



**THE CONTRIBUTION OF TOURISM TO LOCAL COMMUNITY  
DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF SHAKALAND ZULU CULTURAL  
VILLAGE**

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**THE CONTRIBUTION OF TOURISM TO LOCAL COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT: THE  
CASE OF SHAKALAND ZULU CULTURAL VILLAGE**

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## **ABSTRACT**

The past decades indicate enormous interest in tourism as a tool for regional economic development. However, it is not always clear if tourism creates a significant contribution to local destination communities, as, in most cases, benefits from tourism emerge slowly and usually accrue to certain groups within the community. This study is driven by the researcher's desire in determining tourism's contribution to local community development, and to seek ways in which the local indigenous community can enhance their standard of living through tourism. Hence, increased understanding of tourism's contribution to community development is necessary to establish strategies to ensure that employees and community receive equal benefits from tourism. Therefore, the study sought to investigate 'the contribution of tourism to local community development, using Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village (SZCV) as a case. A qualitative and quantitative approach was employed. However, more emphasis was placed on the qualitative approach. The study sample comprised of 84 purposely selected employees of SZCV. The data collected were coded and organised according to the interview questions and were analysed and interpreted according to five analytic categories that were based on the objectives of the study.

The findings of the study indicated that: SZCV contributes to local community development; and SZCV has different tourism employment categories that improve the community's livelihoods in Eshowe, including cultural dancers, cultural chief, traditional herbalist, sangoma, arts and craft workers, chefs, receptionist, reservationist, spaza shop retailer, food and beverage manager, front office manager, maintenance manager as well as cultural manager. The study further revealed that a few respondents received training for their positions; and that the majority of employees are involved in the decision-making process within the SZCV; however, this involvement was not at a strategic level. Furthermore, the study recommended that local community development in Eshowe needs to be improved especially through the diversification of the cultural village. This is attainable by forming a partnership with other tourism business in close proximity to the SZCV that attract a high volume of tourist, to increase the possible benefits to communities that are residing along SZCV.

## DECLARATION

I, Nothando Sithole, hereby declare that the work in this dissertation is a representation of my own work and findings except where indicated. I also declare that this dissertation has not been submitted for a degree at any other university or higher learning institution. All information used from published or unpublished work of others has been acknowledged.

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Nothando Sithole

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Date

## **DEDICATION**

I dedicate this dissertation to my late father, Mr Dumisani Sithole, who always reminded me that education is the most crucial key to success.

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I would never have been able to complete this dissertation without guidance from my supervisors, assistance from my friends, and support from my family, as indicated below.

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## **ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
CATHSSETA	Culture, Art, Tourism, Hospitality, and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DHET	Department of Higher Education and Training
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
ILO	International Labour Organization
MICE	Meetings, Incentives, Conventions and Events
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
SARS	South African Revenue Service
SATOUR	South African Tourism
SDF	Skills Development Facilitator
SETA	Sector Education and Training Authority
SIDS	Small Island Developing States
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SZCV	Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organization
UNESCO	United Nations Education, Science and Cultural Organization
VFR	Visiting Friends and Relatives
WSP	Workplace Skills Plan
WTO	World Tourism Organization

# **CHAPTER ONE**

## **INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND**

### **1.1 Introduction**

South Africa has rich and diverse cultures with good cultural tourism development potential. As such, tourism is increasingly utilised as a local development strategy, securing disadvantaged communities in order for them to become primary beneficiaries of cultural tourism development (Ivanovic 2008: 1; Saarinen 2016: 409).

Importantly, a specific form and dimension of cultural tourism is the construction and use of cultural villages, which is a growing phenomenon particularly in developing countries that has great potential to contribute to a more equitable distribution of tourism-based development (Moswete, Saarinen and Monare 2015: 281-282). More so, cultural villages aim to represent local indigenous cultures and their related traditions and ways of living (Saarinen, Moswete and Monare 2014: 12). Additionally, tourism linked with cultural villages yields positive and direct benefits to local communities across the country (Moswete, Saarinen and Monare 2015: 282). For instance, it has contributed to poverty alleviation, employment creation for local communities, income generation, as well as encouraging cultural pride and strengthening community identity (Moswete, Saarinen and Monare 2015: 283). Hence, this is why tourism is viewed as a tool for community development and economic diversification, particularly for local communities and local development agencies in South Africa (Saarinen 2016: 409).

