African countries, are predominantly wildlife and nature-based (Buckley & Mossaz, 2018; Duim *et al.*, 2014; Odeniran *et al.*, 2018). This implies that the main attractions for tourists that come to South Africa are wildlife and nature. Much of the wildlife and most natural areas are found in rural areas where rural communities are domiciled. Therefore, it becomes imperative to note that in 2018, a fraction of the R425.8 billion that represented 8.6% of GDP derived from tourism activities (WTTC, 2019), was also generated from South Africa's rural areas in which marginalised communities abound.

South Africa is a developing country that faces various economic and cultural barriers (Scholtz & Slabbert, 2018; STATS-SA, 2019). Tourism is an industry that is proven as a manner of uplifting communities which have previously been disadvantaged (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2012; Mogomotsi *et al.*, 2018; Sharpley & Telfer, 2015; Warouw *et al.*, 2018). However, how tourism is planned and managed can have diverse impacts on the communities where it takes place, which can either be positive or negative (known as social impacts) (Bello *et al.*, 2018; Mowforth & Munt, 2016; Scholtz, 2014). Therefore, studies suggest that social impacts need to be known and managed (see, for example, David and Terrel (2019); Scholtz and Slabbert (2018); Woo *et al.* (2018)). If social impacts are negative, community members might not support the tourism industry, meaning that the industry will probably fail and not deliver any benefits to the communities. Ideal tourism practices are those that are equitable, implying tourism that has the ability to strike a balance between material benefits (economic profits) and people's welfare (social benefits) (Park *et al.*, 2019).

One of the suggested ways in which communities can benefit from tourism activities in rural areas is through having access to the direct ownership of the supply-side of the tourism industry as well as related tourism resources (Global CHE Network, 2019; Lachapelle, 2008). This ownership, it should be noted, does not mean the expropriation of private property by local communities but rather the encouragement of ownership of the tourism value chain through advance participation in forms of entrepreneurship. The lack of understanding and implementation of tourism community value chain ownership in South Africa has, therefore, inspired and compelled this research. There are different forms of community participation in tourism which also bring different levels of benefits to communities. This study focuses on a more extended form of participation in the form of ownership of the tourism value chain, and not ownership of the resources that attract tourism (i.e., the National Park). Through ownership of the tourism value chain, not only do the communities have the rights to the usage of the owned property, but they also have the means to be involved in tourism activities in more rewarding ways than mere participation and this will assist them to develop skills and knowledge to manage these products. This study aims to develop a framework to close this gap by reviewing the various tourism value chain ownership models with specific reference to tourism

communities as well as to measure the levels of tourism value chain ownership and business ventures by the communities. As tourism communities are part of larger society, the study aims to take a sociological approach to grasp a better appreciation of society, its institutions, and relationships.

1.2 Background to the study

While tourism's ability to transform economies and uplift communities has been well documented in studies by Budhiasa *et al.* (2017); Chiutsi and Saarinen (2017); Warouw *et al.* (2018), it is critical to understand that there exist disparities and irregularities in the distribution of those benefits in tourism communities (Akamani *et al.*, 2015; Latip *et al.*, 2018; Swapan, 2016). Since local community involvement and participation initiatives had little success in addressing this challenge (Akamani *et al.*, 2015; Hatipoglu *et al.*, 2016; Kala & Bagri, 2018; Mubanga & Umar, 2016), researchers now point to local community ownership and control of resources in the value chain as the remedy (Global CHE Network, 2019; Hlengwa & Mazibuko, 2018; Jones *et al.*, 2014; Lachapelle, 2008; Matilainen *et al.*, 2018). To provide sufficient background to this study, this section briefly delves into literature on the importance of tourism to South Africa, the socio-economic impact of tourism, as well as community ownership within tourism.

1.2.1 The importance of tourism to South Africa

The importance of tourism as a medium for socio-economic advancement in South Africa has been underscored in several studies (see Adinolfi and Ivanovic (2015); Giampiccoli *et al.* (2014); Rogerson (2013)). The tourism industry has been allied with the promotion of community development, creation of employment, and championing of general economic growth (Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2014). In the same breath, other studies by Badza *et al.* (2016); Ballantyne *et al.* (2007); de Boer and van Dijk (2016); Duim *et al.* (2014); Mancini *et al.* (2019); Nthiga *et al.* (2015); Ramírez and Santana (2019), also indicate that tourism has been instrumental in the conservation of flora and fauna.

It can, therefore, be concluded that whereas tourism promotes growth as stated before, it is not necessarily consequential that the tourism industry's importance to South Africa can be expressed and felt in the spheres of the economy, environment, and society. For

purposes of this research and for demystifying the study background, greater scrutiny is applied to the socio-economic impacts of tourism that give credence to the subject of ownership and control of tourism resources by communities.

1.2.2 The influence of tourism equitable development

Tourism has a significant bearing on the three pillars of sustainability, which are economic development, social development, and environmental protection (Mowforth & Munt, 2016). In most cases, it is difficult to divorce the social impacts of tourism from economic impacts as they invariably converge around issues of equitable development. Inequity, on which this research is focused, exist in the overlap between social and economic development. Figure 1,1 below illustrates this. The significant effects of socio-economic transformation on society as a result of tourism activities are mostly related to the quality of life experienced by the community members (Goeldner & Ritchie, 2003; Reisinger, 2009). Whether the socio-economic impacts are real (tangible) or perceived (intangible), it is critical that they are understood to foster the community's continued support for the industry (Scholtz, 2014; Scholtz & Slabbert, 2018). It, therefore, becomes evident that the social and economic impacts of tourism require management to ascertain support and sustainable development of the communities.

Chatterjee *et al.* (2021) argue that while South Africa is regarded as an upper-middle-class Third World economy, it has one of the most unequal distributions of wealth patterns in the world. STATS-SA (2019) revealed South Africa's unemployment to stand at a staggering 29% in 2019. In a similar fashion, research by Mahony and Van Zyl (2002) is supported by that of Ndabeni (2019) who all disclose further disquieting findings for rural communities. They expose that most residents living in rural and marginalised communities have very little access to the most basic of human needs such as healthcare, education, and employment. This is despite the existence of tourism in communities as well as many community-based initiatives in the country.



Figure 1-1: Diagram of the Triple Bottom Line

Source: Reid (2003)

Through ownership of the tourism value chain and business ventures by communities around nature tourism areas, it is envisaged that the socio-economic impacts of tourism can be ameliorated while enhancing equitable community development.

1.2.3 Community ownership within tourism

The concept of community ownership is premised on the idea that when community residents come together and volunteer to work towards accomplishing their goals through resources available to them, not only does it lead to a feeling of common benefit but a sense of social justice as well (Global CHE Network, 2019; Woodin *et al.*, 2010).

Various studies (as Table 1.1 shows) that have been undertaken around the issues of community involvement in tourism and community-based tourism (CBT) have expressed confidence in community ownership of the tourism value chain as a viable medium through which communities can benefit meaningfully from tourism.

Table 1-1: Previous studies that have been undertaken on community involvement, ownership, and control of the tourism value chain

Authors	Title	Study focus and findings
Ostrom (2008)	The Challenge of Common-Pool Resources	The study highlights that common-pool resources differ from one another. This research concludes that general global solutions will not work at diverse local levels and that the global community must be adaptive in governance as well as treat policies as experiments to learn from.
Mwangi and Ostrom (2009)	Top-Down Solutions: Looking Up from East Africa's Rangelands	The study shows how the government-imposed property regimes on the Maasai pastoralists has adversely affected the Kenyan ecology as opposed to a time when the Maasai were in control. The study concludes that Garrett Hardin's "tragedy of the commons" is not universally applicable and that local solutions are required for local challenges.
Yates *et al.* (2010)	Factors for collaboration in Florida's tourism resources: Shifting gears from participatory planning to community-based management	The study sought to identify participatory planning factors that influence the success of community-based projects. Results depict that community ownership coupled with requisite skills and information improves the management and outcomes of the project.

Coria and Calfucura (2012)	Ecotourism and the development of indigenous communities: The good, the bad, and the ugly	Focuses on the links between biodiversity conservation and community development where nature-based tourism is managed by indigenous communities. The study recommends the promotion of land tenure and community empowerment through ownership of indigenous resources.
Giampiccoli and Mtapuri (2013)	Interrogating the role of the state and non-state actors in community-based tourism ventures: toward a model for spreading the benefits to the wider community	Presents a model for CBT. Submits that characters and methods employed by external actors determine the impacts of development projects. The study recommends CBT ventures to be fully owned, managed and controlled by community members while external players play a supporting role.
Jones *et al.* (2014)	From Exploitation to Ownership: Wildlife-Based Tourism and Communal Area Conservancies in Namibia	Investigates the various community ownership and involvement models in relation to business efficiency and conservation goal attainment. Study highlights: lack of secure land tenure is an impediment to success; influential community leaders are poor business leaders; as community ownership increases, risk also abounds.
Janis (2014)	Political economy of the Namibian tourism sector: addressing	Analysed challenges involved in promoting black economic empowerment (BEE) and CBT. The

	post-apartheid inequality through increasing indigenous ownership	study identifies a lack of institutional capacity (financial and human skills) and racial prejudices as an impediment to effective BEE and CBT.
Sebola (2014)	Sustaining tourism in South African game farms: the benefits of ownership of restituted land by African communities	Paper argues that land repossessed for blacks is unable to attract tourists as much as private ownership before. The study concludes that success will only be attainable with critical support from the government in areas of good management practices.
Giampiccoli *et al.* (2015)	Developing community-based tourism in South Africa: Addressing the missing link	Emphasis is on CBT's potential and shortcomings as a development tool for disadvantaged communities. The study exposes a gap and recommends a specific structure to fill it, between CBT policy formulation and practise facilitation.
Hampton and Jeyacheya (2015)	Power, Ownership and Tourism in Small Islands: Evidence from Indonesia	The focus is on how different types of power shape community development. The paper recommends further study on power and ownership in tourism in relation to how different forms of power can shape host communities' development.
Matilainen *et al.* (2018)	Management by boundaries - Insights into the role of boundary objects in a	The study is on how boundary objects enable or constrain the collaboration between stakeholders representing different knowledge communities. The

	community-based tourism development project	study concludes that the proper design of boundary objects generates ownership feelings towards development in CBT ventures.
Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018)	Governance and local participation in ecotourism: community-level ecotourism stakeholders in Chiang Rai province, Thailand	Focus is on local CBT actors, their motivations, plus the way community members are included or excluded in leading roles. The study exposes that involvement in CBT is linked to individuals' social status and not choice. The study recommends further research on power, social status, and legitimacy to understand the dynamics of CBT development.

The studies above give a global, regional, and local perspective on the concept of community involvement and community participation that favours ownership of the tourism value chain. In summary, the studies identify possible reasons for the lack of community participation in tourism activities, such as institutional capacity (human skills and financial muscle), lack of community business ownership, and challenges in policy formulation and implementation.

The studies highlight that community ownership, combined with skills, lead to positive community project outcomes. These studies also highlight that in most cases, powerful and influential community leaders who take active roles in projects do not always turn out to be competent business leaders. The studies suggest further research on the possibility of tourism communities' ownership of the tourism value chain as a means of genuinely empowering local tourism communities. With the ownership of the tourism value chain, which incorporates the various businesses that feed into the supply side of tourism, communities can participate in tourism in more equitable and rewarding ways.

1.2.4 The study area

This research takes place in the communities surrounding the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park (UDP) (formerly Natal National Park), Royal Natal National Park, and Natal Drakensberg Park, in the KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) province of South Africa.



Figure 1-2: Map of uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park

Source: Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife (2020)

The study focuses on communities surrounding the northern section of the UDP, which offers the most accommodation possibilities in the UDP. The main rest camps in the vicinity are Royal Natal, Cathedral Peak, and Injisuthi. The focus on the northern part of the Park is deliberate as it is the section that has the most tourism activity. At 3,482 metres (11,424 ft.) above sea level and measuring 243 thousand hectares, the Drakensberg, which means “the Dragon Mountains” in Afrikaans and Dutch, is the highest mountain range in Southern Africa (DAC, 2020; UNESCO, 2020). The local Zulus refer to it as uKhahlamba, which means “barrier of spears” and the Sesotho of Lesotho, to which the UDP borders to the west, call it Maloti (SA-Places, 2020; UNESCO, 2020). Founded in 1903, the UDP was proclaimed a World Heritage Site in 2007 and together with the neighbouring Sethlabathebe National Park of Lesotho were proclaimed a trans-boundary World Heritage Site in 2013. United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) listed it as the Maloti-Drakensberg World Heritage Site (UNESCO, 2020).

As Figure 1.2 depicts, the UDP mountain range stretches from the south-west to the north-east for over 1,000 kilometres (UNESCO, 2020). As already alluded to, the Drakensberg escarpment lies on the border between the Kingdom of Lesotho and KZN, South Africa, on one side, while on the other side it extends from KZN in the north to the Eastern Cape to its south and west (DAC, 2020). The Orange and Vaal rivers represent the big rivers that flow within the UDP mountain range of from the east to the west (SA-Places, 2020).

Focus on the rural communities around the UDP has been because of its international acclaim and its World Heritage Site status. It should be noted, however, that while it is unique, it is not dissimilar to other rural areas in South Africa and that research results are more likely to be applicable to other areas in Southern Africa. Much of the rural land surrounding the UDP is owned by the Zulu king through the Ingonyama Trust, whose mandate is to hold the land on behalf of the Zulu Kingdom for the “benefit, material welfare, and social well-being of the members of the tribes and communities living on the land” (Ingonyama-Trust, 2019). Empowering of local communities through ownership of tourism value chain enterprises is in sync with the mandate of the Trust.

Tourism is a major economic activity of UDP and its surrounding areas. With proximity to such a renowned site, members of communities surrounding the UDP should stand to be the foremost beneficiaries of the socio-economic gains that this immense tourism resource brings.

1.3 Problem statement

Studies by scholars such as Bello *et al.* (2018) and Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018) suggest that community members are stakeholders in the tourism industry and have active roles to play. However, in some cases, external players to the community do not fully incorporate communities or understand the social structure of communities (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018; Hatipoglu *et al.*, 2016; Kala & Bagri, 2018; Velnisa Paimin *et al.*, 2014). That is why there are arguments for community involvement and community ownership of the value chain within the tourism industry. While there is research that has been conducted on how communities can be involved in tourism activities through meaningful participation (see Budhiasa *et al.* (2017); Chiutsi and Saarinen (2017); Latip *et al.* (2018); Mogomotsi *et al.* (2018); Rasoolimanesh *et al.* (2017); Steele and Scherrer (2018); Swapan (2016); Towner (2016); Warouw *et al.* (2018)), there are few studies that have focused on community ownership and control of the tourism value chain as a medium to minimise negative social impacts of tourism (Coria & Calfucura, 2012; Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2014; Matilainen *et al.*, 2018; Palmer & Chuamuangphan, 2018). Community ownership is premised on the idea that when community members have the right of usage to property, not only will this foster cherished democracy and self-will, but that it will also lead to feelings of common benefit, social cohesion, and justice (Global CHE Network, 2019; Woodin, 2007; Woodin *et al.*, 2010). Such feelings are requisite and would be applicable in marginalised communities of South Africa.

Research on tourism-inspired communities has focused on how societies can devise plans to maximise benefits and minimise drawbacks associated with the global tourism phenomenon (Hampton & Jeyacheya, 2015; Mak *et al.*, 2017; Mowforth & Munt, 2016). Nonetheless, work by Giampiccoli and Saayman (2018); Giampiccoli *et al.* (2015); Mowforth and Munt (2016); Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018) illustrate how local communities in Third World countries continue to reap few benefits from tourism because

they have little or no control over the ways in which the industry is developed and the supply chains required for domestic and international tourism. This is mainly because they fail to match the financial resources available to external investors, resulting in their views being disregarded. This is even worse for marginalised and rural communities within the Third World countries. Resultantly, tourism does not give enough benefits to communities because they have neither resources, nor expertise. Tourism usually develops due to private investors who are driven by profits and have very little regard for community upliftment.

According to Giampiccoli *et al.* (2014), South Africa lacks the structures that give support to CBT even though it is a practice that has gained regional acclaim in similar Third World countries. Giampiccoli *et al.* (2014) further argue that where there is some semblance of CBT in South Africa, there are yawning gaps between the policies on paper and the practice on the ground. Since most community members are excluded in the tourism supply chain this has led to the dismal failure of tourism to achieve one of its intended developmental goals: poverty alleviation within communities (Saayman *et al.*, 2012).

While participation has been touted as a viable medium through which the social impact of tourism can be managed to advance the quality of life for locals, Mowforth and Munt (2016:227) contend that it is not a sufficient remedy as it does not automatically cause a change in the underlying community structures of power, control, and ownership. In South Africa, as Scholtz (2014) argues, the participation of communities in tourism planning is greatly impeded by cultural, structural, and operational deficiencies. Recent research exposes the underlying control, power, and local resource ownership structures to be the greatest impediment to participation in tourism by local communities (Giampiccoli & Saayman, 2018; Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2015; Hampton & Jeyacheya, 2015; Jones *et al.*, 2014; Matilainen *et al.*, 2018; Mowforth & Munt, 2016; Palmer & Chuamuangphan, 2018; Sebola, 2014).

With so much emphasis on community participation and ownership in tourism as a means for equitable development in rural communities, current research fails to bring together the needs, skills, and structures in rural communities in a way that provides a sensible framework to develop tourism value chain ownership within rural communities. This

research, therefore, places its thrust on rural communities that receive tourists due to natural attractions in the vicinity and (i) establish the status quo, (ii) identify gaps, and (iii) assess their level of control and ownership of the tourism value chain as well as the linkages between local businesses and key nature tourism products. This study's analysis of the control and ownership structures of the tourism value chain within the above-mentioned community aims to develop a framework that will not only help preserve traditions and bring about policies and structures for value chain ownership but will also mitigate the negative social impact of tourism for similar rural communities.

1.4 Research goal and objectives

This section addresses the goal of the research, divided into the primary research goal and the research objectives.

1.4.1 Research goal

The goal of this study is to develop a framework to enhance the equitable distribution of benefits from tourism development in rural communities, with emphasis on tourism value chain ownership. The equitable distribution implies the overlap of an enhanced positive impact on both the society and the economy of the rural community.

1.4.2 Research objectives

The subsequent subordinate objectives have been methodically coined to support the attainment of the principal objective:

Objective 1

To analytically seek a sociological perspective on how communities function and understand their role in the tourism industry, putting across the challenges that impede on the communities' ability to participate in tourism activities as well as proffering solutions on how this can be undone. Further, the social impact of tourism is to be critically examined by drawing on the dictates of the theoretical models that attempt to explain how social impacts work. This objective is envisaged to be completed by means of a rigorous literature analysis which will form Chapter 2 of this research thesis.

Objective 2

To define and critically analyse the concepts of community sense of ownership and the ownership of the tourism value chain by rural communities. This will include reviewing the critical elements requisite for the success of community ownership and critiquing the historical and contemporary models of generic community ownership to express how it has been dynamic and consistent with community needs over time. Additionally, to advance the tourism specific value chain ownership models that are applicable to rural communities within a developing country perspective and assess their merits and demerits. This objective will be achieved by an in-depth literature review that is covered in Chapter 3 of this thesis.

Objective 3

To analyse the measurements of the levels of participation and ownership in the tourism value chain by the selected communities, their needs, skills, and perceptions. This will assist in determining how different communities perceive the concept of tourism ownership and how they would prefer it to happen. Furthermore, to develop a meticulous framework that can be used by tourism communities, conservationists, government and non-governmental developmental agencies to institute and foster community sense of ownership and involvement in the tourism value chain for rural communities. Chapters 4 to 6 of the thesis address this objective.

Objective 4

To conclude and make recommendations based on the results obtained from the literature review (Chapters 2 and 3) and empirical findings (Chapters 5 and 6). Additionally, to draw comparisons between the literature findings and empirical findings. The importance of the developed framework for fostering community ownership of the tourism value chain for rural communities is also analysed. The thesis's contribution, limitations, and areas for further research are discussed. This objective is to be accomplished in Chapter 7.

1.5 Research methodology

This study makes use of both a literature review and an empirical study. This is discussed in detail in Chapter 4.

1.5.1 Literature review

The systematic reviewing technique was employed for this literature study. This technique is premised on the comprehensive identification and assessment of various literature in order to come up with a summation of highly relevant and good quality studies pertinent to the problem (Gough, 2015; Gough *et al.*, 2019). The first step was to derive the key words for the research to make it easy to search for information in various academic databases and libraries. The key words for this research were communities; tourism community; rural community; tourism value chain; community participation; community ownership; and equitable development, among others.

Having identified the key research terms, the next step was to select the sources of information. The secondary sources used for this research included, but were not limited to, textbooks (both physical and e-books), reputable websites, journal papers from online research platforms and full-text databases (such as EBSCOhost, Emerald Insight, JSTOR, ProQuest, Web of Science, Scopus, Google Scholar and ScienceDirect), university theses and dissertations, and government reports.

The search for information on the various data bases yielded a quantum of studies and documents which had to be sieved through using an exclusion criterion. The skimmed articles, documents, and chapters that were identified to be central to the study topic were then used to create a literature map. Creswell and Creswell (2018) define a literature map as the process of grouping of literature and illustrating how it contributes to the position of the study. The summarised documents from the literature map were then used to formulate the mainstay of the literature review of this study. In line with the suggestions of Ivankova *et al.* (2017) and Nieuwenhuis (2017) literature was presented thematically and conceptually such that contributions, critiques, and gaps could easily be exposed.

The results of the literature review will be exhibited in chapters 2 and 3 of this thesis. Chapter 2 offers sociological perspectives on how communities function and understand their role in the tourism industry, putting across the challenges that impede on the communities' ability to participate in tourism activities as well as proffering solutions on how this can be undone. Chapter 3 critically analyses the concept of ownership and community ownership of the tourism value chain. It further reviews the historical and contemporary generic models of ownership as well as tourism specific ones to express how they have been dynamic and consistent with community needs over time. Additionally, the chapter also puts forward a discussion on the ideal practices for the concept of ownership to be a success in a South African context.

The literature synthesis and document analysis, through exposing previous studies and extending ongoing dialogue and debate in literature, provided this research with a framework upon which the importance of the study could be established as well as benchmark results with other findings.

After reviewing literature associated with the study topic, this thesis turned its focus to an empirical survey to aid in the attainment of the research objectives. The succeeding section puts forward how the empirical survey was conducted and proffers a rationale for its approach in this study.

The keywords used in this study are tourism; tourism value chain; communities; tourism community; community participation; community ownership; and social impact.

1.5.2 Empirical analysis

A phenomenological approach from a mixed-method framework of empirical study is adopted for this research. The concurrent triangulation research design is utilised for this study, implying that both quantitative and qualitative data collection instruments were used simultaneously before results were analysed independently and then compared. The study measures the levels of ownership and control of the tourism value chain by communities that receive tourists around a nature area as well as determine their collective community needs, skills, and perceptions.

1.5.2.1 Quantitative approach

As such, a questionnaire, based on the findings of literature and previous studies, was developed, and administered to residents of the communities surrounding the three main camps of the UDP, Royal Natal, Cathedral Peak, and Injisuthi. With the help of statistics from Stats SA the most densely populated communities around the Park were targeted, determined by using stratified probability sampling. Convenience sampling, a subset of non-probability sampling, was then used to select as many respondents as possible within the selected strata. This process is comprehensively explained in Chapter 4.

Data was captured using the 2016 version of Microsoft Excel and version 27 of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). The levels of ownership of the tourism value chain by the selected communities around the Park, their collective needs, skills, and perceptions were determined by means of multivariate statistical and regression analysis of the data. This is also explained in Chapter 4 of this study.

1.5.2.2 Qualitative approach

The qualitative approach, that takes a phenomenological research approach, focused on the UDP Community Liaison Officers (CLOs) for the selected parks and the Community Traditional Leaders (CTLs) of the selected communities (who are custodians of the land on behalf of the King of the Zulu Kingdom). Interviews were conducted with the above-mentioned respondents. The interviews aimed to ascertain the role played by the respondents (the UDP's CLOs and CTLs) in supporting the communities' ownership of the tourism value chain as well as their challenges and aspirations. Purposive sampling, a non-probability sampling design, was used since the identified targets could provide information that could not be provided by any other respondents.

An audio recorder was used to record the interviews with the selected respondents. Where necessary a translator was used to accompany the researchers. The data was then be prepared, organised, transcribed, and coded to establish categories before it can be interpreted using thematic analysis. This is comprehensively explained in Chapter 4.

1.6 Ethical considerations

The researcher sought the respondents' explicit consent to participate in the study (informed consent) so that the respondents did not feel coerced in any way to participate in the research. The researcher obtained letters of consent as well as permission to be interviewed from the interviewees. As the research was in rural communities, the researcher also sought permission from CTLs to conduct the survey in their locale.

The researcher made use of Zulu-speaking research assistants who were trained in ethical considerations. Similarly, respondents were provided with sufficient information concerning the study for them to make informed decisions on their participation. This research did not seek the participation of children. Participants were guaranteed of their anonymity and the confidentiality of their responses and that the information obtained was only to be used for academic purposes. The researcher also ensured that no physical or psychological harm would befall respondents during the research and that a risk to harm ratio was tested on the research design.

The research design was structured in such a way that it addresses specific questions so that the study conclusion and findings would be consistent and relate to the questions asked. Accordingly, the aims of the research were disclosed beforehand, and an appropriate methodology chosen. An undertaking was made to keep all data secure with access restricted to only the researcher and supervisors, and to safely store audio files and questionnaires once data capturing had been completed.

1.7 Contribution of the study

This research’s focus is on ascertaining rural tourism communities’ levels of tourism resource and value chain ownership in selected communities around the UDP through mixed (qualitative and quantitative) research, to develop a framework for rural communities’ ownership in the tourism value chain. This thesis, as outlined below, intends to make various theoretical and empirical contributions towards sociological studies within the tourism management discourse.

This thesis makes a theoretical contribution by adding to literature that investigates broader sociological perspectives, social institutions, and communities' role in tourism. This assists in fostering a better understanding of Third World rural tourism communities' motivations for involvement in tourism activities, their challenges, as well as the possible solutions to ensure the sustainability of tourism as a source of income and livelihoods for these communities.

Further, this thesis makes a theoretical contribution to the study of rural community ownership of the tourism value chain and resources in a South African context. This is done through analysing literature in line with the critical requirements requisite for its attainment, and previous and contemporary models of generic ownership and those specific to the tourism value chain in a developing country context. This will help in the development of sustainable and equitable development plans for rural communities and guide future scholars in analysing the phenomenon.

This thesis also makes an empirical contribution by adding to the prevailing knowledge on rural communities and their ability to own the tourism value chain. A framework for tourism value chain ownership in rural communities is to be developed. This will assist in guiding respective organisations (such as governments, developmental agencies, non-governmental institutions, and rural communities) in fostering holistic development that provides meaningful benefits to rural communities that are found around tourism areas. Consequently, this will reduce the negative socio-economic impacts of tourism and generate greater community support for tourism.

The study also contributes to the understanding of rural community ownership of tourism value chain and resources in similar rural communities in South Africa, the region, and other Third World countries across the globe.

1.8 Defining the concepts

For purposes of clarity, keywords continually used in this thesis are herewith defined.

1.8.1 Communities

The term ‘community’ has been defined from several angles. According to Park *et al.* (2019), a community refers to a population living in the same geographical location with individuals living in symbiotic relationships of mutual interdependence. Fritz and Rhéaume (2014:2) provide their own definition by suggesting that community refers to the sum of people in an area of geography with some degree of mutual interdependence, identification, loyalty and common social activities. Bruhn (2011:12) adds that community insinuates meaningful relationships between groups of people in specified geographies.

A closer look at all the community definitions above depicts uniformity in the existence of relationships among people living within a specific area. Bruhn (2011:12) gives an insight into the nature of these relationships by arguing that they are closer than casual relationships as the group shares common values and goals that create positive feelings, mutual commitment, and responsibility. Therefore, the shared values, norms, beliefs, and goals, coupled with interdependence and honesty, act as the cement that holds communities together.

This research adopts the contemporary definition of community that hinges mainly on the geographic community and not the other forms of superficial communities.

1.8.2 Tourism (local) community

The importance of location with all its physical endowments and relationships among people are all indisputable prerequisite elements to the meaning of community (Bruhn, 2011; Fritz & Rhéaume, 2014; Singh *et al.*, 2003). However, Stonich (2000) and Singh *et al.* (2003:8) are dismissive of the generic idea of community propounded by contemporary scholars in as far as tourism is concerned. They argue that community is usually a misrepresented term that may beseech a false sense of homogeneity, consensus, and tradition. Singh *et al.* (2003:8) further discourse that this ‘imagined community’ might be difficult to apply to tourism communities that sell their destinations irrespective of the locale.

Therefore, not all communities are within the same geographical space and not all relationships in the community are positive.

Having looked at the various definitions of community as well as their merits and demerits, the definition of a tourism community that is adopted for the purposes of this research is inspired by the work of Scholtz (2014:21), where local communities shall be viewed as all residents of the places (villages, towns, and cities) within which tourism activities take place. The focus of this thesis is on tourism communities defined spatially. These communities can also be referred to as destinations and/or host communities (Beeton, 2006:12).

1.8.3 Rural community

Perhaps the simplest of rural community definitions is proffered by Mwitwa *et al.* (2015), who argue that rural communities are places that are principally surrounded by nature and whose people are mostly dependent, to varying degrees, upon the nature area's land (subsistence agriculture), forests, water, and wildlife for their survival. While Mohatt *et al.* (2005) admit that the term 'rural community' is difficult to define, they provide a more comprehensive definition by arguing that rural communities are areas outside of towns, cities and any other urban establishments that are, in relative comparison to urban areas, characterised by low population density, higher rates of poverty and unemployment, poor infrastructure, and restricted access to quality health care and educational attainment.

For purposes of this research, a rural community is regarded as a geographically isolated place next to nature areas where sparsely populated low-income people live in reliance on their natural environment for survival.

1.8.4 Tourism value chain

Adinolfi *et al.* (2018) refer to value chains as the entire input-output process that delivers a product or service to the hands of the customer, from its initial conception. The tourism value chain creates a wide range of opportunities for multiple business players as it encompasses the provision of goods and services from a range of supporting industries. In the same light, Adiyia and Vanneste (2018) submit that a tourism value chain is a

process that transforms, combines, produces, transports, packages, and displays tourism products and services intended for the final consumer. The various raw materials coupled with the different intermediate products and final products belong to numerous industry players who are connected in business through trade. The definition by Spencer *et al.* (2014), which is adopted for this thesis, adds that a tourism value chain brings together various producers and the entire range of activities that take place in order to bring a product or service from conception through production up until it is delivered to the consumer.

1.8.5 Community participation

Lachapelle and Austin (2014) argue that community participation relates to both theory and practice stipulating the idea that community members should be directly involved in the planning and decision-making processes concerning matters that affect them. Similarly, Dalimunthe *et al.* (2019) contend that community participation is a social process in which community members with shared needs take an active stance in the determination of challenges, and ultimately, solutions, to problems bedevilling them. Clark and Wise (2018), together with Hindsworth and Lang (2009), bring in a new dimension to the definition of community participation, that of community resources, by stating that it is the process through which members of the community exert influence over their priorities, resource allocation, and policymaking.

For this thesis, therefore, community participation is not only deemed as the process through which community members are involved in the processes of planning, priority-setting, resource allocation, policymaking, and decision making regarding their issues, but also includes the community ownership of the tourism value chain.

1.8.6 Community ownership

Various definitions from various scholars provide invaluable insight into community ownership. The Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2019) sets the tone by defining communal ownership as the ownership of land and other properties by the whole community so that all members have the right of usage to the property or parts of it. Woodin *et al.* (2010) are of the view that community and mutual ownership mostly refer to the ownership of

common property, fostered and cherished democracy, and self-will that ultimately leads to a feeling of common benefit and a sense of social justice. In a similar light, the Global CHE Network (2019) is of the view that community ownership is attained only when people come together and volunteer to work to accomplish their own plans and goals through the use of resources available to them in order to shape their own destiny.

While the community ownership definition by the Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2019) and Woodin *et al.* (2010) make reference to the community having rights to the usage of owned property, the Global CHE Network (2019) definition provides for the conditions in which community ownership can be attained. The latter definition closes the door on outside actors and their material input by emphasising that local community members take centre stage and use their resources in the ownership process.

Community ownership, therefore, will refer to the ownership of tourism value chain resources such as businesses and property by the whole community such that they have legal rights over their possessions.

1.8.7 Equitable development

Equitable development is defined as the sum of improvement activities that take place within the triple bottom line (economy, environment, and society), that aim at enhancing the needs, goals, and resources of both the business community and society (Belongie & Silverman, 2018; Zhang, 2018). Equitable development involves the deliberate and intentional use of strategies in less privileged communities so that community residents participate in and benefit from activities and decisions that influence their destiny (Kuhonta, 2011; Miller, 2019).

Just as the equity issues of tourism lie between the overlay of the economic and social aspects of tourism, so do the equity impacts of tourism also lie between the overlap of the economic and social impacts of tourism. Cascetta (2009:624) defines social impacts as changes in social values and the relationships among people in their social institutions. Cascetta (2009:624) further contends that not only do these changes affect the cohesion and stability of local communities, but they also alter social equity and socio-economic status, as well as impede on community members' access to social activities.

In as much as tourism impacts are viewed under the conventional headings of socio-cultural, economic and environmental impacts, it should, however, be kept in mind that tourism issues are multi-faceted as they have interrelated dimensions (Mason, 2008:36; Ryan, 2003:268). It should also be noted that the socio-economic impacts of tourism can be beneficial or detrimental and whether they are negative or positive depend on the value position and judgement of the observer (Mason, 2008:36).

For this research, equitable development is taken to imply the advancement of the positive socio-economic impacts of tourism and the suppression of the negative socio-economic impacts of tourism that result in the much-sought development of the host communities.

1.9 Chapter classification

To attain the objectives set out for this research, the study is categorised into six chapters. The ensuing section outlines the chosen layout this thesis follows.

Chapter 1: Introduction and problem statement

This chapter presents the concept of community ownership of the tourism value chain within rural communities as a vehicle that can be used to enhance positive social impacts of tourism that mere participation and involvement have failed. Chapter 1 focuses on introducing the study, exposing the problem statement that the study intends to solve, outlining the research goal and objectives, as well as outlining the methods this research utilises. Definition and explanation of key concepts also form part of this chapter.

Chapter 2: Sociology and tourism

Chapter 2 analytically reviews the literature on sociology as a scientific area. Broader sociological perspectives are investigated, looking into social institutions and how they function, narrowing it down to communities and their role in tourism. An appraisal of models that analyse stimuli for communities' participation in tourism and measure their involvement in tourism follows. The chapter further investigates strategies that can be employed to encourage community involvement in tourism to foster development. Social impacts of tourism and models that seek to explain them are also presented.

Chapter 3: Community ownership

Chapter 3 critically analyses literature on the concept of community sense of ownership and the ownership of the tourism value chain by communities. This is achieved by looking into the critical elements required for the attainment of ownership of the tourism value chain by a tourism community. A discussion on both the generic and tourism specific value chain ownership models, previous as well as contemporary, that seek to explain how ownership in communities can be implemented formulates the mainstay of this chapter. The merits and demerits of the ownership models as well as possible solutions are also presented.

Chapter 4: Research methodology

Chapter 4 focuses on how data for the research was collected and analysed. The chapter contains detailed discussions on quantitative techniques of gathering data. The research design, which incorporates the sampling method, sample area, and the sample size are determined and justify the measurement instrument to be used. With the help of literature, competent data collection, data capturing, and data analysis approaches are brought forward that are used to reach the objectives for this research.

Chapter 5: Quantitative results of research

The fulcrum of Chapter 5 is that of the presentation of empirical results and findings obtained from the quantitative phase of the study. Different statistical analyses are put forward from the data collected on the researched communities. The community perceptions of the UDP, the levels and extent of ownership, and control of community tourism value chain are determined in the selected communities, as well as the variables influencing its success or failure. The results and findings of the different selected communities are compared as well as their insinuations.

Chapter 6: Qualitative results of research

The pivot of Chapter 6 hinges on the presentation of empirical results and findings gotten from the qualitative phase of the study. These are results from the in-depth interviews that were conducted with the UDP's CLOs and the traditional leaders of the communities

under study. Through triangulation, this chapter also draws comparisons between the quantitative results presented in Chapter 5 and the qualitative results. This is done in a manner that summarises all research findings and formulate a foundation upon which empirical conclusions can be drawn. The chapter also presents a tailored framework for the selected communities, for the advancement of tourism value chain ownership for similar rural communities that receive tourists in developing countries.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations

Chapter 7 draws conclusions from the deliberations of all the chapters in the thesis. Emphasis is put on showing the contribution of this research and this is done by drawing comparisons between the suggestions of literature and the revelation of the empirical results of the study. This research's limitations are also presented. The chapter ends by ushering recommendations pertaining to the advancement of tourism value chain ownership within rural communities in Third World countries.

CHAPTER 2: SOCIOLOGY AND TOURISM

2.1 Introduction

Sociological research provides an insight into every aspect of human lives (Cohen & Orbuch, 1990:3). To have a better understanding of how people in tourism societies behave and function as well as understanding their challenges and aspirations in communities of southern Africa, the societal setup and tourism needs to be appraised. Since the communities' participation in tourism and their attitude towards tourism are influenced by how the society is set up, it is therefore the aim of this chapter to unlock the fundamentals of sociology as exposed by scholars preceding this research. This chapter focuses on participation of communities in tourism as well as the interaction between communities. For this reason, emphasis is put on citing literature that establishes a link between sociology and tourism. A discussion on the background to sociology as well as various sociological perspectives are proffered before alluding to another conversation on communities, their role in tourism and the impacts arising thereof. The chapter layout is depicted in Figure 2.1 below.

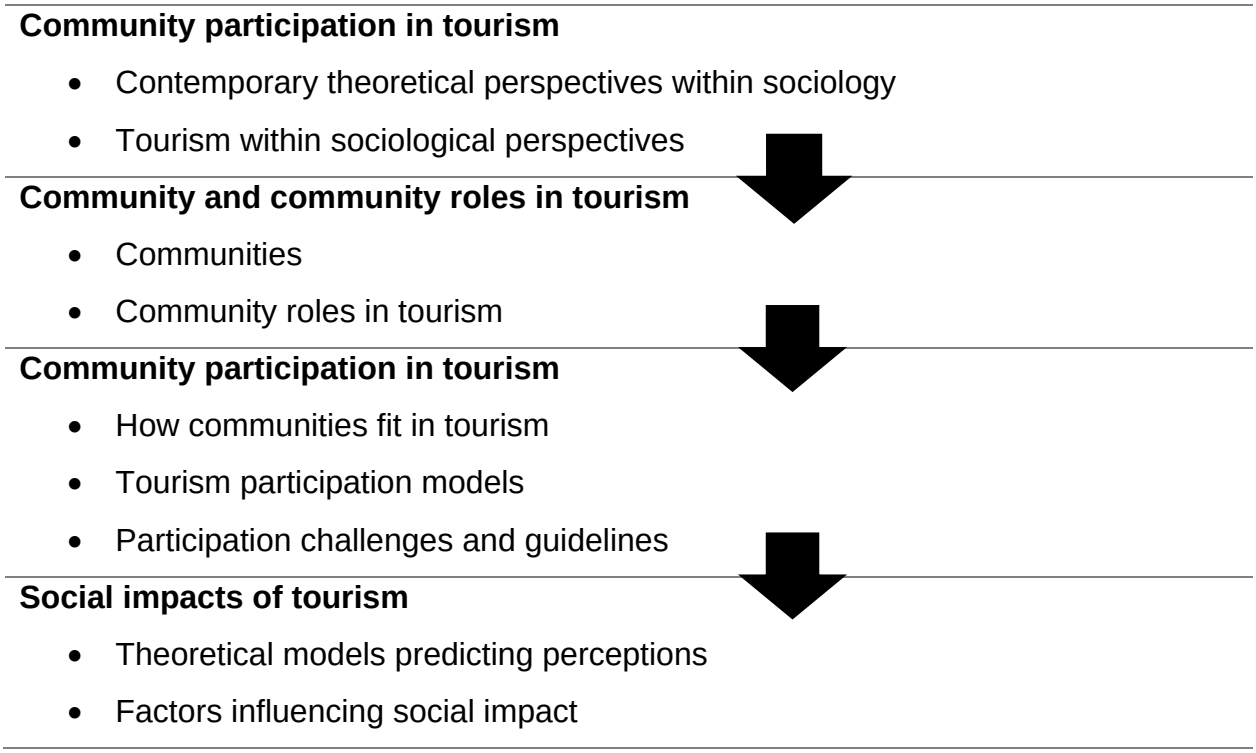


Figure 2-1: Chapter layout

Source: Author's own illustration

2.2 Sociology demystified

The subjects examined under the discipline of sociology are so varied and numerous (for example: sport, poverty, shopping, drug use, ethnic conflict, health, housework, death, war, migration, religion, to mention but a few), that it cannot simply be defined in the elements it studies (Haralambos *et al.*, 2015:3). Giddens and Sutton (2015:10) also concur with Haralambos *et al.* (2015:3) that sociology is best defined by its approaches to explaining social life as opposed to its subject matter.

Perhaps the simplest of sociology definitions was proffered by Ferrante (2018:3) who views sociology as a scientific study of society and its members. A more elaborate definition of sociology is given by Cargan and Ballantine (2007:1) who say it is a study that focuses on the interactions within, between, and among groups in all areas of human behaviour. Cohen and Orbuch (1990:3) also define sociology as a systematic study of the development, structure, interaction, and collective behaviour of human beings. From the Cohen and Orbuch (1990) definition it is clear that they identify development,

structure, interaction, and collective behaviour as the critical elements upon which sociology is based. Similarly, Stewart and Zaaiman (2015:1) highlights the focus of sociology as that of patterns, trends, and forms of collective social action and the social procedures and assemblies in society which are a result of human behaviour. Stewart and Glynn (1971:4) go beyond mentioning sociology as a scientific and systematic study by identifying it as a discipline that seeks the knowledge of man in society and sub-societies and his adjustment to them, customs and institutions and the reaction to changes that may develop. Put simply, sociology is the methodical study of the group life of human beings.

Haralambos and Holborn (2013:3) distance sociology from psychology by arguing that sociology is much less concerned with the individual and more concerned with humans in groups. By the same breath Giddens and Sutton (2015) contend that in as much as the sizes of the groups that are studied vary significantly it must be underscored that to be sociological the study has to focus beyond the individual to explain human behaviour.

Sociology unearths a seemingly new world but a world that has always been there yet previously less observed. Sociology casts a new light and gives one new lenses on how you identify ethnic groups, social class divisions, various religious denominations, sects and cults, variances in life chances, education, poverty, equality stratification, and race (Stewart & Glynn, 1971:4).

Cohen and Orbuch (1990:4) identify four main reasons sociology is imperative:

i. It gives researchers the ability to re-examine the social environment through lenses never used before.
ii. It provides an understanding of the varied viewpoints and attitudes of different people in a society in a way that it provides for tolerance and empathetic to external forces that influence individual and group behaviour.
iii. The study of sociology helps assuage predispositions and stereotypes which makes societies more elastic in acclimatizing to different situations.
iv. It provides new ways of looking at and reacting to the ever-changing face of social reality.

2.2.1 Background to sociology

The background to the origins of sociology lie in the French Revolution and the mid-18th century industrial revolution that altered the traditional way of life that societies had been long accustomed to (Giddens & Sutton, 2015:17). These changes implied massive rural to urban migrations as scores of the populace sought to offer labour to the newly industrialised urban settlements ushering in a new way and era of interactions and associations within society. This propelled the prominent scholars of the day to seek answers on how society had changed and envisage likely consequences of the changes to society (Haralambos & Holborn, 2013:11). The greatest development of the era was perhaps the scholars' adoption of science instead of the renowned religion in a spirited attempt to try and understand how the world operated (Cargan & Ballantine, 2007; Giddens & Sutton, 2015; Haralambos *et al.*, 2015).

Sociology as a term was developed and coined by prominent French author Auguste Comte (1798-1857), living in France during the French revolution, who believed that through the scientific method of study, people could unearth an understanding of the underlying laws that govern society (Smelser, 1995:4). Living in turbulent times – the changes that the French Revolution brought as well as that which emanated from the newly industrialised society – Comte sought to create a science of society that would explain the social world just as much as the science of the natural world sought to explain the physical world (Giddens & Sutton, 2015:12). Comte argued that the discovery of the laws that govern human society would help shape human destiny and improve on the welfare of humanity just as the natural laws have helped humanity control events around them (Smelser, 1995:4). Comte also advocated for a positivist approach to sociology which holds that knowledge on society should only be based on empirical evidence, experimentation, and comparison (Haralambos & Holborn, 2013:12).

The law of three stages which sought to explain the stages through which humans have passed in understanding the child, was the brainchild of Comte (Giddens & Sutton, 2010:13). The three stages are identified as: theological, where thinking was only guided by religious ideas and a conviction that society is as a result of God's will; metaphysical, where people's view of society has shifted from the supernatural to the natural; and the

positive stage which encouraged the use of scientific methods in the social world (Cargan & Ballantine, 2007; Giddens & Sutton, 2015; Smelser, 1995; Stewart & Glynn, 1971).

Another French sociologist, Emile Durkheim (1858-1917), contributed immensely to modern sociology and famously argued for the 'study of social facts as things' where social life could be analysed meticulously as objects or events in nature (Cargan & Ballantine, 2007; Giddens & Sutton, 2015; Haralambos *et al.*, 2015). Particularly interested in social and moral solidarity, Durkheim presented his analysis on social change resulting from industrialisation by identifying two forms of solidarity, mechanical and organic, and relating them to division of labour (Haralambos & Holborn, 2013). He argues that cultures with is a low division of labour are characterised by mechanical solidarity and cultures with a high division of labour are held together by organic solidarity (Giddens & Sutton, 2015). One of Durkheim's most famed studies on suicide concluded that, contrary to the widely accepted belief that suicide was purely a personal act, social factors exerted influence on it (Cargan & Ballantine, 2007:15).

The history of sociology cannot be complete without referring to the writings of Karl Marx (1818-1883). According to Giddens and Sutton (2015:15) and Haralambos and Holborn (2013:11) the ideas of Karl Marx contrasted sharply with those of Comte and Durkheim by blaming capitalism for the emergence of a class system in which class relations are characterised by conflict. Karl Marx argues that although the Capitalist (those who own large sums of money, machinery and factories) and the working class (referred to as proletariats) are dependent upon each other, their relationship is unbalanced and exploitative in nature (Giddens & Sutton, 2015).

Max Weber (1864-1920) is another sociologist of note whose omission would not do justice to this brief background to sociology. Weber's work was largely influenced by the writings of Karl Marx, though he rejects Marx's materialist conception of history and plays down the significance of class conflict (Burton *et al.*, 2015:27). Weber argues that ideas and values, just like economic factors, have an impact on social change and that sociology should focus on social action as opposed to social structures (Ferrante, 2018:30). Weber identifies rationalization – the development of science, modern technology, and bureaucracy (which Weber argued was the only way of organizing large

numbers of people effectively) – as leading to social and economic efficiency (Giddens & Sutton, 2010:9). He saw the industrial revolution and capitalism as trends towards rationalisation and to him, capitalism was not dominated by class conflict but by science and bureaucracy (Smelser, 1995:26).

It should be noted that, as much as these scholars' views differed, they all sought to understand the nature and causes of sociological change within the times they lived. They also unanimously pointed out the need for a scientific approach to the study of sociology. Many of the contributions of these and other scholars shall be dealt with vigorously in the next section that focuses on the different contemporary theories and perspectives within sociology.

2.2.2 Contemporary theoretical perspectives within sociology

This section examines the most influential theories on sociology. A theory can be defined as a system of ideas that explains something based on a set of principles upon which the practice of an activity is based (Goldthorpe, 1975; Haralambos & Holborn, 2013; Stewart & Zaaiman, 2015). A simpler definition is proffered by Giddens and Sutton (2015:9) who state that a theory is a set of ideas that aims to explain how something works. In view of the definitions above, theories on sociology provide a summary of ideas that explain the principles upon which the study of society is based. Prominent among the theory perspectives of sociology are functionalism, conflict, and symbolic interactionism (Ferrante, 2018; Giddens & Sutton, 2015; Haralambos *et al.*, 2015). These are subsequently reviewed.

2.2.2.1 Functionalism

Functionalists' major proponents, Comte and Durkheim, view society as a complex system that has different parts working together in unison for stability (Giddens & Sutton, 2010; Haralambos *et al.*, 2015; Schaefer, 2006). Functionalists further argue that the various interrelated parts of society such as religion and family must be viewed in relation to society as a whole (Haralambos *et al.*, 2013; Burton *et al.*, 2015; Ferrante, 2018). Under this perspective, behaviour is structured and there are values, norms and laws that govern relationships amongst people (Giddens & Sutton, 2015:12). Functionalists also

believe that societies must have their basic needs, referred to as prerequisites, met, if they are to survive (Goldthorpe, 1975; Schaefer, 2006; Giddens & Sutton, 2010; Haralambos *et al.*, 2013). Prerequisites include, for example, a means of producing food, shelter, and a system of socialising new members.

Value consensus and social order also formulate the core of the functionalist perspective. Functionalists believe without consensus on the values that are paramount to the society, integration will be impossible (Cargan & Ballantine, 2007:19). Therefore, value consensus is vital for integration. On social order, this functional perspective assumes that order and stability are important for the survival and sustenance of social systems (Adorno, 2000; Cargan & Ballantine, 2007; Ferrante, 2018; Smelser, 1995). This, therefore, puts emphasis on and renders social control mechanisms fundamental to social cohesion.

Functionalists also acknowledge the presence of dysfunctions which refers to processes in society that disrupt the social system and diminish its stability (Schaefer, 2006:14). This perspective, however, argues that these dysfunctions are only temporary and not a permanent feature of society.

2.2.2.2 Conflict perspective

Conflict theories hold that there are fundamental differences between groups in society, which result in conflict becoming a constant feature of the society and not a temporary one as functionalists argue (Schaefer, 2006; Cargan & Ballantine, 2007; Haralambos *et al.*, 2013; Burton *et al.*, 2015; Ferrante, 2018). Proponents of this conflict perspective suggest that social behaviour can be best understood in terms of differences or conflict between competing groups (Schaefer, 2006:15). Schaefer (2006:15) further argues that this conflict does not necessarily need to be violent, but can, for example, take the form of competition for new members among churches, party politics, or labour negotiations. Most conflict perspectives have been influenced by the works of Karl Marx, Max Weber (discussed above) and Ralf Dahrendorf (1929-2009) and are in agreement that the social world is blemished by perpetual struggles between competing groups (Goldthorpe, 1975; Cohen & Orbuch, 1990; Haralambos *et al.*, 2013; Burton *et al.*, 2015; Giddens & Sutton, 2015; Ferrante, 2018).

While Karl Max viewed capitalism and social classes as the root of conflict in society, sociologists who developed from his work and who also belong to this conflict perspective have come to the conclusion that conflict is not only a class phenomenon but rather a part of everyday life (Schaefer, 2006; Cargan and Ballantine, 2007; Haralambos *et al.*, 2013; Giddens and Sutton, 2015; Ferrante, 2018). There is conflict in families, churches, workplaces, political parties, educational institutions, etc., that may not be class related. Conflict theorists are interested in how societal institutions like family, education, religion, government, and media have helped maintain privileges for some while keeping others underprivileged, ultimately advocating for change and redistribution of resources (Schaefer, 2006:15).