In the context of the use of cultural villages as a tool for community development, this study aims to examine the contribution of tourism to local community development. The focal point in the current study relates to local community development in Eshowe; tourism employment categories offered to Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village (SZCV) employees; capacity building opportunities (training offered to SZCV employees); community participation in decision-making and tourism planning within SZCV; as well as strategies for improving local community development through SZCV in Eshowe. It is anticipated that the knowledge generated from SZCV employees would assist

management of the cultural village to possibly enhance its contribution to local community development, including gaps that require improvement within the organisation.

This chapter provides an overview of the context of the study, followed by a discussion of the research problem, aim and objectives, research questions as well as the rationale of the study. The chapter also offers brief definitions of key terms used in the study and concludes with an overview of the research structure.

## **1.2 Background to the study**

The past decades show a growing interest in tourism as a tool for regional economic development, with community leaders as well as economic development specialists gradually treating tourism as a crucial industry that enriches local employment opportunities, tax revenues as well as economic diversification (Kim, Uysal and Sirgy 2013: 527). Furthermore, the tourism industry is regarded as a developmental catalyst to rural regions, because of its capability to generate employment and revenue for local residents and local industries (Moscardo 2014: 354).

However, it is not always clear whether tourism creates a significant contribution to local destination communities (Moscardo 2014: 354). Hence, this study seeks to investigate the contribution of tourism to local community development with a sample of respondents employed at the Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village.

For local communities, tourism enhances the standard of living, increases business activity, and revitalizes cultures when dying customs are rejuvenated (Kim, Uysal and Sirgy 2013: 528). Tourism also strengthens the local economy when tourists visit an attraction; generates local employment when local economy is stimulated by tourism activities, and also leads to the upgrading of the infrastructural facilities such as tarred roads and telecommunications (Scholtz and Slabbert 2015: 3). Furthermore, tourism allows community co-operation, and community pride; thus, creating cross-cultural understanding (Scholtz and Slabbert 2015: 5). On the contrary, some adverse effects can be attributed to tourism. These are inclusive of external pressures, governance issues, organizational structures, stakeholders' conflicting agendas, jealousy, internal



power struggles and undermining potential benefits to the community (Iorio and Wall 2012: 1441). Commodification of culture is generated whereby authenticity is replaced by financial gains, wherein the realness of the culture is replaced for monetary gains (Scholtz and Slabbert 2015: 5).

### **1.3 Problem Statement**

The benefits of cultural village development in South Africa presents a development opportunity for rural communities, through the provisioning of sustainable employment, diversifying South African tourism products, creating a niche heritage market, thus, creating a unique South African cultural heritage experience for international tourists to South Africa (Ivanovic 2008: 235). However, a number of challenges limit tourism's potential to economically empower the underprivileged in low-income countries. The sector is also characterised by a high seasonal nature of demand which disables the tourism industry to provide a sufficient year-round source of livelihood (Ndivo and Cantoni 2015: 275). Moreover, weak engagement of the local communities in tourism trade results in economic leakages, while the remaining gains mainly benefit the elite in the society (Ndivo and Cantoni 2015: 275).

It can be inferred from the above literature that tourism has great potential for communities residing in rural villages that have the opportunity to share their culture and heritage with tourists, which is also the case in SZCV. Therefore, it is necessary to find out if rural communities residing in close proximity to tourism catchment areas are benefiting from tourism as the literature implies, and also establish what these benefits are. Hence, this study explores the contribution of tourism to local community development using SZCV employees to investigate matters related to SZCV's contribution to local community development, tourism employment categories, capacity building opportunities within SZCV and community's participation in decision-making and tourism planning.

### **1.3.1 Aim and Objectives**

#### **Aim of the study**

The aim of the study is to examine the contribution of tourism to local community development.

#### **Research Objectives**

The objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To ascertain the extent to which SZCV contributes to local community development in Eshowe;
2. To analyse tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees;
3. To identify tourism capacity building opportunities (the training offered to SZCV employees);
4. To investigate community participation in decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV; and
5. To recommend strategies for improving local community development through SZCV in Eshowe.