The feminist perspective, with its focus on an aspect of inequality, belongs to the conflict perspective (Haralambos *et al.*, 2013:13). Like Marxists, feminists see society as divided into different social groups; unlike Marxists, feminists believe the major division in society is that of men and women as opposed to that of classes between the workers and capitalists (Schaefer, 2006; Haralambos *et al.*, 2013; Giddens & Sutton, 2015). The feminists, who identify gender inequality and inequity as pivotal to all behaviour and organisation, view oppression of women as inevitable in patriarchal societal setups. The ultimate aim of feminists is to put to an end patriarchal dominance and the exploitation of women (Haralambos *et al.*, 2013:13).

2.2.2.3 Symbolic interactionism

Schaefer (2006:17) contends that interactionism is premised on the notion that humans live in a world of meaningful objects (actions, other people, relationships, and symbols). Interactionalism differs from functionalist and conflict perspectives in that it focuses on small scale interaction as opposed to society at large and rejects the idea that human action and behaviour is a result of the societal systems in place (Haralambos *et al.*, 2013:13). Interactionalism advocates for improvement changes in society to be developed and implemented at a micro level to make a difference on the macro level. Language, meaning, and symbols which, according to Giddens and Sutton (2015:22), allow humans to be self-conscious and aware of their individuality are key mediums to this change.

Interactionism is concerned with the interaction between individuals, understanding of which is attained only by appreciating the meaning the actors give to their actions (Giddens & Sutton, 2015:23; Haralambos *et al.*, 2013:13). Haralambos and Holborn (2013:13) further argue that meanings are not fixed, they are created, developed, modified, and changed as the interaction takes place. Therefore, interactionalists direct their attention toward interpersonal interaction and stress the role this plays in shaping society and institutions.

This section looked at the theories that greatly influence sociology. They summarised the perspectives and principles upon which the study of society is based. The next section focuses on how tourism fits within these sociological perspectives.

2.2.3 Tourism within sociological perspectives

As shall be exposed in this section, tourism fits easily into the three main contemporary sociological perspectives discussed above.

As far as the functionalism perspective is concerned tourism can be regarded as a part in a structured society that helps maintain balance. According to Schaefer (2006:14), any aspect of social life that does not contribute to the society's well-being, balance, and survival, and fails to promote value consensus will not be passed on to future generations. Tourism has survived generations and has played an integral role in societies and economies and has contributed significantly to the development of nations.

Similarly, tourism fits well into the conflict perspective, which holds that the world is characterised by consistent struggle and competition between groups (Giddens & Sutton, 2015:21). The conflict perspective provides for an explanation into the conflict that is witnessed in tourism. Tourism as a discipline has created groups that are in a persistent tussle. This ranges from the host communities and the tourism players (organisations and tourists alike) who fight for the scarce environmental resources and the apportionment thereof; tourism players who fight among themselves for business (tourists); the policy makers and the tourism organisations who fight on legislation and the rationale behind it; to the tourism employees and their employers who take different sides in as far as labour issues and matters of remuneration are concerned.

Symbolic interactionism also provides for the study of tourism. Tourism is a highly interactive discourse. There are interactions between tourists themselves, between tourists and tourism service providers, between tourists and host communities, as well as interactions between host communities and the tourism service providers. As alluded to above, interactionism seeks to understand the nature of the relationships emanating from the interaction of individuals (Cargan & Ballantine, 2007; Ferrante, 2018; Giddens & Sutton, 2010; Haralambos *et al.*, 2015; Stewart & Zaaiman, 2015). These interactions abound in tourism and understanding of such interactions plays a paramount role, not only in development of the tourism experience, but ultimately in the advancement of positive change for society. It provides a better insight into elements like emotions which, in tourism, take place at individual level, yet have a bearing on society at large.

From the discussion above, it can be argued that none of the three theoretical perspectives can operate independently of the other two as they are all complementary. Pursuant to the interests of this research, the following sections of this chapter shall therefore seek to determine how tourism communities function in the macro society, as well as explain how social impacts affect the residents at the micro level.

2.3 Community and community roles in tourism

Tourism communities stand central to this research. For this reason, not only does it become logical but also imperative to delve into the definitions of ‘community’ and ‘tourism community’ to come up with a working definition for the purposes of this research.

2.3.1 Previous community definitions

The term ‘community’ has been defined from several angles. According to Park *et al.* (2019:64), a community refers to a population living in the same geographical location with individuals living in symbiotic relationships of mutual interdependence. Fritz and Rhéaume (2014:2) provide their own definition by suggesting that community refers to the sum of people in an area of geography with some degree of mutual interdependence, identification, loyalty, and common social activities. Bruhn (2011:12) adds that community insinuates meaningful relationships between groups of people in specified geographies.

A closer look at all the community definitions above depicts uniformity in existence of relationships among people living within a specific area. Bruhn (2011:12) gives an insight into the nature of these relationships by arguing that they are closer than casual relationships as the group shares common values and goals that create positive feelings, mutual commitment, and responsibility. Therefore, the shared values, norms, beliefs, and goals, coupled with interdependence and honesty, act as the cement that holds communities together.

Fritz and Rheaume (2014:2) identify four forms of communities upon which different definitions can be drawn: geographic communities, which are an aggregate of people in an ecological area; spiritual communities, where people are bound together by association on religious beliefs, tradition, and languages; purposive communities, which represents those driven by a shared purpose or objective such as work; and intentional communities, which are formed for the sake of becoming a community. Most contemporary definitions of community presented, it should be noted, hinge mainly on the 'geographic community' and not the other three.

2.3.2 Tourism community

Having looked at the various community definitions above, it becomes important for this research to establish the definition of 'tourism community'.

The importance of location with all its physical endowments and relationships among people are all indisputable prerequisite elements to the meaning of community (Bruhn, 2011; Fritz & Rhéaume, 2014; Singh *et al.*, 2003). However, Stonich (2000) and Little (1994) are dismissive of the generic idea of community propounded by contemporary scholars as far as tourism in concerned. They argue that community is usually a misrepresented term that may beseech a false sense of homogeneity, consensus, and tradition. Singh *et al.* (2003:8) further discourse that this 'imagined community' might be difficult to apply to tourism communities that sell their destinations irrespective of the locale.

Therefore, not all communities are within the same geographical space and not all relationships in the community are positive. Reference can be made here to the preceding

section of contemporary theoretical perspectives, where the functionalists argue that conflict is a feature however uncommon of the society and the conflict theorists uphold that conflict is inherent to community. This suggests that communities can also be identified by negative relationships between members.

Having looked at the various definitions of community as well as their merits and demerits, the definition of a tourism community which shall be adopted for the purposes of this research is inspired by the works of Scholtz (2014:21), where local communities shall be viewed as all residents of the places (villages, towns, and cities) within which tourism activities take place. The focus in this thesis is on tourism communities defined spatially. These communities can also be referred to as destination and/or host communities (Beeton, 2006:12).

2.4 Community participation in tourism

This section will review a selected few tourism theories and models that have relevance to community involvement, participation, planning, and development, namely Pretty's typology of participation, Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation, and the stakeholder theory. These theories were chosen because of their prominence and popularity in explaining how local communities interact with tourism.

2.4.1 Pretty's typology of participation

One cannot talk of theories that advocate for community participation in tourism and overlook Pretty's (1995) typology of participation model. This model highlights the plight of local communities, power inequality between local and other interest groups, as well as the varied interpretations of the term 'participation' (Mowforth & Munt, 2016:232). While other models of participation focus on the receiving end (communities), Jules Pretty's typology of participation model speaks more to the enforcer of participatory approaches (parties other than the community) (Cornwall, 2008:270).

Pretty identities six forms of participation that range from passive participation to self-mobilisation (see Table 2.1 below).

Table 2-1: Pretty's typology of participation

Type of participation	Participation characteristics
1. Passive participation	Residents' participation is based on instructions, decisions are already made. Shared information belongs to external parties.
2. Participation by consultation	Residents participate through consultation and responding to questions. Residents are excluded in decision making and there lacks obligation on the part of professionals to incorporate residents' input.
3. Bought participation	Residents participate in return for material benefits such as food and monetary incentives. Locals have no influence once the incentives end.
4. Functional participation	Participation of locals is seen as a means of attaining goals and reducing costs by external organisations. Residents participate in groups to meet pre-set objectives.
5. Interactive participation	Residents participate in the formation and strengthening of local groups, development of action plans, as well as joint analysis. There is solicitation of groups' views on the use of available resources.
6. Self-mobilisation and connectedness	Locals participate independently of external organisations and take initiative to change systems. Contracts are developed with external institutions for resources and expertise they require but retain control over use of their resources.

Source: Adapted from Mowforth and Munt (2016:232)

In the passive and manipulative participation model all power and control rest with the groups outside of the community and the community only exists to put a seal of approval on decisions that have been predetermined. Participation is a pretence as management make unilateral announcements without listening to community responses (Cornwall, 2008:271).

While there is consultation under participation by consultation, the views aired by the community still do not influence decisions as the professionals are under no obligation to consider community input (Mowforth & Munt, 2016:233).

In the bought participation model material incentives feature. The community participates by contributing resources, such as labour, in return for material goods, such as food or cash, yet their input is still disregarded and side-lined.

Where there is functional participation (according to Cornwall (2008:271) the most frequently found type of participation) community participation is used to meet project objectives and to reduce costs even though decision making is a preserve of external agents. Involvement in decision making is only a preserve of the last two forms of participation: Interactive participation (where local groups take control over decisions) and self-mobilisation (where people take initiative and allocate resources independently of external agents) (Cornwall, 2008:271; Mowforth & Munt, 2016:233).

While Mowforth and Munt (2016:233) argue that Pretty's typology of participation helps identify factors which affect the development of tourism initiatives in local communities, and that the model makes clear that the motivations of those that determine participation approaches are significant, they are also of the view that community participation in tourism communities is a principle that is easy to promote yet very difficult to implement. Mowforth and Munt (2016:233) further argue that the only form of effective participation that will break existing patterns of power and unequal development will be that which is derived from the community itself.

2.4.2 Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation

Another participatory model that provides for community participation in tourism is Sherry Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation, developed in the late 1960s. This model sought to determine whether citizens were truly empowered or whether they were being used by authorities as a means of legitimising pre-made decisions (Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014; Commers, 2013; Gershman, 2013). Arnstein postulates that there is a great deal of difference between perceived participation and having real power to influence decision making. The model consists of an imaginary ladder that has eight rungs divided into three main areas: (i) area of non-participation; (ii) area of degrees of tokenism; and (iii) area of citizen power (Flores, 2005; Lloyd, 2005; Mendonca *et al.*, 2014). See Figure 2.2 below.

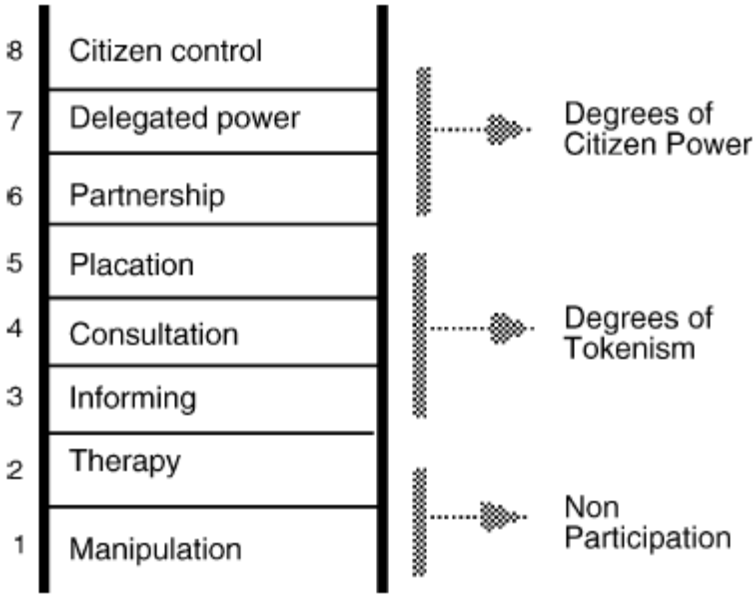


Figure 2-2: Arnstein's ladder of participation

Source: Adapted from Tritter and McCallum (2006:157)

The first area of the ladder in Figure 2.2, non-participation, is comprised of two rungs: manipulation and therapy (Commers, 2013; Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014). At this stage the public participates in advisory committees only for legitimacy purposes as they have little or no space to influence decisions made by authorities. This stage is also characterised by the lack of communication channels between the authorities and citizens (Lloyd, 2005; Mendonca *et al.*, 2014).

The second area of the ladder, degrees of tokenism, comprises of three rungs: informing, consulting, and placating (Flores, 2005; Gershman, 2013). This stage is consistent with a high degree of interaction between the authorities and citizens where the public is engaged in activities such as public hearings, neighbourhood forums, and government programmes (Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014; Mendonca *et al.*, 2014).

The third and highest part of the ladder, the area of citizen power, is occupied by the three final rungs: partnership, delegated power, and citizen control (Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014; Commers, 2013; Flores, 2005; Mendonca *et al.*, 2014). At this stage people demand a greater and more meaningful degree of power that accords them control over policy issues, management aspects, as well as to be in a position to negotiate conditions under which this may be changed (Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014; Mendonca *et al.*, 2014).

The work of Arnstein, like the work of all theorists, is not without criticism. Some forms of participation transcend the boundaries provided for by Arnstein in her model and the hierarchical ladder that has stages through which communities go to attain citizen control can be misleading since not all communities go through all the same stages (Cornwall, 2008). Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation fails to highlight and emphasise the importance of methods and feedback systems which are a phenomenon challenge to involvement and participation (Tritter & McCallum, 2006:158). Further, participation may result in outcomes that may not have been envisaged at the outset, such as airing up of grievances that may be difficult for those in power and community to ignore, thereby derailing projects at hand (Cornwall, 2008).

It should be stressed that while opening of participation space is critical, effective participation will depend on how the community takes up what is on offer. There is a need to quantify and qualify that which matters to different community segments for effective participation purposes.

2.4.3 Stakeholder theory

The stakeholder approach allows managers to understand external complexities so that they can plan and manage accordingly (Bonnafous-Boucher & Pesqueux, 2005; Freeman

et al., 2010). It is perhaps the most relevant theory which places community involvement and participation at its core. Donohoe *et al.* (2015:19) identify stakeholders as groups or individuals who can affect or are affected by the activities of an organisation. They argue that the stakeholder theory was developed to try and understand organisational challenges and to show that management of organisations had a lot more to do than just managing employees, customers, and supplies and making a profit. A paradigm shift is proposed in business management where the external environment and overlooked groups are incorporated for the success of the organisation (Perdue, 2004:253).

The stakeholder approach is premised on three principles: (i) for organisations to be successful there is need for sensitivity to the wide array of needs of the groups (stakeholders) around them; (ii) management should have an equal and fair obligation to all stakeholders; and (iii) decision making is centred on understanding sensitivity to the various stakeholders (Donohoe *et al.*, 2015:20; Perdue, 2004:253). The theory champions the importance of fair attention to all interests while putting representative power of stakeholders at the centre of its doctrine (Bonnafous-Boucher & Pesqueux, 2005).

Perdue (2004:253) contends that in identifying tourism stakeholders, their complex relations and possible power dynamics, the stakeholder theory has been instrumental in recognizing issues and problems therein. The theory has been fundamental not only in informing managers on the values, attitudes and behaviours of tourism stakeholders but in also giving greater insight into their perceptions, needs, motivations, and ability to influence tourism enterprise (Donohoe *et al.*, 2015:22). Further, the stakeholder theory has also inspired better and innovative conflict resolution strategies to ecologically and culturally sensitive areas by demystifying stakeholders' power dynamics and improving on long term planning and sustainable tourism development (Donohoe *et al.*, 2015:23; Perdue, 2004:253).

Figure 2.3 below depicts an organization's typical stakeholders.

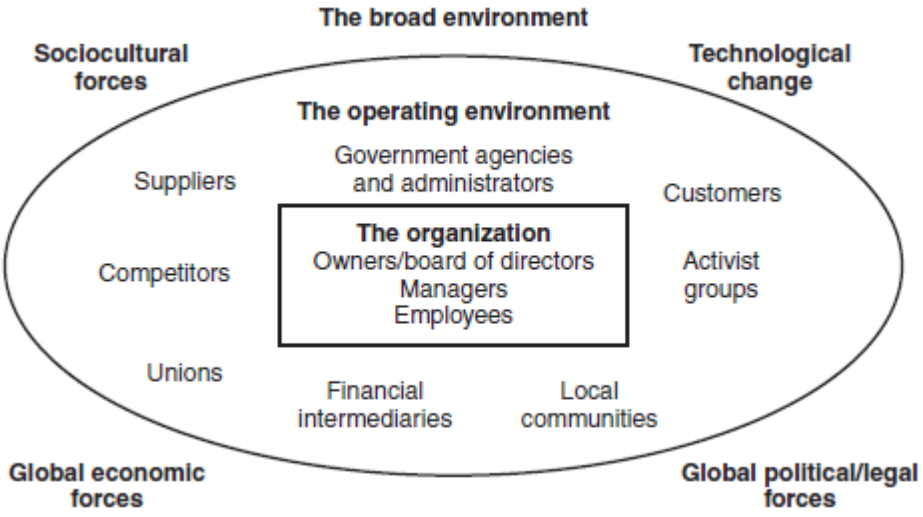


Figure 2-3: The organisation and its primary stakeholders

Source: Adapted from Freeman et al. (2010); Bonnafous-Boucher & Pesqueux (2005); Donohoe et al. (2015)

The stakeholder theory is not without criticism. Perdue (2004:253) argues that the theory is 'managerial' and for it to purport to stand for equality, fairness, morality, and ethics makes it ambiguous. This implies that managers of organisations are at the forefront of adopting and implementing decisions and this may pose challenges of bias and intended fairness. Donohoe *et al.* (2015:23) concur by adding that the stakeholder theory has failed to stamp out disparity as there continues to be inequality between stakeholders with local business owners and communities failing to make a mark in the decision-making processes. There remains limited understanding of the tools and processes that are required for a meaningful and successful tourism stakeholder collaboration, and this necessitates the need for further research into the stakeholder theory, success, and sustainability (Donohoe *et al.*, 2015:24).

It is on the premise of the discussion above that this research intends to proffer solutions and better ways through which successful stakeholder collaboration and meaningful community participation in the form of tourism value chain ownership by communities can be achieved.

2.5 Community participation: challenges and guidelines

The implementation of community participation and community involvement in tourism activities faces mammoth challenges in developing countries (Bello *et al.*, 2018:311). A quick glance at recent scientific studies depicts the major challenges faced by communities in their quest for participation and inclusion in local tourism ventures. The challenges are identified as: centralization of public administration and poor coordination; poverty and apathy; unfair distribution of tourism benefits; human-wildlife conflicts; lack of trained human resources in tourism planning; inadequate information and financial resources; and low levels of education for locals (Akamani *et al.*, 2015; Bello *et al.*, 2018; Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018; Hatipoglu *et al.*, 2016; Kala & Bagri, 2018; Velnisa Paimin *et al.*, 2014).

These challenges compel authorities to come up with clear cut strategies if model community participation is to be achieved (Bello *et al.*, 2018; Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018; Kala & Bagri, 2018). These strategies will aim at, above all, ensuring that the community voices are captured and that there is a facilitation of a socially equitable decision-making process that chooses the right participation mechanisms and different techniques for the different situations (Bello *et al.*, 2018).

Bello *et al.* (2018) advances the following strategies as prerequisites for full and active community participation:

- **Raising public awareness and education in tourism.** There is need for all tourism planning stakeholders to acquire basic understanding of tourism development issues (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018; Palmer & Chuamuangphan, 2018). Public awareness of the process and role of tourism, its benefits, and costs is pivotal. Education is a tool that can arm the public with the knowledge of the tourism process and enlighten them on their possible roles thereby assisting them in making meaningful contributions to the participation process.

- **Capacity building.** It is critical that there is capacity building for all the community tourism stakeholders**.** While it can be argued that local people need their capacity build more than any other group in as far as understanding how the tourism

industry works, it should be underscored that the tourism planning authorities and other groups need training in tourism planning for them to facilitate effective participation of locals (Mubanga & Umar, 2016; Paddison & Biggins, 2017)**.**

- **Creating linkages**. Linkages between the local communities and the tourists or the tourism industry will provide the locals with direct and equal access to the tourism benefits, thereby eliminating the challenge of unfair distribution. By creating linkages, local people will also be able to access the tourism market and sell their no-capital intensive products such as handcrafts and local food ultimately enhancing community participation (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018; Paddison & Biggins, 2017; Palmer & Chuamuangphan, 2018). Local traditions and cultural festivities may also be revived and packaged as products to tourists.

- **Creation and use of appropriate local community-based organisations.** Intermediary and local organisations are pivotal in supporting local communities' endeavours in participatory development programmes. Community-based organisations, which are vital in facilitating the collaboration between authorities and locals, work as conduits through which participation can be enhanced (Bello *et al.*, 2018; Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018). Community-based organisations act as the conductor in providing points of contact with the villagers resulting in improved participation by local communities. Efficient community-based organisations are structured in such a way that they exclude the traditional leadership and their influences yet are accepted by both the traditional leadership and the local community.

- **Use of appropriate community participation methods.** Varied forms of participation ensure that more people are involved in the participation process as this takes into account the diverse skill sets, talents, and interests of the participants (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018). Similarly, different stages of the tourism planning and participation process will require the use of different methods (e.g., surveys, meetings, focus group discussions, nominal group technique) (Bello *et al.*, 2018; Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018). While all methods have their shortcomings,

the use of multiple methods will ensure that one method will make up for the shortcomings of another.

- **Decentralisation and coordination of local organisations.** According to Tosun (2007) and Bello *et al.* (2018:317), without the devolution of administrative, financial, and political control by national authorities to local authority organisations, implementation of community participation in tourism planning will always be problematic. Consequently, decentralisation of public administration roles facilitates smooth coordination of stakeholders thereby enhancing local community participation (Dragouni & Fouseki, 2018). Adequately funded and staffed administrative structures with decision-making powers must be cascaded down to the lowest administrative unit for effective community participation to be attained.

While it is clear from the analysis above that the implementation of the proffered strategies will go a long way in advancing the ideals of long-term sustainable development and to better community participation and involvement in tourism, it would be a case of gross misjudgement and mistaken assumption if one is to conclude that these strategies are all it takes to attain effective community involvement and participation in tourism. This is a view shared by Scholtz (2014:36), who alleges that adhering to these guidelines will not guarantee the sustainability of the industry as social impact factors also come into play. For this reason, the next section will review the social impact of tourism.

2.6 Social impacts of tourism

Since planning and management by destination authorities and resort areas is mostly aimed at containing the impacts tourism has on society (Mason, 2008:42), it is imperative for this study to focus on the impacts associated with tourism on society. This section will unlock the fundamentals of the social impacts of tourism. This will be achieved by categorically looking into the term ‘social impact’; critiquing the various theoretical frameworks that attempt to explain social impacts of tourism; assessing instruments that measure social impacts of tourism; and discussing the factors that influence social impacts on communities.

2.6.1 Social impact explained

Cascetta (2009:624) defines social impacts as changes in social values and the relationships among people in their social institutions. Cascetta (2009:624) further contends that not only do these changes affect cohesion and stability of local communities, but they also alter social equity and socioeconomic status as well as impede community members' access to social activities. Similarly and perhaps more elaborately, Scholtz (2014:37) argues that social impact is the change, either positive or negative, to a society's system of values, norms, traditions and structures, as a result of exposure to foreign cultures due to the activity of tourism. For purposes of this research, these changes (social impact) are taking place in communities wherein the tourism activities abound.

In as much as tourism impacts are viewed under the conventional headings of socio-cultural, economic, and environmental impacts, it should, however, be kept in mind that tourism issues are multi-faceted as they have interrelated dimensions (Mason, 2008:36; Ryan, 2003:268). It should also be noted that the view that social impacts of tourism can be beneficial or detrimental, and whether they are negative or positive, depends on the value position and judgement of the observer (Mason, 2008:36).

Various scholars have studied and put forward a myriad of impacts that tourism development has had on different communities over time (Beeton, 2006; Mason, 2008; Mowforth & Munt, 2016; Murphy & Murphy, 2004; Smith, 1989). Table 2.2 below gives an overview of social impacts under the headings of tourism development, tourist-host interactions, and cultural impacts. The impacts portrayed in Table 2.2 are not qualified as to whether they are positive/beneficial or detrimental/negative for a reason, or whether some are better off than others, because as Beeton (2006:19) puts it, these impacts are often both negative and positive for different people in different situations. Beeton (2006:19) adds on by contending that the extent to which these impacts will affect communities will vary and depend mostly on the rate of the change brought in by tourism development, the willingness of the community to embrace such change, as well as the dynamics of the community in question. Factors that influence tourism's social impacts shall be dealt with in detail in a later section of this chapter.

While there is no dispute that when it works, tourism is an outstanding agent for community development, it should be noted that its negative impacts often show once it is too late and costly to correct some of these impacts (Beeton, 2006; Murphy & Murphy, 2004).

Table 2-2: Social impacts of tourism

Tourism development	Modifies the internal structure of the community
	Divides the community into those who have/have not relationships with tourists
	Has colonialist characteristics
	Employment in tourism offers more opportunities for women
	Instigates social change
	Improves quality of life through infrastructure development
	Increased pressure on existing infrastructure
Tourist–host interactions	The nature of contact influences attitudes/ behaviour/ values relating to tourism
	Young locals are most susceptible to the demonstration effect
	Cultural exchange/increased understanding and tolerance
	Increased social interaction increases communication skills
	Hosts adopt foreign languages through necessity
	Hosts develop coping behaviour and avoid unnecessary contact
Cultural impacts	Arts, crafts and local culture revitalised
	Acculturation process likely to occur
	Assumed negative effects of commodification of culture
	Meaning/authenticity not necessarily lost

Source: Beeton (2006:18)

To get a better understanding of how the social impacts of tourism work, the next section will focus on various theoretical frameworks that attempt to explain host communities' perceptions towards these social impacts.

2.6.2 Theoretical models and frameworks predicting perceptions

Various theoretical models on the social impacts of tourism have been put forward by different scholars who have tried to explain the drivers of the social impacts as well as try measure their impact on host communities. These theoretical frameworks provide the basis upon which an understanding can be drawn of how tourism influences society and how society reacts to such influences. As mentioned earlier, there are many social impact theories, and for the purposes of this research the focus shall be on reviewing the following selected theories: (i) the acculturation and social exchange theory; (ii) the social representation theory (SRT); (iii) Smith's model of cross-cultural contact; (iv) Doxey's irridex model of host irritation; (v) Butler's TALC; and (vi) Perez and Nadal's host community perception clusters. While these models may not necessarily be homogeneous and may noy apply to social impact only, they provide different points of view to look at tourism impact. These models have been particularly chosen for their popularity in providing an understanding of how the tripartite of tourism activities, tourists, and host communities interact and feel towards each other.

2.6.2.1 Acculturation and social exchange theory

The acculturation and social exchange theory is one model that highlights to a certain extent changes tourism brings to a community and the social impacts thereof by focusing on the interactions between guests and hosts (Beeton, 2006:41). This model describes a two-way exchange of ideas between guests and hosts in a tourism set up, from guests to hosts and vice versa. It further distinguishes between two possible outcomes of interaction: an 'exchange' and 'no exchange', where the former takes place when ideas have been traded between the two parties while the latter takes place when nothing meaningful or tangible has been exchanged by the guests and hosts.

Beeton (200:41) further argues that the model stipulates that the exchange is evaluated by both parties and where it is positive to all there is likely to be a perpetuation of the exchange, whereas if it is deemed negative by either party or both there is likely to be cessation of the exchange. Brannen and Mughan (2017:40) and Beeton (2006:41) argue that the exchange is mostly unequal and leads to acculturation, which happens when the less dominant culture is overwhelmed by the elements (wealth, language, education, etc.)

of the dominant culture as a result of the exchange. Such is often the case with tourism in developing nations where most tourists are of a wealthier and more educated background than the host communities.

An analysis of this theory illustrates that while it was developed for economics it is very relevant in explaining the resident perceptions on the social impacts of tourism on their community. In most cases where there has been an exchange that is perceived to be valuable to the host community, there is likely to be support for that activity as it will be beneficial to the community. Similarly, where the exchange is negative, and the exchange has been undesirable to the community, not only will there be lack of support but also resentment towards the activity. The social exchange theory is unique in that it delves into the nature of the guest-host relations. However, in the same way that the previous theories have shortcomings, it fails to suggest ways and roles that can be played by both the host communities and tourists to better the exchange process and ensure that it is beneficial to both.

2.6.2.2 Social representation theory

With its roots firmly placed in psychology, the SRT explores the socially shared knowledge of communities such as values, ideas, and practices that influence how community members feel, think, and behave (O'Connor, 2017:3). Lins *et al.* (2019:45) suggest that social representations can be defined as socially created and shared forms of knowledge that help create a common reality for a community. Similarly, Sharpley (2014), cited by Suess and Mody (2016:22), define social representations as influences within a society that determine people's social reality (behaviour and thinking) in line with their values, knowledge and explanations.

Social representations, as Moscovici (1973), cited by O'Connor (2017:3), puts it, provide an insight into how people perceive their social world, both individually and collectively, with shared systems of meaning. Additionally, Moscovici (1963), cited by Lins *et al.* (2019:45), contends that social representations exist for two main purposes: to assist group members to familiarise with their social surroundings; and to facilitate the creation of a shared social linguistic code applicable and sensible to all members of the

community. Social representations therefore influence how people view the social world and ultimately determine how they behave.

The SRT is pivotal in providing an explanation to how residents perceive tourism as a social phenomenon as it provides a framework through which a better understanding of the community members' perceptions of tourism's impacts and their changed society can be achieved (Suess & Mody, 2016:22). The model is of the uncompromising conviction that residents' view on the impacts of tourism development (whether positive or negative) is socially derived (Lins *et al.*, 2019:45).

A review of literature on the SRT shows that the model has been useful in examining tourism impacts in two ways: (i) it provides justification to segment tourism communities according to their degree of support for tourism development, which has led to the development of cluster analysis frameworks such as that of Perez and Nadal, which will be alluded to later on this section; and (ii) it depicts communities as different to one another, implying that the type of segmentation that may work on one community may not be universally applicable to others (Suess & Mody, 2016:23).

The theory, however, is not without its criticism. It should be noted that in as much as the SRT is insightful in providing a rationale to the differences in community perceptions to the impacts of tourism, the theory fails to explain in detail the factors that lead to these perceptions.

2.6.2.3 Smith's model of cross-cultural contact

Smith's model identifies a positive relationship that exists between the development of tourism and the social impacts of tourism on the communities. Implying that, as tourism grows, so do the social impacts of tourism. Smith's model categorises tourists into groups (typologies) based on their numbers, goals and adaptation to local norms (Smith, 1989:11). This is illustrated by Table 2.3 below.

Smith (1989:12) uses two variants (number of tourists and adaptation to local norms) to group tourists with a similar 'lifestyle'. The following are the seven types of tourists he identifies:

- **Explorers** are the first to visit a destination and they come in very small numbers. Their presence is often unnoticed by the host community. They easily fit into the lifestyle of the locals by accepting their norms such as food and housing. The impact to tourism is at its barest minimum.

- **Elite** tourists are also small in numbers but noticeable to the community due to their 'tourist tendencies'. They are characterised by people who have visited other places. They make use of pre-arranged facilities and adapt fully and easily to the norms of the locals. The impact of elite tourists on the host community is insignificant.

- **Off-beat** tourists are those visitors that do things differently from other tourists. They seek to be away from the conventional tourist crowds and are fascinated by doing something beyond the norm and different from others. They adapt well with local norms and can put up with any service rendered to them. The impact on the host community is insignificant.

- **Unusual** tourists are fascinated by new culture but are not willing to get out of their comfort zones. In as much as they are adventurous, they prefer to stick to their own 'norms' such as their food and kind of accommodation, to mention two. They somewhat adapt to the local community. Although small, the impact on the community begins to be evident.

- **Incipient mass** tourism is characterised by a rising number of people visiting the destination. These people, however, still prefer travelling as individuals, albeit in small groups. The incipient mass tourist seeks Western amenities as he struggles with adapting to local norms. The impacts on the community start to be felt.

- **Mass** tourism takes place when there is a continuous and steady flow of tourists into a destination. Due to the diversity of the individual tastes, preferences, and needs there is a high impact on the community. These tourists expect Western amenities and believe they are entitled to it since they are spending their monies.

- **Charter** tourists arrive in massive numbers and have utter disregard for local norms as they demand Western amenities. Tourism development at this phase is at its peak. The destination and the local people are of little importance to charter tourists. The highest impact to community is felt at this stage**.**

Table 2-3: Impacts of tourist numbers on host communities

Type of tourist	Number of tourists	Adaptations to local norms	Community impact
Explorer	Very limited	Accepts fully	Very low 
Elite	Rarely seen	Adapts fully	
Off-beat	Uncommon, but seen	Adapts well	
Unusual	Occasional	Somewhat adapts	
Incipient mass	Steady flow	Seeks Western amenities	
Mass	Continuous influx	Expects Western amenities	
Charter	Massive arrivals	Demands Western amenities	Very high

Source: Adapted from Scholtz (2014:41); Smith (1989:12)

This model is helpful in uncovering the dynamics associated with the number of tourists and the relation it has to social impact. It is a yard stick which can be used by tourism planners to determine the stag a destination is at. However, the model fails to proffer solutions to avert the high impact tourism has on society.

2.6.2.4 Doxey's irridex model of host irritation

Just like the previously discussed theory (Smith's model of cross-cultural contact) that focused on the industry and its development, Doxey's irridex model of host irritation focuses on the changes on community, particularly social impacts, as the tourism industry develops (Beeton, 2006:39).

Doxey's model gives a rationale to the community responses to the effects of tourism development on social interrelations within the host community (Beeton, 2006:39; Murphy & Murphy, 2004:31). The model argues that the host community's level of tolerance to

tourism activities changes with its growing size and dominance (Murphy & Murphy, 2004:31).

This model identifies euphoria, apathy, annoyance, and antagonism as the four stages through which host communities go in response to the tourism-inspired development taking place around them (Beeton, 2006:39). As tourism commences the community is euphoric and enthusiastic about the prospects of economic and social benefits that may accrue from tourism. Apathy kicks in as community expectations from tourism are not met. As the visitor numbers increase, locals have to compete for scarce resources with tourists, which breeds annoyance. Antagonism is arrived at through further increases in tourist numbers coupled with inactivity on the part of authorities to address the issues of capacity.

Table 2-4: Doxey's irridex model of host irritation

	Social relationships	**Power relationships**
Euphoria	Visitors and investors welcome	Little planning or formalized control Greater potential for influence to be exerted by locals (not often taken)
Apathy	Visitors taken for granted More formal relationships between hosts and guests	Marketing is the prime focus of plans Tourism industry lobby grows in power
Annoyance	Resident misgivings about tourism Range of saturation points approached	Planners attempt to control by increasing infrastructure rather than limiting growth Local protest groups develop to challenge institutionalised tourism power
Antagonism	Irritations are openly expressed Residents perceive tourists as the cause of problems	Remedial planning to fight against pressures of increased promotion to offset declining reputation of destination Power struggle between interest groups

Source: Adapted from Murphy and Murphy (2004)

Murphy and Murphy (2004:31), together with Beeton (2006:40), draw parallels between Butler's TALC and Doxey's irridex model. Beeton (2006:40) is of the view that by combining the two models one creates a model that focuses on the tourist as well as the host community as the destination life cycle progresses. Murphy and Murphy (2004:31) further contend that Doxey and Butler are simply describing the same phenomenon from different perspectives, Butler focusing on the industry and development while Doxey focuses on host communities' reaction to the development.

It should be noted that just like the previous models, Doxey's irridex model, however, also fails to qualify the nature of the relationships that exists among the community members and between the community members and tourists. Beeton (2006:40) subscribes to this idea by stating that not all relations between the host community and the tourist are simple and inevitable. This model fails to outline what can be done to avoid the irritation of the hosts by the guests.

2.6.2.5 Butler's tourism area life cycle model

The relevance and importance of Butler's TALC model to tourism social impact studies can never be overstated. Developed by Richard Butler in 1980 while drawing inspiration from the business product life cycle, the model recognizes various stages through which destinations go development-wise in their 'lifetime' (Beeton, 2006:31; Murphy & Murphy, 2004:31). This is plotted on a curve that expresses the increase or decrease of visitors to the destination over time expressed in years. The model helps predict hosts' changing attitudes on tourism as development takes its toll on the community.

Beeton (2006:32) and Ryan (2003:269) enumerate the stages, in order of occurrence, as: exploration; involvement; development; consolidation; stagnation; and either decline or rejuvenation.

The first stage (exploration) is characterised by small numbers of visitors as the destination is only known to a few. There are limited and poor facilities for the support of tourism activities propelled by locals' ignorance to the needs of the visitors. It is at this stage that tourists are highly adventurous as they are looking for new places that have not yet been 'patronised' by the world. Ryan (2003:269) opines that the social impact at

exploration stage is small as commercial activities are non-existent because any business that support tourism is mostly individualistic or family based.

As the numbers increase the destination enters Stage 2 of the cycle, involvement. According to Beeton (2006:32), this stage is typified by locals' response to the business opportunities that are brought about by visitors' needs (such as accommodation, food, and transport). Host-guest relations are still harmonious, and guests have a high level of sympathy for the locals' way of life (Ryan, 2003:270). Social impact is still insignificant.

Stage 3 (development) is symptomatic of a steady rise in visitor numbers as destination awareness grows on the market as well as support and facilities for tourism (Beeton, 2006:32; Ryan, 2003:271). At this stage the destination is actively marketing the place through dissemination of vital and critical information pertinent to attracting tourists (Murphy & Murphy, 2004:31). Ryan (2003:271) argues that it is at this stage that the community becomes a tourist resort marred by "Plog's (1977) mid-centric' or Cohen's (1979) 'institutionalised tourists'". As multinational tourism service players take centre stage, the relationships between tourists and guests change. Social impacts become evident and are felt, so that only those residents involved in tourism (businesses and employment) still find tourism beneficial.

Mass tourism kicks in at Stage 4 (consolidation) where capacity levels are reached, and when capacity levels are stretched, Stage 5 (stagnation) is reached. The destination fails to cope with the social and environmental impacts of high-volume tourism leading to a decline in visitor numbers until the destination fails (Beeton, 2006:32). Social impacts are at their peak during last two stages of Butler's TALC cycle. With the tourist/resident ratio becoming so high, and developments that are dominated by the needs of visitors, relationships between local residents and visitors are strained (Ryan, 2003:273). The changing land use patterns which creates buffer zones between tourists and hosts, which Ryan (2003:273) argues will minimise the social impact, might actually fuel resentment of the tourists by the locals.

Butler's TALC is illustrated in Figure 2.4 below.

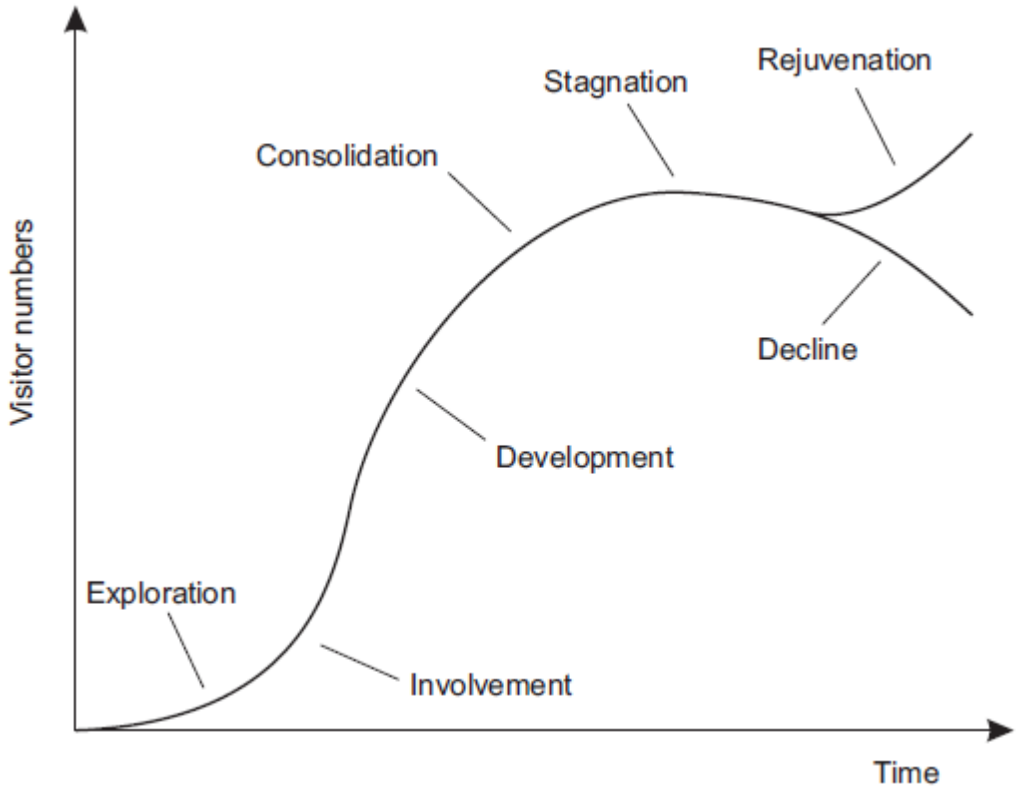


Figure 2-4: Butler's tourism area life cycle

Source: Adapted from Beeton (2006)

This theory is critical to understanding hosts' attitudes and perceptions towards tourism as it identifies the changes that take place at the destination area and its relationship with the host community. The model allows for resident/visitor relationships to be considered in two ways: (i) micro-individual interchanges and (ii) macro-social impacts (Ryan, 2003:274). Micro-individual interchanges measure the individual host's experiences with tourists in line with their arrival and duration of stay while macro-social impacts relate to the way the collective society responds to the growing levels of tourism (Ryan, 2003:274).

However, while it can be argued that the tourist area life cycle identifies what happens at the host community, a closer look at Butler's model depicts an emphasis cum bias toward the tourism industry and its development. Little is suggested as to what can be done to involve the community in tourism planning and development. Rather, measures proffered in the model have a lot to do in revamping the destination for attracting more visitor numbers and very little with the alleviation of social impacts on the community.

2.6.2.6 Perez and Nadal's host community perception clusters

A more recent model that also depicts the social impact of tourism on the community is Perez and Nadal's host community perception clusters. This model is a by-product of a study conducted by Perez and Nadal on tourism development issues that affected the residents of Balearic Islands of Spain, resulting in the advancement of a framework that sought to explain the residents' attitude towards tourism development (Perez & Nadal, 2005).

The framework categorises five different attitudes towards tourism development represented by opinion groups using a cluster analysis. The Perez and Nadal (2005) study concludes that community hosts are generally indecisive over developments that bring about an increase in the number of tourists as some developments receive support while others are resisted.

Perez and Nadal (2005:933-938) classify the following clusters:

- **Development supporters** – residents in this cluster are of the unwavering belief that tourism is better for the community since it presents opportunities for business and employment. They believe tourism helps conserve the environment and historical monuments. They find the interactions with tourists mutually positive and refuse to accept that tourism development is responsible for social ills such as over-saturation of public services, high price levels, and traffic congestion. Ultimately, they support any development that will drive up the numbers of tourist arrivals.

- **Prudent developer** – while this group is convinced that tourism development brings business and employment opportunities, they are also aware of the negative impacts (such as change to local culture, traffic congestion, inflation, over-saturation of public services, environmental destruction, and more) that tourism has brought to the society. They, however, believe that the balance of tourism is generally positive as it helps conserve historical monuments and provide for leisure. Members of this cluster find the interactions between residents and tourists to be highly positive. They believe in alternative forms of tourism that can

manage tourists' volumes in such a way that peaks are lowered, and troughs are raised.

- **Ambivalent and cautious** – members of this cluster are neither impressed by the developmental prospects brought by tourism development nor are they worried by the negative impacts likely to be faced. In as much as they recognise certain positive aspects of tourism such as leisure, they also blame it for the destruction of the environment. They believe tourist arrivals should be managed in such a way that they are reduced in summer (peak periods) and increased in winter (low periods).

- **Protectionists** – this group is mainly concerned with the negative impacts brought about by the development of tourism. They are opposed to new tourism development projects because to them, there is an overall negative balance between tourism's benefits and ills. This group refuses to believe that tourism has increased leisure opportunities for residents, instead they believe it has contributed significantly to the demise of the environment. They dislike tourism industry players such as hoteliers and believe that they should be taxed heavily. They advocate for the drastic reduction of tourist arrivals.

- **Alternative developers** – The most important thing for this group is the sustainable development of tourism. They support tourism development that will bring moderate growth and are sceptical of new attractions that will cause a surge in tourist arrivals. They believe tourism is highly beneficial when managed properly. To them, tourism has brought so many economic opportunities and has been a medium through which historical, cultural, and natural resources have been preserved. Special emphasis is put on reducing tourist numbers during peak periods.

2.6.2.7 Similarities and differences between models

While all the above theories explain the social impact of tourism on communities, they do so to varying degrees and a closer look at them depicts that they are not without their

differences and similarities. Scholtz (2014:46) sets the tone by identifying three major similarities: (i) all the theories and models reviewed attempt to measure and predict the social impact tourism has on various communities; (ii) they all attempt to illustrate the extent of the impacts on communities by providing some form of an impact scale (small to big impacts); and (iii) all the models are in agreement that tourism development in its infancy brings benefits to the local communities and also point out the possible local community outrage if further tourism development is not managed to minimise the social impact on the local communities.

By the same breath, the theoretical frameworks exhibit some differences. Whereas Butler's TALC focuses on the industry development and how residents respond to the development stages, Doxey's irridex model's emphasis is on the residents' responses (irritation levels) to the development of tourism in their community. Further, while Smith's model of cross-cultural contact is preoccupied by the different types of tourists and how they differently impact on the community, Perez and Nadal's cluster analysis groups members of the community in how they respond to tourism development. The social representation theory stands out in that it focuses on the personalities of community members as a measure to be used in how they will likely react to tourism development in their areas.

It should be noted that even in their differences, the theories still depict social impact on communities. Their differences provide for diversity upon which they serve to complement each other and contribute to a wider body of knowledge. While these theories predict social impact, they fall short in explaining how different communities react differently to tourism. To have a full understanding of the social impact of tourism on different communities, one is compelled to investigate the varied influences on community responses to tourism development. The next section will explore the different factors that influence social impact of tourism on communities.

2.6.3 Factors influencing social impact

According to Ryan (2003:277-280) and Telfer and Sharpley (2008:176), different communities will react differently to tourism development as their varied characteristics and circumstances within which they find themselves will determine the level of social

impacts they will experience. Wall (1997), cited by Mason (2008:38), recognises three significant factors that affect the nature of social impact: the nature of interactions between the guests and hosts; the type of tourism activities engaged in; and the characteristics of the host community. Telfer and Sharpley (2008:178) and Kreag (2001:13) broadly categorise the determinants into two: tourist factors and destination factors.

2.6.3.1 Community factors

The following factors play a significant role in determining the community members' attitudes and perceptions toward tourism development in their vicinity:

- **Social structures** – the size of the community, the way the community is set up, religion, culture practices, language, norms, and moral codes are all critical to the extent of impact at the destination (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:179). The bigger the communities are in relation to tourism activities, the less likely the impact is to be felt and vice versa.

- **Rate of growth and tourism development** – there is a relationship between tourism development and its impact on tourism (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:179). Slower developments affords time to residents to react and make changes for the better while rapid development will strain community infrastructure and lead to resident dissatisfaction (Kreag, 2001:17).

- **Political structures** – local and national political structures will influence the social impact on communities as their diligence in policy formulation and implementation will be critical to the extent of impact to be felt by the communities (Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:179).

- **Economic structures and the stage of development** – the stage of tourism development with reference to Butler's model (reviewed earlier) will influence the degree of impact (Beeton, 2006; Ryan, 2003). Impacts are likely greater in advanced stages of tourism development. Strong and diverse economies have the

power to seek for tourism that complements community goals whereas weaker economies will likely settle for anything (Kreag, 2001:16-17; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:179).

- **Degree of involvement in tourism** – local involvement in tourism development helps residents to identify with tourism as they receive benefits such as profits, incentives and salaries (Kreag, 2001:16). The more involved the locals are the more the tourism development is supported.

- **Spatial characteristics of tourism development** – by separating tourist areas from local residents' areas occurrences of conflict is significantly reduced (Kreag, 2001:16). While the sharing of local amenities (such as parks, museums, beaches, plazas) can help create harmony between guests and hosts, resentment is likely to kick in when locals are pushed away by either geography or prices (Kreag, 2001:16).

- **Viability of host culture** – strong and active cultures are less likely to be changed, unlike weak cultures, because active cultures are driven by local pride and provide education to tourists on local cultural practices (Kreag, 2001:16; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:179). Hence viability of host culture will determine the extent of the impact on the community.

- **Public transport options** – availability of a viable and robust public transport system (buses, shuttles, trains, and cabs) can significantly reduce traffic congestion and its absence will be catastrophic (Kreag, 2001:17; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:179).

- **History of stability in the community** – strong local economies, charismatic local leaders, and active planning can assist to position tourism development in line with the community's valued projects and geography (Kreag, 2001:17).

- **Character and sensitivity of the environment** – some environments are more susceptible, prone to, and sensitive to change than others, the same way some take more time to recover from the change than others do (Kreag, 2001:17; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:179).

2.6.3.2 Visitor factors

From the literature, the following visitor-related determinants of residents' attitudes and perceptions toward tourism development in their communities can be identified:

- **Tourists type and volume** – whereas Kreag (2001:14) is of the view that in most cases smaller numbers of tourists are modest in their interactions with the local environment and people and that the same cannot be said of larger groups of tourists, Telfer and Sharpley (2008:178), argue that in some instances larger groups of tourists may cause relatively smaller negative impact on communities. Nevertheless, greater negative impacts are usually associated with high-volume tourism. Visitor demographics such as age, gender, profession, marital and family status, and level of education have a great influence on tourist behaviour and how they interact with locals, thereby influencing the nature of impact to be felt at the destination (Kreag, 2001:14; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:178)**.**

- **Mass arrivals and departures** – closely linked to tourists type and volume is how tourists arrive and depart**.** International events and festivals normally cause mass arrivals and departures for tourists in a destination area (Kreag, 2001:14). Social impact is greater with mass arrivals and departures as this puts a strain on services such as transport, roads (congestion), restaurants, and accommodation.

- **Tourism activities selected** – the activities the tourists are going to be engaged in will determine the extent of social impact on the community. Educational, cultural, and historical tourism tend to have lower social impact whereas recreational and entertainment activities may be at loggerheads with locals' values (Kreag, 2001:15; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:178).

- **Length of stay** – there is a direct relationship between the length of stay and the likely social impact that will be felt at the destination area**.** The impact caused by tourists who stay longer (whether negative or positive) will be greater than the impact caused by those who stay shorter at a destination area (Kreag, 2001:14; Telfer & Sharpley, 2008:178)**.**

- **Links to community residents** – when there are links between tourists and local residents there most likely will be: (i) high interaction between guests and hosts; (ii) better appreciation of local cultural norms and values; and (iii) high likelihood of recurring visitations (Kreag, 2001:15).