### **1.3.2 Research questions**

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. To what extent does SZCV contribute to local community development in Eshowe?
2. What are the tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees?
3. What are the tourism capacity building opportunities offered to SZCV employees?
4. To what extent does the community participate in decision-making and the tourism planning process within SZCV?
5. Are there any strategies you would recommend to SZCV in improving local community development in Eshowe?

#### **1.4 Rationale of the study**

Local community participation in the decision-making process of tourism development has often been lacking and is always limited or sometimes marginalized (Eshliki and Kaboudi 2012: 334). More so, the host members are often excluded from not only planning, but decision-making and management of projects, especially in developing countries. Therefore, there is a strong need for local community involvement in planning and managing tourism, particularly in the context of developing countries (Eshliki and Kaboudi 2012: 334).

This study is driven by the researcher's desire in determining tourism's contribution to local community development, and to also seek ways in which the local indigenous community can enhance the standard of living through tourism and be involved in the decision-making process and planning process within the organisation.

Increased understanding of tourism's contribution to local community development as well as an understanding of tourism employability skills and training will not only assist management of tourism establishments, particularly cultural villages in establishing key strategies to ensure that employees and community receive equal benefits from tourism, but will also increase awareness for local indigenous communities living in adverse conditions on how they can use tourism to enhance their standard of living. Ultimately, managers of cultural villages can use the findings of the study to enhance tourism as a tool for local community development. The study makes a significant contribution to the existing body of research on tourism's contribution to local community development specifically in Kwazulu-Natal province.

#### **1.5 Research methodology**

This study adopted a qualitative approach within the interpretive paradigm in order to interpret the phenomenon under examination. Interviews were used as means to gather relevant information. The sample population of the study included 84 employees of the SZCV. These respondents mainly comprised of Eshowe natives, non-Eshowe natives, South African indigenes from other provinces as well as foreign nationals. The

information obtained from the interviews was developed into various themes and codes. These were later analysed, interpreted and used in drawing conclusions and recommendations.

## **1.6 Definition of the key terms**

### **1.6.1 Tourism**

Tourism has been described as a complex term, however the most widely acknowledged definition of tourism is provided by the United Nations World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), defining tourism as a social, cultural and economic phenomenon which entails the movement of people to countries or places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes (UNWTO 2004; UNWTO 2014).

### **1.6.2 The contribution of tourism to local community development**

The contribution of tourism to local community development includes economic, socio-cultural and environmental aspects. The current study highlighted the economic, social and environmental contribution of tourism in the literature review however, it also included concepts such as community development, community participation in tourism, tourism employment, human resources development in tourism, capacity building, rural tourism, cultural tourism, as well as cultural villages.

#### **1.6.2.1 Economic contribution**

Tourism has various economic contributions, particularly for community development. It contributes directly and indirectly to a region's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and diversifies the local economy (George 2008: 7; Messer 2010: 19). The sector also provides income-earning opportunities for local communities, generates employment for skilled and unskilled local communities across a range of sectors such as accommodation, transportation, entertainment (George 2008: 7; Messer 2010: 19). More so, tourism generates new business opportunities, supporting local business and contributes to foreign exchange earnings (Messer 2010: 19). Additionally, tourism

supports infrastructural development for local communities and improves the quality of life for local communities.

#### **1.6.2.2 Socio-cultural contribution**

The socio-cultural contribution of tourism includes the creation of cultural exchange, and understanding particularly in terms of exchange in cultural information, ideas and beliefs (Jigang 2009:2; Messer 2010: 19). This leads to greater cultural awareness, sympathy and admiration of culture. Tourism also conserves cultural heritage of local communities, such cultural heritage can extend to ancient monuments, historic sites, arts and crafts, cultural ceremonies and rituals of a community (Messer 2010: 19). In addition, tourism stimulates local involvement, local control and community pride, fostering traditions and customs of a local community.