- **Economic characteristics** – this will influence spending choices and purchasing power of the tourists, either giving them greater or lesser access to different places (Kreag, 2001:15). Similarly, another source of social impact lies in the economic inequalities, as (Scholtz, 2014:54) argues that the greater the difference in economic standing between the residents and tourists the greater the resentment the locals will have towards the tourists.

- **Demonstration effect of tourists** – this takes place when local residents observe and imitate the behaviour, dress, habits, and mannerisms of tourists (Mowforth & Munt, 2016; Murphy & Murphy, 2004). The copied behaviour can be negative as in the case of excessive drinking and prostitution but can also be positive as they learn new languages and different ways of life (Beeton, 2006; Singh *et al.*, 2003).

- **Cultural and language differences** – differences in culture often lead to misunderstandings between the tourists and host, either because of misinterpretation or partaking in behaviour that could be culturally unaccepted by locals such as dressing in overly revealing attire. Language, on the other hand, plays a significant role in connecting people and where it is difficult to communicate, misunderstandings abound (Kreag, 2001:15)

2.7 Chapter summary

This chapter set out to analyse how societies function as well as how tourism fits in society. This was done by looking into the field of sociology, particularly the various sociological perspectives and theories, to provide an understanding of how people interact socially. Communities and their compositions were also discussed before elaborating on how tourism fits in communities and vice versa. This chapter revealed that communities' perception and attitude towards tourism are influenced by how society is set up. The chapter further revealed how tourism brings with it impacts onto the communities where it takes place and how management of these impacts is critical for the continued support of tourism by host communities. While participation of communities in tourism is one such way of bringing benefits to the community and minimise its impact, participation alone has fallen short of advancing equitable benefits to tourism communities. For this reason, Chapter 3 focuses on the ownership of the tourism value chain as a medium through which rural communities can be genuinely and equitably involved in tourism.

CHAPTER 3: COMMUNITY OWNERSHIP

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter has shown how societal set-up has a bearing on communities' participation in tourism as it shapes their perceptions and attitude towards tourism. As it has been shown, however, mere participation in tourism has been inadequate in influencing a positive social impact and in the advancement of society's developmental and empowerment initiatives. Community and mutual ownership of the tourism value chain have recently been singled out by community development experts and policymakers for having the potential to contribute toward the tourism society's economy and welfare (Jones *et al.*, 2014; Rylance & Spenceley, 2016; Woodin *et al.*, 2010). This potential, it is argued, can only be realised when there is the underlying understanding of factors influencing community sense of ownership, appreciation of various community ownership models as well as their practice, and application implications (Jones *et al.*, 2014; Lachapelle, 2008; Woodin *et al.*, 2010).

The aim of this chapter is therefore to review literature on community ownership of the tourism value chain as medium through which communities can attain equitable benefits from tourism. Since in most cases community ownership has focused on natural resources (such as land), ownership of resources shall be looked at before switching to the ownership of the tourism value chain. For this reason, this chapter, through a synthesis of various studies and literature, shall put forward a detailed discussion on community sense of ownership and its critical elements; the historical overview of community ownership; models of community and mutual ownership; community tourism value chain ownership; and the barriers and possible solutions to successful tourism business ownership by the communities.

3.2 Community ownership

From the outset, Lachapelle (2008) points out that while the terms "ownership" and "sense of ownership" have dominated contemporary community development literature, there is a scarceness of research regarding what these terms really mean. By the same breath,

Lachapelle (2008) reckons that the terms “ownership” and “sense of ownership” can be used interchangeably and alludes to their closely linked meanings.

Various definitions from various scholars provide insight into community ownership. The Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2019) sets the tone by defining communal ownership as the ownership of land and other properties by the whole community so that all members have the right of usage to the property or parts of it. Woodin *et al.* (2010) are of the view that community and mutual ownership mostly refers to the ownership of common property, fostered, and cherished democracy and self-will, that ultimately leads to a feeling of common benefit and a sense of social justice. In a similar light, Global CHE Network (2019) is of the view that community ownership is attained only when people come together and volunteer to work to accomplish their own plans and goals through the use of resources available to them in order to shape their own destiny. While the community ownership definition by the Merriam-Webster Dictionary (2019) and Woodin *et al.* (2010) make reference to the community having rights to the usage of owned property, the Global CHE Network (2019) definition provides for the conditions in which community ownership can be attained. The latter definition closes the door on outside actors and their material input by emphasising local community members taking centre stage and using their resources in the ownership process.

Jones *et al.* (2014) and Hampton and Jeyacheya (2015) stipulate that the ownership of community assets and organisations should not be haphazard but rather happen via a well organised representative mechanism through which community members exert their influence on operational activities and obtain benefits arising thereof. This ultimately leads to increased responsiveness to pressing community needs and high valuing of community projects (Hlengwa & Mazibuko, 2018; Jones *et al.*, 2014; Matilainen *et al.*, 2018; Siri & Chantraprayoon, 2017).

Lachapelle (2008) is clear about it that the concept of community ownership is mainly interested in identifying those residents whose voices are heard and whose decisions are influential as well as those affected by the decisions. Lachapelle (2008) further contends that the concept of community ownership aims at the strategic pooling of ideas, interests, and actions of various community stakeholders for the betterment of the community.

The notion of community ownership is also premised on the idea that if people are genuinely and authentically engaged, there is likely to be an upsurge of dedication to and support for community development projects which will ultimately result in a community-wide desired outcome. Simpson, Wood, and Daws (2003); Bessant (2005); Bowen (2005); and Zimmerman and Meyer (2005), cited by Lachapelle (2008), are in agreement that the term ownership applies greatly to community development perspectives. Lachapelle (2008) is of the uncompromising opinion that community ownership is not only a critical element in determining the potential for community stakeholder buy-in but also, subsequently, in the advancement of community members' involvement in community planning and development efforts.

3.2.1 Lachapelle's critical elements for community ownership

Lachapelle (2008) points out that ownership has, since time immemorial, been associated with the direct and exclusive control of physical property supported by legal rights known as title. In submitting that direct ownership of property is regarded as the fundamental constituent for the development of a capitalistic socioeconomic dispensation, Lachapelle (2008) identifies four requisite characteristics for a sense of community ownership to ensue:

- Ownership in process
- Ownership in outcome
- Ownership in distribution
- Ownership through trust

Each of these are reviewed below.

3.2.1.1 Ownership in process

Ownership in process stipulates that the community members are involved in all the community developmental efforts. This can be attained by devising a process that identifies methods that will help examine and determine all legitimate community voices and the order of importance of the voices in the community's development agenda (Lachapelle, 2008). Legitimate voices are better suited in identifying and defining the

problems faced and the likely solutions envisaged by the community. Framing of problems will not only drive underlying assumptions but will also help in choosing the appropriate strategy to be used that will eventually inspire a community-wide acceptable quality plan (Brummans *et al.*, 2008; Gray, 2003).

The way problems are defined (such as legitimacy, meanings, claims, and feasibility) as well as the privileging ideas, can either benefit or harm individuals as they have a bearing on individual interactions and how they will address the situations (Boggs, 2014; Fischer, 2004; Laura, 2006; Williams & Matheny, 1995; Ynalvez, 2015). This implies that community members may likely view problems from different lenses to those of the experts thereby forming a divide in developmental efforts.

Scott (1998), cited by Lachapelle (2008), argues that in most cases, sadly, experts have very little faith and confidence in the community members' intelligence, experience, skills, and understanding of their own problems and their suggestions for solutions, a situation he refers to as "high modernist ideology". Similarly, Williams and Matheny (1995:53) make reference to what they term "pathology of power" where a few experts and a select few community members control how information is collected, verified, and disseminated. A summary verdict on this practice is given by Lachapelle (2008) who contends that disregarding people's voices and imposing definitions on the community can only lead to resistance - ultimately diminishing a sense of ownership.

Therefore, a sense of ownership puts at the epicentre the need for analysis of different community voices, especially the suppressed, in all community development situations by providing platforms through which members define and negotiate their problems and situations (Boggs, 2014; Ynalvez, 2015).

3.2.1.2 Ownership in outcome

Ownership in outcome is mainly concerned with identifying those members within the community who have an influence on decisions and ultimately control the aftermath (Lachapelle, 2008). The redistribution of the influence over decisions, which is critical for the success of ownership in outcome, is, however, often a complicated matter made difficult by differences in legal structures across different jurisdictions (such as local,

provincial, and national) (Boggs, 2014; Fischer, 2004; Laura, 2006; Ynalvez, 2015). In most cases, while community members feel the responsibility to impact on decisions and development outcomes, they are not presented with the opportunity to do so (Boggs, 2014; Lachapelle, 2008). For community members to participate in meaningful community development efforts it is therefore fundamental that they retain a significant amount of influence over the decision-making process.

Ownership in outcome quashes Arnstein's (1969) "tokenism" whereby community members are consulted on their developmental issues only as a gesture of good faith by the experts (Coghlan & Brydon-Miller, 2014; Commers, 2013; Flores, 2005; Gershman, 2013; Lloyd, 2005; Mendonca *et al.*, 2014). Ownership in outcome is in favour of giving significant power to community members as it does not only make them appreciate the need for knowledge but also drives away indifference and apathy towards their community's development initiatives (Boggs, 2014; Ynalvez, 2015).

While supreme decision-making power might be viewed by others as somewhat impractical and legally impossible, ownership in outcome can be alternatively promoted through provision of different forms of information, inspiring public participation, and by encouraging interaction between expert developers and community members (Bunting, 2015; Graziano, 2016; Lachapelle, 2008; Mayer & Rajavuori, 2017). This, therefore, renders supreme the analysis of decision-making dynamics in communities.

3.2.1.3 Ownership in distribution

Ownership in distribution is, in line with Lachapelle (2008) resonance, the third characteristic requisite for a viable community sense of ownership and is preoccupied with the allocation of ownership across various spheres of the community (socio-economic, political, and ecological). Mayer and Rajavuori (2017) and Graziano (2016) further contend that ownership in distribution encompasses the analysis of those community members affected by decisions made, especially how the impacts of the decisions are distributed, accepted, and owned both in the short and the long term. Bunting (2015), Lachapelle (2008) and Boggs (2014) are in agreement that this analysis should not only be limited to the physicality of the nucleus community housing the development initiative but rather be of an all-inclusive scope involving citizens of the entire

region and the nation. Ynalvez (2015) adds on that applying the concept of ownership in distribution broadens the horizon by shifting focus from the present to future generations, especially where decisions made today have a great bearing on the costs and benefits to be realised by future citizens of the community.

In summary, ownership in distribution urges for the evaluation and differentiation of the effects that certain community members' decisions have on the community by identifying those who create a condition and those who will be affected by it (Lachapelle, 2008).

3.2.1.4 Ownership through trust

Ownership through trust is premised on the idea that the potential, success, or failure of a community development initiative is determined by the levels of trust the community has in the outside experts. Trust is distinguished as neither being a behaviour nor a choice that human beings possess, but rather an underlying condition accountable for their behaviour (Lachapelle, 2008; Lachapelle & Austin, 2014). There exists a positive relationship between the levels of community trust and the success of community development projects, implying that the higher the trust the greater the chances of success for community development projects.

Rousseau *et al.* (1998); Wolf (2001); Seligman (2000); and Newton (2001) have the general consensus that in community development, trust is of utmost importance psychologically, socially, economically, and politically in determining how humans behave and interact. Ynalvez (2015) and Boggs (2014) further underscore the significance of trust by arguing that it has the ability to: (i) inculcate positive relationships between community members and authorities; (ii) augment learning of multiple forms of knowledge which results in the creation of community-driven solutions; (iii) champion dialogue that reduces conflicts, and promote fairness, civic virtue, and patriotism; and (iv) expedite a futuristic approach to development initiatives. Without trust it becomes difficult for community development initiatives for community ownership to be successful. The next section, therefore, investigates the various ways in which trust in communities can be built.

3.2.2 Building community ownership

The Global CHE Network, which is an international grouping of organisations in service of underprivileged and rural communities around the globe, provides interesting insights into the way community ownership can be built. The Global CHE Network (2019) stance on community ownership is somewhat radical: it emphasizes the need for local community members to be self-sufficient both in situation/problem detection as well as proffering of solutions. Global CHE Network (2019) is sceptical of the role played by outside actors especially that of providing material and financial resources as they strongly subscribe to the notion that 'he who pays the piper determines the tune'. When community members make use of their own resources in community ownership initiatives the Global CHE Network (2019) contends that the community is able to advance their unadulterated interests and be in a position to control their own destiny.

The Global CHE Network (2019) advances four points that ought to be considered for building successful community ownership:

- Challenges of outside solutions and funding.
- Benefits of local solutions and resources.
- Common mistakes made by outsiders in local projects.
- Desired outsiders' roles in community ownership development.

Each of these are subsequently reviewed.

3.2.2.1 Challenges of outside solutions and funding

One of the challenges of relying on outside solutions and funding is that it creates community dependency on outside actors (Chiutsi & Saarinen, 2017; Cornwall, 2008). When locals are accustomed to outside funding, they seldom seek for their own solutions to challenges. Another challenge lies in the fact that, in most cases, dictated solutions are often impractical (Edwin *et al.*, 2017; Fritz & Rhéaume, 2014; Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2015). Since external parties mostly have a perceived understanding of the challenges that communities face on the ground, their suggested solutions often have yawing gaps in practice.

Outside solutions and funding also tend to focus on symptoms as opposed to causes (Kam *et al.*, 2011; Latip *et al.*, 2018). It is easier for external parties to deal with the problem at hand rather than try and establish the underlying causes of such a problem in the community. Outside solutions and funding also have a tendency of denying community members the opportunity to create their own solutions (Chiutsi & Saarinen, 2017; Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2015). When solutions are presented to the community without input and participation from community members, they are robbed of a chance to determine their own destiny.

3.2.2.2 Benefits of local solutions and resources

One of the chief benefits of having local solutions and resources is that the solutions crafted are most likely to be practical and sustainable (Yulong Li & Caroline Hunter, 2015). Since the locals understand their problems better than anyone else, their crafted solutions tend to address the underlying problems and are usually well thought through. Creating their own solutions provide community members with control over their future (Budhiasa *et al.*, 2017; Latip *et al.*, 2018).

Another benefit of local solutions and resources is that teamwork within the community is enhanced (Li & Hunter, 2015; Mogomotsi *et al.*, 2018). By coming together to work on solutions to address their challenges, community members create a bond that helps with community cohesion. When the community works together in finding solutions to problems bedeviling their society, they are ultimately forced to appreciate the local resources they have at their disposal (Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2015; Kam *et al.*, 2011; Mogomotsi *et al.*, 2018). With the realisation of local resources and the ability to find local solutions, there is hope within the community for a better tomorrow (Global CHE Network, 2019).

3.2.2.3 Common mistakes made by outsiders in local projects

One of the common mistakes that is made by outsiders in local projects is that of making unrealistic assumptions (Nair *et al.*, 2015; Prabhakaran *et al.*, 2014; Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2017). This is mostly because outsiders lack the ‘inside view’ and rely on individuals’ accounts and narrations of the situation. Another common mistake lies in the exclusion

of locals in ideas, solutions, and policy formulation (Cornwall, 2008; Swapan, 2016). Such solutions and the subsequent policies that are likely to be coined usually fail as they lack the requisite stakeholder buy-in needed for their support and success.

Rasoolimanesh *et al.* (2017) and Sood *et al.* (2017) are of the view that most outsiders in charge of local projects believe that money is the solution to all the problems communities face. Nothing could be further from the truth. Some challenges require unity of purpose from community members which money cannot buy. The Global CHE Network (2019) also adds that the disregard of local resources is another common mistake made by outsiders in local projects. This shows that there is a need to first look within the communities for resources and solutions before external ones can be brought in. In the same breath, Steele and Scherrer (2018) and Warouw *et al.* (2018) highlight the lack of belief and confidence in local capacity as another common mistake outsiders make in local projects.

3.2.2.4 Desirable outsiders' role in community ownership development

There are various sustainable ways in which the external role players can be involved in the advancement of community ownership. It should be the prerogative of outside actors to help the community members realise that they have requisite resources (Budhiasa *et al.*, 2017; Edwin *et al.*, 2017; Towner, 2016). When community members realise that they can use their resources to pave a way in the face of challenges, resulting solutions are mostly successful. Outsiders should also make it a habit to encourage community members be self-sufficient (Chiutsi & Saarinen, 2017; Latip *et al.*, 2018; Mogomotsi *et al.*, 2018). Self-sufficiency is premised on the idea that locals have what it takes (material and non-material resources) to advance their own developmental agenda.

Furthermore, outside actors should appreciate that their role lies in the facilitation rather than control, analysis of problems, and creation of solutions (Budhiasa *et al.*, 2017; Fritz & Rhéaume, 2014). Through facilitation, the community is encouraged to look within for solutions. In spending time with the community, external players should be able to build trust, friendships, and mutual respect (Budhiasa *et al.*, 2017; Chiutsi & Saarinen, 2017; Cornwall, 2008; Giampiccoli *et al.*, 2015; Global CHE Network, 2019). Building relationships is fundamental to the success of community initiatives. Li and Hunter (2015)

also suggest that outsiders should only provide inputs when requested as a way of encouraging self-sufficiency in the local communities.

Having investigated various elements and factors that are prerequisite for community ownership and for a sense of community ownership to ensue, it therefore becomes imperative for this study to examine the different community ownership models that have been advanced over time. For this reason, the succeeding section will focus on vigorously reviewing community ownership models, their merits, and demerits, as well as a comparative analysis of them all.

3.3 Earlier community ownership models

From the historical narrative on the progression of ownership in communities outlaid in the preceding section, Woodin *et al.* (2010) deduce five previous community ownership models (which often overlap one another). Some of the models, including their traits, are still evident today. These, in chronological order, are: (i) customary and common; (ii) community; (iii) mutual and cooperative; (iv) charitable; and (v) state and municipal ownership. The following sections examine these models.

3.3.1 Customary and common ownership model

Common ownership, also known as ‘no ownership’, is argued to be the very first form of ownership from which all other forms of ownership have evolved (I.P.A, 2012; Subramaniam & Edo, 2016). In this form of ownership, land exists for the economic and social sustenance of everyone. Common and customary ownership implies that there are no rights enshrined by law for the ownership of land which regrettably has led to multiple and incessant battles over boundaries and ownership (Clark & Page, 2019). However, Woodin *et al.* (2010) submit that over the past 500 years there has been an unprecedented decline in this form of ownership mainly due to the encroachment of private ownership.

Through the enactment of various legislation, governments have been able to ring-fence the remaining common and customary land for its subjects (Woodin, 2007; Woodin *et al.*, 2010). Examples of areas designated and protected by law include national parks,

heritage sites, coastlines, and rural communities. Clark and Page (2019) argue that the residual common land, that encompasses vast areas in most developing countries, has symbolic and sentimental value, unites communities, and remains equally important for the social and economic development of communities. It is upon such land and feelings that a sense of community ownership can be nurtured for the common good of the community. In the same breath, this form of ownership also presents opportunities for the 'rights of common' that can be held over common land as private land (Woodin, 2007; Woodin *et al.*, 2010).

3.3.2 Community ownership model

Community ownership constitutes different informal groups that come together within a geographical area to pursue their mutual interests such as survival, agriculture, religion, and a better life (Lachapelle, 2008). With emphasis firmly put on mutually fair relationships and collective living, ownership of large value personal possessions (such as land) is incompatible with this model (Global CHE Network, 2019). Historical examples of settlements that practised community ownership include religious sects that believed isolation from 'the world' would help them worship and serve their god without any distractions; as well as tribal groups that sought to preserve their family genealogy and autonomy (Woodin, 2007; Woodin *et al.*, 2010). In this form of ownership, socialists advocate for better, equal, and reciprocal human relationships that support the idea of ownership being spread correspondingly across vast geographical space (Woodin *et al.*, 2010).

Community projects take centre stage in this model of ownership which gives rise to and spread cooperative movements (Lachapelle, 2008). These cooperatives have brought about community housing schemes, creation of community public shopping centres, and the zoning of public buildings (Global CHE Network, 2019). Trusts have been developed with the aim of safeguarding and supporting the interests of community members (including the underprivileged) and with the use of community share ownership schemes were able to own more resources such as community land, farms, shops, and village halls (Woodin *et al.*, 2010). The community ownership model is highly inclusive and has the

potential to transform the fortunes of the broader society in an equal and sustainable manner.

3.3.3 Cooperative and mutual ownership model

The International Labour Organisation (2019) defines cooperative and mutual institutions as associations of people who voluntarily come together to attain common interests (mostly economic and social) by means of forming a democratically run organisation where there is equitable distribution of capital, risk, and benefits acquired.

Cooperatives are in favour of the idea that togetherness in living and working is paramount for their existence and have development, service, survival, and self-reliance as their goals, instead of profit maximisation (International Labour Organisation, 2019). The 19th century saw the prominence of cooperative and mutual ownership in sectors such as housing, insurance, and food in line with the needs of the society of the day (Woodin *et al.*, 2010). People would contribute towards the pooling of resources which will in turn form societies responsible for their various needs, for example building societies that provided houses and savings accounts.

Cooperative societies are characterised by low subscriptions, democracy, and fair participation in the way their business affairs are conducted which results in the creation of a great deal of trust and loyalty within the institutions (Kroncke, 2019). As cooperative operations expanded to diverse areas through different branches, they saw the need of both vertical and horizontal integration resulting in the inclusion and spreading into other sectors such as insurance, banking, agriculture, production, and retailing (Krishna & Stuart, 2014; Ponka, 2019).

The greatest challenge and shortcoming of the cooperative and mutual ownership model, however, has been its incapacity in competing with profit-oriented institutions in free-market economies (Woodin *et al.*, 2010). Capitalism has been its greatest demise. Nonetheless, in recent times, cooperatives resurged in the form of workers' unions and sports supporters' trusts, and this alone provides sufficient evidence of their continued potential to grow business ventures in present-day societies and economies (Kroncke,

2019; Ponka, 2019). Interestingly, cooperative ownership signalled a new era in which communities could own resources other than land, such as businesses.

3.3.4 Charitable ownership model

While legal definitions of charity organisations vary from country to country, it can be universally agreed that they are non-profit institutions whose principal motive is that of benevolence in social areas such as health, education, and religion (Lin *et al.*, 2018; Ting-Ling Lin *et al.*, 2018). By the same breath, Smith (2014) is agreeable by suggesting that charitable organisations aim at the eradication of poverty, strife, and disease, ultimately advancing the betterment of communities. Eldenburg *et al.* (2015) contend that the history of mankind has been endowed by whims of charity as illustrated by nature and the construction of the first hospitals and care homes. In response to the social ills that were brought about by the spread of industrialisation, coupled with the official recognition of charities by governments around the 18th century, charitable organisations multiplied greatly (Woodin *et al.*, 2010).

Woodin *et al.* (2010) and Woodin (2007) further argue that from the onset of charitable organisations, the church was the biggest player. Through their missions, the church owns prominent hospitals and schools across the world, which also allowed them to own vast amounts of land. With the advent of the 20th century the role played by charities had significantly reduced as governments began to take up an active role in the provision of social welfare services to its people (Smith, 2014). Nonetheless, perhaps due to the tax exemptions they enjoy at law, charities to date still play an outstanding role in assisting underprivileged societies and in some way through ‘contracts’ from governments of the day (Woodin *et al.*, 2010).

3.3.5 State and municipal ownership model

State and municipal organisations, also known as public or government institutions, are defined by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development , as enterprises in which the state either directly or through a representative body has total, partial, or controlling stake (OECD, 2018). These organisations are owned by the state at its various spheres of influence, either at national, regional, or municipal (local) level. According to

Woodin *et al.* (2010) state and municipal ownership rose to prominence in the late 19th century with arguments for common ownership put forward to protect the masses' common interests.

Electricity generation and distribution, gas mining and supply, water and sewer reticulation, community housing, and provision of education and transport became the foremost sectors to be put under the ownership of the state and its municipalities (Jacobs & Mazzucato, 2016; McGowan, 2016). Businesses that were deemed to be of a natural monopoly and strategic to national interests, including hospitals, were nationalised and brought under state and municipal ownership (Woodin, 2007).

As already pointed out in the earlier sections, extensive privatisation together with inefficiency and unresponsiveness to society-wide needs in the state- and municipal-run enterprises led to the state's reduced ownership and, in some cases, abandonment of its assets (Woodin *et al.*, 2010). Hope in this form of ownership lies in the regulatory role (in all forms of ownership) played by the state and its undoubted ability to ensure the availability of public services at reasonable and affordable prices.

The reviewed models (above) depict a perpetual attempt by society to have forms of ownership models that suit their ever-changing social and economic needs. It is evident that contemporary and future forms of ownership ought to address the current and envisaged future socioeconomic challenges. Further, it has been asserted that the various structures of current and future forms of ownership should be those that add value and aid the development of community and mutual ownership in societies. This can be attained through the building and enhancing of community democratic processes, nurturing of trust, and championing the application of fairness.

This section has shown that community ownership has historically been focused on the ownership of land and other related resources. Having investigated various generic ownership models, past and present, the next section aims at showing that communities can also own the tourism value chain as a means of community equitable development. Tourism community-specific models of ownership shall also be reviewed.

3.4 Ownership of the tourism value chain by the communities

Studies by Wineaster and Saleh (2014) and Meyer (2007) have exposed the incompleteness of research that shows the potential local tourism value chains have on community development. It is, therefore, the fulcrum of this section to investigate the development potential of local communities through the ownership of the tourism value chain.

The term ‘value chain’, which was first conceptualised by business strategist Michael Porter in 1980, refers to the amalgamation of various efforts by different organisations to transform a product through the different stages of market research, design, production, delivery, and support, until the product reaches the intended user (Adiyia & Vanneste, 2018). Another term that is concurrently used with value chain is ‘local value chain’. Mitchell and Ashley (2006:1) contend that local value chains refer to opportunities of commerce that exist between the businesses and the local communities.

Put differently, value chains are regarded as a system in which business institutions (and at times communities) come together to create stepped alliances where one organisation processes and adds value to a product from an organisation below its hierarchy before passing it on to another one above until it reaches the end, the customer.

In tourism, the distribution channel has been the historic tool through which practitioners and policy makers have viewed and analysed the involvement of different players in their quest to deliver service to tourists (Safari *et al.*, 2014). The tourism value chain evolved from the analysis of the tourism distribution channel. While the tourism value chain is fundamentally like the generic business value chain, it has its unique structural differences. Due to the intangible and multidimensional nature of the tourism product, the tourism value chain becomes difficult to confine as it cuts across many sectors of the economy (Mitchell, 2012). A more elaborate definition of the tourism value chain is proffered by Mitchell and Ashley (2006:16), who argue that the tourism value chain includes the efforts by all stakeholders (including local communities, government, and support institutions) that are involved in the provision of goods and services to the visitors, from the sourcing of different supply inputs to the final consumption of the tourism product.

It has been established that the tourism value chain involves different business organisations that complement each other for the overall delivery of a satisfying tourism experience for the guests. The following sections will investigate the various ways in which the communities may own such initiatives; the benefits associated with such ownership to both the business and the community; the challenges likely to be faced in such pursuit and likely solutions; and establishing of potential partners and their possible roles.

3.4.1 Benefits of community tourism business ownership

Rylance and Spenceley (2016) stipulate that by having locals in the various business ownership approaches of the tourism value chain, not only does it create a lasting business competitive edge, but it also creates highly sought-after authentic tourism experiences. Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014) identify ten benefits the inclusion of local communities in the ownership structures of tourism businesses bring to both the community and business. These are: product quality, innovation, reputation management, risk mitigation, cost reduction, job creation, enterprise development, skills and career, conservation, and structural improvement. These benefits are further categorised into business benefits and developmental benefits, reviewed below.

3.4.1.1 Business benefits

One of the major business benefits of locals owning tourism businesses is the enhancement of the overall tourism **product quality**. When locals own, partner, and work in their tourism organisations, their personalities and culture ultimately become part and parcel of the tourism service they offer to their guests, thereby creating the most authentic of experiences for the guests (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016; Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). Outsiders at their best can only offer staged authenticity. It can, therefore, be noted that the lack of locals' involvement in tourism businesses, in their varied capacities, affects the quality of the tourism product.

Innovation is identified as another business benefit accruing from the locals' involvement in and ownership of the tourism businesses within their communities. Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014) contend that by collaborating with residents in tourism businesses, it propels the

locals to be artistic and highly imaginative in the creation of goods such as handcrafts. As an illustration, Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014) further opine that handcrafts made by the locals are more appealing and memorable to the tourists than imported artifacts. Community members' deep knowledge of their culture also translates to unique experiences that are much sought after by tourists (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014).

The inclusion and participation of locals within tourism businesses also makes it ideal for **reputation management**. By genuinely incorporating and partnering with locals in tourism businesses, companies build strong reputations not just with the general public, authorities, and development partners, but with the tourists as well (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016). When locals are happily and genuinely involved in the tourism businesses, either as partners, employees or as owners, they tend to bring positivity and feel-good factors to the guests who are increasingly getting attracted to equitable and sustainable tourism initiatives that empower local communities (Bello *et al.*, 2018; Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014).

When members of the local community are partners and owners of local tourism businesses, **risk mitigation** is easily achieved (Chiutsi & Saarinen, 2017; Warouw *et al.*, 2018). Traditionally, most communities are warm towards visitors, but this changes when locals are excluded from the benefits of tourism as they begin to show resentment towards visitors (Mubanga & Umar, 2016; Sood *et al.*, 2017). By having local community members as owners and partners of tourism ventures, businesses gain support for tourism in their areas which, among others, ultimately reduces crime rates, permits visitors to appreciate local culture, encourages environmental conservation, and fosters community pride (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016; Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). A study by Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014) on Phinda, a private game reserve in South Africa, shows that, due to the partnerships the game reserve has with the local people that sees them owning the land and getting various forms of income from the game reserve, Phinda has managed to contain poaching (locals alert the reserves when there are poachers), which is an ill their neighbouring reserves still battle with.

Rylance and Spenceley (2016) further state that another benefit that inclusion of locals brings to tourism organisations, is **cost reduction**. When tourism organisations make it policy to contract locally based service providers, they save on costs associated with

transportation of goods from other regions and improve on efficiency (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). Also, employing people from the communities in which the businesses operate results in cutting costs associated with relocating and housing outsiders (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016). As an example, Spier Leisure, a hotel and conference centre in South Africa, was able to cut their costs by 25% after deciding to outsource laundry services to local contractors (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). By engaging local contractors, tourism organisations also help to nurture strong and sustainable tourism value chains.

3.4.1.2 Development benefits

Development benefits that come from the locals' involvement and ownership of tourism ventures, go beyond the monetary benefits to communities, also bringing opportunities for the community to engage in various activities such as skills and career development, business entrepreneurship, and exercising freedom of choice concerning their destiny (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016).

Through partnerships and jobs that are created by tourism ventures, local community members are afforded an opportunity to earn **decent income**. Such income is mostly higher than the revenue these local community members normally receive from their traditional activities of subsistence farming (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). According to Rylance and Spenceley (2014), in 2013 Phinda game reserve employed 308 people from the local community with a further 3,000 residents employed indirectly along the value chain. This illustrates job creation and income as developmental benefits that come to the community through their involvement in tourism.

There is no doubt that the encouragement of locals to take ownership of the tourism value chain brings about **enterprise development**. This involves organisations who are owned by locals who have the ability to either directly deliver product and services to the tourists or indirectly to the organisations that deal with tourists (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016). As an example, whereas Phinda, South Africa, contracts local companies for its security, transport, and catering needs, the construction of Damaraland Camp in Namibia required the outsourcing of 30 skilled construction workers from the community (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016).

Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014) also provide an example on how tourism businesses can foster the development of local business enterprises by disclosing how Semiramis Intercontinental, a luxury hotel located in Cairo, Egypt, purchase their corporate gifts from a local non-governmental organisation (NGO) that helps community women make crafts from recycled paper. This has created an income-earning enterprise for the local women. When there are opportunities for locals to participate in the varied capacities along the tourism value chain, not only does it have potential to diminish rural to urban migration, but it also may keep children in schools longer as parents would have income (Rylance & Spenceley, 2014, 2016; Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014).

The **skills and career development** of community members are envisaged to set off when they are meaningfully engaged in tourism businesses. Entrepreneurship, partnerships, and employment are conduits through which people acquire new skills for different career paths (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016). While in most instances, companies conduct in-house training programmes that are tailored to develop the skills of their employees, some even go as far as training their suppliers through deliberate partnerships with NGOs and various development agencies to enhance capacity within the value chain (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016; Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). The acquired and nurtured skills will capacitate the locals to either advance their careers or start their own businesses.

The **conservation** of the environment and local resources is also considered as a development benefit that results from the inclusion of locals in the running of tourism initiatives in their communities. Since tourism relies mostly on the inputs of natural, historical, and cultural resources, their conservation is of paramount importance (Budhiasa *et al.*, 2017; Li & Hunter, 2015; Rasoolimanesh *et al.*, 2017; Warouw *et al.*, 2018). In the cases of Tora conservancy in Namibia and Phinda game reserve in South Africa, locals receive income from the land leased out as well as employment, thereby incentivising their sustainable use of resources (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016; Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). When locals benefit from, own, and identify with local tourism organisations, they go out of their way in the conservation of the resources that tourism relies on.

Another development benefit that ensues from the inclusion of locals in tourism initiatives is **structural improvement**. Tourism activity brings with it a myriad of infrastructural development such as better road networks and transport systems, meant for tourists, but also benefiting the locals (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). One such example of structural improvement within a tourism community is the construction of a clinic and an information technology centre by Phinda reserve in their neighbouring community, Mduku, meant for medical assistance and fostering computer literacy respectively for the community (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016). The following section reviews the different ways the community can own tourism ventures.

3.5 Contemporary community tourism ownership models

Section 3.3 presented an analysis of various generic community ownership models with emphasis on the land and natural resources. This section presents tourism-specific community ownership models that communities can employ in their quest for equitable and sustainable development. First, there shall be a discussion of the dimensions of inclusiveness.

For community tourism business ownership and various local community inclusive business approaches to work, there is a need to conduct an interest audit of the parties involved. Accordingly, Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014) identify seven key factors that determine the extent to which local communities are benefiting from the tourism value chain. These factors, called dimensions of inclusiveness and depicted on Table 3.1 below, include monetary benefits, availability of opportunities, community asset ownership, community risk exposure, and the community's voice impact. They form the benchmarks through which the community interest audit can be conducted. The success of various ownership models will be incumbent upon the continued accruement of mutual benefits to both the business partners and the community (Jones *et al.*, 2014; Natpatsaya & Gritsada, 2020).

Table 3.1 shows, on the one hand that there are fewer benefits to the community when its members are not meaningfully engaged (non-inclusive businesses) in tourism organisations that operate within their vicinity, while, on the other hand, there are more

benefits to the communities when they are meaningfully engaged (inclusive businesses) in the tourism businesses.

Table 3-1: Dimensions of inclusiveness

Dimension	In non-inclusive business, low-income people….	In inclusive business	
		Low-income people as employees…	Low-income people as entrepreneurs…
Remune-ration	• Are underpaid and exploited	• Earn a decent income	• Receive fair payment for goods and services
Risk	• Fear accidents • Fear abuse by colleagues or customers • Have no secure income	• Work in a safe place • Receive a reliable salary • Benefit from social protection, as do their families	• Have access to insurance • Can manage liability risks • Have access to health care
Voice	• Lack ways to address grievances, offer their perspectives or shape their own futures	• Can express their concerns • Can organise to increase their bargaining-power • Are involved in decisions that affect their lives	• Can form associations • Engage in social dialogue with companies to address needs and perspectives
Opportunity	• Lack access to resources for their professional development • Are unable to realise their potential	• Have access to further training, education and support for personal development • Are respected by their communities for their job • Are treated equally, no matter what their gender	• Have access to further training • Have access to potential customers and market information • Have access to start-up capital
Ownership	• Lack formal ownership of as-sets, or this ownership is not respected by other parties	• Participate in the profits of the business (eg. Via a bonus system)	• Hold ownership of assets and can reap the benefits (eg. via land lease agreements)

Source: Tewes-Gradl et al. (2014)

There are various ways in which communities can own tourism initiatives. Jones *et al.* (2014) identify five major ownership models local communities can pursue for better benefits from tourism. These are:

- Outsiders own and run the business, paying fees to the community.
- Locals own the land and structures while outsiders own the business.
- Locals and outsiders in joint ownership of the business.
- Locals own the business with outsiders as managers.
- Locals own and run the business.

These are subsequently reviewed.

3.5.1 Outsiders own and run the business, paying fees to the community

Under this model, the outside investor enters into an agreement with the locals who own the land upon which the business is to be established. The investor, using their own capital, builds the structures requisite for the business, a lodge, for example, and is responsible for marketing and running the enterprise (Jones *et al.*, 2014). Under a build-operate-transfer (BOT) arrangement, the outsider agrees to a reasonable employment policy with the locals and in return the investor pays a fee that is performance and profit based to the community. Phinda game reserve in South Africa operates under the BOT model with its host community (Rylance & Spenceley, 2016; Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014).

While this model is regarded as the least complicated one for communities since it comes with low involvement and low exposure to business risk, it should, however, be noted that this is the model with the least sense of ownership from the community (Jones *et al.*, 2014). The community sense of ownership in this approach can nonetheless be enhanced when the community is engaged in other ways such as seniority employment and conducting regular meetings with the community where effective communication and open discussions on business financial performance take place.

3.5.2 Locals own the land and structures, while outsiders own the business

In this model of ownership, the local community makes a partial or full capital contribution towards the construction of business structures such as lodge buildings, with the outside partner coming in to run the business (Jones *et al.*, 2014). Capital from the community is usually financed by loans that are advanced to them by various developmental agencies and government. This model allows for better benefits as the contribution of capital by the community provides them with leverage to bargain for higher fees paid by the business. Grootberg Lodge in Namibia is an example of a tourism business running under this model as it is wholly owned by the local community (Jones *et al.*, 2014).

Jones *et al.* (2014) further argues that this approach, however, has two key shortcomings. Loans given to communities do not necessarily increase a sense of ownership as they will still have to be repaid. Since the community will not be involved in the day to day

running of the business, there is a high likelihood of a reluctance in committing to general maintenance and upkeep. Having a pre-agreed budget will likely solve this predicament.

3.5.3 Locals and outsiders in joint ownership of the business

This ownership approach sees the community and the outsiders own a tourism business in a joint shareholding scheme. According to Jones *et al.* (2014), through shareholding the community is entitled to appoint some directors to the business boards which will help the community in understanding how the business operates. A joint ownership of this nature allows the community, albeit with little business experience or expertise, to be directly involved in the control and running of the business whilst learning and being cushioned from risk by their capable partners.

One drawback of this ownership model is the time it takes for small businesses to generate dividends. Jones *et al.* (2014) give an example of Doro !nawas in Namibia, which, after 10 years of operating, had yet to realise dividends for stakeholders.

3.5.4 Locals own the business with outsiders as managers

In this ownership approach, not only does the community own the land, premises, and assets, the community also owns the business venture, but it awards a management contract to competent outsiders (Jones *et al.*, 2014). Community representatives sit on the board of directors while the management company oversees marketing of the business and day to day operations. This gives a great degree of control to the community to dictate the pace of their establishment. Also, the community is involved on a strategic level as directors and employees of the business.

This approach is not without its downside. Jones *et al.* (2014) identify two drawbacks associated with this model. While it provides for much higher benefits (when business goes right) than the previous approaches discussed, the risk is significantly higher, and the business will be affected greatly when it does not go well. The use of inexperienced community members as board members may also act against the best interests of the business. Jones *et al.* (2014) further argue that, considering the drawbacks of this

approach, it therefore becomes imperative to note that it is an approach that will need the most technical support from NGOs.

3.5.5 Locals own and run the business

In this model, regarded as the most ideal from a tourism development perspective, the local community injects capital into the business (responsible for the premises and assets), own the business enterprise, and run it (Jones *et al.*, 2014). On paper, this model provides the highest proportion return on investment (provided the business is successful) and provides the highest degree of community ownership.

Just like all the other ownership models, this too has its shortcomings. This model's high return possibility is however associated with a high-risk exposure and according to Jones *et al.* (2014), the model makes it the least capable for communities to cope with serious shocks in business. Another drawback of this model is that local communities rarely possess the skills (such as customer care, marketing, stock control, etc.) requisite for the running of successful tourism ventures without the support of outsiders (Bello *et al.*, 2018; Hatipoglu *et al.*, 2016; Kala & Bagri, 2018).

3.5.6 Comparative analysis of the models

An analysis of the models above depicts a trend where tourism communities are slowly moving away from approaches that only allow them to get incentives from organisations running tourism ventures in their vicinities, to models that allow them to be actively involved in the ownership and running of tourism organisations. While in principle it can be argued that models that give full ownership and control to the locals are the most logical, there is the need to cross check this against the risk it poses to the community, considering their technical and financial ability. It is evident that the more the locals are involved at ownership, operational, and management levels, the more they are exposed to challenges that require shrewd technical expertise and exceptional business acumen. It is therefore clear that for the concept of ownership to work, communities need to be capacitated in several ways. For this reason, the next section presents the challenges faced by communities in their quest for equitable ownership of the tourism value chain.

3.6 Barriers to community ownership of the tourism value chain

This section presents the barriers that communities face in the ownership of the tourism value chain. The barriers are going to be reviewed on an area-by-area basis. Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014) identify six business areas of the tourism value chain that are most accessible and easily penetrable by local communities. These are:

- Maintenance work
- Activities
- Making of crafts
- Food and beverage
- Transport services
- General construction

The barriers in each of the listed business areas are subsequently reviewed.

3.6.1 Maintenance work

The maintenance service business field is the most accessible to locals because it does not require much education and training for most of its tasks (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). Nonetheless, one of the barriers for communities in this field is the lack of skills required to carry out services in line with international standards (Budhiasa *et al.*, 2017; Chiutsi & Saarinen, 2017; Warouw *et al.*, 2018). Also, the demand for maintenance work may not be available locally and this might stifle entrepreneurship in this field. Possible solutions lie in partnering with other organisations for training and collaborating with other businesses to create enough demand for services.

3.6.2 Tourist activities

Activities are also an area that locals can easily set up businesses in. With tourists increasingly seeking authentic interfaces with locals and their culture, this provides a lot of opportunities for the activities business area (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). These may include tour guiding, traditional entertainment, traditional food, to mention a few. The lack of presentation and language skills by the locals is an impediment of success in this field.

Lack of pricing transparency is also an issue for activities which guests usually frown upon. Close interaction of guests and hosts might also lead to adverse effects such as culture degradation and prostitution (MacNeill & Wozniak, 2018; Pavlić *et al.*, 2015).

Solutions can come in the form of language, presentation, and communication training; drawing up of transparent contracts that have explicit prices and deliverables; and providing guests with a set of rules informing them of what is acceptable and what is not (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014).

3.6.3 Making of crafts

Crafts have the biggest potential for successful tourism businesses in local communities. However, the crafts produced by local communities often lack consistency in quality, size, and availability (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). There is often reluctance by local communities to diversify their product range, rather sticking to products that they feel guarantees them sales (Mogomotsi *et al.*, 2018). There are also instances of aggressive selling behaviour exhibited by locals which intimidates tourists (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). This can be solved through engaging business partners to enhance capacity issues such as product quality and product diversity. Also, lobbying local authorities to provide formal marketplaces may help reduce aggressive selling tendencies.

3.6.4 Food and beverage

In an effort to reduce the carbon footprint, companies the world over are increasingly turning to local food producers for their supplies (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). This has presented business opportunities to local farmers in tourism communities. The barriers in this business area are poor quality of goods that do not match demand; lack of requisite transport systems (like refrigerated trucks) that maintain product quality; lack of appropriate farming techniques and equipment; and low demand that may not allow for farmers to invest in the produce (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014).

The possible solutions include informing farmers in advance on the quality and quantity requirements, partnering with NGOs, government agencies, and academia in addressing issues on farming methods and capacity (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014).

3.6.5 Transport services

Transport outsourcing is increasingly gaining prominence in tourism organisations. Tourism businesses are turning to contractors for the provision of transport services for their guests, staff, and goods (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). One of the challenges of local community transport is lack of language and customer skills on the part of drivers. Pricing transparency is also a sticking point when drivers deal directly with the tourists. There are funding challenges for purchasing of vehicles and improvements on navigation systems. Solutions can include a partnership with a school that provides language training, providing drivers with contracts they can use to obtain financing from banks, having a list of reputable drivers that can be recommended to guests who have pre-set and consistent prices (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014).

3.6.6 General construction

In an effort to blend in with the environment, tourism organisations are increasingly engaging local craftsmen in the building of structures that make use of local traditional material that are also compatible with the local climate (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). This presents a myriad of construction opportunities for the local communities. One challenge that lies in this business field is the lack of sufficient people with the requisite skill and knowledge for designing and executing the traditional structures. This poses a threat on the natural resources that may be used for construction purposes. Also, traditional structures may fail to make provisions for modern day features expected by guests such as air-conditioning.

Solutions can come in the form of partnerships with developmental agencies and architectural universities that will provide training and support the preservation of traditional architecture (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014). Academia may help design sustainable ways in which the local resources will be harvested and help in incorporating modern and energy saving mechanisms within the traditional structures.

In general, it can be noted that the challenges communities face in the ownership of the tourism value chain revolve around the issues of skills, knowledge, and education; product quality and consistency; lack of access to finance; lack of formal land rights which

makes it difficult to access lines of credit; and lack of exposure to tourism as tourists. Solutions to these challenges come in the form of building local community capacity through vocational training for skills, education, and language development; partnerships with various stakeholders (such as NGOs, government and development agencies, local authorities, local communities, industry associations, academia, and intermediaries) for the development of suppliers through facilitating loans, infrastructure development, and capacitating entrepreneurial skills; and securing community land tenure rights.

3.7 Chapter summary

This chapter shows how the community ownership of the tourism value chain is a viable means for equitable rural development. The chapter set out to put forward a detailed discussion on the concept of community ownership of the tourism value chain. This was done through rigorous literature review on community sense of ownership and its critical elements; the historical overview of community ownership; models of community and mutual ownership; community tourism value chain ownership; and the barriers to successful tourism business ownership by the communities. Research has revealed that the concept of community ownership has traditionally focused on land and natural resources ownership. Community ownership of the tourism value chain has been identified as a more equitable means through which communities can realise maximum benefits from tourism. For this to be a success, elements such as the community's ownership in process, outcome, distribution, and ownership through trusts have been considered paramount.

The ownership models that provide communities with the most benefits are, however, also exposing communities to the fierce dictates of commerce, and without capacitation, the concept of community ownership of the tourism value chain is likely to be doomed. Given the barriers and possible solutions, it was therefore imperative to conduct empirical research on better ways to institute community ownership of the tourism value chain on the selected communities. Next, Chapter 4 puts forward a discussion and justification on the methods that were employed for the empirical phase of this study.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

The introduction of this thesis, put across in the opening chapter, provided an outline and an orientation of this research. This study focuses on the development of a framework for tourism value chain ownership in rural communalities surrounding a major tourism attraction, such as a National Park or World Heritage site. The preceding literature narrative, outlaid in Chapters 2 and 3, focused on societies and how they participate within tourism as well as how they can collectively own tourism value chain resources. It was, however, clear that mere participation in tourism by communities is less equitable and that it is through ownership that communities can meaningfully benefit from tourism.

With the lack of research on the levels of tourism value chain ownership in rural communities, it became imperative to conduct research that endeavours to fill the theoretical and empirical gaps of knowledge. Accordingly, this chapter discusses and justifies the methods employed to attain the aim and objectives of this research, with weighted emphasis on the research design, literature review, and empirical analysis (data collection method, sampling, measuring instruments, and data analysis).

4.2 Research design

There are various kinds of research designs that are fitting for the different types of research initiatives and the decision on which design approach to take is dependent upon the research objectives and the nature of the problem at hand (Walliman, 2011). The research design framework proposed by Creswell and Creswell (2018) was adopted for this study and Figure 4.1 depicts its three focal points: (i) there is the determination of the inquiry's philosophical assumptions, (ii) the establishment of the research approach which is greatly influenced by the philosophical underpinnings, and (iii) the design and selection of the specific methods of research.

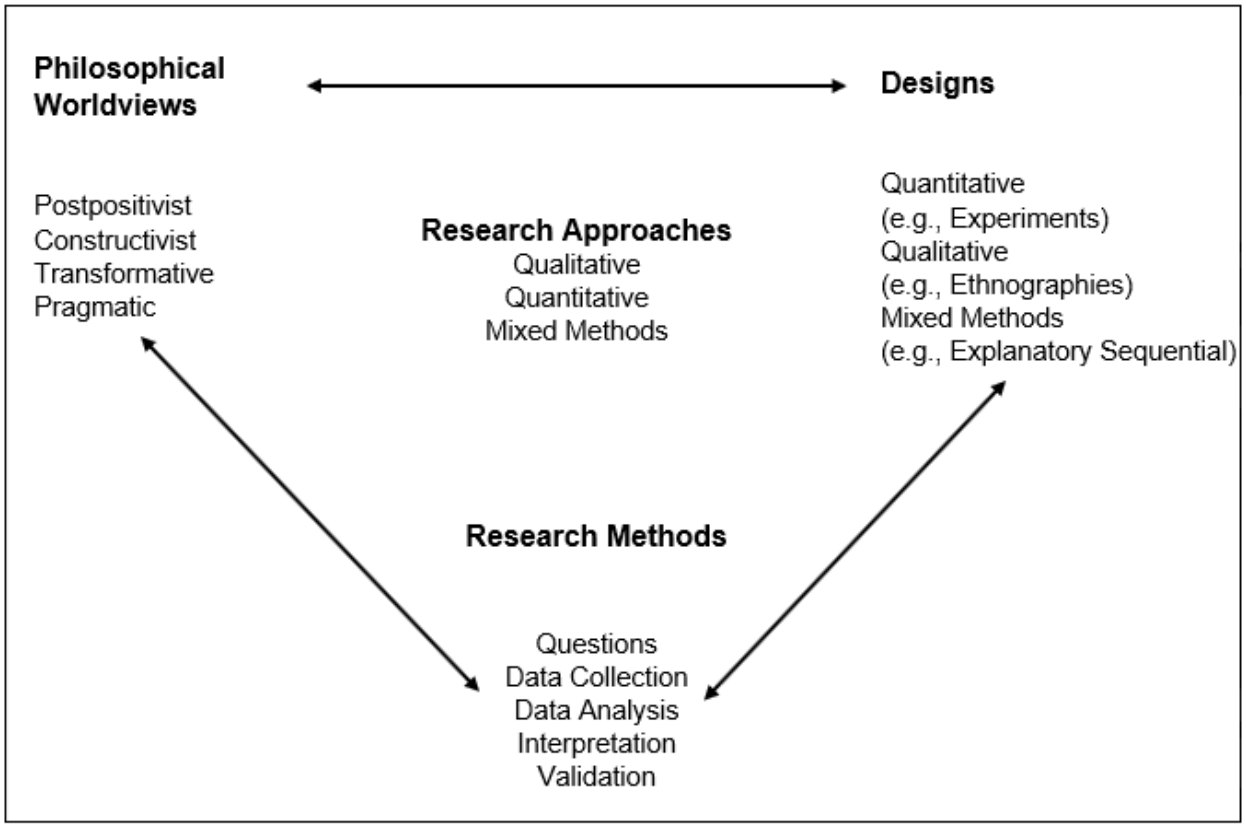


Figure 4-1: Research design framework

Source: Adapted from Creswell and Creswell (2018)

The pertinent details of the research design framework in relation to this study are discussed in detail in the ensuing sections.

4.2.1 Philosophical underpinnings of the study

Various scholars have advanced insights into their understanding of research philosophical underpinnings, also known as research paradigms, philosophical frameworks, or philosophical worldviews. Creswell and Creswell (2018) set the tone by arguing that philosophical underpinnings are generally defined as the researchers' orientation about the world and the nature of research that influence how they pursue new knowledge. Creswell (2014) further states that philosophical underpinnings are shaped by previous research, the community, mentors, and advisors that the researchers would have encountered.

Nieuwenhuis (2017) contends that a research paradigm constitutes a set of fundamental assumptions that give rise to views on the nature of reality (ontology), the relationship between the researcher and what is being researched (epistemology) and the methodology traditions. Lincoln and Guba (1985) and Schwartz and Ogilvy (1979), cited by Nieuwenhuis (2017), are of the opinion that research philosophies are the lens through which scientists interpret reality and the organising principles that enable researchers to tell coherent stories by depicting the world as functional, meaningful, and culturally subjective.

In brief, research paradigms are accepted theories, methodologies, conventions, approaches, and traditions that guide action in research.

Whereas scholars such as Ivankova *et al.* (2017) and Nieuwenhuis (2017) enumerate various philosophical approaches in their different ways, Creswell and Creswell (2018) are adamant that there are four broad philosophical foundations in research, namely post-positivism, constructivism, transformative research design, and pragmatism (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Ivankova *et al.*, 2017; Nieuwenhuis, 2017). Table 4.1 below provides a summary of the major research philosophical underpinnings.

Table 4-1: Major philosophical approaches

Post-positivism	**Constructivism**
• Determination • Reductionism • Empirical observation and measurement • Theory verification	• Understanding • Multiple participant meanings • Social and historical construction • Theory generation
Transformative	**Pragmatism**
• Political • Power- and justice-oriented • Collaborative • Change-oriented	• Consequence of actions • Problem-centered • Pluralistic • Real-world practice oriented

Source: Adapted from Creswell (2014); Creswell and Creswell (2018)

Post-positivism, which can also be referred to as empirical science, represents the thinking that came after positivism that challenged the conventional notion of 'the absolute truth of knowledge' and recognised the uncertainty of knowledge pertaining to the study of behavior and actions of human beings (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Jansen, 2017). Emanating from the works of 19th century writers who were fronted by the likes of Comte, Durkheim, Newton, and Mill, post-positivism is premised on the philosophy of cause and effect where different situations lead to different outcomes (Ivankova *et al.*, 2017).

Post-positivists' emphasis in research problems lies in the identification of causes that influence outcomes through observation, measurement, and testing of variables, hypotheses, and research questions (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). This approach is suitable for scientific experiments that require numeric measures and observations.

Constructivism is a 20th century research paradigm that was propounded by the likes of Mannheim, Berger and Luckman (Nieuwenhuis, 2017). Constructivism, which is also sometimes referred to as social constructivism and associated with interpretivism, postulates that human beings are after the understanding of the world in which their

everyday activities and lives are confined. It is seen as an approach to qualitative research (Creswell, 2014; Kothari, 2009). The knowledge sought, constructivists argue, is developed, and structured as a result of individuals' experiences, that lead to varied and multiple subjective meanings towards different objects and situations (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Nieuwenhuis, 2017).

The focus in constructivism is on broad and open-ended questioning that solicits for open insights (Oddbjørn, 2018). This approach puts emphasis on the participants' viewpoints of the subject under study as it happens in the participants' life setting (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The knowledge obtained represents the collective society's view based on their personal, cultural, and historical experiences which influence the outcome of the research (Ivankova *et al.*, 2017; Kothari, 2009). In this paradigm, researchers develop a pattern or meaning from acquired findings as opposed to the post-positivism approach that starts off from theory.

Transformative paradigm of research was inspired by writers in the 1980s and 1990s who felt that post-positivism and constructivism were grossly inadequate and could not apply easily to issues of power and social justice for the marginalised individuals in society (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The transformative research paradigm, which fights for an action agenda for reform, holds that research inquiries need to delve into matters of politics to confront any forms of social oppression such as inequality, domination, and alienation (Salaberry & Comajoan, 2013; Verma, 2019).

This research philosophical approach emphasises the need for participants to take up active roles in the research process in matters such as the designing of research questions, collection of data, and analysis of information so that their voices are captured in the agenda of transforming their livelihoods (Miriam, 2019; Regula, 2019). The transformative research underpinning also integrates theoretical perspectives with philosophical assumptions to help understand the issues under study (Nieuwenhuis, 2017).

Pragmatism, which does not conform to a singular system of philosophy or reality, is a research paradigm that focuses on solutions (whatever works) to problems experienced in social science research (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Pragmatism appeals greatly to

mixed method studies in that it draws from both qualitative and quantitative research approaches (Jansen, 2017; Ji-Yeong *et al.*, 2019; Nieuwenhuis, 2017). Researchers using this paradigm have the freedom to choose from different techniques and methods as they deem them appropriate for their specific study problems and needs (Ji-Yeong *et al.*, 2019). The freedom also extends to methods used in collecting and analysing data as they also do not rely on one method.

Shortly put, pragmatism makes it possible for researchers to utilise varied methods and different theoretical assumptions, as well as allow inquirers to draw upon different forms of data collection and analysis techniques. It is for this reason that pragmatism stands out as the major philosophical underpinning influencing this study. Since this study focuses on the measurement and ascertainment of the levels of tourism value chain ownership by local communities, pragmatism allows for the use of various theoretical assumptions and methods in the pursuit of this study's objectives.

4.2.2 Mixed research methods

Pursuant to the influence of pragmatism on this study, a mixed research methods approach was adopted. Also referred to as multimethod, mixed research, or mixed methodology, this is a research method that makes use of both the qualitative (open-ended) and quantitative (closed-ended) approaches throughout all the stages of research from design analysis, to data collection, to data analysis, and data interpretation (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Ji-Yeong *et al.*, 2019; Kothari, 2009; Ling, 2019; Miriam, 2019).

Since pragmatism allows for the utilisation of multiple methods and different worldviews, Ivankova *et al.* (2017) is of the view that using both qualitative and quantitative techniques make it possible and easy for the inquirer to use different strategies to crosscheck and validate findings. Creswell and Creswell (2018) contend that the shortcomings of using either the quantitative or qualitative method are offset and often compensated for by using them both.

Some of the objectives of this study, such as the analysis and measurement of the levels of ownership of the tourism value chain by communities surrounding the UDP, for example, required the use of quantitative data. On the other hand, to seek data validity

and crosscheck findings, a qualitative approach became necessary to obtain views, on the same subject of tourism value chain ownership by the communities, from the UDP and CTLs.

Ivankova *et al.* (2017) defines quantitative research as research that is inspired by post-positivism and relies on numerical data to ascertain relationships between variables. Quantitative studies can be experimental or descriptive where the former establishes probable causality and the latter determines the nature of relationships between variables (Jansen, 2017). Further, quantitative approaches test theories and look for cause and effect by testing hypotheses and answering research questions (Creswell, 2014). Surveys and experiments are typical research studies that are within the realm of a quantitative approach.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, is a research process that solicits a detailed view of the participants in their natural setting through the researcher's continuous probing of information from the respondents (Ivankova *et al.*, 2017; Margaret, 2019). Qualitative research makes it possible to approach reality from a constructivist and transformative perspective which allows for meanings to be derived from individual experiences, and promotes justice for marginalised members of society, respectively (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Qualitative research relies on focus group discussions, documents, observations, and artefacts as its major sources of data.

Qualitative research was useful in addressing the "what", "how", "why" and "when" questions of the social and institutional inquiries of this research. One of the study's objectives, for instance, that of measuring and analysing the levels of tourism value chain ownership by communities surrounding the UDP, required qualitative approaches. The open-ended questions on the community questionnaire, the interview guides with the UDP community liaison office and the CTLs prompted opinion and perception responses that constituted qualitative data.

Of the three mixed methods design strategies (concurrent design; explanatory sequential design; and exploratory sequential design) promulgated by Creswell and Creswell (2018), this study found the concurrent triangulation design strategy to be more fitting. While its major drawback was that of the great deal of expertise required to analyse and compare

two different data (Karl, 2019; Miriam, 2019), it was its advantages that drew the researcher to this design. It is a design that offsets the weaknesses of using one design by using both; it takes a lot less time to collect data in comparison with the sequential designs; and it is familiar to many researchers (Terrell, 2012).

With this design, Creswell and Creswell (2018) argue, data collection of the different approaches (qualitative and quantitative) takes place separately but at the same time with equal priority. This implies that there are two concurrent data collection phases. Data is then integrated at either the interpretation or analysis stage (Kothari, 2009; Krittinee, 2019; Ling, 2019). Concurrent triangulation design allows for cross-validation, corroboration or confirmation within a singular study (Terrell, 2012).

Figure 4.2 below illustrates the concurrent triangulation design strategy.

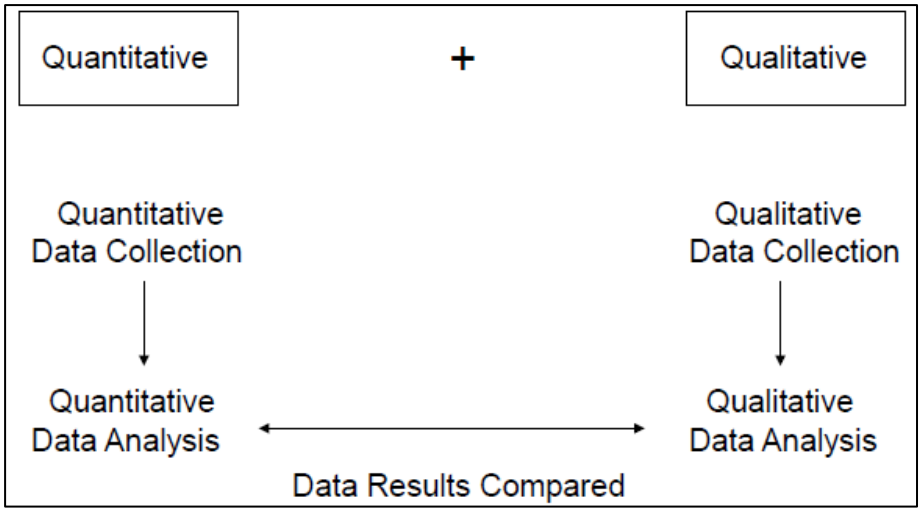


Figure 4-2: Concurrent triangulation strategy

Source: Adapted from Terrell (2012)

The succeeding section provides insight into the specific methods of research that were used in the attainment of this study's objectives.

4.2.3 Methods of research

For this study, two comprehensive categories of research methods were utilised – literature study and empirical survey. Since Chapters 2 and 3 have presented the

literature study, the ensuing sections shall proffer a discussion on how the empirical survey was executed to address the study's research objectives. The subsequent subsections will further discuss the justification of the research methods used.

4.3 Empirical survey

Empirical research is a study where verifiable conclusions or findings can be drawn from the direct observation and measurement of various phenomena (Booth *et al.*, 2016; Terrell, 2012). To satisfy the third and fourth specific research objectives of this study, the inquirer summoned primary data obtained through two methods, namely, community survey and interviews. This section will focus on sampling, data collection instruments, and data analysis in discussing how the primary data were collected.

4.3.1 Selection of sampling frame

A sampling frame is defined as a physical listing of the population elements from which the probability sample is drawn and to which the sample data will be generalised (Babbie, 2014; Nicholas, 2008; Smith & Albaum, 2005). The sampling frame is not just confined to individuals but may also include households, institutions, and communities, to mention but a few, from which a sample to be surveyed will be selected (Babbie, 2014; Lavallee, 2007).

The sampling frame for this study consists of the people living in the communities of Bonjaneni, Kokwane, and Engodini; the UDP, around which the communities lie; and the CTLs, the custodians of much of the land within which these communities reside. All these communities and institutions are in the uThukela district of KZN, South Africa. The focus on these communities (Bonjaneni, Kokwane, and Engodini) was inspired by the amount of tourism activity that the northern and southern sections of the UDP have as compared to the southern part. Bonjaneni community is located next to the entrance of Royal Natal, Kokwane is adjacent to Cathedral Peak, and Engodini is close to the entrance of Injisuthi. As Table 4.2 below depicts, north and central UDP account for 88.2% of the total number of chalets, 85.31% of the total number of beds, and 83% of all the camping sites in the Park.

Table 4-2: uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park Camps

Camp name	North/Central/ South	Number of chalets	Number of beds	Hiking hut	Camping sites
Royal-Natal - Thendele, Mahai, Rugged Glen	N	29	94	0	99
Didima (Cathedral Peak)	C	65	138	0	0
Monks Cowl	C	0	0	0	30
Injisuthi	C	20	78	0	120
Giant's Castle	C	43	108	(8 capacity)	0
Highmoor	S	0	0	0	7
Kamberg	S	6	14	0	0
Lotheni	S	15	58	0	14
Umkhomazi	S	0	0	0	0
Vergelegen	S	0	0	0	0
Cobham	S	0	0	(30 capacity)	20
Garden Castle	S	0	0	(30 capacity)	10
Bushman's nek	S	0	0	0	0
Total		**178**	**490**		**300**
North		29	94		99
Central		128	324		150
South		21	72		51
North		16.29%	19.18%		33.00%
Central		71.91%	66.12%		50.00%
		88.20%	**85.31%**		**83.00%**

Source: Ezemvelo-KZN-Wildlife (2018)

The socio-economic statistics of the communities are presented below.

As can be seen on Table 4.3 below, Wazimap (2021) presents the key demographics for the communities that formulate the sampling frame of this study. In terms of age, 47% of the population in Bonjaneni are aged between 18 and 65 while 5% are aged 65 and above. The picture is not very different from Kokwane and Engodini whose age category of between 18 and 65 accounts for, respectively, 45% and 48%, and 5% and 3% for the above-65 categories. At least 95% of the population across the three communities speak Zulu, making it the main language. With regards to household structure, 36% of the population in Bonjaneni live in traditional structures while 59% dwell in house (standard) structures. The traditional house structure accounts for 68% of the population in Kokwane whereas the standard house structure has 16%. In Engodini, 47% of the people live in traditional structures while 39% live in standard house structures.

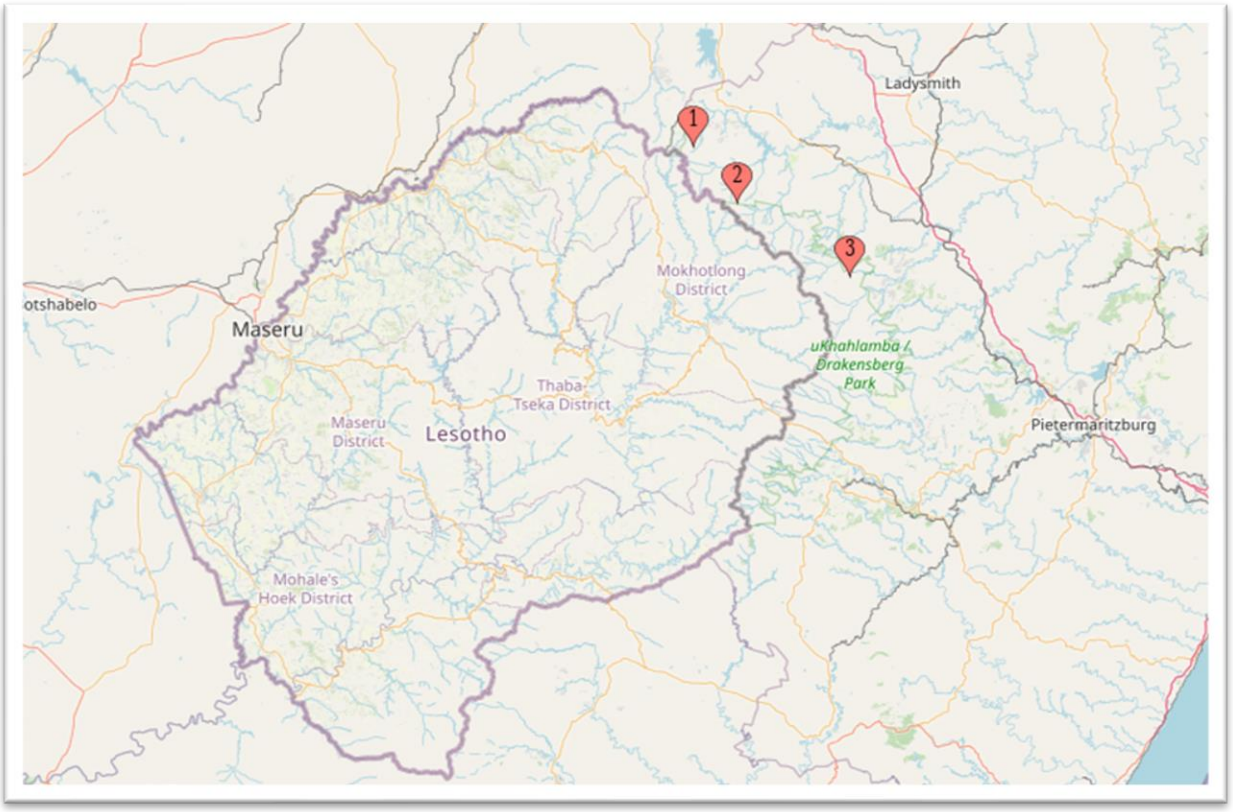
The gender of household heads for Bonjaneni, Kokwane and Engodini are 58% female, 42% male; 49% female, 51% male; and 47% female, 53% male, respectively. At least 92% of all the household in all the communities earn less than R150 000 a year while at most only 4% earn more than R150 000. The employed stand at 19%, 5% and 10% for Bonjaneni, Kokwane and Engodini respectively. At least 19% of the population across all communities have Matric, 75% have secondary education and at most only 1% have tertiary education.

Table 4-3: Sampling frame community demographics

	Bonjaneni	**Kokwane**	**Engodini**
Gender	54% female; 46% male	52% female; 48% male	52% female; 48% male
Age	47% are between 18-64; 5% are 65+	45% are between 18-64; 5% are 65+	48% are between 18-64; 3% are 65+
Language	96% IsiZulu	95% IsiZulu	95% IsiZulu
Type of household dwelling	36% Traditional; 59% House	68% Traditional; 16% House	47% Traditional; 39% House
Head of household	58% Female; 42% Male	49% Female; 51% Male	47% Female; 53% Male
Annual household income	92% <R150k; 4% >R150k	97% <R150k; 3% >R150k	99% <R150k; 1% >R150k
Employment	19% Employed	5% Employed	10% Employed
Education	75% Secondary or less; 21% Matric; 1% Tertiary	79% Secondary or less; 19% Matric; 1% Tertiary	79% Secondary or less; 19% Matric; 1% Tertiary

Source: Adapted from Wazimap (2021)

The topographical illustration of the sampling frame is illustrated in Figure 4.3 below.



1: Bonjaneni; 2: Kokwane; 3: Engodini

Figure 4-3: Sample communities

Source: Adapted from Google Maps ©, (2020)

Three separate surveys were conducted in the selected communities plus two sets of interviews were conducted with the UDP's CLOs and the CTLs. The three communities were selected because of the concentration of tourism in their areas as they are situated next to the entrances of the three major camps of the UDP, namely the Royal Natal, Cathedral Peak and Injisuthi. Bonjaneni, Kokwane and Engodini communities are respectively located next to the Royal Natal, Cathedral Peak, and Injisuthi camps of the UDP. These communities experience high volumes of tourism activities as well as impacts due to their proximity to the UDP attraction.

The surveys and interviews were conducted in these communities and institutions, respectively, during December 2020 to April 2021.

4.3.2 Sampling

Maree and Pietersen (2017) define sampling as the process in which researchers choose representatives of the population under study, such that the findings of the study will be valid and easily transferable to the rest of the population. Put simply, sampling is the selection of individuals within a study population whose views and characteristics will be representative of the entire population. Curtis *et al.* (2000), cited by Nieuwenhuis (2017), identify six criteria for which sampling should comply. They argue that samples and sampling, interchangeably, should:

- Be conscious of the conceptual framework and research objectives.
- Generate information on the problem under study.
- Make findings transferrable to the population.
- Produce credible results.
- Take ethical preconditions.
- Be feasible in terms of accessibility and resources (time and money).

This study used various sampling techniques to collect data from different sources (the communities and key informants). The sampling techniques used for the primary data sources are discussed below.

4.3.2.1 Quantitative sampling: communities

Maree and Pietersen (2017) contend that there are two main categories of sampling methods, namely probability methods and non-probability methods. Whereas probability methods rely on the concept of randomness as enunciated by the theory of probability, non-probability methods do not (Ivankova *et al.*, 2017). While probability sampling allows for a statistical chance for anyone in the study area to be part of the respondents to the study, members of a population under which non-probability sampling is employed do not have a similar chance of participation (Maree & Pietersen, 2017).

Because probability sampling allows for a better representation of the study population in quantitative studies compared to non-probability sampling (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), this study adopted both probabilistic and non-probabilistic sampling techniques.

The four main probability sampling techniques that inquirers can choose from in their research: simple random sampling; systematic sampling; stratified sampling; and cluster sampling (Maree & Pietersen, 2017). *Simple random sampling* draws from a comprehensive sample frame (list of respondents' differentiating information such as home addresses). Respondents are numbered and picked up randomly to be surveyed. In *systematic sampling*, members from the study population are nominated from a random starting point but with a uniform interval thereafter. Under *stratified sampling*, the study population in divided into segments or groups based on homogeneous characteristics, termed strata. Sampling will then take place within each stratum with a uniform chance of representation. *Cluster sampling* is closely comparable to stratified sampling in that the study population is also subdivided into homogeneous groups (clusters) before a simple random sample of the strata is selected.

This study made use of stratified sampling. Due to the challenge of getting comprehensive population lists, the residential areas and the central business areas were designated as the two strata within which surveys were conducted. Within the two strata, convenience sampling was employed to administer the questionnaires. Convenience sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that selects participants to a study based on their ease of access and availability (Booth *et al.*, 2016; Maree & Pietersen, 2017). Before giving out questionnaires in the two strata (the selected residential and business areas) the researcher and the field workers would ask if the respondents were permanent residents of their respective communities to eliminate responses of non-residents.

Kothari (2009) postulates that an ideal sample is one that is neither too large nor too small, it is one that should be optimum enough to satisfy reliability, representativeness, and efficiency of the findings to the population. The Raosoft sample size calculator was used to determine the sample size for the communities. Using a confidence level of 95%, an acceptable margin of error of 5%, and a response distribution of 50%, the sample was determined to be 256 which was then rounded off to 300.

Raosoft sample size calculator uses the following equation to get the sample size (n) and margin of error (E):

$$x = Z(c/100)2r(100-r)$$

$$n = N\,x/((N\text{-}1)E2+ x)$$

$$E = \text{Sqrt}[(N - n)x/n(N\text{-}1)]$$

Where N is the population size, r is the fraction of responses of interest, and $Z(c/100)$ is the critical value for the confidence level c.

Table 4.4 below exhibits the population statistics of the three communities obtained from Stats SA (STATS-SA, 2019). The table also depicts the number of the questionnaires that were distributed against those that were returned. Only one questionnaire was distributed per household.

Table 4-4: Community sampling

Towns	**Household population**	**Number of distributed questionnaires**	**Number of obtained questionnaires**
Bonjaneni	271	140	135
Kokwane	215	100	98
Engodini	276	120	105
Total	**762**	**360**	**338**

4.3.2.2 Qualitative sampling: key informants

According to Nieuwenhuis (2017), qualitative research generally makes use of purposive sampling. As such, this research also used purposive sampling for its qualitative respondents. Purposive sampling is defined as a process in which the inquirer identifies and chooses respondents for a particular reason (purpose) to represent a group in relation to a certain criterion (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013). Purposive sampling is designed in such a way that participants are chosen for their specific abilities or characteristics that will enable the inquirer to obtain specific information from them that no one else can provide (Patton, 2014).

Critical case and expertise-oriented approaches of purposive sampling were used for this study. Critical case sampling is conveyed by Patton (2014) as the choosing of respondents based on their position in a particular process or operation. Similarly, expertise sampling revolves around selecting respondents based on their knowledge and experience about the problem at hand (Booth *et al.*, 2016; Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2017).

Since this study focused on the development of a framework for tourism community value chain ownership in rural areas, particularly through the measurement of the levels of community ownership of tourism resources, the two key informants outside of the community members themselves, were (i) the UDP, around which the communities lie; and (ii) the CTLs, who are the sole custodians of much of the land in which the communities lie. Not only were the respondents critically positioned, but they also had invaluable insight and experience on the study area which could not be obtained elsewhere.

The sources of the sampled data that was collected required the design and utilisation of specific data collection instruments. The following subsections discuss how these instruments were used to acquire the data from the three data sources.

4.3.3 Data collection instruments

This study made use of three data collection instruments that were premeditated to obtain data from the communities, the UDP CLOs and the CTLs. A community survey questionnaire and two separate interview guides formulated the instruments that were used in this study (appendices 1 to 3). The subsections below discuss the instruments in detail.

4.3.3.1 Community survey questionnaire

McMillan and Schumacher (2014) define a survey as a process in which the inquirer ascertains the status quo, beliefs, attitudes, and opinions of a research population using either questionnaires or interviews. While Maree and Pietersen (2019) are in agreement with McMillan and Schumacher (2014) that questionnaires and interviews are the most used data collection instruments in surveys, they further argue that other instruments

such as telephone calls and observation can also be used in surveys. A questionnaire was used for the three surveys that were conducted in the three different communities.

Questionnaire design is an important aspect of the research process as it is the tool through which data is generated. Maree and Pietersen (2019) argue that it is important for a questionnaire to: be appealing in appearance; have logical and sequential questions; make use of words that are easy to understand; and have similar questions grouped into categories. Similarly, Beatty *et al.* (2019) are convinced that to generate interest in respondents to participate in the survey, the questionnaire should be user-friendly, should not take too much time to complete, and the questions should be easy to comprehend.

The questionnaire made use of both open and closed questions. Where closed questions solicited straightforward responses, open questions were used for probing and gaining clarity on responses obtained from closed questions. Open questions did not only make it possible for the researcher to get detailed responses, they also paved a way for the thematic analysis of responses which, according to Maree and Pietersen (2019), generates interesting information. The questionnaire's closed questions took the form of multiple-choice questions, list questions, Likert scales, and ranking questions. Closed questions were easier to complete as they were easier to interpret and took less time than open questions. Closed questions made data capturing easy and allowed for varied statistical analysis.

The community survey questionnaire contained 39 questions that were divided into three sections namely, Section A; Section B; and Section C (see Appendix 1). The questionnaire was worded and designed in such a way that it was community-user-friendly, for example, instead of using sophisticated five-point or seven-point Likert scales, a three-point Likert scale with smiley faces was adopted for ease of interpretation. The questionnaire was developed in English and translated to Zulu, the language spoken by locals in the communities under study (See appendix 2).

Section A carried demographic and socio-economic questions. The questions sought to determine the respondents' age, gender, language, marital status, level of education, occupation status and occupation, annual gross income, community of residence and years they have lived in it, household sizes, etc. The questions were mostly closed list

questions. The respondents' demographic and socioeconomic specifics were pivotal in the analysis chapter of this thesis (Chapter 5).

Section B measured the equity impact of the UDP on the individuals and communities collectively. The questions in this section, which measure the socio-economic impact of the Park on the communities, were developed with the help of work by Beeton (2006); Mason (2008); Mowforth and Munt (2016); Murphy and Murphy (2004); Ryan (2003); Scholtz and Slabbert (2016); Baiburiev *et al.* (2018); David and Terrel (2019); Demirkaya and Çetin (2010); Frent (2016); Polat (2013); Kreag (2001); and Woo *et al.* (2018). A Likert scale was used for all the questions in this section. The Likert scale was three-point, measuring the respondents' level of agreement to questions, where 1 = disagree, 2 = neutral, and 3 = agree.

Section C solicited data on the levels of tourism participation, involvement, and value chain ownership by the local communities. The questions in this section were inspired by the literature works of Bello *et al.* (2018); Budhiasa *et al.* (2017); Chiutsi and Saarinen (2017); Clark and Wise (2018); Cornwall (2008); Giampiccoli and Saayman (2018); Hatipoglu *et al.* (2016); Hindsworth and Lang (2009); Kimani *et al.* (2013); Lachapelle and Austin (2014); Li and Hunter (2015); Nair *et al.* (2015); Prabhakaran *et al.* (2014); Su and Wall (2014); Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014); Tosun (2007); Velnisa Paimin *et al.* (2014); Warouw *et al.* (2018); and Dragouni and Fouseki (2018).

Further, Section C made use of both open and closed questions. Just like in Section B, a Likert scale was also used for most of the closed questions in this section. Similarly, a three-point Likert scale was framed around the respondents' level of agreement on the 23 statements presented, where 1 = disagree, 2 = neutral, and 3 = agree. Maree and Pietersen (2019) contend that Likert scales are the most convenient instruments in providing an ordinal measurement of respondents' attitude on various matters of interest. The Likert scale used in Section C of the questionnaire covered questions on the communities' current involvement in tourism, barriers to community business ownership, and the ideal tourism businesses required by the community.

It is important to note that, since it was imperative for the fieldworkers that assisted in data gathering to be Zulu speaking, the fieldworkers were obtained from the communities

under study. The researcher trained the fieldworkers before they could be deployed into the field.

4.3.3.2 Key informant interview guides

Interviews were used in this study as the instruments that obtained information from the key informants who were the two CLOs at the UDP responsible for the three communities under survey; and, the three CTLs of the three communities under study. Nieuwenhuis (2019b) defines an interview as a two-way conversation in which the inquirer seeks to establish the participants' views, beliefs, ideas, behaviour, and opinions on matters of interest. The aim of an interview, Nieuwenhuis (2019b) further argues, is for investigators to obtain first hand descriptive data expressed through the knowledge and lenses of the research participants while in their natural setting.

The interviews conducted were semi-structured and were done in English (see appendix 3 and 4). The three interviews with the CTLs were conducted in English using a translator since CTLs were most comfortable answering questions in Zulu. In light of the argument by Nieuwenhuis (2019b), not only did the semi-structured interviews make it possible for the researcher to corroborate findings from the other sources (the community survey), it also allowed for further probing and seeking of clarity from the responses obtained as well as unearth new lines of inquiry that were related to the phenomenon under review.

The questions on the interview guides sought the respondents' views on issues such as: their organisations' roles, mandate, and policies in supporting local communities; community participation in tourism; communities' capacity in the ownership and management of tourism initiatives; challenges they see communities grapple with, in the running of local projects; the potential, sustainability, and competence of locally run tourism ventures; to mention only a few. The questions were characteristically similar on both interview guides. The interviews were digitally recorded which was supplemented by the taking of notes, which, according to Nieuwenhuis (2019b), helps in reviewing answers and asking further questions at the end of the interview.

The data gathered from using the above-described data collection instruments was subsequently analysed to satisfy the objectives of this thesis. The ensuing sections provide insight into the data analysis process that was summoned for this study.

4.3.4 Data analysis

Bhatia (2018) defines data analysis as the process in which researchers transform mass data into understandable information. There are various data analysis methods which are dependent upon the research methods that were used. As highlighted in the previous sections of this chapter, the study relied on three sources for its primary data (survey questionnaire and two sets of interviews) in a mixed method approach that was deemed ideal to unravel the confines of the research problem. A mixed method analysis of data was therefore employed for this study. The following sections provide an in-depth discussion on the qualitative and quantitative data analysis steps and strategies that were used in this study.

4.3.4.1 Qualitative data analysis

Qualitative data analysis, which is mostly based on interpretive philosophy, is defined as the procedures and processes in which researchers convert the qualitative data obtained from the study through explanation and interpretation of the situations under scrutiny (Sunday, 2018). A deductive approach was used for the qualitative data analysis in this study. A deductive approach, which is ideal when qualitative inquiry is a smaller constituent of a bigger quantitative study, uses research questions of the study to group data before looking for similarities and differences (Sunday, 2018).

The qualitative data of this study was analysed in accordance to the techniques enunciated by Schutt (2019) and Nieuwenhuis (2019a), which are:

- Data documentation and preparation.
- Categorisation of data into themes and concepts.
- Connection of data with similar themes and concepts.
- Corroboration by evaluating different explanations.
- Reporting of findings.

Accordingly, the process was kickstarted by documentation which entailed the jotting down of notes during the respective interviews and the transcribing of the digital audiotapes immediately after the interviews. The conceptualisation, coding, and categorising stage was mainly characterised by identifying and refining the key concepts. The data was linked to theoretical concepts identified in this study. The theoretical concepts were brought to life by the study's objectives as well as the literature discussed in Chapters 2 and 3. Patterns and relationships between the identified concepts were then established by determining whether the concepts were agreeable, neutral, or divergent.

The study also utilised thematic content analysis for its scrutiny of qualitative data. Content analysis is defined by Nieuwenhuis (2019a) as a systematic cycle approach process that condenses voluminous texts into lesser content sections based on the rules of coding. Similarly, Sunday (2018) contends that content analysis is a process that deals with the categorisation of behavioural or verbal data so that it can be easily classified, tabulated, and summarised. The themes generated from the analysis of qualitative data in this inquiry were affiliated to the research objectives and questions of the study. The content analysis was both descriptive and interpretative.

4.3.4.2 Quantitative data analysis

It is the assertion of Dumas *et al.* (2018) that quantitative data analysis is the process of using mathematical measurements and statistical modelling to deduce the behavior and patterns of variables under study. As shall be shown, the quantitative data obtained from the community survey was subjected to these mathematical and statistical methods of analysis.

Bhatia (2018) advises of three data preparation steps that need to be taken as a precursor to the quantitative analysis of data. These are: (i) data validation; (ii) data editing; and (iii) data coding. Accordingly, the quantitative data had to be validated, edited, and coded before it could be analyzed.

Data validation was mainly enforced during the survey stage by making sure that data collection protocols were followed (including ethical considerations); choosing

respondents as per research criteria; and encouraging the respondents to complete all questions on the questionnaire. Data editing included basic data checks to confirm whether there were any errors pertaining to either incorrectly filled or skipped sections. Empty sections were removed to protect the accuracy of the results. At the coding stage, data was grouped, and values were inherently assigned to the responses from the survey on the questionnaire.

The two most used quantitative data analysis techniques, descriptive statistics and inferential statistics, were employed for this study (Bhatia, 2018). These were used with the help of a statistical analysis software, SPSS (version 27.0). Figure 4.4 below illustrates how descriptive and inferential statistics were used in this study.

Descriptive analysis, also known as descriptive statistics, deemed the first level of quantitative analysis, refers to a variety of statistical methods that are used to summarise, organise and present data in a meaningful and comprehendible manner (Bhatia, 2018; Pietersen & Maree, 2019a). Descriptive statistics provide descriptions of fascinating characteristics of data by providing pattern and distribution illustrations. Descriptive statistics describe data either in graphical or numerical ways and can be used for both qualitative and quantitative data which require different means of describing data (Pietersen & Maree, 2019a).

This study made use of several descriptive analysis techniques, such as frequency tables, various graphical representations, indicators of the level of dispersion, and measures of central tendency. Questions on the questionnaire were represented by variables which were measured by the various scales assigned to them. Questions from the socio-demographic section of the questionnaire were particularly analysed using descriptive statistics. As an example, the mean age of the community survey respondents was determined to ascertain the central tendency of the data that was gathered. Means were also used to help analyse the community perceptions on local tourism, barriers to community business ownership, and ideal tourism businesses for the community.

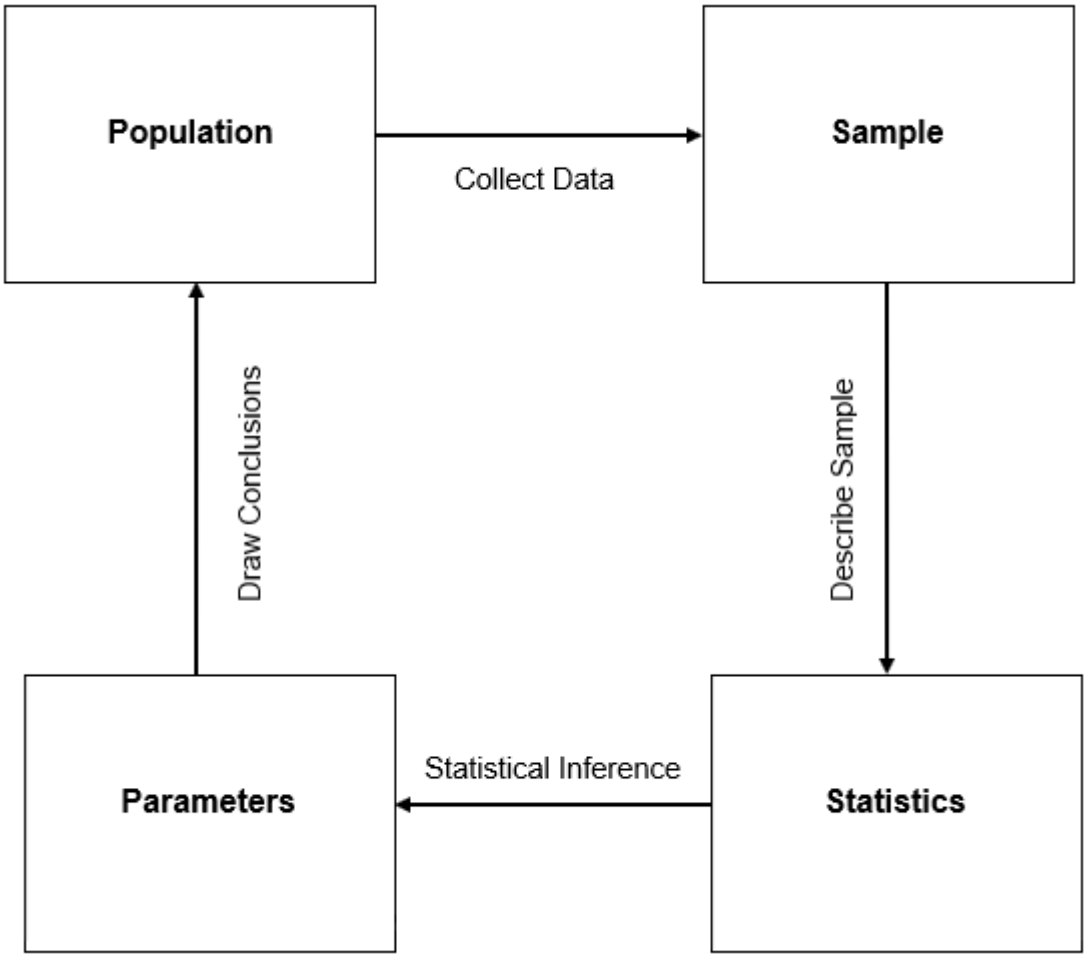


Figure 4-4: Interaction of descriptive and inferential analysis with the sample

Source: Adapted form Kiernan (2019)

Inferential analysis, also known as inferential statistics, which is heavily reliant on probability theory, goes beyond descriptive statistics (describing and summarising data) by using the findings from the sample to draw conclusions about the study population (Pietersen & Maree, 2019b). Put differently, statistical inference provides researchers with predications, or inferences, relating to the study population, by using data derived from the sample.

In the same breath, Bhatia (2018) adds that inferential analyses show the nature of relationships between multiple variables so as to generalise results and make predictions. Examples of inferential analyses include: correlation, which describes the relationship

between two variables; regression, which predicts or shows the nature of the relationship between two variables; and analysis of variance (ANOVA), which tests the extent to which two or more variables differ (Bhatia, 2018).

Accordingly, this research made use of exploratory factor analysis (EFA), ANOVA, the Cronbach alpha statistic, probit regressions, and the Cramer's V effect size measurement, for its quantitative inferential analyses.

Watkins (2018) argues that EFA is a multivariate statistical tool that singles out a hypothetical construct which explains the co-variation that exists among a group of measured variables. Similarly, Baggio and Klobas (2017) are of the view that an EFA reduces the scale items in huge data sets so that the remaining ones have a representative value of the group set. Put simply, EFA simplifies data by providing a summary of its values. For this reason, EFA was used to summarise the communities' perceptions on the social and economic impacts (both positive and negative) the UDP has had on their communities.

To determine the appropriateness of EFA on the data, Bartlett's test of sphericity (which should be less than 0.05) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (which should be between 0.6 and 1) (Pallant, 2016), were employed. The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was used as the factor extraction method for its popularity and its ability to analyse variance in variables (Akhtar-Danesh, 2017). Direct Oblimin rotation, which, according to (Pallant, 2016), allows for factors to correlate, was used for factor rotation. To ascertain reliability of the EFA, the Cronbach's alpha statistic (which should be above 0.7 for acceptability), which determines the one-dimensionality and internal consistency of the data (Pietersen & Maree, 2019b), was also used.

The study also made use of the ANOVA technique as part of its inferential analyses. Pietersen and Maree (2019c) define ANOVA as a statistical method that is used for comparisons on at least three independent groups on one quantitative measure to ascertain the existence of differences on average means. The ANOVA method was used to establish the differences in community responses with regards to the positive social impact, negative social impact, positive economic impact, negative economic impact, average tourism involvement and average barriers to business ownership.

The Cramer's V effect sizes were also utilised for the inferential analyses of this study. Cramer's V, which is a number between 0 and 1, is a measurement of the strength of association between two categoric variables with two or more values per category (Creswell & Creswell, 2018; Pietersen & Maree, 2019b). Whereas an effect size of less than 0.3 indicates a weak association, an effect size of between 0.3 and 0.6 reflects a moderate association, and an effect size of above 0.6 designates a strong association of fields (Pietersen & Maree, 2019b). The effect sizes were used to determine the differences between communities on their view on yes/no answers for business ownership and involvement in tourism.

Probit regression, also known as a probit model, was also adopted for analysis of the study's data. Probit regressions are used to model dichotomous variables and establish a relationship between one dependant variable and one or more independent variables (Asteriou & Hall, 2015). With probit models, a prediction was able to be made to determine those who were more likely to be involved in business ownership and tourism-related business ownership.

It is important at this stage to mention that the study also made use of triangulation as part of the analysis of data. Put simply, triangulation is a credibility and validation technique used to scrutinise and make comparisons between data from different sources to study a particular problem (Salkind, 2010). Triangulation reduces bias that emanates from the use of one method as the weaknesses of one method are offset by the strengths of another (Maree, 2019). As mentioned earlier, this study made use of both qualitative and quantitative methods for data collection. Accordingly, as shall be made clear in Chapter 6, the study compared the results from both the quantitative and qualitative approaches to draw better informed conclusions. Triangulation proved pivotal in corroborating the data that was obtained from both sides of the approaches, which had the community on one end and the CTLs and the UDP on the other. The succeeding section details the study's ethical considerations.

4.4 Research ethical considerations

Trochim *et al.* (2016) define research ethics as the norms, morals, and social values that govern inquirers in conducting research. These include aspects like human rights, legal compliance, justice, safety, and equity, to mention a few. Trochim *et al.* (2016) further contend that adhering to ethical practices in research not only helps researchers provide support to the various goals of society, but it also assists in peddling the fundamental aims of research such as generation of knowledge, truthfulness, and prevention of inaccuracy.

Creswell and Creswell (2018) are of the view that there are five stages in the research process at which ethical issues occur, i.e.: (i) prior to conducting the study; (ii) beginning the study; (iii) collecting data; (iv) analysing data; and (v) reporting, sharing, and storing data. The key ethical issues occurring at the aforementioned stages, as suggested by Merriam and Tisdell (2016), to which this research complied, included: applying for university ethical approval; use of appropriate study design; seeking of voluntary participation and consent; anonymity and confidentiality; risk of harm; communicating the benefits of the study.

The researcher and field workers sought for the respondents' explicit consent to participate in the study (informed consent) so that the respondents did not feel coerced in any way to participate in the research. The researcher obtained letters of consent as well as permission to be interviewed from the participants. As the research was conducted in rural communities, the researcher also sought permission from CTLs to conduct the survey in their locale.

The research made use of Zulu-speaking research assistants who were trained on ethical considerations. Similarly, respondents were provided with sufficient information concerning the study for them to make informed decisions on their participation. This research did not seek the participation of children. Participants were guaranteed their anonymity and confidentiality and that the information obtained was only to be used for academic purposes. The researcher also made sure that no physical or psychological harm befell respondents during the research and that a risk harm ratio was tested on the research design.

The research design was structured in a way that it addressed specific questions so that the study conclusion would be consistent and would relate to the questions asked. Accordingly, the aims of the research were disclosed beforehand, and an appropriate methodology chosen. An undertaking was made to keep all data secure with access restricted to only the researcher and supervisors and to destroy digital audiotapes and questionnaires once data capturing had been completed. All this was in compliance with the prerequisites for obtaining ethical clearance from North-West University's Ethics Committee which was granted for this study.

4.5 Chapter summary

This chapter gave a detailed narrative of how various research strategies and tactics were employed to peddle the objectives and interests of this thesis. A justification was provided for the methods used in the study. In summary, this research adopted a mixed method approach that was firmly rooted in pragmatist philosophical underpinnings. This chapter also exhibited how an empirical survey, which formed the conduit through which data was obtained and analysed, were used. Next, Chapter 5 presents results that emanated from the empirical survey in comparison with the findings from the literature review.

CHAPTER 5: QUANTITATIVE RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

While Chapter 4 investigated the methods employed for gathering data, this chapter shifts its focus to the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the research findings obtained from the quantitative empirical phase of the study. This chapter seeks to illuminate the attainment of the study's objectives using various logical and statistical approaches to aid in illustrating, describing, and explaining the data gathered. It starts off by describing the study's response rate before providing a detailed demographic and socio-economic profile of the survey respondents. It then investigates the socio-economic impact and community perceptions of the respondents relating to the Park. The chapter concludes by analysing the respondents' current levels of tourism involvement and ownership of tourism businesses.

5.2 Response rate

A response rate, which depicts a ratio of the number of respondents in a survey to those that are in the sample population, is a commonly used tool to measure the quality of data collected in surveys (Frey, 2018). From the 360 questionnaires that were distributed, a total of 338 were returned. Of those, 326 had valid responses while 22 were invalid. Invalid questionnaires, which are regarded as non-responses and should not contribute to the dataset, refer to those survey responses that have more than 15% of their values missing (Zikmund *et al.*, 2016). Table 5.1 below depicts the summary of the response rate.

Table 5-1: Response rate

	Total distributed	**Total returned**	**Invalid**	**Valid**	**Valid response rate**
Questionnaires	360	338	22	326	91%

With a low response rate impacting negatively on the validity of data gathered, Saunders *et al.* (2019) and Frey (2018) agree that a minimum acceptable response rate should be 50%. As illustrated in Table 5.1 above, the response rate for this survey was an acceptable 90%, 40% above the minimum requirement of 50%. This high response rate is attributable to the use of fieldworkers who hailed from the respective communities under study. The fieldworkers were known in their communities and this assisted in the completion of questionnaires. The researcher also emphasised the importance of having completed questionnaires to the fieldworkers during their fieldwork training.

5.3 Demographic and socio-economic profile of respondents

Since demographic and socio-economic factors have been found to influence responses from participants and since those responses ultimately determine the study's outcome (Bryman & Bell, 2015), it became imperative to analyse them. This section, therefore, provides graphic illustrations and analysis of the socio-economic demography pertinent to the participants of this study. The considered demographic details include, but are not limited to, age, marital status, gender, level of education, occupation, and income.

5.3.1 Gender

Table 5.2 below depicts the distribution of the study's respondents by gender. The results of gender indicate there is an almost equal dispersal of males and females who participated in this study. Males were slightly more at 50.3% while females represented 49.7% of the respondents. It can therefore be inferred that there was gender parity of the study participants in the category of gender. With the sample being representative of the communities under study, it is safe to note that there is not much difference in the proportions of gender within the communities. This distribution of gender is almost similar to those of the communities' profile presented in Chapter 4 of this study. According to Wazimap (2021), the average gender of the communities under study is 53% female and 47% male. This also portrays a near balance of gender in the communities. The negligible difference can be attributed to the fact that this study only dealt with those above 18 years whereas the average gender presented by Wazimap (2021) is of the entire communities'

population. It can therefore be concluded that the sample is representative of the population.

Table 5-2: Distribution of respondents by gender

Gender	Frequency	Valid Percentage
Male	164	50.3
Female	162	49.7
Total	326	100

5.3.2 Age

Age is another demographic element that helps researchers have a better understanding of the populations under scrutiny (Zikmund *et al.*, 2016). As such, the age variable was explored for the communities under study. The results of age obtained from the study population mirror a typical developing country age pyramid that is wide at the bottom and narrow at the top.

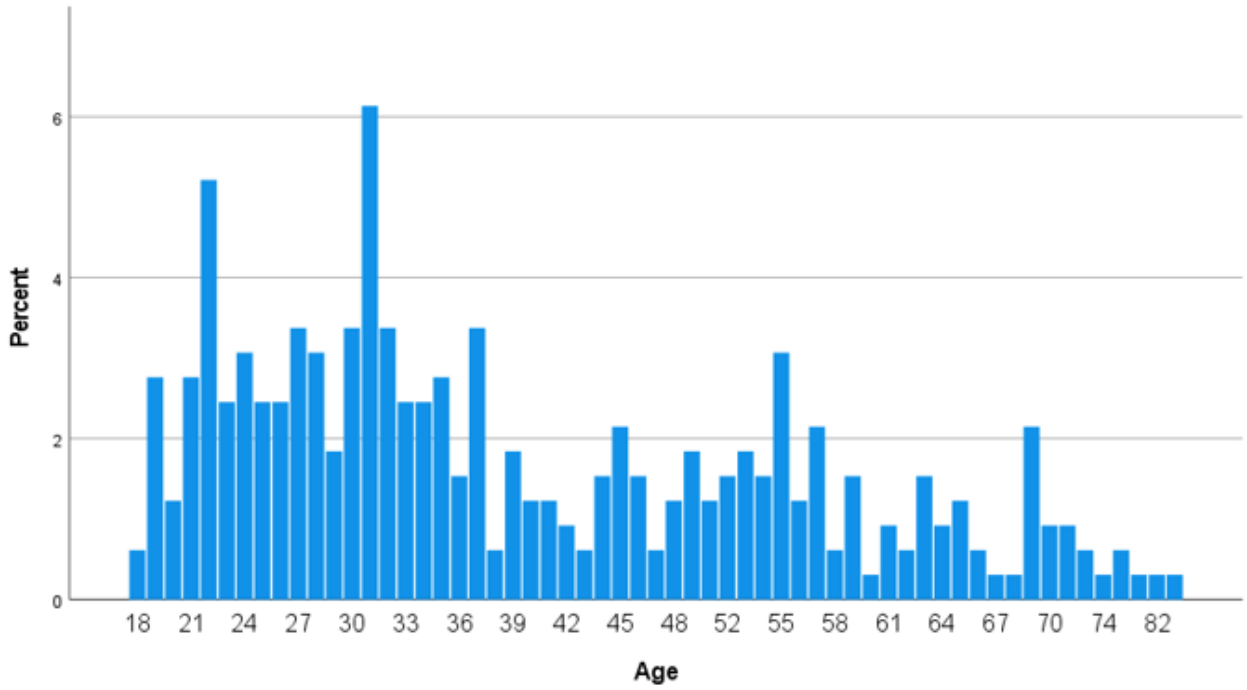


Figure 5-1: Distribution of respondents by age

Source: Author's own illustration

As depicted by Figure 5.1 above, it can be deduced that the category of youths, ages 18 to 35, accounts for the biggest share of frequencies at a cumulative 51.8%. The category 36 to 50 years comes in second with a combined percentage of 21.5. The category 51 to 65 years accounts for 19% of the age frequencies. Those above 65 years recorded a combined frequency of 7.7%. The minimum age was 18 with the maximum recorded being 85. The mean age stood at 40 years. The median age is 35. The distribution of respondents by age also mirrors the distributions of respondents in the communities as shown in Chapter 4 of this study. Wazimap (2021) submits that the category 18 to 65 accounts for 47% of the people and the category above 65 accounts for 4% of the population on average in all the communities. This also supports that the sample is duly representative of the population.