#### **1.6.2.3 Environmental contribution**

The environmental contribution of tourism is associated with the preservation of historic buildings and ancient monuments for local communities including the Cradle of Humankind, Robben Island, Castle of Good Hope, the battlefields route among others (Cooper 2012: 800; South African Tourism 2017). Furthermore, tourism increases environmental awareness and encourages community enhancement, revitalisation as well as environmental quality (Messer 2010: 20). Tourism also preserves national parks including the Kruger National Park, Addo elephant Park and the Karoo National Park to name a few (Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill 2013: 177; South African National Parks 2017). Additionally, tourism preserves reefs and beaches and maintains forests (Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill 2013: 177).

#### **1.6.3 Community**

A community refers to a group of people sharing a geographic area or a group of people having common culture, interests, values, race or social class (Colton and Whitney-Squire 2010: 262; Aref, Gill and Aref 2010: 155). Community could also be interpreted as a group of people such as a village or a tribe whereby people identify themselves as community members, with shared values and where there exist a sense of communal decision making (Salazar 2012:10; Tolkach, King and Pearlman 2013:320).

#### **1.6.4 Community development**

The concept of community development is explored in terms of participation, empowerment and community capacity as they are related to tourism development (Aref, Gill and Aref 2010: 157). Community development can be seen as building social capital for collective benefits. It uses skills and knowledge and strategy in practice and aims to increase community participation (Aref, Gill and Aref 2010: 157).

#### **1.6.5 Local community development**

In the context of tourism development, there is a range of perspectives that can be taken on local communities (Telfer and Sharpley 2008: 115). For instance, local communities may be considered as the main attraction and gatekeeper to local community knowledge, while for others the community is merely the location where tourism occurs. For others a community may, in fact, stand in the way of other potential tourism developments and should therefore be moved (Telfer and Sharpley 2008: 115). For this study, the researcher considered the local community of Eshowe as gatekeepers of local community knowledge hence this is the reason why they were considered respondents of the study.

#### **1.6.6 Cultural Villages**

Cultural villages are interpreted as attractions representing the way of living of local people, hence visitors can learn about the culture of the people, their past and present ways of living (Zeppel, 2002).

### **1.7 Structure of the research**

This study consists of five chapters:

**Chapter One** serves as an introduction of this study. It provides an overview of the study along with a problem statement as well as the aim and objectives of the study. This chapter also presents the research questions, rationale of the study, an overview of the methodology of the study as well as definitions of key terms used in the study.

**Chapter Two** presents a review of the literature and arguments provided by other scholars within the context of tourism and local community development. This chapter discusses: the concept of tourism; the economic, social and environmental contribution of tourism; tourism in South Africa; community development; local community development; tourism and community development; community participation in tourism; tourism employment; human resource development in tourism; capacity building; rural tourism; rural tourism and community development; cultural tourism, cultural tourism in South Africa; cultural tourism and community development; cultural villages; as well as cultural villages linked to community development.

**Chapter Three** discusses the type of research approach used in this study, the measuring instrument used to collect data from respondents as well as the sampling method selected in this study.

**Chapter Four** provides a description of the statement of the findings, interpretation and discussion of the primary data collected in this study. The chapter is divided into six sections: Section A provides a general profile of the respondents; Section B deals with tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees; Section C presents results on capacity-building opportunities offered to SZCV employees; Section D presents employment information; Section E presents results on community participation in the decision-making and tourism planning process; while Section F highlights results on the contribution of tourism in SZCV.

**Chapter Five** presents the conclusions and recommendations for future research.

## **1.8 Conclusion**

This chapter provided a discussion of the background aligned to the aim and objectives of the study. The problem statement of the study argued that a number of challenges limit the potential of tourism to economically empower the underprivileged in low-income countries. The chapter also presented the rationale of the study towards management of tourism establishments. It concluded by giving the meaning of the key terms as well as an overview of the research structure. A good understanding of tourism and how it contributes in enhancing local community development is important and has been

highlighted. For communities to benefit from tourism, they will need necessary skills, financial capital and the possibility of ownership and control over resources which form part of the tourism product. In the case of the Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village, tourism forms a component of local economic development.

The next chapter focuses on the literature review of the study.



## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

Chapter Two relates to a review of the literature which examines the contribution of tourism to community development. The chapter also focuses on the concept of tourism, the economic, social and environmental contribution of tourism, tourism in South Africa, community development, community participation in tourism, tourism employment, human resource development in tourism, capacity building, rural tourism, cultural tourism, cultural villages, as well as cultural villages linked to community development.

#### **2.2 The concept of tourism**

Tourism is not a new phenomenon and its origins can be traced back to the Greek and Roman times, where the purpose of visits was for summer holidays (Butler 2009: 347). Since then, tourism has increased as a leisure activity, with large numbers of people being able to take holidays and travel, visiting the seaside or ski resorts (Butler 2009: 347; Arva and Deli-Gray 2012: 33). Tourism has transformed from being a luxury for the rich and includes millions of people from diverse economic backgrounds (Goeldner and Ritchie 2009: 26).

There are many debates and discussions concerning the definition of tourism, resulting in tourism becoming a complex term (Saayman 2013: 4). However, a working definition is necessary to understand this complex phenomenon. Holloway and Humphreys (2012: 7) provide a more common definition of tourism taken from the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) as: (the movement of people travelling to and staying in destinations outside of their usual environment, for not more than a year, for leisure, business as well as other purposes). Activities are undertaken throughout the tourists' stay in the destination and tourism services are created to cater for their needs (Holloway and Humphreys 2012: 7). Saayman (2013: 3) includes the terms tourists, job providers, government systems and communities in his definition of tourism and

interprets tourism as the “total experience that originates from the interaction between tourists, job providers, government systems and communities in the process of providing attractions, entertainment, transport and accommodation to tourists”. The definition provided by Saayman (2013: 3) relates to the definition provided by Goeldner and Ritchie (2009: 6), who define tourism as the procedures, activities, and outcomes that arise from interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities as well as the surrounding environments that attract and host visitors. Tourism is also a multi-dimensional and multi-faceted activity, that touches numerous lives and many diverse economic activities Cooper (2012: 13), comprising of activities, facilities and industries that deliver a travel experience including transport, accommodation, restaurants, shops, entertainment, activity facilities as well as other hospitality services that are available for individual or groups travelling away from home (Goeldner and Ritchie 2009: 6).

From the above definitions of tourism, it can be concluded that tourism is not a simple form of business as it includes several sectors of the economy and impacts many lives (George 2008: 11; Cooper 2012: 13).

### **2.2.1 The economic, social and environmental contribution of tourism**

Tourism is of global importance and as it contributes immensely to the Gross Domestic Product and creates job opportunities (Arslanturk, Balcilar and Ozdemir 2011: 664; Seetanah 2011: 291; Cooper 2012: 5). Statistics reveal an important growth rate amongst international arrivals in 2012, recording over 1 035 billion visitors' arrivals worldwide (UNWTO 2013: 7). Europe was the most visited region in 2012 with 534 million visitors, followed by Asia with 234 million visitors and America with 163 million visitors, Africa recorded 53 million visitors, while there were 52 million visitors in the Middle East (UNWTO 2013: 7). Moreover, tourism is ranked as the third largest industry in many countries contributing to major social and economic development (Goeldner and Ritchie 2009: 26).

The tourism industry serves as a primary source for generating revenue and infrastructural development, for example, developments in water supply, sewage

treatment, or new entertainment facilities (Chen and Chiou-Wei 2009: 812; Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill 2013: 216). The industry also generates tourist expenditures into the local economy, encourages development of an entrepreneurial culture and maintains the growth of enterprises in a tourism destination (Cooper 2012: 68). The tourism industry also has a great effect on local population employment, increasing employment advantages and minimizing the boundaries of poverty (Shukla and Ansari 2013: 3). Tourism also serves as an important foreign exchange earner, contributing to the capital of goods that are used in the manufacturing process and stimulating research and development (Brida and Risso 2009: 178-179). Furthermore, tourism generates the multiplier effects by contributing to the development of other sectors, for example: accommodation, food, transportation, hospitality, construction, textiles, agriculture, fishery retail trade, and entertainment (Goeldner and Ritchie 2009: 67; Gokovali 2010: 140). Youth and women also benefit from tourism through skills development and education (Cook, Yale and Marqua 2010: 305; Gokovali 2010: 140).