5.3.3 Marital status

Figure 5.2 below exhibits the distribution of the respondent's responses to the marital status variable. The single category was the most dominant, registering 66% of the share of frequencies, which is not surprising given the age distribution of the respondents. The

married category comes in second with a 31% share of the frequencies. The widow/widower and divorced categories proved insignificant as they respectively scored a meagre 3% and 1% of the share of frequencies.

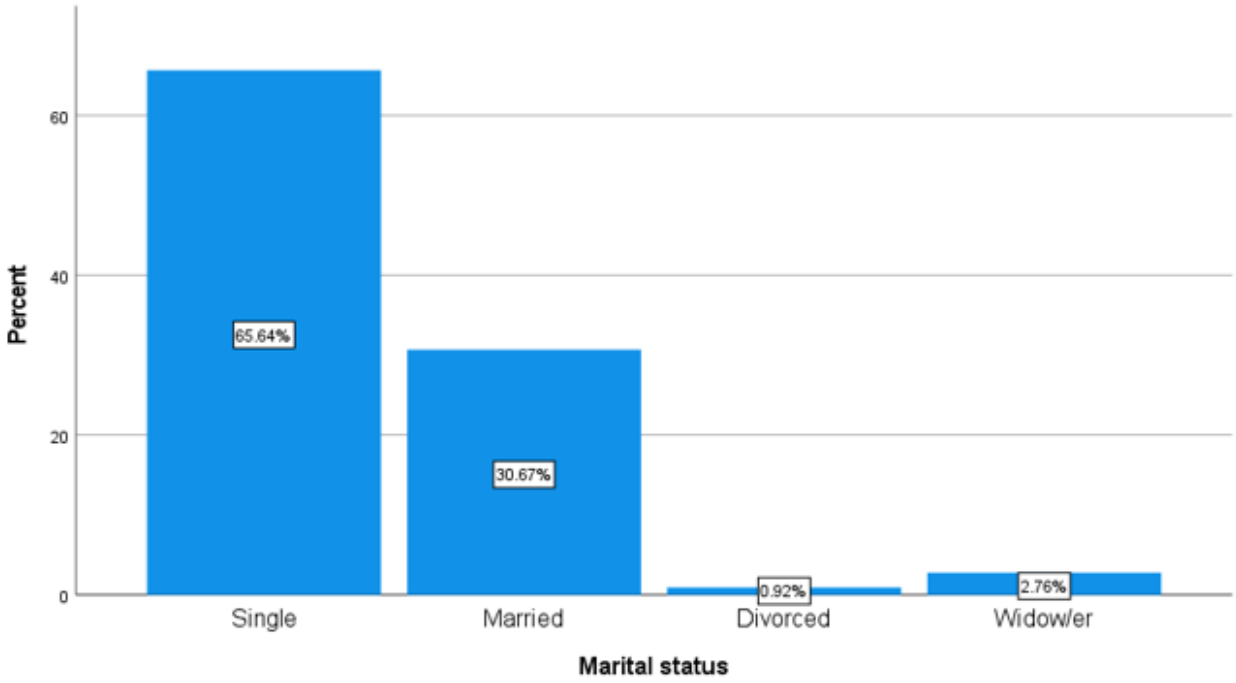


Figure 5-2: Distribution of participants by marital status

Source: Author's own illustration

5.3.4 Occupation

The participants were also segmented according to their respective occupations and professions. Figure 5.3 below illustrates the findings. It can be noted that most respondents, represented by 74%, are unemployed. The remaining 26% respondents indicated varying occupations from domestic workers, cooks, builders, carpenters, traditional healers, to taxi drivers, teachers, policemen, assistant managers, and bodyguards. Figure 5.3 is exhaustive of the occupations listed. Interestingly, tourism-related occupations (tourism worker, tour guide, and craft maker) account for only 1.5% of the occupations of the respondents.

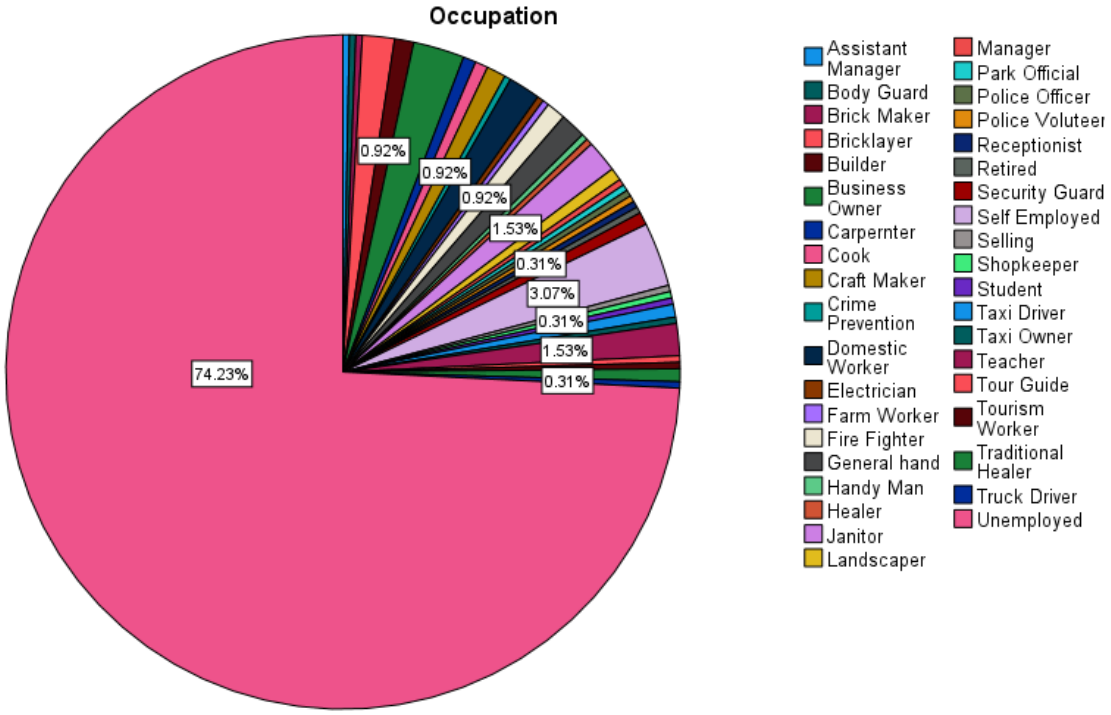


Figure 5-3: Distribution of participants by occupation

Source: Author's own illustration

From the above results, it is notable that the majority of respondents are unemployed and of the few that are employed, only a small fraction is directly employed in the tourism sector. Wazimap (2021), which presents the communities' profiles statistics, cited in Chapter 4, also suggests high levels of unemployment in these communities at 89% on average.

5.3.5 Income

Respondents were further asked to indicate their levels of annual income. The results, as shown in Table 5.3 below, show that most respondents, represented by 93% of the frequency share, earn an annual income of less than R140 000.

The category of those that earn between R140 001 and R221 000 comes in at a distant second place and accounts for only 5% of the respondents. The income categories of R221 001 – R305 000 and R305 001 – R431 000 score 0.6% apiece of the total number of frequencies. The next two categories, R431 001 – R552 000 and R552 001 –

R672 000, only scored a frequency of one (0.3%) respectively. The categories of R672 001 and above did not register a single frequency.

These findings are consistent with the description of the communities' annual household income presented in Chapter 4. Wazimap (2021) contend that, on average, 96% of the people in these communities earn less than R150 000 a year while only 3% have an annual gross income that surpasses R150 000. This reinforces the representativeness of the sample towards the population under study.

Table 5-3: Distribution of participants by income

Income category	Frequency	Valid Percentage
< R140 000	304	93.3
R140 001 - R221 000	16	4.9
R221 001 - R305 000	2	0.6
R305 001 - R431 000	2	0.6
R431 001 - R552 000	1	0.3
R552 001 - R672 000	1	0.3
R672 001 - R772 000	0	0
> R772 001	0	0
Total	326	100

Note that the dominance of the less than R140 000 income category is reasonably homogeneous with the dominant occupation status of the participants as described in the preceding section.

5.3.6 Years in community

Participants were also asked to state the number of years they have lived in their respective communities. This was asked to gain an understanding of how well they are familiar with their community issues. The results are displayed by Figure 5.4 below.

The minimum number of years recorded was one, and the maximum 85. The mean years in the community is deduced to be 32 years. It is interesting to note that the 'years lived in community' variable is relatively homogeneous with the 'age' variable. This implies that most of the respondents have lived much of their lives in their respective communities. This result points to a high likelihood of the participants' high level of knowledge and familiarity pertaining to the communities' topical issues.

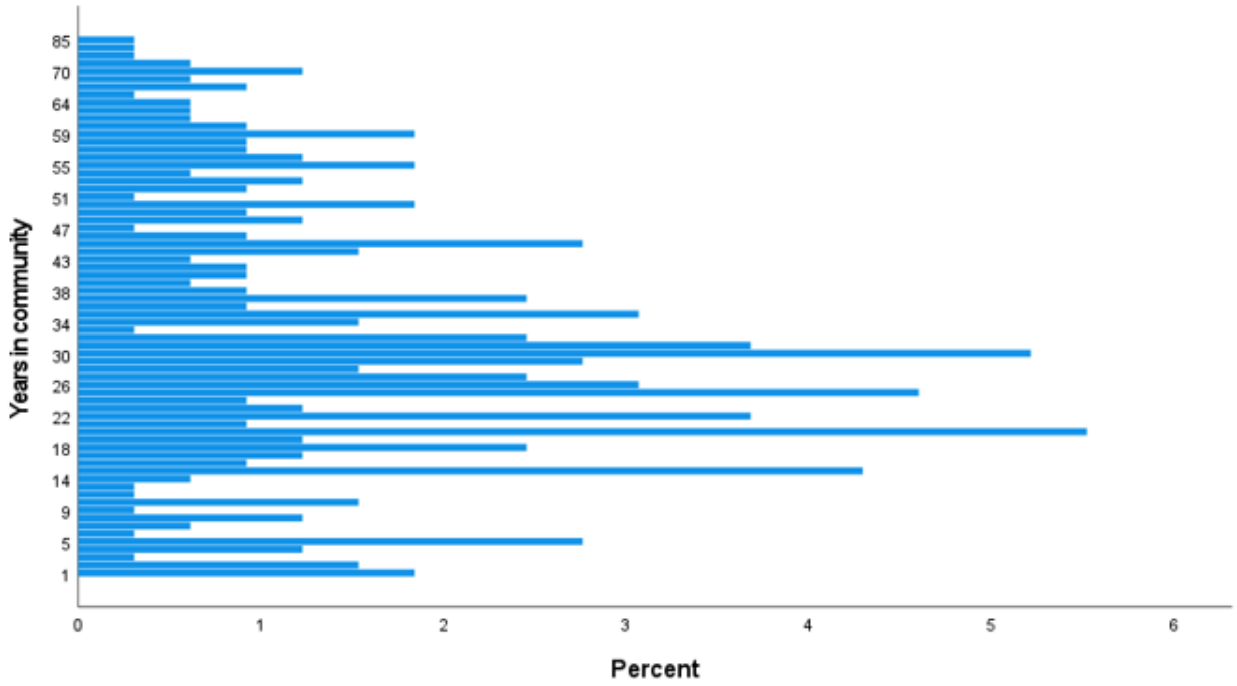


Figure 5-4: Distribution of participants by years in community

Source: Author's own illustration

5.3.7 Access to land

Results in Figure 5.5 below depict the distribution of the study's participants according to their access to land. Since the communities are rural and their main economic activity is subsistence farming, it was deemed imperative to have an appreciation of their land

access. As shown below, 68% of the participants indicated that they do not have access to land while only 32% responded that they had access to land.

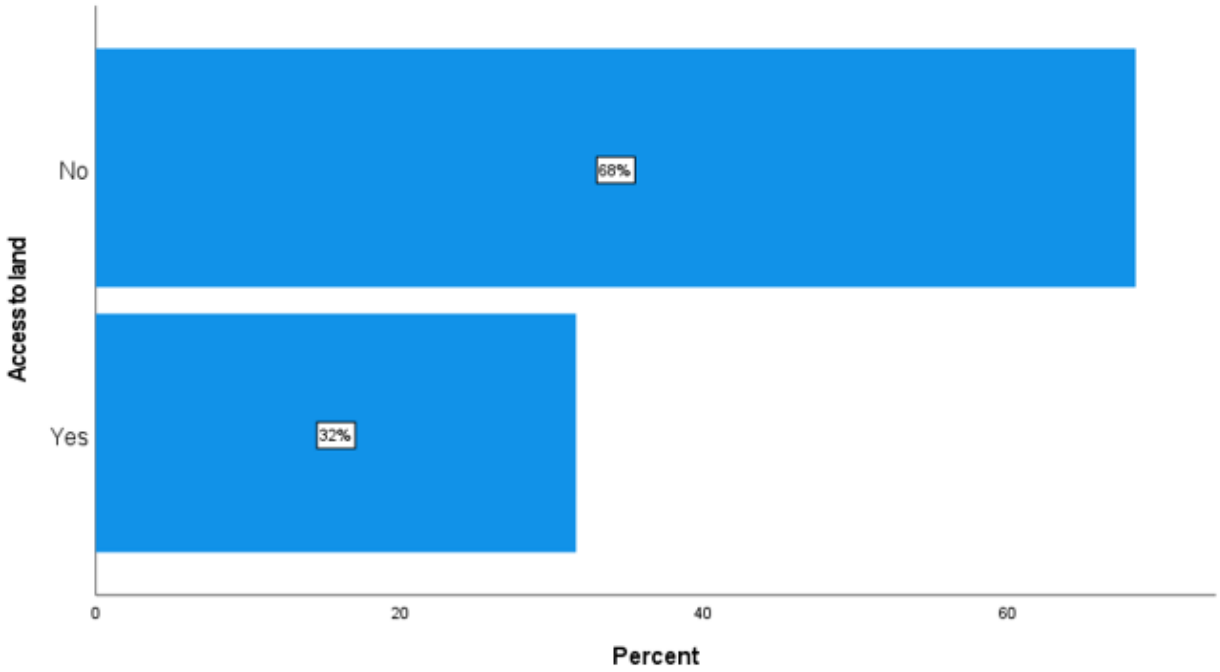


Figure 5-5: Distribution of participants by access to land

Source: Author's own illustration

5.3.8 Years of intended stay

Pursuant to the question that sought to establish the number of years participants had lived in the community, respondents were also asked to state the number of years they intended to stay in their respective communities. As Figure 5.6 below shows, the majority, represented by 84% of the respondents, indicated that they expect to live in their communities for the remainder of their lifetimes. The remainder of the participants, making up a cumulative total of 26%, indicated varying number of years from one to 40. Accordingly, the high frequency of the 'forever' category of years of intended stay depicts a high level of commitment on the part of the participants to their communities.

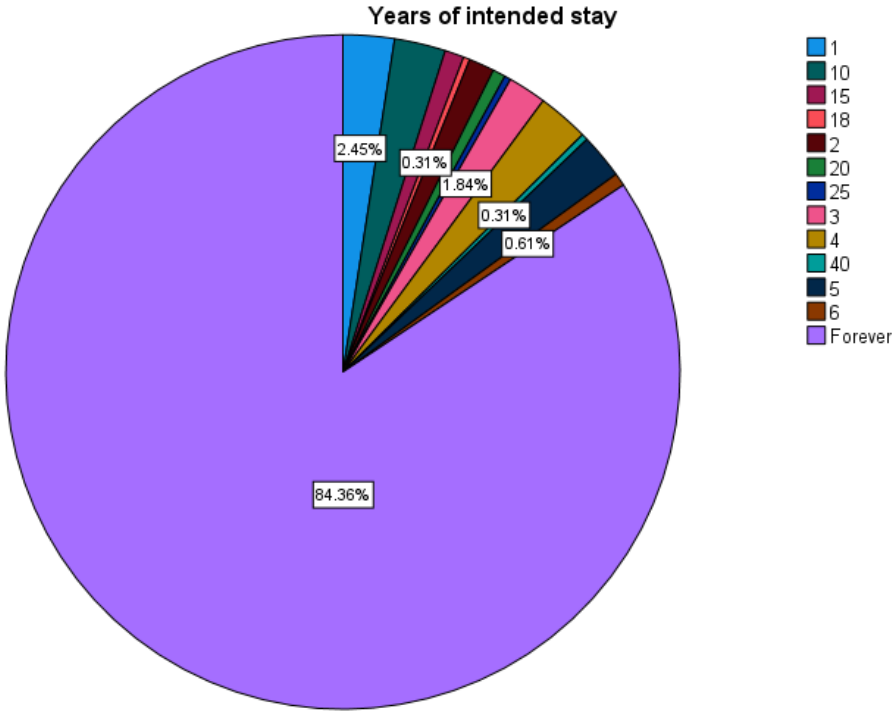


Figure 5-6: Distribution of respondents by their years of intended stay

Source: Author's own illustration

5.3.9 Household demography

The previous sections looked into the participants' individual demography; this section shifts its focus to the respondents' household socio-economic demography. This helped in better understanding the communities under study. The demographic details sought included number of people in a household, occupation status of household head, level of education of household head, age and gender of household head, literacy levels, access to utilities and sanitation, and main sources of income for the different households. The summary of results obtained is portrayed in Table 5.4 below.

Table 5-4: Households' profile

Variable	Categories	Percentage
Number of people in household	< 4 people	21.7%
	5 – 8 people	47.3%

	9 – 16 people > 16 people Mean:	27.8% 2.4% 7 people
Occupation status of household head	Student/Not in labour market Paid worker Unemployed Retired Self-employed	8.9% 9.5% 60.7% 4.0% 12.9%
Level of education of household head	No school Still in school Matric Diploma/Degree	50.6% 6.7% 35% 7.7%
Age of household head	18 – 24 years 25 – 49 years 50 – 64 years 65+ years Mean:	2.1% 55.2% 29.4% 13.2% 48 years
Gender of household head	Male Female	53.7% 46.3%
Number of adults in household	1 – 4 adults 5 – 8 adults	76.1% 21.8%

	9+ adults Mean:	2.1% 4 adults
Number of children between ages 5 and 18 in household	0 – 3 children 4 – 6 children 7 – 9 children 10+ children Mean:	74.8% 20.9% 3.1% 1.2% 3 children
Number of children below age 5 in household	0 – 2 children 3 – 4 children 5+ children Mean:	85.9% 12.3% 1.8% 1 child
Number of adults who can read and write in household	0 – 2 3 – 5 6 – 8 9+ Mean:	35.9% 49.7% 12.6% 1.8% 4 adults
Description of house structure	Hut House of stone with tile/steel roof Informal housing structure	39.9% 59.2% 0.9%
Access to utilities and sanitation	Access to running water Access to electricity	12% 93.3%

	Access to sanitation	4%
Activities of subsistence agriculture	Involvement in crop production	49.7%
	Involvement in livestock farming	45.4%
Number of livestock units owned	Nil	46.9%
	1 – 10 units	17.8%
	11 – 20 units	14.4%
	21 – 40 units	12%
	41+ units	8.9%
	Mean:	12 units
Main source of household income	Remittances from family members	30.1%
	Livestock sold	11.3%
	Crop production	7.8%
	Firewood collection	7.4%
	Other	33.4%

Regarding the number of people in a household, the '5 – 8' category scored the most, accounting for 47% of the frequencies. This was followed by the '9 – 16' category which registered a frequency of 28%. The 'less than 4' category came in close to the second, with a 22% score of the frequencies. The 'above 16' category scored a mere 2%. The average number of people in a household was 7. From these results, in general the average number of people in a household of the communities under study is quite big.

Participants were also asked to divulge the occupation status of their household heads. The results show that most of the household heads, represented by 61% of the frequencies, were unemployed. Only 9% of the respondents indicated that their

household heads were paid workers, 13% of the household heads were self-employed, and 9% were either students or not on the labour market. The remaining 4% constituted the retired category. These results mirror those of the occupation of respondents discussed in Section 5.3.4 above. It can therefore be noted that the majority of household heads as well as the participants are not gainfully employed.

Table 5.4 also illustrates the results pertaining to the level of education for household heads. There is almost a balance between those with no school (51%) and those that have varying levels of education (49%). The 49% is further divided among those that have matric (35%), those still in school (7%), and those who have either a diploma or degree (8%).

The average age of the household head was 45 years. The category with the highest frequency of ages, '25 – 49', accounted for 55.2% of frequencies. This category is followed by that of '50 – 64' with a frequency of 29.4%. The '18 – 24' category scored the lowest frequency of 2.4% while that of '65+' had a frequency of 13.2%. It can be noted that the majority age of the household head for the communities under study ranges from 25 to 64 which accounts for a cumulative frequency of 84.6%.

The survey further shows that the gender of household heads is almost equally distributed between males and females. Males are marginally more than females as they account for 54% of household heads while females account for 46%. Since the communities are rural and traditional, it is expected for men to dominate the leadership of households.

The study also sought to gain a deeper understanding of the matrix composition of household family numbers. Pursuant to the numbers of people in a household, respondents were asked to ascertain the following number dynamics: the number of adults within the household; the number of children between the ages of 5 and 18 within the household; the number of children under the ages of 5 within the household; as well as the number of adults who can read or write within the same household.

For the number of adults within the household, the '1 – 4 adults' category scored the highest frequency of 76.1%. The '9+ adults' category scored the lowest frequency of 2.1%. The average number of adults in a household was 4. For the number of children

between ages 5 and 18, the highest frequency, amounting to 76% of the responses, was for the ‘0 – 3’ category. The second highest category, ‘4 – 6’, scored 20.9% of the frequencies. The remaining categories of more than six children scored a combined mere 4.3%. The average number of children in a household was three.

Results also show the average number of children below the age of 5 in the household to be one child. The category of ‘0 – 2 children’ had the highest frequency of 86%, followed by that of ‘3 – 4’ with 12.3%. The ‘5+ children’ category was the lowest with a paltry 1.8%. This shows that the households of the communities under scrutiny have a small number of children under the age of 5.

As Table 5.4 depicts, the average household number of adults who can read and write within these communities is four. The category ‘3 – 5’ adults accounted for 49.7% of the frequencies, followed by 35.5% for ’0 – 2’ adults. The ‘6 – 8’ category accounted for 12.6% of the frequencies whereas the ‘9+’ category was the lowest with a frequency of 1.8%. When one compares the average number of adults within the household that has been discussed above (four) with the average number of adults who can read and write in the household (also four), it can be determined that there are generally high literacy levels within these communities.

Participants were also asked to describe their house structures. This helped in determining the socio-economic outlook and status of the household participants. 59.2% indicated that their houses were of stone with either a tile or a steel roof with 39.9% signalling that their house structure was traditional huts. The remaining 1% stated that they lived in informal housing structures. It can be noted that most of the participants live in a decent structure.

Respondents were further asked to indicate whether they had access to various utilities and sanitation. Only 12% indicated that they had access to running water while the remaining 88% did not. Considering the paltry number (12%) with access to running water, it was not surprising that only 4% of the participants had access to sanitation, while 96% did not. On an encouraging note, 93% disclosed that they had access to electricity while only 7% did not.

Asked to state their involvement in activities of subsistence agriculture, almost half of the participants indicated that they were involved in either crop production (49.7%) or livestock farming (45.4%). Participants were also asked to disclose the number of livestock units they owned: 47% did not own any livestock units while 53% indicated ownership of varying numbers of livestock units. The average number of livestock units owned stood at 12. This shows the community's reliance on various forms of agriculture for subsistence.

Table 5.4 also shows results on the main sources of income for the households. Remittances from family members was the dominant source of income that accounted for 30.1%. Livestock sold came in second with a total frequency of 11.3%. Crop production and firewood collection were almost tied, registering 7.8% and 7.4% respectively. The remaining 33.4% had other sources of income, which were revealed, after probing, to range from employment to pension and government grants.

The following section explores the results of the impact the UDP has on the communities.

5.4 An exploration of the socio-economic impact and community perceptions of the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park

This section presents the EFA that was conducted on the aspects identified that describe the equity impact and community perceptions of the UDP.

The EFA, using direct Oblimin rotation, Principal Component Analysis for its factor extraction, and Kaiser normalisation, in tandem with the pre-determined factors, was used to narrow down and summarise the participants' views in line with the socio-economic impact and their perceptions of the UDP. The four factors identified are: positive social impact; negative social impact; positive economic impact; and negative economic impact. All four factors registered Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients that ranged between 0.758 and 0.849, indicating a robust measure of internal consistency. The inter-item correlation of the four factors averaged between 0.282 and 0.656, representing a strong reasonable homogeneity of the factors. Further, all the factor loadings, save for one, registered scores greater than 0.5, implying a high correlation between the determined factors and their loading variables. Table 5.5 below presents the factor analysis results.

Table 5-5: Exploratory factor analysis on the equity impact of the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park

Equity impact and community perceptions of the park	Factor 1: Positive social impact	Factor 2: Negative social impact	Factor 3: Positive economic impact	Factor 4: Negative economic impact
Mean Score	1.79	1.94	1.64	2.29
The image of my community has improved	.662			
Community pride has improved	.734			
Roads and public facilities are better maintained	.748			
Everyday lifestyles for community members have improved	.806			
There is improved quality of life	.816			
I'm satisfied personally	.770			
Community cohesion has decreased		.587		
Vandalism of property and sites has increased		.710		
Social conflicts between residents and tourists have increased		.767		
Exploitation of locals has increased		.748		

Cultural traditions are fading		.588		
Crime rate has increased		.638		
Employment opportunities have increased			.781	
Business opportunities have increased			.842	
Standard of living has improved			.799	
Turnover for local businesses has improved			.689	
Public funding for community activities has improved			.735	
Traditional handicrafts are now being recovered			.260	
Prices of goods and services have increased				.807
Property prices have increased				.844
Cost of living has increased				.833
Only a small number of people are benefiting				.778
RELIABILITY COEFFICIENT	.849	.758	.782	.833
INTER ITEM CORRELATION	.365	.403	.656	.282

A three-point Likert scale with the values of 1 = disagree; 2 = neutral; and 3 = agree was used for data collection. Accordingly, the mean factor scores were calculated based on

the average frequency of the selected scores on the Likert scale. Key findings on a factor-by-factor basis are disclosed and discussed below.

The positive social impact factor had 6 statements which participants were asked to score. The statements read: Because of tourism and the UDP, the image of my community has improved; community pride has improved; roads and public facilities are better maintained; everyday lifestyles for community members have improved; there is improved quality of life; I'm satisfied personally. The factor's average mean value of the scores was 1.79. The reliability coefficient was 0.849 while the inter-item correlation was 0.365. Using the average mean score of 1.79, which is closest to 2, it can be stressed that the community residents are somewhat indifferent to the positive social impact the UDP has had on their livelihoods. The highest average score in this category was registered on the statement "community pride has increased" which was 1.97. The lowest average mean of 1.60 was recorded on the statement "roads and public facilities are better maintained".

The negative social impact factor, which also had 6 statements against which respondents graded, registered an average score mean value of 1.94. The statements were: Because of the UDP, community cohesion has decreased; vandalism of property and sites has increased; social conflicts between residents and tourists have increased; exploitation of locals has increased; cultural traditions are fading; crime rates have increased. This factor had a reliability coefficient of 0.758 and an inter-item correlation of 0.43. Judging by the average mean score value of 1.94, which was the second highest of the four factors, it can also be noted that residents of these communities are indifferent to the negative social impact the UDP has on their communities. The highest average score in this category was registered on the statement "crime rate has increased" which was 2.12. The lowest average mean of 1.72 was recorded on the statement "social conflicts between residents and tourists have increased".

At 1.64 the positive economic impact factor recorded the lowest average mean value of scores. The factor had reliability coefficient and inter-item values of 0.782 and 0.656 respectively. This factor had loadings from the following 6 statements: Because of the UDP, employment opportunities have increased; business opportunities have increased;

standards of living have improved; turnover for local businesses have improved; public funding for my community activities has increased; traditional handicrafts are now being recovered. At face value, the average mean score of 1.64 indicates an indifferent feeling of the community towards the UDP's positive economic impact on their society. On a relative scale, in comparison with other factors' average mean scores, the community does not see economic benefits of the UDP on their communities. The highest average score in this category was registered on the statement "Traditional handicrafts are now being recovered", which was 2.12. The lowest average mean of 1.47 was jointly recorded on the statements "public funding for community activities has increased" and "business opportunities have increased".

The negative economic impact factor had the highest average mean score value of 2.29. The factor also had a reliability coefficient value of 0.833 and an inter-item correlation value of 0.282. The factor consists of the following statements: Because of the UDP, prices of goods and services have increased; property prices have increased; cost of living has increased; only a small number of people are benefiting. Bearing in mind that this factor had the highest average mean score of 2.29, one is tempted to conclude that, on a relative scale, residents agree that the UDP has had a negative economic impact on their society. However, looking at the average score value of 2.29's nearest whole number, namely 2, it signifies an indifferent feeling the community has toward the negative economic impact the UDP has on its society. The highest average score in this category was registered on the statement "cost of living has increased" which was 2.40. The lowest average mean of 2.12 was recorded on the statement "property prices have increased".

5.5 Discussion on the findings pertaining to the socio-economic impact and community perceptions of the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park

The results of this study have both similarities and differences when compared to the works of previous scholars. Studies by Beeton (2006), Mason (2008), Mowforth and Munt (2016), Murphy and Murphy (2004), Smith (1989), Kreag (2001), and others, have heralded the positive and negative impacts tourism has had on societies over time. These scholars have, among others, enumerated elements such as improving community pride,

improving community image, better maintenance of roads and public facilities, and improved quality of life as the positive social impacts of tourism. Elements such as the decrease of social cohesion, vandalism of property, host-guest conflicts, increased crime rates, fading of cultural traditions, and the exploitation of locals have been presented as some of the negative social impacts of tourism. On the economic front the positives have been portrayed as the employment and business opportunities created by tourism, while on the negative side it has been the rise in costs of living, goods, services, and properties, to mention a few.

In this study, however, residents of the communities of Bonjaneni, Kokwane, and Engodini are somewhat indifferent to both the positive and the negative socio-economic impact the UDP and tourism in general has had on their communities. Put differently, they neither agree nor disagree to the presence of both the positive and negative socio-economic impacts on their communities. This, nonetheless, is consistent with the idea put forward by Beeton (2006:19) that the impacts of tourism on communities will vary, mostly because of the varying rates of changes brought in by tourism development, the willingness of the community to embrace such change, as well as the dynamics of the community in question.

Furthermore, it is interesting to note that when one looks at the average means of all four factors, the positive economic impact factor and the positive social impact factor respectively score the lowest and second lowest mean values. On the other hand, the negative economic impact and negative social impact factors score the highest and second highest mean value respectively. In relative comparison, the communities feel that the UDP and tourism have brought more harm than good. While the positive contribution of tourism to the South African economy is in no doubt and has been documented by the likes of STATS-SA (2019) and WTTC (2021), it is the work of Chatterjee *et al.* (2021) who argue that South Africa is a Third World country with one of the most unequal distribution patterns of income, that resonates with this finding. The communities receive very little benefit from tourism. This finding is also comparable to the study by Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018), who submit that communities in Third World countries continue to reap few benefits from tourism because they have little or no control over the ways in which the industry is developed and the supply chains required

for domestic and international tourism. This finding further compares to the apathy stage of Doxey's irridex model of host irritation, where Beeton (2006:39) argues, apathy kicks in with communities as their expectations from tourism are not met.

The following section presents an analysis of the community tourism involvement and value chain ownership.

5.6 An assessment of the community tourism involvement and tourism value chain ownership

This section presents various analyses that were conducted to better understand and summarise the involvement of the communities in tourism, their aspirations, as well as their challenges and possible solutions with regards to community business ownership.

5.6.1 Nature of tourism involvement by the community

To ascertain the various levels of community involvement in tourism activities, as well as establish the extent of ownership of the tourism value chain, particularly in and around the UDP, various questions were asked which the respondents had to either answer yes or no to.

The questions asked, and the responses to these questions, are summarised in Table 5.6 below. Most questions had follow-up questions and these questions, and their responses, are also addressed in this section.

Table 5-6: Responses to community tourism involvement questions

Questions asked	Yes %	No %
Does anyone in your household work at the UDP?	4.6	95.4
Do you or anyone in your household supply any tourism related services to the park?	4	96
Do you think there is a need for more tourism related businesses in the community?	47.2	52.8
Are you a business owner?	12	88
Have you considered your own business?	39.3	60.7
Have you been involved in any community projects that UDP offer?	2.5	97.5
Do you know of any community project(s) that the UDP offer?	2.5	97.5
Have you considered a tourism-related business?	21.2	78.8
Do you have any knowledge/skills or experience within the tourism industry?	9.2	90.8

Only 5% of the participants indicated that at least a member of their household was directly employed by the UDP. Similarly, only 4% of the respondents indicated that they had a household member that supplied tourism-related services to the park. These two figures alone indicate a very minimal involvement of the community in tourism-related activities in and around the UDP.

When asked if they thought there was a need for more tourism-related businesses, the communities were almost equally split with their responses. Those that indicated no, where marginally higher (53%) than those that agreed (47%). When further asked to state the kind of tourism-related businesses they would need, accommodation, restaurants, craft shops and tour guiding had the highest frequencies respectively.

Only 12% of participants indicated that they were business owners with the remaining 88% suggesting otherwise. After further probing, the following, in respective frequencies, were disclosed as the businesses owned: various agriculture enterprises (poultry, horticulture, livestock selling, grain growing and selling), spaza shops, tour guiding, and craft making.

Participants were also asked to state whether they had considered owning a business. 39% disclosed that they had considered businesses while 61% did not. Of the businesses considered the following had the highest frequencies: various agricultural activities (livestock farming and crop production), restaurants (mostly serving traditional cuisine), craft shops, accommodation, spaza shops, and a fuel service station.

Participants were also asked if they knew or had been involved in any community projects spearheaded by the UDP. Only 2.5%, in both instances, confirmed knowledge and participation in community projects led by the UDP. The remaining 97.5% suggested that they were neither involved nor knew of any community projects that the UDP offered. The 2.5% of respondents named the bakery, donation of food and clothes to the community, tour guiding, and computer school as the projects they were familiar with.

On whether respondents had considered a tourism-related business, 21% confirmed while 79% did not. The businesses considered by the 21% include the following: accommodation, traditional cuisine restaurants and catering, craft centres, tour guiding, transport services, general shops, museums, traditional clothes, and beauty spas.

Participants were further asked if they had possession of knowledge/skills or any experience within the tourism industry. Only 9% indicated that they had some skills and experience in the tourism industry while the remaining 91% did not. On further probing of the skills possessed by the 9%, the skills mentioned, in order of frequency, include: tour guiding, cooking and baking, craft making, pottery, storytelling, and tourism educational qualifications.

The participants were given an opportunity to suggest ways in which they thought CTLs could help develop their communities and over 46% of the respondents considered employment creation as such a way. The other notable suggestions that accounted for

an average of 4% each of the frequencies included upgrading local infrastructure, communicating more often with the community, involving the community in decision making process, supporting local businesses, protecting the community against crime, educating the community on tourism, and fair recruitment of locals at the UDP.

5.6.2 Current community involvement in tourism

Having investigated the respondents' various perceptions on their participation and involvement in tourism in general, and activities around the UDP in particular, this research further sought to explore the participants' current levels of involvement in tourism and the possible ownership of businesses making up the tourism value chain. The participants' overall perceptions were recorded by establishing the mean values of scores that had been counted against the asked questions that were used to formulate the different variables.

With a three-point Likert scale being used, scores of less than the median two were regarded as negative (disagreeing) while scores above the median two were regarded as positive (agreeing). The extent of disagreeing would increase as the scores near one, while the extent of agreeing would increase as the scores moved closer to three. Table 5.7 below presents the summary of findings.

Table 5-7: Community perceptions on local tourism

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Informed about tourism development	326	1	3	1.54	.802
Participate in tourism related problems	326	1	3	1.62	.854
Local community encouraged to be involved in tourism	326	1	3	1.94	.906
Incentives in place for local community tourism	326	1	3	1.80	.750
Community has own tourism attractions	326	1	3	1.95	.892
Community benefits a lot from tourism	326	1	3	1.60	.778
Valid N (listwise)	326				

The mean scores registered on the table above show that all the variable items in this section of the questionnaire were negatively rated. It is interesting to note that the 'informed about tourism development' variable scored the lowest mean score of 1.54. The highest mean score, 1.95, which had the least disagreeing extent, was registered by the 'community has own tourism attractions'. In summary, to varying degrees the community does not agree that they are actively involved or informed about tourism. The community feels that they are neither encouraged to participate in various tourism activities (including decision making) nor do they feel that there are benefits that accrue to their collective communities because of tourism in their vicinities.

5.6.3 Discussion on the findings with regards to the nature of and current tourism involvement by the community

The results obtained in this category also compare with those of previous studies. While tourism's ability to generate employment has been underscored in studies by Giampiccoli *et al.* (2014), Goldener and Ritchie (2003), Reisinger (2009), Beeton (2006:18), Mason (2008:36), and Murphy and Murphy (2004), the major finding in this regard is that the communities around the UDP are seldom beneficiaries of tourism employment, business-related contracts, or various involvement initiatives. This finding is consistent with the literature work presented by Bello *et al.* (2018), Ndabeni (2019), Akamani *et al.* (2015), and Van Zyl (2002) who argue that in most instances, local communities are often overlooked by tourism organisations due to their lack of skills and that when they are employed, they are mostly in low-end and low-paying positions. This is particularly true considering that most of the community residents indicated that they do not have skills or experience within the tourism industry.

Studies by Budhiasa *et al.* (2017), Chiutsi and Saarinen (2017), and Warouw *et al*. (2018) have suggested that tourism communities stand to benefit through participation and involvement in local community initiatives. While this cannot be disputed, it is unfortunately inconsistent with the communities surrounding the UDP. Many of the community residents have neither been involved in community projects, nor do they have any knowledge of community projects offered by the UDP. This finding is echoed by Bello *et al.* (2018); Kala and Bagri (2018); Paddison and Biggins (2017); Velnisa Paimin *et al.* (2014), who argue that, due to the underlying community power dynamics and political play, very few intended beneficiaries of community projects benefit from such initiatives.

Another finding lies in the low numbers of community residents who own businesses or those who have considered business ownership. An even lesser number has considered ownership of a tourism-related business. This could be as a result of the lack of business capital, tourism information and knowledge, and lack of government support as enunciated by Velnisa Paimin *et al.* (2014). Kala and Bagri (2018) add on and argue that the economic, social, political, and environmental conditions in which they find themselves dictate the extent to which the residents will participate in tourism. The

indication from this finding is that the environment of these communities does not allow for their business participation in tourism. Similarly, Hatipoglu *et al.* (2016) blame the lack of tourism participation to any extent on the lack of community leadership and institutional structures that help collaborate business tourism initiatives by the community.

5.6.4 Barriers to community business ownership

This study further sought to establish the key stumbling blocks faced by the communities in their quest to own businesses. In this respect, participants were requested to rate various statements against a three-point Likert scale where 1 = disagree; 2 = neutral; and 3 = agree. The mean ratings of the statements are summarised in Table 5.8 below.

Considering the value of two to be the median score, an analysis of the results shown by Table 5.8, reveals a positive rating for all the variables under scrutiny. This implies that participants were agreeable, albeit to varying extents, to the statements presented. It is interesting to note that, the 'limited access to information' variable scored the joint-highest mean (2.53), just as it was the standout variable in a previous section (Section 5.5.2) where it scored the lowest mean value. 'Lack of government support', 'lack of financial resources', and 'lack of wealth and political strength', make up the top scoring variables with mean scores ranging between 2.46 and 2.53.

The low-scoring mean variables which registered values of between 2.02 and 2.37 were, in their respective order: 'tourism is not considered important', 'community not considered in planning process', 'lack of cohesion and co-ordination', and 'lack of awareness of benefits of tourism'. 'Lack of tourism business and marketing expertise' plus 'lack of understanding legislation' were variables that scored relative average mean scores of 2.38 and 2.44 respectively.

In brief, it can be determined that the communities under study face a lot of barriers in their quest for business ownership.

Table 5-8: Barriers to community business ownership

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Community not considered in planning process	326	1	3	2.34	.832
Lack of tourism business and marketing expertise	326	1	3	2.38	.805
Lack of awareness of benefits of tourism	326	1	3	2.37	.814
Lack of cohesion and coordination	326	1	3	2.37	.797
Tourism is not considered important	326	1	3	2.02	.915
Lack of understanding legislation	326	1	3	2.44	.773
Lack of financial resources	326	1	3	2.50	.787
Limited access to information	326	1	3	2.53	.759
Lack of wealth and political strength	326	1	3	2.46	.750
Lack of government support and initiatives	326	1	3	2.53	.779
Valid N (listwise)	326				

5.6.5 Discussion on the findings on the barriers to community business ownership

The major finding in this category is that the communities identify with listed statements as the barriers they face in their quest for business ownership. As evidenced by the high means, the communities acknowledged ‘lack of government support’, limited access to information’, and ‘lack of financial resources’ as the main barriers to community business ownership. This compares with previous studies that have been coined in this regard. Similar and other barriers have been put across by different scholars as the key impediments to community participation and business ownership faced by communities. Studies by Bello *et al.* (2018), Hatipoglu *et al.* (2016), Kala and Bagri (2018), and Velnisa Paimin *et al.* (2014), among others, have identified lack of capital, inadequate tourism information and knowledge, lack of government and institutional support, and lack of community leadership and collaboration structures as the major impairments to community business ownership and participation in tourism.

5.6.6 Ideal tourism businesses for the community

This study also sought to determine the types of tourism-related businesses the participants would like to own and have in their communities. Accordingly, the respondents were asked to rate their responses, again on a three-point Likert scale, to various questions as presented by the variables shown in Table 5.9. Like the other sections above that used the same scale, the median was 2, where 1 = disagree and 3 = agree.

Table 5-9: Ideal tourism businesses for the community

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. deviation
Accommodation provision	326	1	3	2.37	.848
Entertainment and events	326	1	3	2.42	.829
Refreshments and restaurants	326	1	3	2.39	.851
Transport services	326	1	3	2.42	.837
Cultural products	326	1	3	2.50	.787
Conference facilities	326	1	3	2.37	.835
Tourist information	326	1	3	2.45	.809
Sport and adventure	326	1	3	2.44	.797
Valid N (listwise)	326				

All the variable items shown on Table 5.9 were positively rated by the participants. The tourism businesses that registered the highest mean values are cultural products; tourist information; and sport and adventure, which had respective mean scores of 2.50, 2.45, and 2.44. Conference facilities and accommodation provision had a joint lowest mean score of 2.37. Refreshments and restaurants; entertainment and events; and transport services, signified the middle range that had mean scores of between 2.39 and 2.42.

Discussion on the findings pertaining to ideal tourism businesses for the community

All the business categories presented to the communities for consideration were positively rated. This implies that the communities do feel that all the sectors are of importance as potential tourism businesses in their communities, with some businesses considered more ideal than others. Cultural products, tourist information, and sport and

adventure, registered the highest average mean values, respectively, while accommodation provision and conference facilities scored the least average mean values.

It can easily be seen that the tourism business options preferred by the communities are those less demanding of capital and sophisticated skills. As Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014) and Jones *et al.* (2014) suggest, communities are likely to succeed in building robust tourism businesses that complement and come naturally to their day to day lifestyles. Cultural products, such as crafts and traditional cuisine, tourist information, and sport and adventure enterprises will be easier to set up and run as opposed to the accommodation and conference facilities sectors.

The next section puts forward a comparative analysis of the results of the research based on the different communities that were surveyed.

5.7 Comparing the communities

This section presents a comparative analysis of the results based on the differences obtained from the different community data sets. This was achieved by analysing the average mean responses by the different communities, use of ANOVAs, use of Cramer's V effect sizes, and estimating binary probit regressions.

5.7.1 Community mean descriptions on the socio-economic impact and involvement in tourism

This section presents the average mean responses by the different communities on the positive and negative socio-economic impacts of the UDP and tourism on the communities, as well as the average tourism involvement and average barriers to business of the different communities.

As is immediately clear and depicted by Table 5.10 below, differences of varying extents were noticeable in the community responses. Under the positive social impact category, Bonjaneni community had the highest average mean of 1.9259 while Engodini registered the lowest average mean value of 1.5578. The average mean of the combined communities on this variable was 1.7929. While all these mean values were all closer to

2 as a whole number, which implies that the communities are indifferent towards the positive social impact on their communities, some experience more benefits than others. It can therefore be argued that positive social impacts of the UDP and tourism are better felt in Bonjaneni than in the other communities.

The communities' average for the negative social impact variable was 1.9402. Kokwane community registered the highest community average mean (2.0018) in this category while Engodini scored the lowest (1.8946) as their average mean. Accordingly, and comparatively, the negative social impacts of the UDP and tourism were felt the highest in Kokwane and the least in Engodini.

Table 5-10: Average community mean responses on the socio-economic impacts of tourism, tourism involvement and barriers to business

Variable	Kokwane (n=93)	Engodini (n=95)	Bonjaneni (n=135)	Communities' average (n=326)
Positive social impact	1.8477	1.5578	1.9259	1.7929
Negative social impact	2.0018	1.8946	1.9309	1.9402
Positive economic impact	1.6344	1.5255	1.7358	1.6437
Negative economic impact	2.2446	2.0128	2.5278	2.2922
Average tourism involvement	1.9122	1.3282	1.9235	1.7413

Average barriers to business	2.2129	2.5449	2.4119	2.3951

The positive economic impact average mean of all the communities, which was recorded at 1.6437, was the lowest average mean for all four socio-economic variables. This implies that the communities least felt the positive economic impacts than they did the other variables. When comparing the communities under the positive economic variable, Bonjaneni community, at 1.7358, has the highest mean average and the lowest is recorded at 1.5255 for Engodini. This translates to better positive economic impacts at Bonjaneni than any other community, comparatively.

The negative economic impact variable, which has an average mean value of 2.2922 for all the communities, also happens to be the highest average mean for all four socio-economic variables. The communities combined have felt negative economic impacts more than they have any other variable. When comparing the communities under this variable, Bonjaneni community scores the highest average mean of 2.5278 whereas Engodini registers the lowest at 2.0128. Accordingly, negative economic impacts are felt the most in Bonjaneni and the least in Engodini.

For the average tourism involvement variable, which has a combined community average score of 1.7413, which is a negative rating, Bonjaneni had the highest average (1.9235) and Engodini (1.3282) the lowest. This implies that while all communities feel they are excluded from tourism, some, for example, are more excluded (Engodini) than others (Bonjaneni).

The average mean for barriers to business variable stood at 2.3951 for all the communities. This translates to communities agreeing to the existence of extensive business barriers. Engodini’s average mean value of 2,5449 reflects that they face more barriers than Bonjaneni (2,4119) and Kokwane (2,2129).

5.7.2 Results of analysis of variance

ANOVA was used to determine whether the different communities' responses on the positive and negative socio-economic impact, average involvement in tourism, and average barriers to business are significantly different from one another.

Having looked at the average communities' mean responses for the selected variables in the previous section, the multiple comparisons in this section establish significant differences between the community responses and quantify the extent to which the average mean values of the selected variables for the communities differ.

Table 5-11: Multiple community mean comparisons on the socio-economic impacts of tourism, tourism involvement and barriers to business

Dependent variable	Base community	Comparing community	Mean difference
Positive social impact	Kokwane	Engodini	.28985*
		Bonjaneni	-0,07826
	Engodini	Kokwane	-.28985*
		Bonjaneni	-.36810*
	Bonjaneni	Kokwane	0,07826
		Engodini	.36810*
Negative social impact	Kokwane	Engodini	0,10723
		Bonjaneni	0,07093
	Engodini	Kokwane	-0,10723
		Bonjaneni	-0,03631
	Bonjaneni	Kokwane	-0,07093
		Engodini	0,03631
Positive economic impact	Kokwane	Engodini	0,10890
		Bonjaneni	-0,10139
	Engodini	Kokwane	-0,10890
		Bonjaneni	-.21029*
	Bonjaneni	Kokwane	0,10139
		Engodini	.21029*
Negative economic impact	Kokwane	Engodini	.23187*
		Bonjaneni	-.28315*
	Engodini	Kokwane	-.23187*
		Bonjaneni	-.51502*
	Bonjaneni	Kokwane	.28315*
		Engodini	.51502*

Average tourism involvement	Kokwane	Engodini Bonjaneni	.58396* -0,01127
	Engodini	Kokwane Bonjaneni	-.58396* -.59523*
	Bonjaneni	Kokwane Engodini	0,01127 .59523*
Average barriers to business	Kokwane	Engodini Bonjaneni	-.33199* -.19895*
	Engodini	Kokwane Bonjaneni	.33199* 0,13305
	Bonjaneni	Kokwane Engodini	.19895* -0,13305

Table 5.11 shows that the differences between community responses are significant, to varying extents, for all the variables in question except for the negative social impact variable. Under the positive social impact variable, Engodini community experience significantly lower benefits than both Kokwane and Bonjaneni, who score higher means with margins of 0.28985 and 0.36810 respectively over that of Engodini.

Another significant difference is also registered under the positive economic variable between the means of Engodini and Bonjaneni. The average mean of Bonjaneni is 0.21029 higher than that of Engodini.

Significant mean differences are also recorded between all communities under the negative economic variable. The biggest difference in this regard is between Engodini and Bonjaneni (0.51502 higher) while the smallest significant difference is between Engodini and Kokwane (0.23187 higher).

On the average tourism involvement variable, significant differences are seen between Engodini, which has a significantly lower mean than both Kokwane (0.58396) and Bonjaneni (0.59523).

For the average barriers to business variable, there are significant differences between the means of Kokwane and those of Engodini and Bonjaneni. Engodini and Bonjaneni

register higher means than that of Kokwane by margins of 0.33199 and 0.19895, respectively.

5.7.3 Results of Cramer's V effect sizes

The Cramer's V effect sizes were used to compare the communities based on their yes/no responses on questions that sought to ascertain their employment at UDP, supply of tourism services to the UDP, need for tourism related businesses, current business ownership, business ownership considered, involvement in UDP community projects, knowledge of UDP community projects, and consideration of tourism related business.

As discussed in Chapter 4, the Cramer's V indicates the effect size by measuring the strength of association between two categoric variables with two or more values per category and has three main categories: effect sizes of less than 0.3 which indicate a weak association; effect sizes of between 0.3 and 0.6 which show a moderate association; and effect sizes of above 0.6 which reflect strong association.

Table 5-12: Community differences on business ownership and tourism involvement

Variable		Bonjaneni	Engodini	Kokwane	Total	Cramer's V
Work for UDP	**Yes**	2	9	4	15	
	No	133	89	89	311	0.154
Supply of tourism services to the UDP	**Yes**	1	6	6	13	
	No	134	92	87	313	0.140
Need for tourism related business	**Yes**	61	34	59	154	
	No	74	64	34	172	0.223
Current business ownership	**Yes**	6	14	19	39	
	No	189	84	74	287	0.208
Business ownership considered	**Yes**	31	50	47	128	
	No	104	48	46	198	0.281
Involvement in UDP projects	**Yes**	1	0	7	8	
	No	134	98	86	318	0.208
Knowledge of UDP projects	**Yes**	1	1	6	8	
	No	134	97	87	318	0.163
Considered tourism related business	**Yes**	9	34	26	69	
	No	126	64	67	257	0.305

The results, as shown in Table 5.12 above, indicate that the differences between communities with regards to their responses to the variables in question are mostly significant. All the variables, save one, had a Cramer's V effect size value of below 0.3 which indicates a weak association. The only variable that had a marginally moderate Cramer's V value of 0.305 is the one that sought to establish whether the respondents had considered owning a tourism related business or not. On this variable, the percentages of those that confirmed were 34%, 53%, and 38% for Bonjaneni, Engodini and Kokwane, respectively. There is a better association, albeit moderate, between the communities on this variable.

In summary, the Cramer's V effect sizes here show that the differences between the communities with regards to the variables presented in this section are significant. This implies that much of the residents in the communities, though they are in general agreement that they are not involved in the various tourism rated activities (employment, business, or projects), the extent to which they agree is significantly different.

The following section details the results of probit regressions that were conducted to predict business ownership by the community members.

5.8 Predicting business ownership

Two binary probit regressions were estimated to predict those in the communities who were, firstly, more likely to be involved in business ownership and, secondly, those who were more likely to consider tourism-related business ownership.

The coefficients of the probit models depict those that are more likely to respond positively compared to those that are more likely to respond negatively (negative sign). Coefficients with a positive sign indicate that an increase in the independent variable predicts an increase in the probability of considering owning a business. Accordingly, the negative coefficients predict a decrease in the probability to own a business. To determine if a variable was a significant predictor, the z-statistic, and its corresponding probability (Prob.), was used.

5.8.1 Probit model results on consideration of business ownership

This section provides the results of the regression analysis that was done to ascertain the likelihood of business ownership by the respondents. For the probit model that was estimated, the dependent variable was: *Have you considered your own business?* A positive response was coded 1 and a negative response, 0.

As Table 5.13 below shows, variables such as *current business owner, if respondent is self-employed, if the household literacy rate calculated as the number of literate people as a fraction of the number of persons > 5 in the household, if respondent has access to land,* and *if respondent is an unpaid worker* had positive coefficients.

As can be seen on Table 5.13 below, only a few variables can be considered significant predictors using a 10% level of significance. The significant predictors are, *if respondent is a current business owner, resides in Bonjaneni, is a current unpaid worker or is self-employed.* Current business ownership, current self-employment and being a current unpaid worker makes a respondent more likely to consider business to derive income. Contrary to that, those living in Bonjaneni are less likely to consider business ownership.

Table 5-13: Regression results on consideration of business ownership

Variable	Coefficient	Std. error	z-statistic	Prob.
CURRENT_BUS_OWNER	1.201154	0.272749	4.40388	0.0000
BONJANENI	-0.744901	0.172652	-4.314471	0.0000
HH_LIT_RATE	0.500474	0.302856	1.652516	0.0984
HHH_OCC2	0.304967	0.324088	0.941001	0.3467
HHH_OCC3	1.139897	0.431767	2.640074	0.0083
HHH_OCC4	-0.051502	0.214628	-0.239962	0.8104
HHH_OCC5	0.654668	0.402541	1.626336	0.1039
POSITIVE_SOCIAL	-0.166427	0.125817	-1.322768	0.1859
RESP_PAID_EMP	0.16899	0.244485	0.691209	0.4894
RESP_SELF_EMP	1.087726	0.390082	2.788454	0.0053
RESP_TOURISM_EMP	-0.450836	0.513694	-0.877636	0.3801
FEMALE	-0.221158	0.160046	-1.381843	0.1670
LAND_ACCESS	0.065798	0.055811	1.178953	0.2384
C	-0.222754	0.356277	-0.625226	0.5318
McFadden R-squared	0.204679			

The independent variables are also binary variables (coded, 1-0) except for the composite impact variables, that were derived based on the average of the factors identified above, and the literacy rate. The following interpretations are given for the independent variables that were used:

CURRENT_BUS_OWNER = current business owner
BONJANENI = the community Bonjaneni
HH_LIT_RATE = the household literacy rate calculated as the number of literate people as a fraction of the number of persons > 5 in the household
HHH_OCC2 = household head occupation 2 (paid worker)
HHH_OCC3 household head occupation 3 = if respondent is unpaid worker
HHH_OCC4 household head occupation 4 = if respondent is unemployed
HHH_OCC5 household head occupation 5 = if respondent is retired
POSITIVE_SOCIAL = the average of the positive social impact statements
RESP_PAID_EMP = if respondent is in paid employment
RESP_SELF_EMP = if respondent is self-employed
RESP_TOURISM_EMP = if respondent is in tourism employment
FEMALE = if respondent is female
LAND_ACCESS = if they have access to land
C = constant (or intercept)

According to the McFadden R-squared shown, the independent variables explain 20.468% of the variance in considering business ownership. According to Bartlett (2014), a McFadden R-squared of between the ranges of 0.2 and 0.4 shows a good measure of explained variation in cross-section regression analysis.

5.8.2 Probit model results on the ownership of a tourism related business

A second probit model was estimated to predict those in the communities that were most likely to own a tourism related business. The dependent variable here is: *Have you considered a tourism-related business?* A positive answer was coded 1, and a negative

answer, 0. Similarly, most independent variables are also binary dummy variables, and explained below. Table 5.14 shows the regression results.

Table 5-14: Regression results on consideration of tourism-related business

Variable	Coefficient	Std. error	z-statistic	Prob.
BONJANENI	-1.009197	0.217171	-4.647025	0.0000
CURRENT_BUS_OWNER	0.691551	0.25733	2.687407	0.0072
INC2	0.965031	0.396362	2.434718	0.0149
SUPPLY_TO_PARK	0.842611	0.474299	1.776541	0.0756
INVOLVE_PROJECTS	-1.678129	0.845532	-1.984703	0.0472
NEGATIVE_SOCIAL	-0.279434	0.152389	-1.833696	0.0667
HHH_EDU4	-0.553629	0.369453	-1.498509	0.1340
HHH_OCC3	0.510943	0.417114	1.224947	0.2206
KNOW_PROJECTS	0.68059	0.57591	1.181765	0.2373
POSITIVE_ECO	-0.304343	0.199617	-1.524635	0.1274
NEGATIVE_ECO	0.129467	0.136531	0.948263	0.3430
POSITIVE_SOCIAL	0.091337	0.164849	0.554064	0.5795
LAND_ACCESS	0.013718	0.013167	1.041884	0.2975
C	-0.113345	0.514513	-0.220295	0.8256
McFadden R-squared	0.193096			

The following interpretations are given for the dependent variables that were used:

BONJANENI = the community Bonjaneni

CURRENT_BUS_OWNER = current business owner

INC2 = income category 2 (R140 001 – R221 000)

SUPPLY_TO_PARK = currently supplying products to the park

INVOLVE_PROJECTS = have been involved in projects that UDP organised

NEGATIVE_SOCIAL = the average of the negative social impact statements

HHH_EDU4 = household head education level 4 (diploma/degree)

HHH_OCC3 = household head occupation 3 (unpaid worker)

KNOW_PROJECTS = know of community projects that UDP organise

POSITIVE_ECO = the average of the positive economic impact statements

NEGATIVE_ECO = the average of the negative social impact statements

POSITIVE_SOCIAL = the average of the positive social impact statements

LAND_ACCESS = if they have access to land
C = constant (or intercept)

As shown in Table 5.14 above, only the following variables had negative coefficients: *have been involved in projects that UDP organised; the average of the negative social impact statements; household head education level 4 (diploma/degree); the average of the positive economic impact statements.* As explained above, the negative rated coefficients indicate that there is a negative relationship between the variable and the probability of owning a tourism related business. The rest of the variables had positive coefficients.

Furthermore, using a 10% level of significance, six variables have a significant impact on the probability to consider tourism business ownership. Current business owners, current suppliers to the park, and respondents earning an income between R140 000 and R221 000 per year, are more likely to consider tourism business ownership. On the other hand, respondents residing in Bonjaneni, those who have been involved in Park projects, and those that rate the negative social impact of the Park to be higher, are less likely to consider tourism business ownership as an alternative income source.

With a McFadden R-squared of 0.193096 it can be ascertained that the independent variables explain 19.31% of the variance in considering ownership of a tourism related business, which can be considered reasonable for a cross section regression.

The next section provides a discussion on the findings pertaining to the community comparisons and the predictions on business ownership.

5.9 Discussion on the findings relating to community comparisons and business ownership prediction

The findings obtained in this study after comparing the communities were consistent with the observations of past studies. To begin with, the major finding was that, while generally similar, communities have differences in terms of their responses to the questions asked. There are differences in the way the three communities have felt the impacts of tourism and the ways in which they are involved in tourism. This is in line with the assertions of

Alesina and La Ferrara (2005) and Okten and Osili (2004), who argue that communities are not homogeneous.

An interesting observation lies in that, in relative comparison, the socio-economic impacts of tourism have been felt the most in the community of Bonjaneni while the least have been experienced at Engodini. Kokwane community is second placed for all the impacts, except for the negative social impact where it came in first. A closer look at the community profiles presented in Chapter 4 provides a quick explanation to this trend. Bonjaneni is located next to the entrance of Royal Natal which, in terms of accommodation facilities and tourism activities, is one of the biggest and most popular camps of the UDP (Ezemvelo-KZN-Wildlife, 2018). While Kokwane is also located close to Cathedral Peak, which is also a relatively big camp, it is not located next to the entrance like Bonjaneni community is to Royal Natal. Engodini is located next to the entrance of the smallest of the three camps, Injisuthi.

The trend of Bonjaneni community's dominance continues with the average tourism involvement. Bonjaneni community is more involved in tourism activities than Kokwane, which comes in second, and Engodini, which comes in last. As expected, Kokwane scores the highest mean value on the average barriers to business variable. Bonjaneni experiences more positive and negative socio-economic impacts of tourism than Kokwane and Engodini because of the big share of tourism it sees. This finding is in tandem with the views of Beeton (2006:19) who states that different communities will experience different levels of the impacts of tourism depending on the community dynamics, the changes brought in by tourism development, and the way in which the communities embrace and adapt to the change.

What is interesting is that having said that Bonjaneni are more exposed to tourists and the effects of tourism, it does not translate into a desire to own businesses. It should be kept in mind that though Bonjaneni experiences more of the socio-economic impacts of tourism than the other communities, this is just in relative comparison with other communities. On the general, all the communities have registered indifference towards the development of tourism in their communities. Tourism has not brought expected benefits to the communities.

The results of ANOVA, that sought to quantify the extent to which the community responses differed, show that Engodini featured in all the significant differences, and it had significant differences with both Bonjaneni and Kokwane. The significant differences were registered in the positive social impact, positive economic impact, negative economic impact, and average tourism involvement variables. Engodini experiences less positive and negative socio-economic impacts, and more average barriers to business than the other communities. The key finding here is that while there are differences between the communities, Engodini community's differences stand out from the rest (Kokwane and Bonjaneni). The differences between the Bonjaneni and Kokwane communities are negligible. As suggested above, this could be due to the smaller volume of tourism the Engodini community receives in comparison to the Bonjaneni and Kokwane communities.

The Cramer's V effect sizes exposed the differences in the community responses to their employment, businesses, and project interactions with the UDP. Though the general interactions of the UDP and the communities were determined to be poor, the low Cramer's V values indicated that responses from all three communities differed substantially. These differences are again attributable to the differences in circumstances in which the communities find themselves as enunciated by Mowforth and Munt (2016), Ryan (2003:277-280), and Telfer and Sharpley (2008:176).

The current situation observed in the communities points to the apathy stage of Doxey's irridex model of host irritation as expressed by Beeton (2006:39), which takes place when residents' expectations from tourism are not met. There is a high likelihood that when this stage is not managed properly, this might lead to the annoyance and antagonism stages of the model where residents openly oppose tourism development. Regardless of the socio-economic impacts of tourism and the UDP being felt by the communities, and the general exclusion from tourism employment, activities, and business, the probit models that were estimated suggest that the community residents do consider ownership of businesses and tourism businesses. For this to be a possibility, Paddison and Biggins (2017), Dragouni and Fouseki (2018), Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018), and Bello *et al.* (2018) are of the view that all forms of enhanced participation in tourism requires the various capacitation of the local communities involved.

5.10 Chapter summary

To summarise, this chapter has presented and analysed the various empirical findings of the quantitative phase of this study. The various communities' socio-economic demography was ascertained. The equity impact of the UDP was determined based on the communities' perception thereof. The levels of community tourism involvement were also established. To varying extents, the key findings generally paint a gloomy picture of the current levels of, and prospects for, the communities' involvement and ownership of various tourism-related businesses that make up the tourism value chain. The challenges and barriers in tourism business ownership were discussed, as were the ideal tourism businesses that are required by the communities.

The next chapter shifts its focus to the presentation and analysis of empirical findings obtained from the qualitative phase of the study.

CHAPTER 6: QUALITATIVE RESULTS

6.1 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on presenting the findings that were obtained from the qualitative empirical phase of this study. It presents the findings of the five in-depth interviews that were conducted with the UDP CLOs and the CTLs of the three communities surveyed, whose results were presented in the preceding chapter. This chapter further triangulates and collates the findings of the study's quantitative study together with those of the qualitative phase. The results, as shall be seen, seek to paint a picture of the mandate the UDP CLOs and the CTLs have, as well as the roles they play, particularly in the advancement of their respective communities around matters of tourism involvement, participation, and possible ownership of the tourism value chain. Accordingly, the chapter starts off by detailing the process taken to select the interviewees, then shifts to the various roles and mandates of the interviewees. Community/Park engagements, support, and relations are then examined before assessing the potential the community has in the ownership of the tourism value chain. The chapter concludes by presenting the solicited ideal tourism value chain ownership framework for the community and enumerating the challenges faced by communities in business ownership.

6.2 Selection of interviewees

As alluded to in Chapter 1 and comprehensively covered in Chapter 4, critical case and expertise-oriented approaches of purposive sampling were used for the qualitative phase of the study. Firstly, the researcher sought the permission of the UDP to interview their CLOs who were strategically positioned and knowledgeable about the communities within which their mandate fell. Of the three communities that were under study, two fell under the jurisdiction of one CLO while the third fell under the jurisdiction of the second CLO. Accordingly, the two CLOs responsible for the three communities under study were selected for the interviews.

First contact with the UDP's CLOs was deliberate and strategic. It was so coined that the CLOs, who work closely with the communities, could assist with contacting the CTLs of the three combined communities under their jurisdiction. Permission for interviews was then sought from the three CTLs of the communities under study. Consequently, there were five in-depth interviews conducted with the two CLOs and the three CTLs. The interviews took place in the respective communities (Bonjaneni, Kokwane, and Engodini). The results of the interviews are presented in the ensuing sections.

6.3 Establishing the participants' roles, mandate, and engagement efforts

This section presents the findings from the interviews with regards to the respondents' duties and the challenges they face in the execution of their mandate. Accordingly, the following two themes were identified: respondents' role and mandate, and UDP community engagement channels.

6.3.1 Theme 1: Respondents' roles, mandate, and challenges

The study sought to establish the nature of the relationship that existed between the UDP and the communities under scrutiny. Accordingly, the CLOs were asked to explain their mandate and roles within their communities as well as their views on whether the communities are content with their roles. To make the researcher appreciate the extent of responsibility the CLOs have, one CLO disclosed that the UDP has a total of 15 management units (camps) which are divided into three areas of jurisdiction (Northern, Central, and Southern) for the CLOs to oversee.

Both CLOs have been with KZN Wildlife for 13 years, and one can conclude that they are experienced in their roles. It was established that their roles mainly included managing the wildlife area that falls outside of the Park which is in direct contact with the communities. As such, their mandate entails engaging with the community and its various stakeholders (such as the CTLs, schools, different municipalities, commercial farmers, other conservation agencies and NGOs like the World Wildlife Fund (WWF)) to manage nature outside of the park.

The CLOs are also tasked with managing and facilitating the Community Levy Fund, a fund established by the UDP with the aim to distribute some of the proceeds from tourism to the communities. The CLOs inform the communities of the Fund's availability, requirements, and application process. Below are excerpts of the interviews pertaining to the questions asked in this regard.

> *I have been a CLO for three years, but I have been with KZN Wildlife for a total of 13 years. I used to be a Reserve Manager for 10 years before assuming this role. My main duty is to ensure that the relationship between the communities adjacent to the reserve is good. My duty is to engage with the communities through environmental education and awareness. If there are maybe issues where the communities are not happy, for example, when the communities have got a problem of damage-causing animals, they do consult me, and I consult the relevant District Conservation Officers to go and do an inspection. Sometimes I also go with them and advise the community accordingly of what they should do to try and stop the problem.*

> *I have been into this job since 2007* [13 years]. *My job entails environmental awareness, engaging with different stakeholders like traditional chiefs, schools, commercial farmers, different district municipalities, other departments who are doing the same job like mine, other NGOs like WWF and so on. We work together to manage nature, especially outside the park. The aim of KZN Wildlife is also to manage the outside of the Park because what happen there affects what happens inside the Park. I also facilitate the Community Levy Fund in terms of application access to the communities.*

From the above it can be deduced that the UDP views the communities as an important part of the Park that needs to be taken into consideration for the benefit of conservation. Initiatives such as the Community Levy Fund are an attempt to actively distribute the benefits of tourism to the community.

The CTLs were asked to take the researcher through their roles and day to day tasks in the communities. The responses gathered indicate that the CTLs' roles involve almost all aspects of life of their subjects. They are the custodians of the land and are creators and

enforcers of their customary laws. As such, they work directly with the various government departments and employees such as the police, social workers, the local municipality, and magistrates in the execution of their mandate. The CTLs are also responsible for community development initiatives that empower their people. It was revealed that they also resolve conflicts (such as land and marital disputes) amongst their people. The CTLs also suggested that they were responsible for creating and running community empowering projects within their communities. Below are extracts from the responses given.

> *We assist people to resolve conflicts. We make sure that we communicate with the police, assist the police with information if we have information. If there is a minor dispute like dispute of land and marriages, we assist people customarily in terms of customary law. We also participate in the municipality. We also hold Imbizos, which are community meetings where we make by-laws. We are social workers, we are magistrates, we are just everything.*

> *We play a vital role in the community. We play the role of SAPS* [South African Police Service] *in ensuring peace and apprehending crime perpetrators. We are also responsible for land allocation to our people. We are also the face of government in the communities.*

> *I make sure that there are projects to empower the community, like projects to make the road and build a lodge, for example, so that people will have something on their tables.*

Pursuant to the CTLs' roles in the communities, the study also sought to appreciate the kind of challenges CTLs face in the execution of their mandate. Government support (administrative and financial) was singled out by all CTLs as being the greatest challenge they face in exercising their mandate. Another challenge that was brought up was the discontentment of the people, particularly those that have stiff penalties imposed upon them when they violate the traditional laws. Below are excerpts from the respondents' responses.

The government is not recognising us as Traditional Leaders and also do no support us financially like what the Apartheid government used to do. For example, the traditional council of 25 people which I lead does not get anything or even a stipend from government. They don't really assist us. That is the main challenge that we have.

Perpetrators of crime do not like us especially when we are impartial in resolving conflicts. Most of them expect us to take side which we do not. In one case an Induna[1] was killed when the aggrieved parties didn't agree with his verdict.

It is therefore clear that the mandates of the CLOs and the CTLs are to serve the communities they represent. The CLOs are the face of the UDP among the communities they serve and act as the bridge between the Park and the communities. While the CLOs are employees of the UDP, their mandate is two-way: they represent the interests of the communities to the UDP; they engage the communities to get their support for the Park's conservation efforts. On the other hand, the CTLs are influential in the lifestyles of their community members as they are custodians of not only the land but also the culture. As such, the CTLs and CLOs are pivotal in tourism development.

6.3.2 Theme 2: uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park - community engagement channels

Having established the various ways in which the UDP engages with its stakeholders and the communities around the park, the study shifted its focus to understanding the communication channels that exist between the park and the communities. It was established that the UDP contacts the communities through the CTLs and their Indunas. Indunas are chief's (Nkosi) assistants who are responsible for sub-communities that fall under the leadership of the CTL. It was also established that the community members had no direct access to the UDP management and CLOs unless they went through the Indunas and the CTLs. Below is an extract of the interview which illustrates this point.

[1] Indunas, also known as a chief's assistants, are respected and valued elders from the community that form part of the traditional council.

The Chiefs are our main contacts in terms of the community because the Chiefs are the leaders. We also work directly with the Indunas who are Chief's assistants in charge of valleys that fall under the Chief's territory. If we go to the Chiefs and tell them whatever we need to do, it goes to the Indunas to reach the whole community. The Indunas also have access to contact the UDP management even without my consent if there is an issue, but the community cannot just go and contact the reserve manager without having the support of the Induna or the Chief.

From the above results it appears that the existing communication channels are bureaucratic and might not be that effective. Communication is only centred on leaders without the possibility of residents having direct access to the UDP. The failure of communities to experience more positive effects from the UDP and tourism could be because of poor communication of opportunities.

The next section presents findings obtained pertaining to the UDP's community developmental efforts.

6.4 Community involvement in tourism and the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park

This section presents the responses to the questions asked that solicited the CLOs' views on the UDP efforts in community development as well as the involvement of the community members in park activities. From the responses, the following themes were established: communities' main economic activity, satisfaction levels with the UDP community role, community support for UDP's existence, sustainability of local participation in the Park's activities, and community ownership versus. participation.

6.4.1 Theme 1: Communities' main economic activity

To gain an appreciation of the kind of economy in the communities under scrutiny, the CTLs were asked to enumerate the main economic activities that their subjects rely on for livelihood. The CTLs bemoaned the lack of employment opportunities in their communities. Subsistence agriculture was the number one economic activity revealed, together with tourism. Temporary employment when there are community projects like road construction was also mentioned. Government projects and grants were also

mentioned as the key economic help given to the communities. One of the CTLs said that, because of the World Heritage Status the UDP has, its abundant deposits of coal could not be mined as this would violate the status of the park. Below are excerpts of the responses given.

> *There are no factories here. There are no farms. There is only subsistence farming and tourism. If it was not for the World Heritage Status this place has, we could be mining the huge deposits of coal in our area.*

> *There is no employment, unless if there is a project being coordinated by the councillor, or there is a contractor making roads, people can be employed but it depends on the duration of the project. Government is also economically assisting people with farming. It gives them tractors. If you have cooperatives the government gives you tractors and everything to plough. So, it helps people economically. And then we have got cattle, people are also selling cattle in the sale yards. And also grants from government.*

> *It's crop and livestock farming here. and tourism.*

The responses make it clear that the communities do not have an entrepreneurial culture, and that there is little diversification. Dependence on leaders and government is a clear theme.

6.4.2 Theme 2: Satisfaction levels with the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park community role

On whether the CLOs were satisfied with the role UDP plays in local community development, it was revealed that they were not. The CLOs, however, feel that the UDP is doing all it can to support the communities but because of resource constraints, the big size of the communities and the high levels of poverty, their efforts are insignificant. Examples of developmental efforts were cited as the employment of locals, particularly for jobs in the park that do not require skills.

> *There is not that much the Park is doing for the community. There is nothing that I can maybe pinpoint except for the job opportunities. If there are job opportunities*

that do not require skills or Grade Twelves, yes, they do hire from the local community.

I wouldn't say that I am satisfied but what I can say is that Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife is doing all that they can do to support the community and play the relevant role to the community. It's just that because the community is so huge and the neighbouring communities are such a poor community, you'll find that whatever role that we will try to play it becomes a drop in the ocean because of the state of poverty in the area.

It is interesting to note that, from the lenses of the CLOs, the UDP's efforts towards community development are less likely to be noticeable because the communities under study are exposed to extreme levels of poverty. This viewpoint agrees with the responses from the community, where they view the impact of the park on their socio-economic life as insignificant.

The same question (whether they are content with role the UDP plays in community development) was also asked to the CTLs. The CTLs were unanimous in expressing their dissatisfaction with the role the UDP plays in the development of their communities. The CTLs feel the UDP can do better. The CTLs expressed their disappointment over the closure of the Royal Natal Hotel in 2002 which used to employ over 250 community people. They further highlighted that the UDP mostly employs outsiders (people from other towns and provinces) while side-lining equally competent locals. They also pointed out a structural issue as one of the reasons why they are not happy with UDP's developmental efforts. They say since they are under the jurisdiction of the Ingonyama Trust, much of the developmental levies that the UDP intends for the communities are paid directly to the Trust but the money rarely reaches their people as there is very little transparency. Below are captured responses.

No, there are some problems. You will find that we are under Ingonyama Trust, which we are not happy because if there are any levies or money that the Park is contributing, they direct it straight to the Ingonyama Trust. As far as I can say, nothing is happening in terms of assistance from the UDP.

We are not satisfied with how UDP operates. Initially when the park was built, they said it was to empower us and that our people will be employed. However, they closed the Royal Natal Hotel that used to employ 250 people from our community in the year 2000. Now there are a lot of young people who have matric and diplomas but are unemployed. Most of these young people are now resorting to substance abuse.

No. When there are job opportunities at the Park, people from around here in the community are not involved. Its people from outside the community like maybe Estcourt, Johannesburg or Durban who get those opportunities. Some of them are managers today but they are not from our community.

This agrees with the view of the CLOs that the UDP is trying, but its efforts are not sufficient in alleviating the plight of the community. However, one additional issue raised is the management of the community through the Trust, making communication and efforts to reach the community directly more difficult.

6.4.3 Theme 3: Community support for the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park's existence

The CLOs and CTLs were also asked whether they felt the communities supported the existence of the UDP. The responses show that they feel the communities support the existence of the Park as they benefit a lot from it. According to the CLOs' responses, the Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife is the first government structure the communities see, and this contributes to the community's expectation of various forms of help and grants from the Park. This expectation, coupled with the benefits they get, generates community support of the Park's existence.

Where the community seems not to support the existence of the Park is mostly because of UDP's conservation policies that are in place that at times clash with the community members' lifestyles. As an example of such policy, one CLO singled out the Threatened or Protected Species Act, that prohibits the locals from obtaining leaves and roots from certain plants that the communities have traditionally relied on as their medicine. This view is also supported by the CTLs. Below are extracts from the responses.

They do support the existence of the Park because they are benefitting from the Park, as I mentioned before, because of job opportunities, and it also supports their livelihoods.

Yes, they do, they do support the Park. Just that the only thing that might cause them not to seem not being supportive is the fact that conservation management policies sometimes clash with the lifestyles of the community. But they do support the Park because they understand it plays a huge role to them.

Yes, they support the park because it is conserving our wildlife for future generations.

Yes, they are supporting the existence of the park, especially people who are near because sometimes when there are any vacancies, they come to the Traditional Leaders looking for people. If there are fire projects, they also employ people from the community.

We are happy with the existence of the park because we know it was established to protect our environment and empower us. We just want the UDP to be professional and fair in hiring people from our community.

6.4.4 Theme 4: Sustainability of local participation in the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park's activities

The respondents were also asked if they felt the participation of the local community in the Park's tourism ventures was sustainable. There is a difference in terms of responses from the CLOs. On one hand, one of the CLOs suggests that there is no participation whatsoever of the local community in the Park's tourism ventures except for the occasional unskilled employment. On the other hand, the other CLO provides a mixed response by indicating that there are both sustainable involvement initiatives and some unsustainable ones in her communities.

The making and selling of craft by women close to the Royal Natal entrance and around the Park is regarded as one of the sustainable participation initiatives by local communities in tourism activities. After probing, the tour guiding business by locals was

also added to the list of sustainable tourism practices by locals in the Park. They are regarded sustainable because they will likely exist for as long as there is tourism and tourists in the area. Interestingly, one of the CLOs identifies the provision of security services by a local company at one of the rest camp entrances as an unsustainable practice in the sense that it is only awarded on a five-year term after a tender process. There is no guarantee that the security company will be there beyond their current term. Below are excerpts from responses given.

> *No. Not really, because there is nothing that is taking place at the communities. There is no participation from the community side.*

> *There are sustainable ones and there are unsustainable ones. Just that the sustainable ones are the ones without so much money. To make an example of those sustainable ones, in all the roads there are women making crafts and so on. For instance, the Thandanani Craft Centre that is there next to Royal Natal, is even exporting their crafts. But if the tourists are not there, they cannot get money. Making crafts will always be there as long as tourism is there.*

> *The other ones which are unsustainable according to my view are the Security guys whom you find in certain areas of the Park like the gate which is a local owned company. This is a tender for five years, after five years that person will not be getting anything from KZN Wildlife. There is huge money but unsustainable according to me.*

While there is general contentment and good feelings about the Park, the CTLs felt that the UDP could do more to assist the locals to participate in the park activities, particularly employing the locals in the park. One of the CTLs expressed his satisfaction over the participation of locals within tourism around the park. He mentions the availability of the Community Levy Fund which in his community was responsible for the construction of a community run bakery. Below are excerpts from responses obtained.

> *We are happy about the existence of the Community Levy Fund from the park. People are free to apply for funds to start businesses. In our community it was*

used to construct the bakery next to the park entrance. We are also happy that we can visit the park with our families.

If they (UDP) have got activities and want to have a community meeting, they communicate with leaders. It depends on the activities, but they do respect the leaders. We however feel more can still be done for the communities.

No, because most of our community people are not working and are not benefitting from the park. If there are opportunities given to the people of our community then we can be satisfied.

From the responses, one can easily note the community residents' dependence on the Park for employment and various other opportunities.

6.4.5 Theme 5: Community ownership versus participation

The study also sought to ascertain the participants' views on community ownership of the tourism value chain against mere participation in tourism activities. The question sought a response that would highlight a preference between the two (community ownership of the tourism value chain or participation in tourism ventures by locals) as viewed by the respondents. One of the CLOs, however, insisted that both the ownership of the tourism value chain and the participation of locals in tourism activities were alien to her communities. While the researcher felt that a distinction could not be made between community ownership and participation by the CTLs, the CTLs were supportive of the idea of business ownership primarily because it would ease community members' struggle of traveling long distances to access basic services such as groceries and fuel. Business ownership, they insist, would not only benefit the local communities but also the tourists who visit the Park who will need various services.

Below are extracts from the responses by the CLOs:

In this community there is nothing. Are you talking about communities doing crafts and things like that and selling to the tourists? No. There is no such in this community. You will see as you drive around that there is nothing taking place in this area.

According to my view, community ownership is still not that huge because you will find that maybe in the area of 10 000 people there are only five or ten businesses that are more on tourism value chain. According to my views, the participation too is still not that huge because there is a lot that the community could offer but is not known to the tourism industry.

The second view is also shared by the CTLs as the following statements reveal:

There are no businesses owned by the community here. We would like to see our community members owning malls, craft centres, tour guiding, large supermarkets, and restaurants so that we do not get to travel long distances for various services and groceries.

We will be very happy if there can be shops close to us like malls and petrol stations. It is costly for us to travel to and from town just for basic services we could be getting right here if there are local businesses. The tourists also struggle a lot for services here, they must drive to town for petrol and access shops when they are here. So, it would be easy if there are big shops around here.

There is agreement amongst the participants that there is little or no community ownership of the tourism value chain as well as that there is very little, if any, participation of local community members in tourism activities in and around the Park. This confirms previous observations that the community live a life of dependence and subsistence rather than from an entrepreneurial spirit.

6.5 Discussion on findings relating to community involvement in tourism and the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park

The major findings from the communities' involvement in tourism and the UDP are mostly consistent with the works of previous scholars. It was revealed that the main economic activities of the three communities were subsistence farming, a bit of tourism, and that various government grants come in handy for survival. This is consistent with the studies by Perret *et al.* (2005) and Davis *et al.* (2006) who contend that while subsistence farming is the main economic activities in rural South Africa, the communities are also reliant on

government grants and other economic activities inspired by the resources next to them. In the case of the communities, due to their proximity to the National Park, tourism is also part of their economic activities.

Another finding was the dissatisfaction expressed by both the CLOs and the CTLs over the role the UDP plays in their respective communities. The CLOs attribute this to the extreme levels of poverty in the communities which make the UDP community development efforts unnoticeable. Nonetheless, the CTLs feel the UDP can still do more. This finding is not unique from a literature perspective. Authors like Giampiccoli and Saayman (2018); Giampiccoli *et al.* (2015); Mowforth and Munt (2016); Palmer and Chuamuangphan (2018) have voiced how local communities in Third World countries continue to reap very little benefits from tourism. Failure of the intermediaries (the organisations that exist between the Park and the community) to champion community development goals also contribute to this.

Another finding is that, regardless of the dissatisfaction over the UDP's community development efforts, it is interesting to note that all the respondents feel that there is community support for the Park's existence. Notable reasons given were that the Park protects their wildlife for their benefit and those of future generations. This is also in line with the findings of a study by Scholtz and Slabbert (2016) who argue that regardless of the unavailability of tangible benefits to tourism towards the community, community members might still have support for tourism due to the intangible benefits, real or perceived, that they get from tourism activities within their vicinity.

It was also revealed that while there is some participation by the communities in the Park activities, such as occasional employment to make fire guards around the park, for example, ownership of businesses by locals was even more scarce and mainly concentrated in the craft business. The closure of a once big-employing hotel (Royal Natal Hotel) did not help. This could be, as Giampiccoli *et al.* (2014) puts it, due to the lack of structures that give support to CBT in South African rural communities even though it is a practice that has gained regional acclaim in other Third World countries.

The next section examines the potential the communities possess in owning and running businesses in the tourism value chain.

6.6 The communities' current business standing and potential

Various questions were asked that not only tried to establish the communities' current business ownership standing but also to assess the communities' potential to own and run tourism-related businesses. The following themes were established: knowledge of UDP business suppliers, policies to support local business, communities' potential to own successful businesses, and CTLs' business ability.

6.6.1 Theme 1: Knowledge of uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park business suppliers

As a start, interviewees were asked to name the major suppliers of services to the UDP, as well as differentiate, in terms of better quality, between the local suppliers and external suppliers. Below is an extract of the responses given.

> *Because we are a government entity, if we need a supplier, we go through the supply chain management channel. If one person needs to do business with us, they need to register in the database which is also the central database system of the government and then confirm the business with us. This where the security guys I mentioned above come in who manage the gate at […] Camp. At [another] Camp there is a restaurant that is inside the resort which is run by an external supplier. The last thing is the cleaning services and gardening, that is where the people from the community can get businesses but through the tender process and supply chain management system. The contacts are five-year renewable, but it doesn't mean that the person who has it will have an automatic renewal.*

None of the CTLs or CLOs could either name the owners or state the names of companies that supply services to the UDP. However, one of the CLOs had an idea whether the existing suppliers of some services were locals or externals. From the above excerpt, it can be noted that suppliers of restaurant services at one of the camps are externals, while the supplier of the security services at another camp is local. It can also be noted that the supply of cleaning services and gardening is mostly by members of the local communities. It would be difficult for an unemployed poor person to possibly qualify as a preferred supplier.

Asked to state her preference of suppliers between locals and externals, the CLO indicated that from her experience, external suppliers often delivered better quality services than local suppliers. It was also revealed that locals tend to perform better when the enterprise is relatively small as opposed to when the ventures are big and demanding. This points to issues of capacity. There is need for supporting structures to local businesses. Below is an extract of her response that illustrates how local suppliers often fall short of their required tasks.

> *For example, If I had to ask for the workshop with the Chiefs or with the Municipal local councillors and so on. I need to provide meals there. If I have found someone to cook, some will either be late or come with cold food and so on. The local ones perform better if the thing is small. At [another] resort they gave a local person to head gardens and so on. He performed very well.*

6.6.2 Theme 2: Policies to support local businesses

Interviewees were further asked if there were any policies in place at the UDP to support local businesses. The responses indicate that there are deliberate policies in place from the UDP's Integrated Management Plan (IMP). Some of the policies highlighted include the priority consideration of local suppliers wherever they meet the required standards before external suppliers can be contracted. There is also a fund called the Community Levy Fund that has been created to provide business loans and support to local community members who are willing to start their own businesses. This fund, since its inception, has accrued funds on an annual basis based on a certain percentage of what the reserves made each year. The money is only used for community development projects, and this was confirmed by one of the CLOs. From one of the CTLs, it was established that there is a role, though not clear, played by the Ingonyama Trust in supporting the setup of local businesses by the community.

Below are extracts from the obtained responses.

> *At UDP we do everything according to the IMP which is drawn from policies. In the IMP there is a huge section which talks about support to local communities. Through our supply chain, I can indicate that the local community businesses get*

first preference when we need suppliers. If no one meets the standards that is needed, then we go outside. The Community Levy Fund is also available. The government financial year is ending in March, so by March we know each reserve how much is available for community. Even if the community did not apply that particular year for any businesses, that community levy money is still available for them, it will not be used for any other thing except for community upliftment.

There are some procedures and laws by the Ingonyama Trust and the UDP that can be followed if one wishes to set up a business.

From the above, it can be noted that the communication and application channel for the Community Levy Fund is hazy. There is an intermediary between the communities and the Park through which the Fund is accessed and administered. While the intermediary is a community leadership structure, it is not clear how it is providing the support that the community needs for business development.

6.6.3 Theme 3: Communities' potential to own successful businesses

The participants were also asked if they felt that local communities could own successful tourism initiatives. The participants felt that the communities could be able to own successful tourism initiatives provided they acquire the business and marketing skills, education, technical support, as well as the requisite funding required to run successful businesses. Some locals are particularly talented in craft work.

It was also revealed that cooperative businesses have failed in the past and as such, individual ownership to businesses would be ideal. After further probing, the researcher found out that one of the requirements for community members to access money from the UDP's Community Levy Fund already mentioned, they had to be in a cooperative of at least five people. One CLO's experience is that most people come together to form cooperatives just to access funds without really being interested in creating a business. Once the funds are released the cooperatives do not last as individual members claim a share of the money for personal use. Members in cooperatives, it was established, often lack the same vision and ambition resulting in clashes and fighting, particularly when there is revenue coming in.

One CTL mentioned that tourism businesses owned by locals, such as craftwork, thrive when there are a lot of tourists visiting. They refer to a time when the Royal Natal Hotel was still operational in the Park, Craftwork could easily sustain locals due to the volume of tourism in the area. The CTLs clearly see more tourism traffic as an opportunity for better business.

Below are response excerpts from the CLOs:

> *Yes, they can. Only if they can get support, get educated and if they get funding to do their businesses.*
>
> *They can own successful ones if only they can be sole owners of those tourism initiatives. Cooperatives have failed because they group people together where some are just interested in the funds and not the business. These businesses can only be successful if they are owned by one person and the rest are employees.*

This was confirmed by the CTLs, saying:

> *Yes, as I said, they must be capacitated and be taught how to do it.*
>
> *Yes, we have many people here who are gifted with their hands. For example, there are women within our communities who have successful craft works which they sell to the tourists for a living by the main gate of the Park.*
>
> *People need to be educated about how to run a business and how to market themselves. At Thandanani craft centre people do sell their crafts only to tourists who come to the place. When the Royal Natal Hotel was operational people would easily make a living from their crafts. Now that it's closed down it is difficult for them.*

From the responses, communities have the potential to own successful tourism ventures but only if they are capacitated. Education and empowerment are clear themes.

6.6.4 Theme 4: Community leaders' business ability

Respondents were further asked if CTLs had the potential to become successful and competent business managers. The results show a mixed feeling towards the CTLs' ability to run successful business ventures. On one side, one of the CLOs has confidence in the management ability of CTLs provided they are given the necessary support and help in the form of skills training and funding. On the other hand, the other CLO argues that CTLs do not have what it takes to run competent businesses. The CLO sees success only in a set-up where CTLs act as more of a structure to organisations being run by hired, competent managers. The CTLs themselves were reluctant to agree that they would be good business owners and managers. Though they suggested that while they could do it with education and training, they insisted that their mandate was to serve the community and promote those who want to venture into business.

> *Yes, they can. If they can also be equipped with funding, education, and support.*
>
> *No, they can't. They can only manage to run successful businesses only if they hire the competent manager to run their businesses. Running them themselves, no, they cannot.*

The CTLs mainly agree with the second viewpoint. The following statements confirm this notion.

> *Yes, with training, we could. Our role is to support the community to own businesses and not for us to do it ourselves. We have a lot of things to do.*
>
> *Our aim is to encourage the businesspeople because there are people who have got shops here.*
>
> *Running a business will take away the time we are supposed to be leading our communities and dealing with community affairs.*

6.7 Discussion on findings with regards to the communities' current business standing and potential

The findings on the communities' current business standing and potential are also comparable to previous scholarly works. There are two major policies at the UDP meant to support the locals in the ownership of business. These are the Community Levy Fund and local supplier priority deliberation when they meet tender requirements.

While available to all communities around the UDP, the proceeds and work of the Community Levy Fund are, however, only evident in one of the communities, Bonjaneni, where there is a craft centre and a now defunct community bakery. One CTL revealed that payments from the UDP made directly to the Ingonyama Trust meant for community development, seldom reaches the community. Further, beneficiaries of the deliberate policy that prioritises local suppliers to the Park could not be easily established, hinting to the possibility of very little beneficiaries of this policy from the communities.

This is consistent with the discoveries by Paddison and Biggins (2017) and Velnisa Paimin *et al.* (2014) who suggest that underlying community power dynamics and political play could be the reason why very few intended beneficiaries of community projects benefit from such initiatives. The finding above also resonates with the views of Giampiccoli *et al.* (2014) who state that while there is some semblance of CBT in South Africa, there are yawning gaps between the policies on paper and the practice on the ground.

Another finding is that while community members had the potential to own successful tourism businesses, they required capacitation for this potential to be realised. Funding, education, business skills and knowledge, and exposure to tourism, were some of the capacity issues that needed to be addressed if community members would succeed in tourism business ownership. This finding is in sync with the chronicles of Bello *et al.* (2018), Hatipoglu *et al.* (2016), and Kala and Bagri (2018), who point to the need for community capacitation to enable their meaningful participation in tourism.

It was also established that despite being leaders of the community, CTLs would not necessarily be good business leaders. Most respondents felt that the CTLs' role was in

co-ordinating and encouraging business development within their power and would be conflicted if they are to pursue the ownership of businesses. However, there are no deliberate structures that stipulate the role CTLs should play in the support of more advanced forms of community participation in tourism. This finding is supported by Jones *et al.* (2014) who argues that CTLs are often poor business leaders and should rather facilitate than participate in business.

The next section presents the findings with regards to the ideal community business ownership models, the challenges faced by communities in their quest for owning and running businesses, as well as the ways in which the UDP and CTLs can support business ownership within their communities.

6.8 Ideal community business models, challenges, and support

This section presents the findings obtained from the questions that were asked that sought to establish the ideal tourism community ownership business models, the challenges faced by communities in setting up and running the businesses, and the ways the UDP and CTLs can help community tourism business ownership to succeed. Accordingly, the themes that emerged were ideal community business ownership models, community challenges in business ownership and supporting business ownership.

6.8.1 Theme 1: Ideal community business ownership models

The CLOs were asked to suggest the most ideal business ownership model that they felt would work for their communities. Three business ownership models were presented to them from which they were asked to choose, namely: (i) the community owns and runs the business; (ii) the community owns the business run by externals; or (iii) the community in a partnership with an outside investor. The findings reveal that the CLOs have confidence in locals owning and running their own tourism enterprises. This model, they stated, is the most beneficial to the communities as there is local control of the enterprises while locals will be employed.

They can own their project and run it because that can also assist others in their community by employing them which will improve their livelihoods. If that business grows, many families can benefit from it because they employ people from locals.

According to my view, the suitable one for the community can be the type of business… for instance, if they open the restaurant, it should be a restaurant that offers a type of food that is their own African cuisine. It is very difficult for the communities to own maybe an Italian restaurant or any restaurant with other dishes. Another thing, it can be very easy for the communities to own businesses that offer their lifestyle to the guests. For an example, it there was an art centre where the locals would showcase their traditional dances and so on, that for me that will be sustainable as it does not require many resources and school.

It is interesting to highlight one of the CLOs' observations concerning the distinction of the appropriate business ownership models depending on the type of business to be run. In her view, locals can wholly own and run tourism businesses where they are easily experts. She gives examples of such businesses as a traditional cuisine restaurant and an entertainment company offering traditional dances, which, according to her, come naturally to their lifestyles. For other businesses that require a lot of skills and expertise, she suggests that locals own the business while there is an external qualified manager at the helm of the business. She insists that this set up would also allow locals to participate in the business as employees.

6.8.2 Theme 2: Community challenges in business ownership

Both the CLOs and CTLs were further asked to envisage the kind of challenges the communities would face in their quest for business ownership. Lack of tourism knowledge, funding, training, business skills, and exposure coupled with low levels of income were highlighted as the likely impediments community members would encounter in business ownership. The extracts below illustrate the responses from the CLOs.

The challenges can be conflicts that can be caused by maladministration. So, it's important that before they start their businesses, they get proper training so that

they'll be able to run their businesses smoothly. If there is only one person who is trained there is a risk of that individual manipulating the business for themselves.

The only challenge I see is that the community is still underdeveloped. There are low levels of income within these communities. They also lack knowledge and exposure when it comes to tourism.

These views are supported by the CTLs as the following quotes show:

People of the community who run the businesses they need to be taught how to welcome the tourists, how to provide a service to the tourists, like the communications skills, customer service skills and stuff. So those are things that people must be taught.

Lack of education and knowledge. The people must be taught and must be capacitated. There are local people who are educated, principals and nurses, who want to own businesses. Funding is also a challenge.

The problems that the local people who run tourism related businesses face are that some of them are not educated, plus communications skills and money.

From the above, it can be noted that while education and training are a real concern, community members that venture into businesses known to them can overcome some of the challenges. The communities will nonetheless still need support through proper structures and probably funding.

6.8.3 Theme 3: Supporting business ownership

The study also sought to learn the ways in which the UDP and the CTLs could support the ownership of tourism businesses by the community. The CLOs revealed a myriad of ways in which they could support locals in the ownership of tourism businesses. These include encouraging locals to apply for the Community Levy Fund, inviting craft sellers to sell their products inside the Park (they ordinarily sell their crafts outside of the Park and at the Park entrance), partnering with locals at the traditional cuisine offering restaurant,

allowing the locals harvest special grass used for craft inside the Park, and marketing local businesses on the Park's official webpage.

The CTLs indicated they support local business ownership through provision of land, words of encouragement, business advice, and business lessons. One CTL, however, lamented the lack of interest in business development and ownership from the locals who would rather prefer employment over business.

Below are excerpts from the responses that were given by UDP's CLOs.

> *To encourage them to start their own businesses and to encourage them to apply for assistance from the government or from Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife since there is this Community Levy Fund that was established to assist the communities around the reserves.*
>
> *There is a structure that has been built by KZN Wildlife next to Royal Natal, but it is still under construction by the name of Busingatha Lodge whereby we encourage them to open the lodge to make the traditional local dishes available and so on. We can also market these local businesses through our website. We allow the community members to do their business inside the park (selling art and tour guiding). The art sellers are also given an opportunity every year to come inside the park and harvest certain grass that they'll use to make their crafts.*

The CTLs also mentioned the role they can play as illustrated by the statements below.

> *We are trying. I used to invite the community members to come for business lessons. They would initially come but stop along the way. Their interest would die down due to inactivity. When we announce vacancies, the halls easily fill up to capacity even when the jobs are short term but when we are trying to call them to educate them, they feel we are wasting their time. We are going to identify people who are enlightened for future projects.*
>
> *We motivate the business runners in the community on how to keep their workplace, on how to be punctual, on how to treat their employees, and then the customers. We are playing a big role in encouraging those who have businesses*

here in the community on how to run them. We also encourage people who want to do business in the community to first report to the traditional leaders so that if anything goes wrong, the leader will be involved.

As chief I support those who are in business or those who want to start businesses by providing land to them. There is also the Ingonyama Trust, and the office of the Zulu King, who provides assistance such as land to those who are in business or those who want to start one.

6.9 Discussion on the findings relating to the ideal community business models, challenges, and support

When the findings obtained in this regard are compared to that of previous studies, there are some additional insights obtained. In terms of the ideal community business ownership models for the communities, the respondents were in favour of the one that allows community members to own and run tourism ventures. While Jones *et al.* (2014) also suggest that the ownership model that is most ideal for community development is one that is wholly owned and run by the locals, they also argue that it is one of the most complex approaches to ownership that demands the most from community members. Jones *et al.* (2014) argue for less radical approaches to ownership when the community members are still inexperienced until a time when they have the required skills and business acumen to stand alone.

The reasoning behind the respondents' choice of this ownership model is rooted in that when locals focus on businesses that are part and parcel of their lifestyles like craftwork, traditional cuisine, art, and entertainment, there won't be any need for external influences or partnerships since resources required for such enterprises are locally available. This too is supported by Tewes-Gradl *et al.* (2014) who believe that sustainable locally owned tourism business enterprises are those that incorporate and showcase the lifestyle of locals.

The findings from the community challenges in business ownership are also consistent with those of other scholars. The respondents revealed lack of funding, low levels of income, lack of business skills, knowledge and education, lack of tourism exposure, and

lack of government support as the major impediments to business ownership. This is echoed in studies conducted by Akamani *et al.* (2015); Bello *et al.* (2018); Dragouni & Fouseki (2018); Hatipoglu *et al.* (2016); Kala & Bagri (2018); and Velnisa Paimin *et al.* (2014) who single out similar barriers as the inhibitions to various forms of community participation in tourism.

Various support mechanisms were found to be in place for community business ownership. These include encouraging community members to apply for the Community Levy Fund from the UDP to start their business ventures, marketing of community products by the UDP, and provision of land and encouragement from the CTLs. While this is a noble starting point, Giampiccoli *et al.* (2014) argue that there needs to be formal structures in place that give support to CBT and enhance more advanced forms of participation.

The subsequent section compares the results from both the qualitative and quantitative phases of this study.

6.10 Triangulation of quantitative and qualitative findings

This section compares the empirical results obtained from the community survey (presented in Chapter 5) and the interviews presented in this chapter. The purpose of this section is to integrate the findings with a view of corroborating the results so that substantive conclusions can be drawn. The triangulation will be under the following headings:

- Socio-economic impact of the UDP and the community perceptions of the park
- Levels of community involvement in tourism
- Community tourism business ownership

6.10.1 Socio-economic impact of the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park and the community perceptions of the park

The community survey results show an indifferent feeling of the communities' perceptions on the socio-economic impacts of the UDP and tourism on their society. In general, there

is neither a confirmation nor a denial regarding the presence of the socio-economic impacts on the communities. An assessment of the four variables that were rated, positive social impact, negative social impact, positive economic impact, and negative economic impact, shows that the negative economic impact and the negative social impact had the highest average means whereas the positive economic impact and positive social impacts had the lowest. Communities felt more negative impacts than they did positive impacts. On this note, the survey results tell a story where communities receive very little benefits from tourism.

Similarly, the interview results highlight the discontentment of the respondents towards the role the UDP plays within their communities. While there is evidence of development efforts by the UDP towards the communities, there is consensus that it is not enough. The poverty in the community makes this a very difficult task for the park, as one of the officers acknowledged. It is a drop in the bucket. The development of the community and poverty are substantiated by both the Stats SA statistics and the results of the community surveys where the dependence on government grants, subsistence agriculture, and some tourism-related jobs were highlighted. Due to this dependence, many look at the Park purely for low skilled employment opportunities, some of which were eroded by the closure of the hotel. Further, the communication channels are very indirect between the Park and the community. It goes through either the CTL or the Trust. Fascinatingly, the interview results show that regardless of the dissatisfaction the communities have towards the UDP's community efforts, there is still support for its existence. This is because of the intangible benefits, such as community pride, that accrue to the communities due to the Park's World Heritage status and the conservation of wildlife.

The survey further exposed that, in relative comparison, the socio-economic impacts were felt the most by Bonjaneni community and the least at Engodini. This too is revealed in the interview results. The interview results confirmed Bonjaneni community's dominance in terms of community tourism activities.

6.10.2 Levels of community involvement in tourism

Both the community survey and interviews sought to ascertain the level of community involvement in tourism activities around the park. The survey results show that the

communities are not actively participating in many tourism activities. The results specifically show small numbers of community members who are employed at the UDP, who supply tourism related services to the Park, who either own businesses or have considered owning one, who either know of or have been involved in community projects offered by the UDP, and very low numbers of people who have tourism skills, knowledge, or experience.

While the interviews also confirm the modest involvement of locals in tourism activities, the picture is not as gloomy as that of the survey results. The interviews revealed that, though at a low level, local community members are engaged in tourism activities. The UDP provides occasional employment for activities such as making of fireguards around the Park. There are tour guiding services provided by locals and a sizeable number of people, particularly women, who sell their crafts at the park entrance. It was also established that there is a deliberate fund, The Community Levy Fund, that is accessible to those within communities who want to start their own businesses if they comply with the requirements. This fund was responsible for the construction of a craft centre and community bakery in one of the communities. Access to the fund is, however, not that easy. It is accessed through the trust and members must be in cooperatives of minimum five people to be eligible.

Nonetheless, the interviews, just like the community survey, also exposed the respondents' discontent over the lack of community involvement. Notably, involvement is expected to come from the park's side. Little own initiative is taken by the community.

Just as the survey results revealed Bonjaneni community to be leading in terms of involvement in tourism, the interview results paint a similar picture. This is evidenced by the presence of a craft centre and a community bakery in Bonjaneni that were built buy the proceeds from the Community Levy Fund. Similar projects and structures in other communities could not be found.

6.10.3 Community tourism business ownership

The study also sought to determine the levels of tourism business ownership, the challenges faced in the quest for ownership, the ideal tourism business for the communities, and the existence of institutional support from the UDP and the CTLs.

The results from the survey indicate that a very low number of people are in current business ownership and a decent number have considered ownership of either a general business or a tourism-related business. The top challenges enumerated in the community survey as the impediments to business ownership were, in order of frequency, lack of government support and initiatives, lack of access to information, lack of financial resources, and lack of tourism business and marketing expertise. The community survey also revealed the tourism businesses that would be ideal for their communities as, in order of popularity, cultural products, tourism information, sport and adventure, and entertainment and events.

Results from the interviews do not just show a low ownership of businesses by local communities, but also state the type of businesses locals are involved in. Craft work and tour guiding was revealed to be the leading tourism businesses owned by locals. The business challenges expressed in the community survey were also mirrored by the respondents of the interviews who also highlighted lack of funding, lack of business skills and expertise as the leading impediments to local business ownership.

Not only do results from the interviews validate the ideal tourism businesses pointed out in the community survey, but they also explain the reason for this preference. Interview results go on to suggest that tourism businesses that are of a low capital nature and that showcase locals' lifestyle would be easy to set up, run, and sustain. Traditional cuisine restaurants were also added to the list of ideal community businesses from the interview results. The interview results further detail the nature of institutional support that can be received from UDP and CTLs for the success of local tourism business ownership. These included encouraging locals to apply for the Community Levy Fund, marketing community products on the UDP website, and provision of land from the CTLs upon which businesses can be built. This could not be ascertained from the community survey.

Whereas the survey and the interviews highlight the ideal tourism businesses for the community, the interviews further highlight the potential the locals have in tourism business ownership if they are equipped with the necessary skills and resources; they also disclose the ideal tourism business ownership model as one where locals wholly own and run an enterprise. The lack of skills and education can also be linked to the poverty situation and constraints the communities face, such as limited access to running water and sanitation, as revealed in the community surveys. This inevitably puts the communities in a dependence mode where they look up to externals for development initiatives.

It can be seen from the above triangulation that the results closely match and complement each other in telling the story of the communities' levels of participation in tourism, their levels of business ownership, challenges, and ideal businesses. The following sections detail the novel framework for tourism community value chain ownership.

6.11 The tourism community value chain ownership framework

Having reviewed and corroborated the findings of this study, and pursuant to the overall goal of this study, the following framework is presented. This framework draws its inspiration from the various theories (cf. 2.4) such as Pretty's typology of participation (cf. 2.4.1), Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation (cf. 2.4.2), and the stakeholder theory (cf. 2.4.3), that can be used by development planners to establish the extent to which residents in tourism communities participate in tourism. This framework is envisaged to close the theoretical and empirical gap in relation to the ownership of the tourism value chain by communities as a means of community upliftment. This framework considers the need for a proper structure and communication channels in the development of tourism-related businesses in the community.

This framework further seeks to add on to the dimensions of inclusiveness (cf. 3.5). The five dimensions of inclusiveness, viz., remuneration, risk, voice, opportunity, and ownership, are higher when community members are involved in tourism businesses as entrepreneurs, moderate when involved as employees, and low when they are merely participating in tourism activities (cf. 3.5).

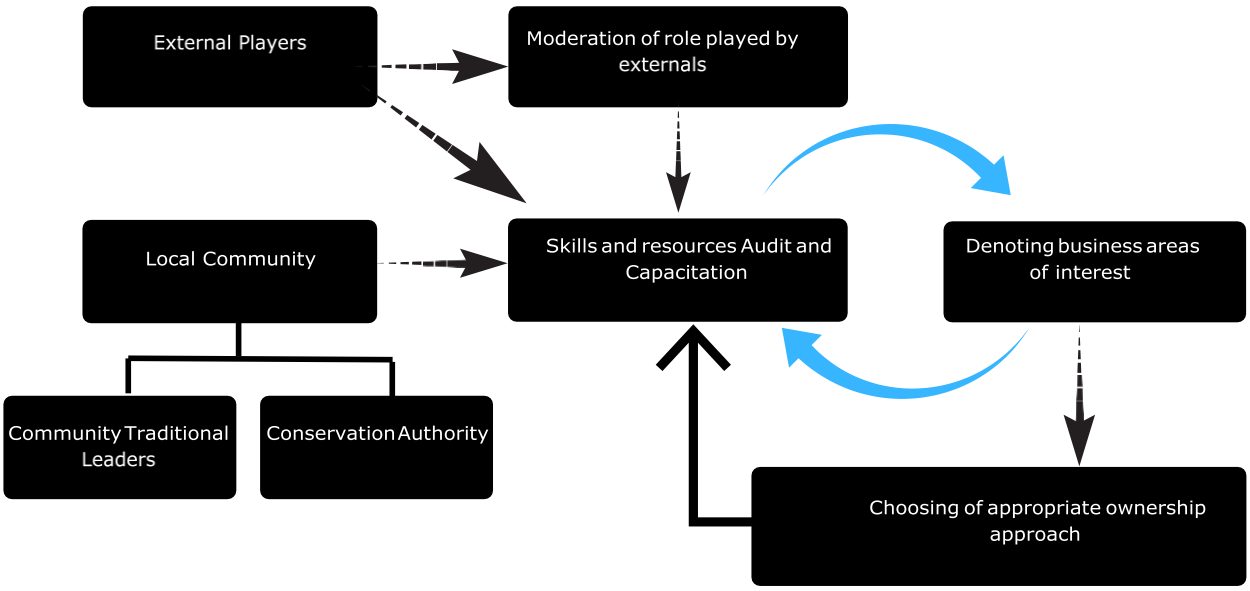


Figure 6-1: Tourism community value chain ownership framework

Source: Author's own illustration

The framework's elements are explained below:

Local tourism community

A local tourism community refers to all residents of the places (villages, towns, and cities) within which tourism activities take place (cf. 2.3.2). Traditional leaders, whose mandate is that of empowering their people, are also part of the community. Their role should be fixed upon facilitating and enabling a conducive environment for local business. Managers of the natural areas found around communities, like the UDP, that are tasked with the mandate of wildlife conservation also form part of the supporting structures for the local tourism community. This is the natural starting point of the framework. The initiative starts here, driven by the locals. It is the prerogative of the locals to determine how their upliftment will pan out.

External players

The study revealed external players to include the NGOs, government and development agencies, local authorities, industry associations, academia, intermediaries, and all other

organisations that are interested in tourism who are not part of the local community (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014) (cf. 3.6.6).

Moderation of the role played by externals

This implies the ‘service blueprinting’ and monitoring of the acceptable role the externals should play when they assist the local community to realise their full potential in the ownership and control of the tourism value chain (cf. 3.2.2; 3.2.2.4). Supporting previous research (Global CHE Network, 2019) (cf. 3.2.1) the study showed that externals have to play an appropriate and acceptable role in the development of communities, due to the lack of skills and expertise. The moderation of external players’ role is poised to provide the desirable assistance to the local community as it feeds into community skills and resource, audit, and capacitate.

Skills and resources audit and capacitation

The lack of skills and various resources have been singled out as the major impediments to successful community ownership of the value chain (cf. 3.6; 5.5.5). Skills and resources audit and capacitation instructs a review of the community’s current resource and skill standing before capacity strategies can be formulated. This stage further establishes community-based structures and communication channels, fostering of the entrepreneurial spirit, regulating and blue printing the funds apportionment procedures, addressing the skills gap by providing business training programmes, and provide secure land tenure rights critical in accessing finance and credit lines, that are community specific to equip the locals for successful business ownership (cf. 3.6.6). This stage then informs the business area and ownership approach to pursue, and vice versa.

Denoting business areas of interest

This involves identifying the various business areas to pursue, including maintenance work; tourist activities; food and beverage; making of crafts; transport services; general construction; and conferencing and entertainment (Tewes-Gradl *et al.*, 2014) (cf. 3.6; 5.5.4). The decision to pursue a business area is dependent on the results of the skills

and resources audit as well as the capacitation process, and vice versa. Further, identifying the business area to follow also informs the ownership approach.

Choosing of appropriate ownership approach

There are different ownership approaches that can be followed by tourism communities. These are: (i) outsiders own and run the business, paying fees to the community; (ii) locals own the land and structures with outsiders owning the business; (iii) locals and outsiders in joint ownership of the business; (iv) locals own the business with outsiders as managers; and (v) locals own and run the business (Jones *et al.*, 2014) (cf.3.5). It has been proven that the current cooperative ownership approach in the communities has not worked (cf. 6.6.3). Individual ownership should therefore be considered an option in all the ownership approaches. Choosing either of these approaches is determined by the skills and expertise possessed by the locals as well as the business area being pursued. The reinforcing arrows between the skills and resources audit and capacitation frame and that of denoting business areas of interest imply that both stages of the framework are perpetually influenced by one another. A particular business area of interest will determine the nature of capacitation required while the capacitation initiatives will focus on the business area chosen.

6.12 Framework implementation

This study proposes a six-stage process for the implementation of the novel framework for tourism value chain ownership discussed in Section 6.11 above. The stages are as follows:

i. Identification of framework proponents
ii. Institution of a cross-organisational team from all stakeholders
iii. Alignment of stakeholder interests with those of the framework
iv. Establish framework targets, feasibility, and resource implications
v. Dissemination of information for framework goal awareness
vi. Monitoring, review, and evaluation

The first stage involves the identification of framework proponents who will be responsible for superintending the implementation process. These could be either: government in the form of its various developmental agencies; academia; or non-governmental organisations. The second stage will involve the creation of a team that will act as representatives of all stakeholders as identified in the framework. Stakeholder by-in will be critical for the success of the implementation of the framework. This team will help in implementation of stage 3 which involves the alignment of stakeholder interests with that of the framework.

The framework's targets, feasibility and resource implications will be established in stage 4. This is vital so that each stakeholder will understand their role and contribution toward the success of the framework. Once all stakeholders appreciate their mandate and role in the framework's implementation, it will also be their task to disseminate information pertaining to the framework's goals within their organisations and community. The last stage will be the monitoring, review and evaluation of the whole process by the proponents of the framework. This stage will confirm whether or not the implementation objectives of the framework are being met to determine if any changes will be required on the process.

6.13 Chapter summary

This chapter has brought forth the results of the in-depth interviews that were conducted in KZN with the UDP's CLOs and the CTLs of the three selected communities around the park. The results depict the developmental mandate the CLOs and CTLs have in their respective communities. It was established that while the communities are somewhat involved in the park's tourism activities, their involvement was far from satisfactory and equitable. The results further revealed the strong potential the communities have in the owning and running of businesses that contribute towards the tourism value chain. The chapter also highlights capacity issues such as lack of education, skills, and training; funding constraints; lack of tourism exposure; lack of community consensus; and lack of government support as the major impediments to the successful owning and running of tourism businesses by the community.

The triangulation of results largely confirms and corroborates the findings from both phases of the empirical study. Using the detailed information obtained from both the interviews and the survey, a framework for tourism business development around the UDP was established. This framework provides mechanisms through which communities may be capacitated. This includes the setting up of CBT support structures, improved communication channels between the communities and the conservation authority, inculcating an entrepreneurial spirit, and to capacitate the communities through provision of education, skills, and funding that are requisite for the success of tourism value chain ownership. Next, Chapter 7, provides the study's conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER 7: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

The lack of understanding and implementation of tourism community value chain ownership in South Africa inspired and compelled this research. Different forms of community participation in tourism bring different levels of benefits to communities. This study focused on a more extended form of participation in the form of ownership of the tourism value chain. Through ownership of the tourism value chain, communities have the means to be involved in tourism activities in more rewarding ways than mere participation as this has the potential to assist them to develop business skills and knowledge to manage these products. It also offers a diversification of income in rural communities in developing countries, that are often plagued by high rates of unemployment and poverty.

Pursuant to the study's results outlined in Chapters 5 and 6, it is the purpose of this chapter to provide a conclusion to this research as per the study's aims and objectives. This thesis sought to develop a framework to enhance the equitable distribution of benefits from tourism development in rural communities through tourism value chain ownership. This framework was to be achieved through the realisation of the study's objectives:

- To analytically seek a sociological perspective on how communities function and understand their role in the tourism industry, putting across the challenges that impede on the communities' ability to participate in tourism activities as well as proffering solutions on how this can be undone. This was analysed in the first literature chapter, Chapter 2.
- To define and critically analyse the concept of ownership and community sense of ownership by reviewing the historical and contemporary models of ownership to express how it has been dynamic and consistent with community needs over time. This was achieved in Chapter 3, this study's second literature chapter.
- To analyse the measurements of the levels of ownership and control of the tourism value chain by the selected communities, their needs, skills, and perceptions to

develop a meticulous framework that can be used to institute and foster community sense of ownership and involvement in the tourism value chain for rural communities. Chapters 5 and 6 facilitated the attainment of this objective.

The final objective of the study was to conclude and make recommendations based on the results obtained from the literature review and the empirical survey. The novel framework and its significance are also discussed. As such, this chapter will begin by drawing conclusions based on the study's main objectives. Secondly, it will proffer the various contributions, theoretical and empirical, that the study has made. The chapter will conclude by putting forward the study's recommendations and limitations.

7.2 Research conclusions

Based on the objectives of the study, it draws conclusions on the following aspects in the subsequent sections:

- Conclusions pertaining to the sociological perspective on how the communities function and the role played by communities in the tourism industry
- Conclusions relating to the analyses of the concept of ownership and community sense of ownership
- Conclusions with respect to measurements of the levels of ownership and control of the tourism value chain by the selected communities.

7.2.1 Conclusions pertaining to the sociological perspective on how the communities function and the role played by communities in the tourism industry

The following are the conclusions made with regards to objective 1 of this study (cf. 1.4.2):

- The study of sociology allows for scholars to focus on the interactions within, between, and among groups in all areas of human behaviour. It is a discipline that seeks the knowledge of man in society and sub-societies, his adjustment to society, customs, and institutions, and the reaction to changes that may develop. Sociology provides researchers with the ability to re-examine the social

environment through lenses never used before, providing an understanding of the varied viewpoints and attitudes of different people in a society, and helps ease predispositions and stereotypes which make societies more elastic (cf. 2.2).

- The three most influential contemporary theoretical perspectives within sociology, are: functionalism; conflict perspective; and symbolic interactionism (cf. 2.2.2). Functionalists argue that behaviour is structured and there are values, norms, and laws that govern relationships amongst people and that consensus is paramount (cf. 2.2.2.1). The conflict perspective holds that while conflict is inevitable due to the fundamental differences between groups in society, not all conflict is bad, as social behaviour can be best understood in terms of differences between competing groups (cf. 2.2.2.2). Symbolic interactionism focuses on small scale interaction as opposed to the society at large since it advocates for improvement changes in society to be developed and implemented at a lower micro level for them to have an impact on the larger society (cf. 2.2.2.3).
- A community refers to the sum of people in a geographical area with some degree of mutual interdependence, identification, loyalty, and common social activities (cf. 2.3.1). Drawing on this definition of community, a tourism community is viewed as all residents of the places (villages, towns, and cities) within which tourism activities take place (cf. 2.3.2).
- Various theories (cf. 2.4) such as Pretty's typology of participation (cf. 2.4.1), Arnstein's ladder of citizen participation (2.4.2), and the stakeholder theory (2.4.3), can be used by development planners to establish the extent to which residents in tourism communities participate in tourism. The respective low-end spectrums of these models depict communities that are excluded from meaningful tourism involvement while the high-end spectrums of the models paint the desirable, meaningful, and beneficial participation of local communities in tourism.
- The implementation of community participation and involvement in tourism activities is not without its challenges. It faces barriers such as centralisation of public administration and poor coordination; poverty and apathy; unfair distribution of tourism benefits; human-wildlife conflicts; lack of trained human resources in tourism planning; inadequate information and financial resources; and low levels of education for locals (cf. 2.5).

- The solutions to the barriers of community participation and involvement to tourism include public awareness and education in tourism; capacity building; creating linkages between the communities and the tourism industry; creation and use of appropriate local community-based organisations; use of appropriate community participation methods; decentralisation and coordination of local organisations (cf. 2.5).
- The solution guidelines (cf. 2.5) are not enough without the understanding of the social impact of tourism that also determines how communities perceive tourism. Social impacts refer to the positive or negative changes in social values and the relationships among people in their social institutions that affect cohesion and stability of local communities, alter social equity, socioeconomic status, as well as impede on community members' access to social activities (cf. 2.6.1).
- Different theoretical frameworks have been advanced that assist in comprehending the social impact of tourism on communities (cf. 2.6.2). These are: the acculturation and social exchange theory (cf. 2.6.2.1); SRT, (cf. 2.6.2.2); Smith's model of cross-cultural contact (cf. 2.6.2.3); Doxey's irridex model of host irritation (cf. 2.6.2.4); Butler's TALC model (cf. 2.6.2.5); and Perez and Nadal's host community perception clusters (cf. 2.6.2.6). The following are the major similarities of these models: (i) all the theories and models reviewed attempt to measure and predict the social impact tourism has on various communities; (ii) they all attempt to illustrate the extent of the impacts on communities by providing some form of an impact scale (small to big impacts); and (iii) all the models are in agreement that tourism development in its infancy brings benefits to the local communities and also point out the possible local community outrage if further tourism development is not managed to minimise the negative social impact on the local communities (cf. 2.6.2.7).
- These theoretical frameworks also exhibit some differences (2.6.2.7). Whereas Butler's TALC focuses on the industry development and how residents respond to the development stages, Doxey's irridex model emphasises the residents' responses (irritation levels) to the development of tourism in their community. Further, while Smith's model of cross-cultural contact is preoccupied by the different types of tourists and how they differently impact on the community, Perez

and Nadal's cluster analysis groups members of the community according to how they respond to tourism development. The SRT stands out in that it focuses on the personalities of community members as a measure to be used in how likely they will react to tourism development in their areas.

- Different communities will react differently to tourism development as their varied characteristics and circumstances within which they find themselves will determine the level of social impacts they will experience (cf. 2.6.3). The three significant factors that affect the nature of social impact are: the nature of interactions between the guests and hosts; type of tourism activities engaged in; and the characteristics of the host community.

This review of literature explains how societies work and the role tourism plays in society. It further highlights the need to manage the social impact so that tourism has continued support within society. The less-than-ideal participation role that communities play in tourism falls short of the equitable developmental efforts. The researcher therefore had to assess the concept of community ownership of the tourism value chain as a more equitable means to tourism development within communities.

7.2.2 Conclusions relating to the analyses of the concept of ownership and community sense of ownership

The following conclusions are made pertaining to objective 2 of this research (cf. 1.4.2):

- Community and mutual ownership of the tourism value chain have recently been singled out by community development experts and policymakers for having the potential to contribute immensely to tourism society's economy and welfare (cf. 3.1).
- Community and mutual ownership refer to the ownership of common property, fostered and cherished democracy and self-will, that ultimately lead to a feeling of common benefit and a sense of social justice (cf. 3.2).
- The ownership of community assets and organisations should not be haphazard but rather happen via a well organised representative mechanism through which

community members exert their influence on operational activities and obtain benefits arising thereof (cf. 3.2).

- There are four requisite characteristics for a sense of community ownership to ensue successfully within communities (cf. 3.2.1). These are: ownership in process (cf. 3.2.1.1); ownership in outcome (cf. 3.2.1.2); ownership in distribution (cf. 3.2.1.3); ownership through trust (cf. 3.2.1.4). This implies that for community ownership to succeed, the members must be involved in all the processes meant to empower them so that they can identify with the outcome. When the community members access the benefits of community ownership there is development of trust among the community.
- There is need for local community members to be self-sufficient both in situation/problem detection as well as proffering of solutions (cf. 3.2.2).
- Outside solutions and funding create community dependency on outside actors; when locals are accustomed to outside funding, they seldom seek their own solutions to challenges (cf. 3.2.2.1).
- Local solutions and resources are sustainable, tend to address the underlying problems, enhances teamwork and unity within the community, and provide community members with control over their future (cf. 3.2.2.2).
- Outside players often make unrealistic assumptions, disregard local resources, and exclude the locals in ideas, solutions, and policy formulation (cf. 3.2.2.3).
- Outsiders' role should be that of facilitation and not control, they should also make it a habit to encourage community members to be self-sufficient by helping the community members realise that they have requisite resources (cf. 3.2.2.4).
- There are five historic community ownership models that explain how communities have traditionally owned various property (cf. 3.3), namely: customary and common ownership (cf. 3.3.1); community ownership (cf. 3.3.2); mutual and cooperative ownership (cf. 3.3.3); charitable ownership (cf. 3.3.4); and state and municipal ownership (cf. 3.3.5). A review of these depicts that community ownership has traditionally focused on land and natural resources and that there is a need for tourism-specific ownership approaches.
- A tourism value chain includes the efforts by all stakeholders (including local communities, government, and support institutions) that are involved in the

provision of goods and services to visitors, from the sourcing of different supply inputs to the final consumption of the tourism product (cf. 3.4).

- There are business and developmental benefits that accrue to the community resulting from their ownership of tourism businesses (cf. 3.4.1). The business benefits include product quality, innovation, reputation management, risk mitigation and cost reduction (cf. 3.4.1.1). The developmental benefits include decent income for the community, enterprise development, development of skills and career for community members, development, conservation of the environment, and structural development (cf. 3.4.1.2).
- The five dimensions of inclusiveness of remuneration, risk, voice, opportunity, and ownership are higher when community members are involved in tourism businesses as entrepreneurs, moderate when involved as employees and low when they are merely participating in tourism activities (cf. 3.5).
- Various approaches to the ownership of the tourism value chain by communities have been proposed (cf. 3.5). These, in incremental order of community involvement, are: Outsiders own and run the business paying fees to the community (cf. 3.5.1); locals own the land and structures with outsiders owning the business (cf. 3.5.2); locals and outsiders in joint ownership of the business; (cf. 3.5.3) locals own the business with outsiders as managers (cf. 3.5.4); and locals own and run the business (cf. 3.5.5). From a review of these models, it is evident that the more the locals are involved at ownership, operational and management levels, the more they are exposed to challenges that require shrewd technical expertise and exceptional business acumen.
- For the concept of ownership to work, communities need to be capacitated in several ways (cf. 3.5.6).
- The challenges communities face in the ownership of the tourism value chain revolves around the issues of skills, knowledge, and education; product quality and consistency; lack of access to finance; lack of formal land rights which makes it difficult to access lines of credit; and lack of exposure to tourism as tourists (cf. 3.6.6).
- The likely solutions come in the form of building local community capacity through vocational training of skills, education, and language development; partnerships

with various stakeholders (such as NGOs, government and development agencies, local authorities, local communities, industry associations, academia, intermediaries) for the development of suppliers through facilitating loans, infrastructure development, and capacitating entrepreneurial skills; and securing community land tenure rights (cf. 3.6.6).

The review of literature showed how community ownership of the tourism value chain can be viable for the equitable development of the community. For community ownership of the tourism value chain to be a success, critical elements like ownership of the process, outcome, distribution, and ownership through trust ought to be in place. The various ownership models presented come with both merits and demerits and the most ideal ones require a great deal of community capacitation. Accordingly, a determination of the community levels of the tourism value chain ownership was deemed paramount.

7.2.3 Conclusions with respect to the measurement of the levels of ownership and control of the tourism value chain by the selected communities

The following conclusions relate to objective 3 of this research which was completed by means of an empirical study (cf. 1.4.2):

- The three communities are generally indifferent towards the impact tourism has had on their communities (cf. 5.4). This implies that they neither feel that there have been positive nor negative social and economic impacts on their communities because of tourism.
- The communities, to a great extent, are not involved in local tourism activities (cf. 5.5.1). Many of the community members were neither involved in community projects nor did they have knowledge of any community projects offered by the UDP. Most households do not have any members working at the UDP, neither do they supply any tourism related services to the park.
- While most of the community members do not own general or tourism-related businesses, almost half of the community members feel there is a need of more

tourism businesses in their communities and almost a third has considered owning either a general business or a tourism related business (cf. 5.5.1).

- The communities' perception on local tourism and their involvement is not encouraging (cf. 5.5.2). The community members are not informed about tourism development and are less likely to be engaged in solving tourism related problems. The community members feel they are not encouraged enough to be involved in tourism.
- While there is consensus on the magnitude of tourism attractions within their vicinity, neither do the communities feel they benefit meaningfully from tourism, nor do they feel there are incentives in place for community tourism (cf. 5.5.2).
- There are barriers to community tourism business ownership (cf. 5.5.3). These include lack of business expertise, lack of tourism exposure and awareness, lack of government support (legislation, coordination, and advocacy), lack of financial resources, and limited access to information. Lack of financial resources and knowledge is the most prevalent in the communities.
- Accommodation provision, entertainment and events, refreshments and restaurants, transport services, sport and adventure, cultural products, conference facilities, and tourist information were all considered ideal tourism community businesses (cf. 5.5.4).
- Even though the communities are not satisfied by the role the UDP plays in developmental efforts, they support the existence of the UDP for a myriad of reasons (cf. 6.4). Some members are occasionally employed by the UDP. Some appreciate the role it plays in conserving the environment. Some understand that tourism is important to their community.
- Some conservation policies, such as the prohibition of the harvesting of certain plants within the park, are in direct conflict with the lifestyles of the locals as they have traditionally relied on such for medicine (cf. 6.4).
- Subsistence farming is the main economic activity of the communities (cf. 6.4). They know that the UDP has vast deposits of coal which they could be mining but are content with the preservation of the environment.

- There are very few, next to none, tourism organisations that are owned by local members. The Community Levy Fund has been used to construct a bakery, which is not functional anymore.
- The community has potential to own tourism businesses but only when they are capacitated with knowledge and education, business skills, support, and funding (6.5).
- The ideal business ownership model for communities is the one where communities own and run the business on their own (6.5).

From the above research, it can be summarised that while the communities are not meaningfully engaged in tourism activities, they have a great deal of support for tourism within their communities. While the communities do not have much skill and knowledge to be able to own successful businesses, there is evident potential if they are capacitated. Through training, funding, secure land rights, existence of community-based structures, and the necessary support by externals, communities can be successfully empowered to own the tourism value chain. The current funding mechanisms that are in place, such as the Community Levy Fund, are not optimally utilised.

The framework presented in Chapter 6 addresses many of the issues raised in this research. The framework identifies all the parties to community tourism development and stipulates how they should be set up and interact for the benefit of the tourism community. At the core of the framework is the skills and resources audit and capacitation which campaigns for an audit of the community's current resource and skill standing, before capacity strategies can be formulated. It then focuses on establishing community-based structures, communication channels, fostering the entrepreneurial spirit, regulating and blue printing the funds apportionment procedures, addressing the skills gap by providing educative business training programmes, among others, that are community specific. These processes, the framework stipulates, are driven by all the parties (externals, locals, the conservation authority, CTLs) with the community taking the leading role. The choice of an ownership approach to pursue is determined by the business area to be pursued by the community and vice versa.

7.3 Contributions of this study

This study makes literature, methodological and practical contributions, outlined below.

7.3.1 Literature contributions

The following literature contributions are made:

- While there have been studies on various ways to empower and develop local tourism communities, there have not been studies that focused on the ownership of the tourism value chain by rural communities as a means of community equitable development. This study puts forward an understanding of the tourism value chain ownership through a community developmental lens. As such, this study makes a unique contribution to the body of literature.
- This study also shows how sociological perspectives are important in tourism and exposes how societal set-up has an influence on the communities' participation in tourism. The different characteristics of the communities are considered paramount in the participation of communities in tourism development initiatives.
- This study submits different tourism community value chain ownership models that can be employed by communities with different resources and skills disposal. The study also posits that there cannot be one universal approach for the value chain ownership models as communities are not homogeneous. Various communities at different times have different needs. A literature gap on the tourism community and its ability and challenges with regards to the ownership of the tourism value chain is therefore plugged.
- Through publishing of the research findings in reputable peer reviewed journals, this study will also contribute towards the body of literature for a perpetual reference to the various interested stakeholders.

7.3.2 Methodology contributions

This study makes the following methodological contributions:

- On the methodology front, this study is unique in the sense that it is one of the very few studies on tourism community value chain ownership that makes use of a concurrent triangulation strategy. Qualitative and quantitative data was collected concurrently and analysed separately before the results were compared.
- By soliciting the views of the communities, the CTLs and those of the UDP, the study captures a broad-based, all-encompassing view of the perspectives on tourism community development by both the communities and the managers of the natural area around the communities (the UDP). Previous studies on tourism community development have mostly either focused on the communities alone or the managers of the natural resource areas.
- The gathering of diverse views from both sides (the communities and 'authorities') provided for a platform upon which the views could be corroborated. This increased the reliability of the study's findings.

7.3.3 Practical contributions

The following practical contributions are submitted by this study:

- On the practice front and because of this study, a framework to foster the development of tourism community value chain ownership was developed. This framework, that can be used by government as well as various developmental organisations, is applicable to rural communities in South Africa and other Third World countries.
- This study provides guidelines for managers of natural resource areas (such as a National Park) on how to engage and empower local communities in ways that are mutually beneficial.
- This study also provides for the expected, appropriate, and acceptable role that should be played by external parties in the advancement of the community's interest and welfare.

7.4 Limitations

Notwithstanding the contributions made by this research, the study is not without its limitations. The following limitations are noted with regards to this study:

- Due to the absence of household population lists for the communities that were surveyed, the study could not make use of random sampling, which is more reliable and scientific. The study had to rely on a non-probability sampling technique, convenience sampling, to administer its questionnaires for the quantitative phase of this study. The characteristics of the sample does, however, compare well to that of the South African census data, instilling confidence in the results obtained.
- This research only surveyed three communities, and not more, around one Park. Testing the current results in other communities and natural settings would validate the results.
- The study focused and surveyed an area where there are no variances in terms of culture. Consequently, not much could be said about cultural differences.
- The community questionnaire and the interview guide for the CTLs was developed in English and then translated into the local language, IsiZulu. Accordingly, the survey and the interview with the CTLs were conducted in IsiZulu. With the help of a local translator during the surveys and interviews, the researcher took down notes and recorded the translated output from the participants. There is no doubt that some valuable information was lost during translation.
- Even though this study made use of a mixed method approach where in-depth interviews and a questionnaire were used, it should be noted that the interviews were only for the key informants while the questionnaire survey was only for the communities. In-depth interviews with the community would have helped in obtaining better insight to validate what was obtained from the questionnaires. Nonetheless, the interviews with the key informants assisted in the validation of data captured from the surveys.
- The study took longer than anticipated owing to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. Data collection could not take place at the time that was envisaged as there were restrictions of movement and interaction. The researcher had to

patiently wait for opportune moments when movement and interaction were sufficiently allowed to collect data. The pandemic also had a bearing on the apathetic response of the community towards tourism, which came to a standstill for most of 2020 and 2021.

7.5 Recommendations

This section puts forward a discussion on the various recommendations that are made by this study.

7.5.1 Managerial and practice recommendations

Inspired by the findings from the empirical phase of this research and the literature analysis conducted, this study makes the following recommendations:

- There is need for government and various developmental agencies to adopt the tourism community value chain ownership framework for the success of tourism value chain ownership by the communities.
- Local tourism communities should set the tone for the development agenda and be at the centre of development initiatives.
- Local tourism communities need secure land tenure rights that will enable them to access capital and lines of credit.
- While loans can be secured and large sums capital can be advanced to big tourism business initiatives, communities should be encouraged to start small and work their way up the ladder in a way that creates business discipline, stability, and sustainability.
- There ought to be mechanisms put in place to guarantee that funds and other material resources advanced to communities for their business initiatives are solely used for such purposes and cannot be easily embezzled.
- Local businesses need to be embedded in and inspired by the locals' culture, practices, and day to day lives as this will not only make it easier to start businesses, but it will become easy to operate and sustain.

- Local tourism communities require to be capacitated in various ways if there is to be a success of the ownership of the tourism value chain. As part of the capacitation drive, there is not just need for the fostering of tourism business skills and knowledge but also for exposure to tourism as guests. A skills and resources audit that place the community members at the centre should inform the training and capacitation agenda.
- External players also need 'training' where the rules of community engagement are laid down, as well as the creation of a mechanism to monitor and control their role in community development efforts.
- External players should engage communities in a way that emphasises the locals' self-sufficiency, encourage the use of local resources, and make them believe in home-grown solutions.
- There is the need for an open communication policy between the Park and communities so that development opportunities are relayed fairly and timeously to the communities.
- While there are currently existing community structures in these societies, these structures are more traditional and less developmental in approach and have much dependence on the conservation authority. As such, a CBT structure ought to be pronounced and put in place in all tourism community set-ups.
- Cooperatives have been mandatory for communities to access the Community Levy Fund. However, these have failed to sustain business ventures due to, among others, differences in vision and objectives between community members. Accordingly, individual ownership should also be an option to access funding.
- The various ownership approaches that may be adopted should be informed by the skills the community members possess and the nature of the business areas to be engaged. Partnerships with external role players are a natural way to start until communities can stand on their own feet.

7.5.2 Recommendations for future research

This study submits the following as its recommendations for future research:

- An assessment of this study's novel model and its applicability to similar communities around South Africa as well as other communities in Third World countries.
- Similar research to be conducted in other communities of different cultures and the use of in-depth interviews to capture community views. Such a study, coupled with others in the same field, will provide a platform upon which comparisons can be made.
- More time and funding should be afforded for future studies of a similar nature to allow for better engagement with local communities to capture the views of participants in a relaxed environment.
- A study that focuses on the efficacy of traditional land ownership in the advancement of community tourism value chain ownership within their communities.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Adinolfi, M.C. & Ivanovic, M. 2015. Recounting social tourism development in south africa. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation & Dance*, 21(2):1-12.

Adinolfi, M.C., Tichaawa, T.M. & Jacobs, M. 2018. Unpacking factors limiting and promoting black-owned smmes to participate actively within the tourism value chain in south africa. *Africa Insight*, 48(3):88-104.

Adiyia, B. & Vanneste, D. 2018. Local tourism value chain linkages as pro-poor tools for regional development in western uganda. *Development Southern Africa*, 35(2):210-224.

Adorno, T.W. 2000. *Introduction to sociology*. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Akamani, K., Wilson, P.I. & Hall, T.E. 2015. Barriers to collaborative forest management and implications for building the resilience of forest-dependent communities in the ashanti region of ghana. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 151:11-21.

Akhtar-Danesh, N. 2017. A comparison between major factor extraction and factor rotation techniques in q-methodology. *Open Journal of Applied Sciences*, 7:147-156.

Alesina, A. & La Ferrara, E. 2005. Ethnic diversity and economic performance. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 43(3):762-800.

Asteriou, D. & Hall, S.G. 2015. *Applied econometrics*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Babbie, E. 2014. *The basics of social research*. 6th. Belmont, USA: Thomson Higher Education.

Badza, M., N., Van der Meer, E. & Ndhlovu, A. 2016. Large carnivores as tourism flagship species for the zimbabwe component of the kavango zambezi transfrontier conservation area. *African Journal of Wildlife Research*, 46(2):121-134.

Baggio, R. & Klobas, J.E. 2017. *Quantitative methods in tourism : A handbook*. 2nd edition. Bristol, UK: Channel View Publications. (Aspects of tourism: 79).

Baiburiev, R., David, L., Abdreyeva, S., Zhakupova, A. & Artemyev, A. 2018. Impacts of tourism activities on economy of kazakhstan. *GeoJournal of Tourism & Geosites*, 22(2):480-488.

Ballantyne, R., Packer, J., Hughes, K. & Dierking, L. 2007. Conservation learning in wildlife tourism settings: Lessons from research in zoos and aquariums. *Environmental Education Research*, 13(3):367-383.

Bartlett, J. 2014. *R squared in logistic regression*. https://thestatsgeek.com/2014/02/08/r-squared-in-logistic-regression/ Date of access: 19 November.

Beatty, P.C., Collins, D., Kaye, L., Padilla, J.L., Willis, G.B. & Wilmot, A. 2019. *Advances in questionnaire design, development, evaluation and testing*. New Jersey, USA: Wiley.

Beeton, S. 2006. *Community development through tourism*. Collingwood: CSIRO Publishing.

Bello, F.G., Lovelock, B. & Carr, N. 2018. Enhancing community participation in tourism planning associated with protected areas in developing countries: Lessons from malawi. *Tourism & Hospitality Research*, 18(3):309-320.

Belongie, N. & Silverman, R.M. 2018. Model cbas and community benefits ordinances as tools for negotiating equitable development: Three critical cases. *Journal of Community Practice*, 26(3):308-327.

Bhatia, M. 2018. *Your guide to qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods*. (Humans Of Data). https://humansofdata.atlan.com/2018/09/qualitative-quantitative-data-analysis-methods/ Date of access: 08 Aug.

Boggs, J. 2014. The wiley-blackwell companion to economic geography. *Journal of Regional Science*, 54(1):155-157.

Bonnafous-Boucher, M. & Pesqueux, Y. 2005. *Stakeholder theory: A european perspective*. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Booth, W.C., Colomb, G.G., Williams, J.M., Bizup, J. & FitzGerald, W.T. 2016. *The craft of research*. 4th. Chicago, USA: The University of Chicago Press.

Brannen, M.Y. & Mughan, T. 2017. *Language in international business: Developing a field*. New Jersey: Springer.

Bruhn, J.G. 2011. *The sociology of community connections*. 2nd. New York: Springer.

Brummans, B.H.J.M., Putnam, L.L., Gray, B., Hanke, R., Lewicki, R.J. & Wiethoff, C. 2008. Making sense of intractable multiparty conflict: A study of framing in four environmental disputes. *Communication Monographs*, 75(1):25-51.

Bryman, A. & Bell, E. 2015. *Business research methods*. 4th. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.

Buckley, R. & Mossaz, A. 2018. Private conservation funding from wildlife tourism enterprises in sub-saharan africa: Conservation marketing beliefs and practices. *Biological Conservation*, 218:57-63.

Budhiasa, S., Wakarmamu, T. & Firman, A. 2017. Community participation as agent for sustainable tourism: A structural model of tourism development at bali province, indonesia. *International Journal of Economic Research*, 14(2):73-83.

Bunting, W.C. 2015. Resolving conflicts over scarce resources: Private versus shared ownership. *Marquette Law Review*, 99(4):893-930.

Cargan, L. & Ballantine, J.H. 2007. *Sociological footprints*. 10th. Belmont: Thomson Wadsworth.

Cascetta, E. 2009. *Transport systems analysis: Models and applications*. 2nd. New York: Springer.

Chatterjee, A., Czajka, L. & Gethin, A. 2021. *Estimating the distribution of household wealth in south africa*. https://wid.world/document/wealth-inequality-in-south-africa-wid-world-working-paper-2021-16/ Date of access: 30 October.

Chiutsi, S. & Saarinen, J. 2017. Local participation in transfrontier tourism: Case of sengwe community in great limpopo transfrontier conservation area, zimbabwe. *Development Southern Africa*, 34(3):260-275.

Clark, C. & Page, J. 2019. Of protest, the commons, and customary public rights: An ancient tale of the lawful forest. *University of New South Wales Law Journal*, 42(1):26-59.

Clark, J. & Wise, N. 2018. *Urban renewal, community and participation: Theory, policy and practice*. Cham, Switzerland: Springer. (The urban book series).

Coghlan, D. & Brydon-Miller, M. 2014. *The sage encyclopedia of action research*. London: SAGE.

Cohen, B.J. & Orbuch, T.L. 1990. *Introduction to sociology*. 1st. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.

Commers, M.J. 2013. *Determinants of health: Theory, understanding, portrayal, policy*. New York: Springer.

Coria, J. & Calfucura, E. 2012. Ecotourism and the development of indigenous communities: The good, the bad, and the ugly. *Ecological Economics*, 73(1):47-55.

Cornwall, A. 2008. Unpacking 'participation': Models, meanings and practices. *Community Development Journal*, 43(3):269-283.

Creswell, J.W. 2014. *Research design : Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. 4th edition, international student edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Creswell, J.W. & Plano-Clark, V.L. 2017. *Principles of qualitative research: Designing a qualitative study*. Nebraska: Office of Qualitative and Mixed Methods Research, University of Nebraska-Lincoln.

Creswell, J.W. & Creswell, J.D. 2018. *Research design : Qualitative, quantitative & mixed methods approaches*. 5th edition, International student edition. Los Angeles: SAGE.

Curtis, S., Gesler, W., Smith, G. & Washburn, S. 2000. Approaches to sampling and case selection in qualitative research: Examples in the geography of health. *Social science & medicine*, 50:1001-1014.

DAC. 2020. *Ukhahlamba*. http://www.dac.gov.za/content/ukhahlamba Date of access: 7 February.

Dalimunthe, G.P., Taruna, I. & Kaniawati, K. 2019. A chronology of the definition of community participation. *Journal of Advanced Research in Dynamical and Control Systems*, 11(3 Special Issue):386-390.

David, M. & Terrel, G. 2019. Dark sky tourism: Economic impacts on the colorado plateau economy, USA. *Tourism Review*, 74(4):930-942.

Davis, J., Tavasci, D. & Marais, L. 2006. *Fostering rural and local economic development in the free state of south africa*. http://projects.nri.org/reed/docs/workingnote.pdf Date of access: 22 November.

de Boer, D. & van Dijk, M.P. 2016. Success factors for community business wildlife tourism partnerships in tanzania. *European Journal of Development Research*, 28(4):555-570.

Deery, M., Jago, L. & Fredline, L. 2012. Rethinking social impacts of tourism research: A new research agenda. *Tourism Management*, 33:64-73.

Demirkaya, H. & Çetin, T. 2010. Residents' perceptions on the social and cultural impacts of tourism in alanya-turkey (antalya - turkey). *Alanya'da (Antalya-Türkiye) Yerli Halkın Turizmin Sosyal ve Kültürel Etkileri Hakkında Algıları.*, 14(42):383-392.

Donohoe, H., Bianca, R. & Becerra, L. 2015. Theoretical perspectives on stakeholders in tourism management. In: Bricker, K.S. & Donohoe, H., eds*. Demystifying theories in tourism research*. Oxofordshire: CABI Publishing. pp. 18-32.

Dragouni, M. & Fouseki, K. 2018. Drivers of community participation in heritage tourism planning: An empirical investigation. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 13(3):237-256.

Duim, R.v.d., Lamers, M. & Wijk, J.v. 2014. *Institutional arrangements for conservation, development and tourism in eastern and southern africa: A dynamic perspective*. Heidelberg: Springer.

Dumas, M., La Rosa, M., Mendling, J. & Reijers, H.A. 2018. Quantitative process analysis. In: Dumas, M., La Rosa, M., Mendling, J. & Reijers, H.A., eds*. Fundamentals of business process management*. 2nd. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer Berlin Heidelberg. pp. 213-251.

Edwin, M., Sulistyorini, I.S. & Allo, J.K. 2017. Assessment of natural resources and local community participation in nature-based tourism of wehea forest, east kalimantan. *Journal of Tropical Forest Management / Jurnal Manajemen Hutan Tropika*, 23(3):128-139.

Eldenburg, L.G., Gaertner, F.B. & Goodman, T.H. 2015. The influence of ownership and compensation practices on charitable activities. *Contemporary Accounting Research*, 32(1):169-192.

Ezemvelo-KZN-Wildlife. 2018. *Fees & charges 2018-2019* [Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife Reservations Office, Cascades: Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife.

Ferrante, J. 2018. *Sociology: A south african perspective*. 1st. Hampshire: Cengage Learning.

Fischer, F. 2004. Citizens, experts and the environment: The politics of local knowledge. *Journal of Agricultural and Environmental Ethics*, 17(2):204-216.

Flores, A. 2005. *Democracy in modern mexico: A study in participatory methods*. Bury St. Edmunds: Arena Books.

Freeman, E.R., Harrison, J.S., Wicks, A.C., Parmar, B.L. & De Colle, S. 2010. *Stakeholder theory: The state of the art*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Frent, C. 2016. An overview on the negative impacts of tourism. *Revista de Turism*, (22):32-37.

Frey, B.B. 2018. *The sage encyclopedia of educational research, measurement, and evaluation*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Fritz, J.M. & Rhéaume, J. 2014. *Community intervention: Clinical sociology perspectives*. New York: Springer.

Gershman, S.D. 2013. *An evaluation of public participation techniques using arnstein's ladder: The portland plan*. Florida: University of Florida.

Giampiccoli, A. & Mtapuri, O. 2013. Interrogating the role of the state and nonstate actors in community-based tourism ventures: Toward a model for spreading the benefits to the wider community. *South African Geographical Journal*, 95(1):1-15.

Giampiccoli, A. & Saayman, M. 2018. Community-based tourism development model and community participation. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 7(4):27-38.

Giampiccoli, A., Saayman, M. & Jugmohan, S. 2014. Developing community-based tourism in south africa: Addressing the missing link. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation & Dance*, 20(3.2):1139-1161.

Giampiccoli, A., Saayman, M. & Jugmohan, S. 2015. Between theory and practice: A conceptualization of community based tourism and community participation. *Loyola Journal of Social Sciences*, 29(1):27-52.

Giddens, A. & Sutton, P.W. 2010. *Sociology: Introductory readings*. 3rd. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Giddens, A. & Sutton, P.W. 2015. *Sociology*. 7th. Cambridge: Polity Press.

Global CHE Network. 2019. *Building community ownership*. https://www.chenetwork.org/files_pdf/short_term/TA090_Short_Term_Trips_that_Build_Community_Ownership.pdf Date of access: 12 June 2019.

Goeldner, C.R. & Ritchie, J.R.B. 2003. *Tourism: Principles, practices, philosophies*. 9th. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Wiley.

Goeldner, C.R. & Ritchie, J.R.B. 2012. *Tourism: Principles, practices, philosophies*. 12th. New Jersey: Wiley.

Goldthorpe, J.E. 1975. *An introduction to sociology*. 2nd. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Gough, D. 2015. Qualitative and mixed methods in systematic reviews. *Systematic Reviews*, 4(1):14-26.

Gough, D., Thomas, J. & Oliver, S. 2019. Clarifying differences between reviews within evidence ecosystems. *Systematic Reviews*, 8(1):170-181.

Gray, B. 2003. Framing and reframing of intractable environmental disputes. In: Lewicki, R.J., Bies, R.J. & Sheppard, B.H., eds*. Research on negotiation in organizations*. 6. Amsterdam: Elsevier Science/JAI Press. pp. 163-188.

Graziano, V. 2016. Lgbtq collection assessment: Library ownership of resources cited by master's students. *College & Research Libraries*, 77(1):114-127.

Hampton, M.P. & Jeyacheya, J. 2015. Power, ownership and tourism in small islands: Evidence from indonesia. *World Development*, 70(1):481-495.

Haralambos, M. & Holborn, M. 2013. *Sociology themes and perspectives*. 8th. London: Harper Collins Publishers.

Haralambos, M., Holborn, M., Chapman, S. & Moore, S. 2015. *Sociology themes and perspectives*. 9th. London: Harper Collins Publishers.

Hatipoglu, B., Alvarez, M.D. & Ertuna, B. 2016. Barriers to stakeholder involvement in the planning of sustainable tourism: The case of the thrace region in turkey. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 111(2):306-317.

Hindsworth, M.F. & Lang, T.B. 2009. *Community participation and empowerment*. New York: Nova Science Publishers.

Hlengwa, D.C. & Mazibuko, S.K. 2018. Community leaders around inanda dam, kwazulu natal, and issues of community participation in tourism development initiatives. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 7(1):28-37.

I.P.A, M. 2012. The landsafe socioecological development model for the customary commons of zambia: Evolution and formalization. *Natural Resources Journal*, 52(1):195-214.

Ingonyama-Trust. 2019. *Quick facts about ingonyama trust land*. http://www.ingonyamatrust.org.za/ Date of access: 21 February.

International Labour Organisation. 2019. *Promotion of social cooperatives: Definitions, demarcations, regulation and target groups*. https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---ed_emp/---emp_ent/---coop/documents/presentation/wcms_624150.pdf Date of access: 12 November 2019.

Ivankova, N.V., Creswell, J.W. & Plano-Clark, V.L. 2017. Foundations and approaches to mixed methods research. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 2nd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers. pp. 306-332.

Jacobs, M. & Mazzucato, M. 2016. *Rethinking capitalism : Economics and policy for sustainable and inclusive growth*. West Sussex, United Kingdom: Wiley-Blackwell.

Janis, J. 2014. Political economy of the namibian tourism sector: Addressing post-apartheid inequality through increasing indigenous ownership. *Review of African Political Economy*, 41(140):185-200.

Jansen, J.D. 2017. Introduction to the language of research. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 2nd. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers. pp. 16-22.

Ji-Yeong, I., Hyewon, C. & Ji-Won, S. 2019. *Methods: Mixed-methods research design*. Singapore: Springer Singapore.

Jones, B., T. B., Diggle, R., W. & Thouless, C. 2014. *From exploitation to ownership: Wildlife-based tourism and communal area conservancies in namibia*. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands.

Kala, D. & Bagri, S.C. 2018. Barriers to local community participation in tourism development: Evidence from mountainous state uttarakhand, india. *Tourism (Zagreb)*, 66(3):318-333.

Kam, H., Sirakaya-Turk, E. & Ingram, L.J. 2011. Testing the efficacy of an integrative model for community participation. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(3):276-288.

Karl, R.R. 2019. *Combining the sides – research design*. Wiesbaden: Springer Fachmedien Wiesbaden.

Kiernan, D. 2019. *Natural resources biometrics*. New York, USA: Lumen. Available from: https://courses.lumenlearning.com/suny-natural-resources-biometrics/ Date of access: 10 Aug 2020.

Kimani, N., Bosire, C. & Luchetu Likaka, A. 2013. *Citizen participation in decision making: Towards inclusive development in kenya*. Nairobi, Kenya: Twaweza Communications.

Kothari, C.R. 2009. *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. 2nd edition. New Delhi, India: New Age International Publishers.

Kreag, G. 2001. *The impacts of tourism*. http://www.seagrant.umn.edu/downloads/t13.pdf Date of access: 4 April 2019.

Krishna, R. & Stuart, L. 2014. The relationship between ownership structure, capital structure and corporate governance practices : A case study of co-operatives and mutuals in new zealand. *International Journal of Managerial Finance*, (4):511-536.

Krittinee, N. 2019. *Research design*. Singapore: Springer Singapore.

Kroncke, J.J. 2019. Disciplining utopia: The future of cooperative landholding. *Environmental Law*, 49(2):453-511.

Kuhonta, E.M. 2011. *The institutional imperative: The politics of equitable development in southeast asia*. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.

Lachapelle, P. 2008. A sense of ownership in community development: Understanding the potential for participation in community planning efforts. *Community Development*, 39(2):52-59.

Lachapelle, P.R. & Austin, E.K. 2014. Community participation. In: Michalos, A.C., ed. *Encyclopedia of quality of life and well-being research*. Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands. pp. 1073-1078.

Latip, N.A., Rasoolimanesh, S.M., Jaafar, M., Marzuki, A. & Umar, M.U. 2018. Indigenous participation in conservation and tourism development: A case of native people of sabah, malaysia. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 20(3):400-409.

Laura, P. 2006. Political ecology across spaces, scales, and social groups susan paulson lisa gezon. *American Anthropologist*, 108(3):607-608.

Lavallee, P. 2007. *Indirect sampling*. Ontario, Canada: Springer Science + Business Media.

Li, Y. & Hunter, C. 2015. Community involvement for sustainable heritage tourism: A conceptual model. *Journal of Cultural Heritage Management and Sustainable Development*, 5(3):248-262.

Lin, T.L., Chen, Y.C., Liu, H.Y. & Huang, C.J. 2018. Ownership structure, board gender diversity and charitable donation. *Corporate Governance (Bingley)*, 18(4):655-670.

Ling, L. 2019. *Research design and methods*. Singapore: Springer Singapore.

Lins, S., Melo, C.F., Alves, S.G. & Silva, R.L. 2019. "Our voices, our meaning": The social representations of sports for brazilian athletes with disabilities. *Adapted Physical Activity Quarterly*, 36(1):42-60.

Lloyd, D. 2005. *Climbing arnstein's ladder: Towards improving the response of government agencies to the involvement of communities in protected area management*. New York: Southern Cross University.

MacNeill, T. & Wozniak, D. 2018. The economic, social, and environmental impacts of cruise tourism. *Tourism Management*, 66:387-404.

Mahony, K. & Van Zyl, J. 2002. The impacts of tourism investment on rural communities: Three case studies in south africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 19(1):83-103.

Mak, B.K.L., Cheung, L.T.O. & Hui, D.L.H. 2017. Community participation in the decision-making process for sustainable tourism development in rural areas of hong kong, china. *Sustainability*, 9(10):1695-1695.

Mancini, F., Coghill, G.M. & Lusseau, D. 2019. Quantifying wildlife watchers' preferences to investigate the overlap between recreational and conservation value of natural areas. *Journal of Applied Ecology*, 56(2):387-397.

Maree, K. 2019. Planning a reserach proposal. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 3rd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik.

Maree, K. & Pietersen, J. 2017. Sampling. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 2nd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

Maree, K. & Pietersen, J. 2019. Surveys and the use of questionnaires. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 3rd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

Margaret, B. 2019. Key concepts in qualitative research design. In: Nestel, D., Hui, J., Kunkler, K., Scerbo, M., W & Calhou, A., W, eds*. Healthcare simulation research, a practical guide*. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Mason, P. 2008. *Tourism impacts, planning and management*. 2nd. Cambridge: Routledge.

Matilainen, A., Suutari, T., Lähdesmäki, M. & Koski, P. 2018. Management by boundaries – insights into the role of boundary objects in a community-based tourism development project. *Tourism Management*, 67:284-296.

Mayer, B. & Rajavuori, M. 2017. State ownership and climate change mitigation: Overcoming the carbon curse. *Carbon & Climate Law Review (CCLR)*, 17(3):223-233.

McCombes, L., Vanclay, F. & Evers, Y. 2015. Putting social impact assessment to the test as a method for implementing responsible tourism practice. *Environmental Impact Assessment Review*, 55:156-168.

McGowan, T. 2016. *Capitalism and desire: The psychic cost of free markets*. Columbia: Columbia University Press.

McKercher, B., Wang, D. & Park, E. 2015. Social impacts as a function of place change. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 50:52-66.

McMillan, J.H. & Schumacher, S. 2014. *Research in education: Evidence-based inquiry*. 7th. London, United Kingdom: Pearson Education.

Mendonca, A., Cunha, A. & Chakrabarti, R. 2014. *Natural resources, sustainability and humanity: A comprehensive view*. London: Springer.

Merriam-Webster Dictionary. 2019. *Communal ownership*. https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/communal%20ownership Date of access: 12 June 2019.

Merriam, S.B. & Tisdell, E.J. 2016. *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. 4th. San Francisco, USA: Wiley.

Meyer, D. 2007. Pro-poor tourism: From leakages to linkages. A conceptual framework for creating linkages between the accommodation sector and 'poor' neighbouring communities. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(6):558-583.

Miller, L., M. 2019. Community-based equitable development: Seattle's response to gentrification. *National Civic Review*, 107(4):36-45.

Miriam, M. 2019. *Research design, data collection, and analysis*. Wiesbaden: Springer Fachmedien Wiesbaden.

Mitchell, J. 2012. Value chain approaches to assessing the impact of tourism on low-income households in developing countries. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(3):457-475.

Mitchell, J. & Ashley, C. 2006. *Tourism business and the local economy: Increasing impact through a linkages approach*. New Jersey: Overseas Development Institute.

Mlungu, F. & Kwizera, A.S. 2020. Assessment of the socio-economic impacts of tourism on three rural communities neighbouring addo elephant national park, eastern cape, south africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 9(1):1-19.

Mogomotsi, G.E.J., Mogomotsi, P.K., Gondo, R. & Madigele, T.J. 2018. Community participation in cultural heritage and environmental policy formulation in botswana. *Chinese Journal of Population Resources & Environment*, 16(2):171-189.

Mohatt, D.F., Bradley, M.M., Adams, S.J. & Morris, C.D. 2005. Mental health and rural america, 1994–2005.

Mowforth, M. & Munt, I. 2016. *Tourism and sustainability: Development, globalisation and new tourism in the third world*. 4th. Oxon: Routledge.

Mubanga, K.H. & Umar, B.B. 2016. "Tourism is for foreigners": Resident views about community participation in zambia's tourist capital. *Tourism Culture & Communication*, 16(1/2):75-89.

Murphy, P.E. & Murphy, A.E. 2004. *Strategic management for tourism communities*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Mwangi, E. & Ostrom, E. 2009. Top-down solutions: Looking up from east africa's rangelands. *Environment*, 51(1):34-45.

Mwitwa, J., Muimba-Kankolongo, A., Shakacite, O. & Ng'andwe, P. 2015. Integration of forestry into the national economy. In: Ng'andwe, P., Mwitwa, J. & Muimba-Kankolongo, A., eds. *Forest policy, economics, and markets in zambia*. Oxford, UK: Academic Print. pp. 133-164.

Nair, V., Hussain, K., Chiun, L.M., Ragavan, N.A. & Lekaota, L. 2015. The importance of rural communities' participation in the management of tourism management : A case study from lesotho. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 7(5):453-462.

Natpatsaya, S. & Gritsada, S.-i. 2020. Tourism value chain management and tourism logistics in ubon ratchathani province, northeast thailand. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 9(1):1-12.

Ndabeni, L.L. 2019. Innovation and dynamics of rural economic development. In: Jacobs, P.T., ed. *Equitable rural socioeconomoic change*. Cape Town: HSRC Press.

Newton, K. 2001. Trust, social capital, civil society, and democracy. *International Political Science Review*, 22(2):201-214. Date of access: 2021/10/02.

Nicholas, L. 2008. *Introduction to psychology*. 2nd. Cape Town: UCT Press.

Nieuwenhuis, J. 2017. Introducing qualitative research. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 2nd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

Nieuwenhuis, J. 2019a. Analysing qualitative data. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 3rd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

Nieuwenhuis, J. 2019b. Qualitative research designs and data-gathering techniques. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 3rd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

Nthiga, R.W., Van der Duim, R., Visseren-Hamakers, I.J. & Lamers, M. 2015. Tourism-conservation enterprises for community livelihoods and biodiversity conservation in kenya. *Development Southern Africa*, 32(3):407-423.

O'Connor, C. 2017. Embodiment and the construction of social knowledge: Towards an integration of embodiment and social representations theory. *Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour*, 47(1):2-24.

Oddbjørn, B. 2018. *Design of research projects*. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Odeniran, P.O., Ademola, I.O. & Jegede, H.O. 2018. A review of wildlife tourism and meta-analysis of parasitism in africa's national parks and game reserves. *Parasitology Research: Founded as Zeitschrift für Parasitenkunde*, 117(8):2359-2378.

OECD. 2018. *Ownership and governance of state-owned enterprises: A compendium of national practices*. http://www.oecd.org/corporate/Ownership-and-Governance-of-State-Owned-Enterprises-A-Compendium-of-National-Practices.pdf Date of access: 13 November 2019.

Okten, C. & Osili, U. 2004. Contributions in heterogeneous communities: Evidence from indonesia. *Journal of Population Economics*, 17(4):603-626.

Ostrom, E. 2008. The challenge of common-pool resources. *Environment*, 50(4):8-21.

Paddison, B. & Biggins, R. 2017. Advocating community integrated destination marketing planning in heritage destinations: The case of york. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 33(9/10):835-857.

Pallant, J. 2016. *Spss survival manual : A step by step guide to data analysis using ibm spss*. 6th edition. Berkshire, England: McGraw-Hill Education.

Palmer, N.J. & Chuamuangphan, N. 2018. Governance and local participation in ecotourism: Community-level ecotourism stakeholders in chiang rai province, thailand. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 17(3):320-337.

Park, R.E., Burgess, E.W. & Sampson, R.J. 2019. *The city*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

Patton, M.Q. 2014. *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice*. 4th. London: Sage Publishing.

Pavlić, I., Portolan, A. & Puh, B. 2015. The social impacts of tourism on local community's quality of life. *Tourism in Southern & Eastern Europe*, 3:259-272.

Perdue, R.R. 2004. Sustainable tourism and stakeholder groups: A case study of colorado ski resort communities. In: Crouch, G.I., Perdue, R.R., Timmermans, H.J.P. & Uysal, M., eds*. Consumer psychology of tourism, hospitality and leisure*. 3rd. Oxofordshire: CABI Publishing. pp. 253-264.

Perez, E.A. & Nadal, J.R. 2005. Host community perceptions a cluster analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32:925-941.

Perret, S., Anseeuw, F. & Mathebula, F. 2005. *Poverty and livelihoods in rural south africa: Investigating diversity and dynamics of livelihoods. Case studies in limpopo*. https://www.up.ac.za/media/shared/Legacy/sitefiles/file/48/2052/200501.pdf Date of access: 22 November.

Pietersen, J. & Maree, K. 2019a. Statistical analysis i: Descriptive statistics. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 3rd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Plublishers.

Pietersen, J. & Maree, K. 2019b. Statistical analysis ii: Inferential statistics. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 3rd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

Pietersen, J. & Maree, K. 2019c. Overview of some of the most popular statistical techniques. In: Maree, K., ed. *First steps in research*. 3rd. Pretoria, South Africa: Van Schaik Publishers.

Polat, N. 2013. Impacts of tourism projects of development agencies on social peace in turkey. *Tourismos*, 8(1):233-245.

Ponka, V. 2019. Are cooperative societies transforming into cooperative companies: Reflections on the finnish cooperatives act. *European Business Law Review*, 30(1):77-99.

Prabhakaran, S., Nair, V. & Ramachandran, S. 2014. Community participation in rural tourism: Towards a conceptual framework. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 144:290-295.

Ramírez, F. & Santana, J.C. 2019. Key lessons learned by teaching ecotourism to undergraduate students in bogotá's urban wetlands. *Applied Environmental Education and Communication*, 18(3):234-251.

Rasoolimanesh, S.M., Jaafar, M., Ahmad, A.G. & Barghi, R. 2017. Community participation in world heritage site conservation and tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 58:142-153.

Regula, H. 2019. *Research design and data*. Switzerland: Springer International Publishing.

Reisinger, Y. 2009. *International tourism: Cultures and behaviour*. Maryland Heights, MI: Elsevier.

Ritchie, J., Lewis, J., Nicholls, C. & Ormston, R. 2013. *Qualitative research practice: A guide for social science students and researchers*. 2nd. London: Sage.

Rogerson, C.M. 2013. Tourism and local development in south africa: Challenging local governments. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation & Dance*, 19(2):9-23.

Rousseau, D., Sitkin, S., Burt, R. & Camerer, C. 1998. Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3):393-404. 10.5465/AMR.1998.926617

Ryan, C. 2003. *Recreational tourism: Demand and impacts*. Sydney: Channel View Publications.

Rylance, A. & Spenceley, A. 2014. *Creating luxury ecotourism with the local community*. Frankfurt: GIZ.

Rylance, A. & Spenceley, A. 2016. Applying inclusive business approaches to nature-based tourism in namibia and south africa. *Tourism*, 64(4):371-383.

SA-Places. 2020. *Ukhahlamba drakensberg park*. https://www.places.co.za/html/drakensberg_park.html Date of access: 7 February.

Saayman, M., Rossouw, R. & Krugell, W. 2012. The impact of tourism on poverty in south africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 29(3):462-487.

Safari, E., Spencer, J.P. & Dakora, E.A.N. 2014. An evaluation of the tourism value-chain as an alternative to socio-economic development in rwanda, africa : Tourism. *African Journal for Physical Health Education, Recreation and Dance*, 20:569-583.

Salaberry, M.R. & Comajoan, L. 2013. *Research design and methodology in studies on l2 tense and aspect*. Berlin: De Gruyter Mouton. (Studies in second and foreign language education: 2).

Salkind, N.J. 2010. *Encyclopedia of research design*. Thousand Oaks, California: Sage Publications.

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., Thornhill, A. & Bristow, A. 2019. *Research methods for business students*. New York: Pearson Education Limited.

Schaefer, R.T. 2006. *Sociology: A brief introduction*. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.

Scholtz, M. 2014. *A critical assessment of the social impacts of tourism in selected south african communities.* Potchefstroom, South Africa: North-West University. (Theses).

Scholtz, M. & Slabbert, E. 2016. The relevance of the tangible and intangible social impacts of tourism on selected south african communities. *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, 14(2):107-128.

Scholtz, M. & Slabbert, E. 2018. A remodelled approach to measuring the social impact of tourism in a developing country. *Development Southern Africa*, 35(6):743-759.

Schutt, R.K. 2019. *Investigating the social world: The process and practice of research*. 9th. Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications.

Scott, J.C. 1998. *Seeing like a state: How certain schemes to improve the human condition have failed*. New Haven: Yale University Press. (Yale agrarian studies).

Sebola, M.P. 2014. Sustaining tourism in south african game farms: The benefits of ownership of restituted land by african communities. *WIT Transactions on Ecology and the Environment*, 187:15-26.

Seligman, A.B. 2000. *The problem of trust*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press.

Sharpley, P.R. & Telfer, D.J. 2015. *Tourism and development: Concepts and issues*. Bristol, Buffalo: Channel View Publications.

Singh, S., Timothy, D.J. & Dowling, R.K. 2003. *Tourism in destination communities*. Cambridge: CABI Publishing.

Siri, R. & Chantraprayoon, O.S. 2017. Local community participatory learning with a nature interpretation system: A case study in ban pong, sansai district, chiang mai, thailand. *Kasetsart Journal of Social Sciences*, 38(2):181-185.

Smelser, N.j. 1995. *Sociology*. 5th. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc.

Smith, R.C. 2014. Is there a better structure for news providers - the potential in charitable and trust ownership. *Journal of Media Law*, 6(2):309-312.

Smith, S.M. & Albaum, G.S. 2005. *Fundamentals of marketing research*. London, United Kingdom: Sage Publications.

Smith, V.L. 1989. *Host and guests: The athrapology of tourism*. 2nd. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Sood, J., Lynch, P. & Anastasiadou, C. 2017. Community non-participation in homestays in kullu, himachal pradesh, india. *Tourism Management*, 60:332-347.

Spencer, J.P., Safari, E. & Dakora, E.A.N. 2014. An evaluation of the tourism value-chain as an alternative to socio-economic development in rwanda, africa. *African Journal for Physical, Health Education, Recreation & Dance*, 20(2.1):569-584.

STATS-SA. 2019. *Statistics by place*. http://www.statssa.gov.za/?page_id=964 Date of access: 8 February.

Steele, J. & Scherrer, P. 2018. Flipping the principal-agent model to foster host community participation in monitoring and evaluation of volunteer tourism programmes. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 43(3):321-334.

Stewart, E.W. & Glynn, J.A. 1971. *Introduction to sociology*. New York: McGraw-Hill Publishing Company.

Stewart, P. & Zaaiman, J. 2015. *Sociology: A south african introduction*. 1st. Cape Town: Juta.

Stonich, S.C. 2000. *The other side of paradise : Tourism, conservation, and development in the bay islands*. New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Su, M.M. & Wall, G. 2014. Community participation in tourism at a world heritage site: Mutianyu great wall, beijing, china. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 16(2):146-156.

Subramaniam, Y. & Edo, J. 2016. Common law customary land rights as a catalyst for the resurgence of orang asli shamanism in peninsular malaysia: Some lessons from the semai and temiar peoples. *Atla Religion Database with AtlaSerials*, 24(1):133-154.

Suess, C. & Mody, M. 2016. Gaming can be sustainable too! Using social representation theory to examine the moderating effects of tourism diversification on residents' tax paying behavior. *Tourism Management*, 56:20-39.

Sunday, C.E. 2018. *Qualitative data analysis*. Cape Town, South Africa: University of Western Cape.

Swapan, M.S.H. 2016. Who participates and who doesn't? Adapting community participation model for developing countries. *Cities*, 53:70-77.

Telfer, D.J. & Sharpley, R. 2008. *Tourism and development in the developing world*. New York: Routledge.

Terrell, S.R. 2012. *Mixed-methods research methodologies*. 17. Florida, USA: Nova Southeastern University. (The qualitative report).

Tewes-Gradl, C., van Gaalen, M. & Pirzer, C. 2014. *Destination mutual benefit: A guide to inclusive business in tourism*. Frankfurt: GIZ.

Ting-Ling Lin, Heng-Yih Liu, Chi-Jui Huang & Chen, Y.-C. 2018. Ownership structure, board gender diversity and charitable donation. *Corporate Governance: The International Journal of Business in Society*, 18(4):655-670.

Tosun, C. 2007. Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries. In: Huybers, T., ed. *Tourism in developing countries*. Cheltenham, UK: Springer. pp. 547-567.

Towner, N. 2016. Community participation and emerging surfing tourism destinations: A case study of the mentawai islands. *Journal of Sport & Tourism*, 20(1):1-19.

Tritter, J.Q. & McCallum, A. 2006. The snakes and ladders of user involvement: Moving beyond arnstein. *Health Policy*, 76(2):156-168.

Trochim, W., Donnelly, J.P. & Arora, K. 2016. *Research methods: The essential knowledge base*. 2nd. Boston, USA: Cengage Learning.

UNESCO. 2020. *Maloti-drakensberg park: Description*. http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/985 Date of access: 7 February.

UNWTO. 2020. *World tourism barometer*. https://webunwto.s3.eu-west-1.amazonaws.com/s3fs-public/2020-01/UNWTO_Barom20_01_January_excerpt.pdf Date of access: 30 October.

UNWTO. 2021. *2020: Worst year in tourism history with one billion fewer international arrivals*. https://www.unwto.org/news/2020-worst-year-in-tourism-history-with-1-billion-fewer-international-arrivals Date of access: 30 October.

Velnisa Paimin, N.F., Modilih, S., Mogindol, S.H., Johnny, C. & Thamburaj, J.A. 2014. Community participation and barriers in rural tourism: A case study in kiulu, sabah. *SHS Web of Conferences*, 12(1):1-7.

Verma, J.P. 2019. *Research design in psychology*. pp. 333. Singapore: Springer Singapore.

Walliman, N. 2011. *Research methods: The basics*. 1st edition. London: Routledge.

Wang, W., Qiao, J., Cheng, J., Sun, Y. & He, W. 2019. Research on the impact of economic development of tourism industry based on low carbon mode. *International Journal of Low Carbon Technologies*, 14(2):241-246.

Warouw, F.F., Langitan, F.W. & Alamsyah, A.T. 2018. Community participation for sustainable tourism model in manado coastal area. In.: Institute of Physics Publishing.

Watkins, M.W. 2018. Exploratory factor analysis: A guide to best practice. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 44(3):219-246. Date of access: 2021/11/04.

Wazimap. 2021. *Community survey 2016*. https://wazimap.co.za/profiles/district-DC23-uthukela/ Date of access: 2 November.

Williams, B.A. & Matheny, A.R. 1995. *Democracy, dialogue, and environmental disputes: The contested languages of social regulation*. New Haven and London: Yale University Press.

Wineaster, A. & Saleh, J. 2014. Linkages at tourism destinations: Challenges in zanzibar. *ARA: Revista de Investigación en Turismo*, 3(1):27-41.

Wolf, R.B. 2001. Estate planning with total return trusts: Meeting human needs and investment goals through modern trust design. *Real Property, Probate and Trust Journal*, 36(2):169-330.

Woo, E., Uysal, M. & Sirgy, M.J. 2018. Tourism impact and stakeholders' quality of life. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 42(2):260-286.

Woodin, T. 2007. Working-class education and social change in nineteenth- and twentieth-century britain. *History of Education*, 36(4-5):483-496.

Woodin, T., Crook, D. & Carpentier, V. 2010. *Community and mutual ownership: A historical review*. York, UK. https://www.jrf.org.uk/sites/default/files/jrf/migrated/files/community-mutual-ownership-full.pdf

WTTC. 2019. *Travel and tourism: Global economic impact*. https://www.wttc.org/about/media-centre/press-releases/press-releases/2019/travel-tourism-continues-strong-growth-above-global-gdp/ Date of access: 4 February.

WTTC. 2021. *Travel & tourism: Economic impact 2021*. https://wttc.org/Portals/0/Documents/EIR/EIR2021%20Global%20Infographic.pdf?ver=2021-04-06-170951-897 Date of access: 30 October.

Yates, G.E., Stein, T.V. & Wyman, M.S. 2010. Factors for collaboration in florida's tourism resources: Shifting gears from participatory planning to community-based management. *Landscape and Urban Planning*, 97(4):213-220.

Ynalvez, M.A. 2015. Escobar's proposed alternative to development: A critique and proposed revisions. *Asia-Pacific Social Science Review*, 15(1):125-134.

Yulong Li, a. & Caroline Hunter, a. 2015. Community involvement for sustainable heritage tourism: A conceptual model. *Journal of Cultural Heritage Management and Sustainable Development*, 5(3):248-262.

Zhang, Y. 2018. Grabbing land for equitable development? Reengineering land dispossession through securitising land development rights in chongqing. *Antipode*, 50(4):1120-1140.

Zikmund, W.G., Babin, B.J., Carr, J.C., Adhikari, A. & Griffin, M. 2016. *Business research methods: A south-asian perspective*. Boston, MA: Cengage Learning.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: English questionnaire

UKHAHLAMBA DRAKENSBERG PARK COMMUNITY SURVEY 2020
SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DETAILS

1. Gender of respondent

2. Year of birth

3. Home language

4. Marital status

Single	1
Married	2
Divorced	3
Widow/er	4

5. Highest level of education of household head

No school	1
Still in school	2
Matric	3
Diploma/Degree	4

6. Occupation status of head of household

Student/Not in labour market	1
Paid worker	2
Unpaid worker	3
Unemployed	4
Retired	5
Self-employed	6

7. What is your annual gross income?

< R140 000	1
R140 001 - R221 000	2
R221 001 - R 305 000	3
R305 001 - R431 000	4
R431 001 - R552 000	5
R552 001 - R672 000	6
R672 001 - R772 000	7
> R772 001	8

8. How long have you lived in this community?

_____ years

9. Do you have access to land?

Yes	1
No	2

10. How much longer do you expect to live in this community?

_____ years

11. How many people including yourself do you live with?

_____ people

12. What is your occupation?

_____

13. Age of household head

14. Gender of household head

15. Number of adults in household

16. Number of children aged 5-18 in household

17. Number of children age < 5 in household

18. How many adults can read and write in the household?

19. Which best describes your house structure?

Hut	1
House of stone with tile/steel roof	2
Informal housing structure	3

20. Do you have access to

	Yes 1	No 2
running water in your house?		
sanitation in your house?		
electricity in your house?		

21. Are you involved in

	Yes 1	No 2
crop production?		
livestock?		

22. What's your main source of household income?

Remittances from family members	1
Livestock sold	2
Crop production	3
Firewood collection	4
Other, specify	5

_____

23. How many livestock units do you own (cattle, donkeys, horses, goats?)

SECTION B: EQUITY IMPACT AND COMMUNITY PERCEPTIONS OF THE PARK

24. Social impacts of tourism

		Disagree	Indifferent	Agree
Because of tourism and the UDP…		1	2	3
Positive social impacts				
a.	the image of my community has improved	☹	😐	☺
b.	community pride has improved	☹	😐	☺
c.	roads and public facilities are better maintained	☹	😐	☺
d.	everyday lifestyles for community members have improved	☹	😐	☺
e.	there is improved quality of life	☹	😐	☺
f.	I'm satisfied personally	☹	😐	☺
Negative social impacts				
g.	community cohesion has decreased	☹	😐	☺
h.	vandalism of property and sites has increased	☹	😐	☺
i.	social conficts between residents and tourists has increased	☹	😐	☺
j.	exploitation of locals has increased	☹	😐	☺
k.	cultural traditions are fading	☹	😐	☺
l.	crime rates have increased	☹	😐	☺

25. Economic impacts of tourism

		Disagree	Indifferent	Agree
Because of tourism and the UDP…		1	2	3
Positive economic impacts				
a.	employment opportunities have increased	☹	😐	☺
b.	business opportunities have increased	☹	😐	☺
c.	standards of living have improved	☹	😐	☺
d.	turnover for local busnesses have improved	☹	😐	☺
e.	public funding for community activities has increased	☹	😐	☺
f.	traditional handicrafts are now being recovered	☹	😐	☺
Negative economic impacts				
g.	prices of goods and services have increased	☹	😐	☺
h.	property prices have increased	☹	😐	☺
i.	cost of living has increased	☹	😐	☺
j.	only a small number of people are benefiting	☹	😐	☺

SECTION C: COMMUNITY OWNERSHIP

26. Does anyone in your household work at the UDP?		Yes	1
	If yes, motivate.	No	2

27. Do you or anyone in your household supply any tourism related services to the park?		Yes	1
	If yes, explain.	No	2

28. Do you think there is a need for more tourism related businesses in the community?	Yes	1
If yes, explain what kind of businesses.	No	2

29. Are you a business owner?	Yes	1
If yes, explain what kind of businesses.	No	2

30. Have you considered your own business?	Yes	1
If yes, explain what kind of businesses.	No	2

31. Have you been involved in any community projects that UDP offer?	Yes	1
	No	2

32. Do you know of any community project(s) that the UDP offer?	Yes	1
If so, name the project(s).	No	2

33. Have you considered a tourism-related business?	Yes	1
If yes, explain what kind of businesses. If no, why not?	No	2

34. Do you have any knowledge/skills or experience within the tourism industry?	Yes	1
If yes, motivate.	No	2

35. In your view, how can the UDP and the community chiefs improve community development?

36. Current involvement in tourism

		Disagree	Indifferent	Agree
Please rate the following statements according to the scale provided		1	2	3
a.	I am highly informed about tourism development in my community	☹	😐	☺
b.	I participate in solving tourism related problems in my community	☹	😐	☺
c.	Local communities are encouraged to be involved in tourism	☹	😐	☺
d.	There are incentives in place for local community tourism players	☹	😐	☺
e.	The communities have their own tourism attractions	☹	😐	☺
f.	The community benefits a lot from tourism	☹	😐	☺

37. Barriers to community business ownership

		Agree		
		Indifferent		
		Disagree		
Please rate the following statements according to the scale provided		1	2	3
a.	The community is not considered in the planning process	☹	😐	☺
b.	There is a lack of tourism business and marketing expertise	☹	😐	☺
c.	There is a lack of awareness about the benefits of tourism development	☹	😐	☺
d.	There is lack of cohesion and coordination between stakeholders	☹	😐	☺
e.	Tourism is not considered as important	☹	😐	☺
f.	There is lack of understanding of the legislative environment	☹	😐	☺
g.	The community lacks financial resources	☹	😐	☺
h.	The community has limited access to information	☹	😐	☺
i.	The community lacks wealth and political strength	☹	😐	☺
j.	There is lack of government support and inititives	☹	😐	☺

38. Ideal tourism businesses needed by my community

		Agree		
		Indifferent		
		Disagree		
Please rate the following statements according to the scale provided		1	2	3
a.	Community offering tourist accommodation	☹	😐	☺
b.	Community providing entertainment for tourists through events, festivals etc	☹	😐	☺
c.	Community providing food and refreshments for tourists in restaurants, open m	☹	😐	☺
d.	Community offering tourist transport	☹	😐	☺
e.	Community selling cultural products to tourists	☹	😐	☺
f.	Community providing conferencing facilities for tourists	☹	😐	☺
g.	Community providing tourist information	☹	😐	☺
h.	Community offering sport and adventure activities	☹	😐	☺

39. What are the greastest obstacles to community business ownership?

Thank you for your co-operation!

Research conducted by TREES, North-West University, Potchefstroom, 018 299 1806

Copyright ©2021



Appendix 2: Zulu questionnaire

UHLOLOVO LOMPHAKATHI LONYAKA OLUMAYELANA NEKHAHLAMBA DRAKENSBERG PARK
ISIGABA A: IMININGWANE YEZIBALO EMAYELANA NABANTU NOHLOBO LWABO

1. Ubulili bophendulayo

2. Unyaka wokuzalwa

3. Ulimi lwasekhaya

4. Isimo somshado

Angishadile	1
Ngishadile	2
Ngidivosile	3
Umfelokazi/ umfelwa	4

5. Izinga lemfundo lomuntu owondla umndeni

Angiyanga esikoleni	1
Ngisafunda	2
Umatikuletsheni	3
I-Diploma/ Iziqu	4

6. Isimo sokusebenza somuntu owondla umndeni

Ngiyisitshudeni/ Angiqashiwe	1
Ngenza umsebenzi oholelayo	2
Ngenza umsebenzi ongaholeli	3
Angisebenzi	4
Ngithathe umhlalaphansi	5
Ngiyazisebenza	6

7. Yimalini umholo wakho wonyaka?

< R140 000	1
R140 001 – R221 000	2
R221 001 - R 305 000	3
R305 001 – R431 000	4
R431 001 – R552 000	5
R552 001 – R672 000	6
R672 001 – R772 000	7
< R772 001	8

8. Unesikhathi esingakanani uhlala kulo mphakathi? _____ iminyaka

9. Unawo yini umhlaba?

Yebo	1
Cha	2

10. Usalindele ukuphila isikhathi esingakanani nalo mphakathi? _____ Iminyaka

11. Uhlala nabantu abangaki uma sibandakanya nawe? _____ Abantu

12. Usebenza msebenzi muni? _____

13. Iminyaka yobudala yomuntu owondla umndeni

14. Ubulili bomuntu owondla umndeni

15. Inani labantu abadala emndenini

16. Inani lezingane ezineminyaka ephakathi kwemi-5 ne-18 emndenini

17. Inani lezingane ezineminyaka engaphansi kwemi-5 emndenini

18. Bangaki abantu abadala abakwaziyo ukufunda nokubhala emndenini?

19. Isakhiwo sendlu yakho ungasichaza kanjani?

Umuzi wesintu	1
Indlu eyakhiwe ngamatshe yafulelwa ngamathayili/ngotha	2
Indlu engumjondolo	3

20. Unawo

	Yebo 1	Cha 2
amanzi aphuma empompini ekhaya lakho?		
indlu encane eshaywa ngamanzi?		
ugesi ekhaya lakho?		

21. Kungabe uyabandakanyeka

	Yebo 1	Cha 2
ekulimeni?		
ekufuyeni?		

22. Yikuphi okusemqoka owenza ngakho imali?

Imali oyithunyelelwa ngamalungu omndeni	1
Imfuyo ithengisiwe	2
Ukulima	3
Ukutheza izinkuni	4
Okunye, cacisa	5

_____

23. Mingaki imikhakha yemfuyo yakho? (Izinkomo, izimbongolo, amahhashi, izimbuzi?)

ISIGABA B: UMTHELELA WOKULINGANA NEMIBONO YOMPHAKATHI MAYELANA NEPAKI

24. Imithelela yomkhakha wezokuvakasha

		Ngiyavumelana		
		Anginambono		
		Angivumelani		
Ngenxa yezokuvakasha ne-UDP…		1	2	3
Imithelela emihle emphakathini				
a.	isithombe sesimo somphakathi wami sesingcono	☹	😐	☺
b.	ukuzigqaja komphakathi sekungcono	☹	😐	☺
c.	imigwaqo nezindawo zomphakathi sekunakekelwa kangcono	☹	😐	☺
d.	indlela yokuphila yawo wonke umuntu isingcono manje	☹	😐	☺
e.	izinga lempilo selingcono manje	☹	😐	☺
f.	nganelisekile	☹	😐	☺
Imithelela engemihle emphakathini				
g.	izinga lokuphilisana komphakathi lehlile	☹	😐	☺
h.	izinga lokulinyazwa kwezakhiwo nezikhungo lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
i.	izinga lokungezwani phakathi kwezakhamuzi nezivakashi lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
j.	izinga lokuxhashazwa kwezakhamuzi zendawo lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
k.	amasiko aya ngokunyamalala	☹	😐	☺
l.	izinga lobugebengu lenyukile	☹	😐	☺

25. Imithelela yezomnotho kwezokuvakasha

		Ngiyavumelana		
		Anginambono		
		Angivumelani		
Ngenxa yezokuvakasha ne-UDP…		1	2	3
Imithelela emihle kwezomnotho				
a.	izinga lamathuba emisebenzi lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
b.	izinga lamathuba amabhizinisi lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
c.	izinga lokuphila nokusezingeni lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
d.	Izinga lokusebenza kahle kwamabhizinisi endawo lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
e.	izinga lokuxhaswa ngezimali komphakathi lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
f.	abantu sebebuyela ekwenzeni umsebenzi wezandla wezinto zomdabu	☹	😐	☺
Imithelela engemihle kwezomnotho				
g.	izinga lamanani entengo yezinto nezinsizakalo lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
h.	izinga lamanani entengo yezezindlu lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
i.	izinga lezindleko zokuphila lenyukile	☹	😐	☺
j.	kuhlomula inani elincane labantu kuphela	☹	😐	☺

ISIGABA C: UBUNIKAZI BOMPHAKATHI

26. Kungabe ukhona osebenza ku-UDP emndenini wakho?	Yebo	1
Uma impendulo ithi, yebo, sekela impendulo yakho.	Cha	2
_____		
_____		
27. Kungabe ukhona umuntu emndenini wakho ohlinzeka ngensizakalo epaki ehlobene nanom	Yebo	1
yikuphi emkhakheni wezokuvakasha? Uma impendulo ithi, yebo, chaza.	Cha	2
_____		

28. Kungabe ucabanga ukuthi sikhulu yini isidingo sokuba khona kwamabhizinisi ahlobene nezokuvakasha emphakathini wakho. Uma impendulo ithi, yebo, chaza ukuthi hlobo luni lwamabhizinisi.	Yebo	1
	Cha	2
29. Kungabe ungumninibhizinisi? Uma impendulo ithi, yebo, chaza ukuthi hlobo luni lwamabhizinisi.	Yebo	1
	Cha	2
30. Usuke wacabanga ngokuba nebhizinisi okungelakho? Uma impendulo ithi, yebo, chaza ukuthi hlobo luni lwamabhizinisi.	Yebo	1
	Cha	2
31. Usuke wabandakanyeka kunoma yimaphi amaphrojekthi ahlinzekwa yi-UDP?	Yebo	1
	Cha	2
32. Kungabe ikhona iphrojekthi/akhona amaprojekthi owaziyo ahlinzekwa yi-UDP? Uma kunjalo, ake uyisho/uwasho.	Yebo	1
	Cha	2
33. Kungabe usuke wacabanga ukwenza ibhizinisi elihlobene nezokuvakasha? Uma impendulo ithi, yebo, chaza ukuthi hlobo luni lwamabhizinisi. Uma impendulo ithi, cha, kungani?	Yebo	1
	Cha	2
34. Kungabe unalo ulwazi/amakhono noma amava emkhakheni wezokuvakasha? Uma impendulo ithi, yebo, sekela impendulo yakho.	Yebo	1
	Cha	2

35. Ngokubona kwakho, i-UDP kanye nezinduna zomphakathi zingenza ngcono kanjani ekuthuthukisweni komphakathi?

36. Ukubandakanyeka emkhakheni wezokuvakasha njengamanje

	Angivumelani	Anginambono	Ngiyavumelana
Sicela ulinganise lezi zitatimende ezilandelayo mayelana nesilinganiso esihlinzekiwe	1	2	3
a. Nginolwazi oluningi mayelana nezokuvakasha emphakathini wami	☹	😐	☺
b. Ngibamba iqhaza ekuxazululweni kwezinkinga ezihlobene nezokuvakasha emphakathini	☹	😐	☺
c. Imiphakathi yendawo iyagqugquzelwa ukuba izibandakanye kwezokuvakasha	☹	😐	☺
d. Kukhona imihlomulo mayelana nalabo abadlala indima emkhakheni wezokuvakasha	☹	😐	☺
e. Imiphakathi inezayo izinto eheha ngazo kumkhakha wezokuvakasha	☹	😐	☺
f. Umphakathi uhlomula kakhulu emkhakheni wezokuvakasha	☹	😐	☺

37. Izihibe ezivimbela umphakathi ukuba ube namabhizinisi awo

	Ngiyavumelana		
	Anginambono		
	Angivumelani		
Sicela ulinganise lezi zitatimende ezilandelayo mayelana nesilinganiso esihlinzekiwe	1	2	3
a. Akusetshenziswana nomphakathi kuzinqubo zokuhlela	☹	😐	☺
b. Ubungoti kwezamabhizinisi ezokuvakasha nakwezokumaketha abenele	☹	😐	☺
c. Akukho ukuqhwashiseka okwanele mayelana nemihlomulo ekuthuthukisweni zokuvakasha	☹	😐	☺
d. Akukho ukusebenzisana okwanele phakathi kwabanentshisekelo	☹	😐	☺
e. Umkhakha wezokuvakasha uthathwa njengento engabalulekile	☹	😐	☺
f. Akukho ukuqonda okwanele mayelana nesimo semithetho	☹	😐	☺
g. Azikho izimali ezanele emphakathini	☹	😐	☺
h. Umphakathi awulutholi ulwazi olwanele	☹	😐	☺
i. Umphakathi ngamandla emali nawezombusazwe	☹	😐	☺
j. Izinhlelo nokwesekwa nguhulumeni akwenele	☹	😐	☺

38. Kudingeka amabhizinisi afanele ezokuvakasha emphakathini wami

	Ngiyavumelana		
	Anginambono		
	Angivumelani		
Sicela ulinganise lezi zitatimende ezilandelayo mayelana nesilinganiso esihlinzekiwe	1	2	3
a. Umphakathi ohlinzeka ngezindawo zokulala kuzivakashi	☹	😐	☺
b. Umphakathi ohlinzeka ngezokungcebeleka kuzivakashi, njengemicimbi, amafestivali, njl.	☹	😐	☺
c. Umphakathi ohlinzeka izivakashi ngokudla neziphuzo	☹	😐	☺
d. Umphakathi ohlinzeka ngezithuthi kubazivakashi	☹	😐	☺
e. Umphakathi othengisela izivakashi imikhiqizo yesintu	☹	😐	☺
f. Umphakathi ohlinzeka izivakashi ngezindawo okubanjelwa kuzo izinkomfa	☹	😐	☺
g. Umphakathi ohlinzeka izivakashi ngolwazi lwezokuvakasha	☹	😐	☺
h. Umphakathi ohlinzeka ngezemidlalo nangemicimbi yamathandangozi	☹	😐	☺

39. Yiziphi izihibe ezinkulu ezivimbela ukuthi umphakathi ube namabhizinisi okungawawo?

Siyabonga ngokusebenzisana nathi!

Lolu cwaningo beluhanjiswa ngabakwa-TREES, North-West University, Potchefstroom Campus
Ilungelo ligodliwe ©2021

Appendix 3: UDP interview guide

1. How long have you been a community liaison officer for the UDP?

2. What does your role as community liaison officer entail?

3. In what ways do you engage the community?

4. Are you satisfied with the role UDP plays in local community development?

5. Do locals support the existence of the park? Why?

6. Do you feel the participation of the local community in the Park tourism ventures is sustainable?

7. How do you view community ownership of the tourism value chain against mere participation in tourism activities?

8. Who are your major suppliers of business services to the Park?

9. In your judgement, how would you rate local community suppliers and external suppliers?

10.Are there any policies in place to support local community businesses?

11.Do you feel local communities can own successful tourism initiatives?

12.Does the community have what it takes to run competent and sustainable tourism businesses?

13.Will community leaders be competent business managers?

14.Of the various community ownership models, which one will be suitable for your surrounding communities? Why?

15.What challenges do you foresee the community encountering in tourism business ownership?

16.How can the UDP support community tourism business ownership to succeed?

Appendix 4: Community traditional leaders interview guide

1. Can you explain the role that you as chief play in the community?

2. What are the challenges you face in the execution of your mandate?

3. What is the main economic activity in your community?

4. Are you satisfied with the role UDP plays in local community development?

5. Do you think locals support the existence of the park? Why?

6. Do you feel the participation of the local community in the Park tourism ventures is sustainable?

7. How do you view community ownership of tourism businesses and businesses that support tourism activities (such as restaurants, supermarkets) against mere participation in tourism activities?

8. Do you have knowledge on of major suppliers of services to tourists and the UDP?

9. Are there any policies in place to support local community businesses?

10.Do you feel local communities can own successful tourism businesses?

11.Does the community have what it takes to run competent and sustainable tourism businesses?

12.Will community leaders be competent business managers?

13.What challenges do you foresee the community encountering in tourism business ownership?

14.How do community leaders support community tourism business ownership to succeed?

15.We would like your permission to ask the community about their view of tourism, the UDP and tourism businesses.

Appendix 5: Questionnaire consent letter

Private bag X05, Noordbrug
South Africa, 2522
Tel: 018 299-2000
Fax: 018 299-2999
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

School of Tourism Management

TREES (Tourism Research in Economics, Environs & Society)
Tel: 018 299 2992
Fax: 018 299 4140
E-mail: michaelchambwe@gmail.com

Dear respondent,

CONSENT LETTER

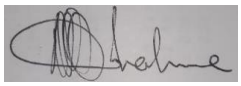
You are kindly being asked to take part in an academic (PhD) research study for which Ethical clearance has been obtained at NWU under the ethics number NWU-00929-20-A4. The primary goal of this study is to coin a framework for tourism value chain ownership in rural communities through assessing the current levels of community ownership of tourism resources. This information is vital to ensure the development of strategies to enhance the equitable distribution of benefits from tourism development in rural communities.

Please note the following:

- Your participation in this research is completely voluntarily, and you will receive no form of compensation.
- The reason(s) why this questionnaire contains socio-demographic and behavioural information, is to provide various agencies (developmental, governmental, non-governmental, etc) with valuable information regarding the profile and behaviour of the community residents. This information is necessary to identify the community's status quo and its attitude and preference towards tourism activities around them. This information will assist in the tailor-making of strategies requisite for the equitable development of the community.
- Your information will remain anonymous – no personal information that can link the data to you will be asked. Please do not include personal details such as your name or contact information.
- All data obtained is stored on a secure server at TREES, while questionnaires are stored in sealed boxes in an access-controlled storeroom.
- If you feel, at any time, that you want to halt participation in this study, please feel free to do so without judgement.
- This questionnaire should take approximately 10-15 minutes to complete.
- If anything is unclear, you may ask the trained fieldworker who distributed this questionnaire for assistance.
- The results and findings from this study will be published as part of a thesis, peer-reviewed articles, conference presentations and an industry report.

By continuing with this questionnaire, you agree to the terms and conditions of this research. For any further information, feel free to contact the primary researcher, Mr. Michael Chambwe or research promoter, Prof Andrea Saayman at their respective emails indicated below.

Yours sincerely





Mr. Michael Chambwe
Primary Researcher
North-West University
michaelchambwe@gmail.com

Prof Andrea Saayman
Promoter
North-West University
andrea.saayman@nwu.ac.za

Appendix 6: UDP consent letter

Private bag X05, Noordbrug
South Africa, 2522
Tel: 018 299-2000
Fax: 018 299-2999
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

School of Tourism Management

TREES (Tourism Research in Economics, Environs & Society)
Tel: 018 299 2992
Fax: 018 299 4140
E-mail: michaelchambwe@gmail.com

KZN Wildlife
P.O. Box 13053, Cascades Park, Pietermaritzburg, 3202

Dear participant,

CONSENT LETTER

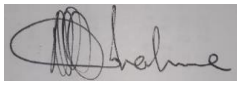
You are kindly being asked to take part in an academic (PhD) research study for which Ethical clearance has been obtained at NWU under the ethics number NWU-00929-20-A4. This research targets communities around the Royal Natal, Cathedral Peak and Giant's Castle camps of the uKhahlamba Drakensburg Park. The primary goal of this study is to coin a framework for tourism value chain ownership in rural communities through assessing the current levels of community ownership of tourism resources. This information is vital to ensure the development of strategies to enhance the equitable distribution of benefits from tourism development in rural communities.

Please note the following:

- Your participation in this research is completely voluntarily, and you will receive no form of compensation.
- The reason(s) why this interview contains socio-demographic and behavioural information, is to provide various agencies (developmental, governmental, non-governmental, etc.) with valuable information regarding the profile and behaviour of the community residents. This information is necessary to identify the community's status quo and its attitude and preference towards tourism activities around them. This information will assist in the tailor-making of strategies requisite for the equitable development of the community.
- Your information will remain anonymous – no personal information that can link the data to you will be asked.
- All data obtained is stored on a secure server at TREES, while interview notes are stored in sealed boxes in an access-controlled storeroom.
- If you feel, at any time, that you want to halt participation in this study, please feel free to do so without judgement.
- This interview should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. With your permission, the interview will be recorded while the interviewers also make notes.
- If anything is unclear, you may ask the interviewer conducting the interview for assistance.
- The results and findings from this study will be published as part of a thesis, peer-reviewed articles, conference presentations and an industry report.

By agreeing to participate in this interview, you agree to the terms and conditions of this research. For any further information, feel free to contact the primary researcher, Mr. Michael Chambwe or research promoter, Prof Andrea Saayman at their respective emails indicated below.

Yours sincerely





Mr. Michael Chambwe
Primary Researcher
North-West University
michaelchambwe@gmail.com

Prof Andrea Saayman
Promoter
North-West University
andrea.saayman@nwu.ac.za

Appendix 7: Traditional chiefs consent letter

Private bag X05, Noordbrug
South Africa, 2522
Tel: 018 299-2000
Fax: 018 299-2999
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

School of Tourism Management

TREES (Tourism Research in Economics, Environs & Society)
Tel: 018 299 2992
Fax: 018 299 4140
E-mail: michaelchambwe@gmail.com

Dear participant,

CONSENT LETTER

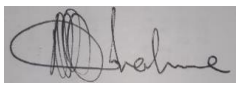
You are kindly being asked to take part in an academic (PhD) research study for which Ethical clearance has been obtained at NWU under the ethics number NWU-00929-20-A4. This research targets communities around the uKhahlamba Drakensburg Park whose land fall under your ownership and administration. The primary goal of this study is to coin a framework for tourism value chain ownership in rural communities through assessing the current levels of community ownership of tourism resources. This information is vital to ensure the development of strategies to enhance the equitable distribution of benefits from tourism development in rural communities.

Please note the following:

- Your participation in this research is completely voluntarily, and you will receive no form of compensation.
- The reason(s) why this interview contains socio-demographic and behavioural information, is to provide various agencies (developmental, governmental, non-governmental, etc.) with valuable information regarding the profile and behaviour of the community residents. This information is necessary to identify the community's status quo and its attitude and preference towards tourism activities around them. This information will assist in the tailor-making of strategies requisite for the equitable development of the community.
- Your information will remain anonymous – no personal information that can link the data to you will be asked.
- All data obtained is stored on a secure server at TREES, while interview notes are stored in sealed boxes in an access-controlled storeroom.
- If you feel, at any time, that you want to halt participation in this study, please feel free to do so without judgement.
- This interview should take approximately 20 minutes to complete. With your permission, the interview will be recorded while the interviewers also make notes.
- If anything is unclear, you may ask the interviewer conducting the interview for assistance.
- The results and findings from this study will be published as part of a thesis, peer-reviewed articles, conference presentations and an industry report.

By agreeing to participate in this interview, you agree to the terms and conditions of this research. For any further information, feel free to contact the primary researcher, Mr. Michael Chambwe or research promoter, Prof Andrea Saayman at their respective emails indicated below.

Yours sincerely





Mr. Michael Chambwe
Researcher and PhD candidate
North-West University
michaelchambwe@gmail.com

Prof Andrea Saayman
Promoter
North-West University
andrea.saayman@nwu.ac.za

Appendix 8: Certificate of language editing

JdS Language Services

: 076 241 3579 : jadeswardt@hotmail.co.uk
Address: Plot 701, Vyfhoek, Potchefstroom, 2531, South Africa

This is to certify that this thesis
in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree
Doctor of Philosophy
in Tourism Management
at the North-West University

of

M Chambwe

has been edited by
Jeanette de Swardt
JdS Language Services

The complete thesis has been edited and includes the following:

Declaration, Acknowledgements, Abstract, Chapters 1 – 7

***Date**: 7 December 2021*

SAFREA
Southern African Freelancers' Association
Membership Number: SAF05668