From a cultural perspective, tourism connects people from different cultures creating cultural exchange through traditional arts and crafts, performance of traditional dances, preserving the historical and natural sites (Cook, Yale and Marqua 2010: 305; Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill 2013: 198). Furthermore, local communities are able to uplift their spirits and values through festivals and events (Cooper 2012: 106; Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert and Wanhill 2013: 215). From an environmental perspective, tourism provides opportunities for creating awareness of environmental preservation, thus, improving the physical surroundings and contributing to the preservation of built and natural environment (Kim, Uysal and Sirgy 2013: 528; Cooper 2012: 80; Fletcher et al. 2013: 177).

### **2.3 Tourism in South Africa**

Tourism development in South Africa was restricted as the main focus was on the mining, manufacturing and agricultural industries with small numbers of people being attracted by the game reserves, spas and hot springs (George 2008: 22; Saayman 2013: 70). Tourism was believed to be an activity catered for the white race group and also serving for a select of wealthy white visitors (Ivanovic 2008: 19; Magi 2012: 95;

Bialostocka 2014: 99). Other barriers included inadequate resources, lack of partnerships, limited scope for development, and exclusion of disadvantaged groups from tourism development (Ivanovic 2008: 19). The implementation of the apartheid policy in 1948 led to the creation of separate tourist facilities including beaches, hotels and restaurants, increasing exclusion of black people from the tourism industry (Frey and George 2010: 622; Steyn and Spencer 2011: 178). Between 1948 and the early seventies, tourists were attracted by South Africa's cultural and historical attractions, game parks, beaches, good climate with the country experiencing recurring visitors due to motives such as visiting friends and relatives (Steyn and Spencer 2011: 178). However, between 1976 to 1986, international visitor numbers started to decline due to socio-political barriers linked to the Sharpeville and Soweto's acts of resistance (Steyn and Spencer 2011: 178). In order to fix the problem caused by the Sharpeville and Soweto's acts to resistance, the South African Tourism Board (SATOUR) was established. This Board was responsible for domestic and international tourism marketing and introduced South Africa as "a world in one country" and tourism showed growth with game and nature reserves becoming world famous attractions (Steyn and Spencer 2011: 178).

Currently, the tourism industry is declared a priority industry by the South African government due to the substantial economic benefits it brings to the country's economy (Ivanovic 2008: 20; Adinolfi and Ivanovic 2015: 2). Since the 1994 democratic elections, South Africa has become one of Africa's leading tourism destinations Butler (2010: 15); Rogerson (2012: 480), with international tourist arrivals increasing since the end of the apartheid era (Lepp and Gibson 2011: 286). In the post-apartheid era, tourism has become one of the country's leading industries, creating employment and generating income (Nwafor 2012: 600). Furthermore, tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in South Africa and a leading source of foreign exchange earner providing employment opportunities and contributing to poverty reduction (Nieman, Visser and Van Wyk 2008: 283; Moyo and Ziramba 2013: 4). The tourism industry in South Africa also provides new development opportunities, economic benefits for local communities, and is an important tool for empowerment (Saarinen 2010: 713).

Furthermore, statistics from 2012 revealed a major growth in visitor arrivals to South Africa which totalled to 9 616 946 visitor arrivals to South Africa (South African Tourism 2014: 7). This was a growth of 428 596 in comparison to the 9188368 visitor arrivals to the country in 2012 (South African Tourism 2014: 7). Major tourist attractions include the wine lands, culture and heritage, ecotourism, adventure tourism, coastlines as well as the beaches (George 2008: 30; Akinboade and Braimoh 2010: 150; George 2010: 806). South Africa is also the leading destination amongst major regional tourism destinations, such as Botswana, Egypt, Kenya, Mauritius, and Zimbabwe, attracting about 50% of tourists (Akinboade and Braimoh 2010: 151). In 2013, tourism employment figures were 617287 compared to 598432 tourism jobs in 2012 (South African Tourism 2013: 1). In the same year (2013), the tourism industry contributed R93.3 billion to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) compared to R84.3 billion contributed in 2012 (South African Tourism 2014: 1).

Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban have become the foremost tourism destinations in South Africa, having a strong place in the market due to meetings, incentives, conventions and events (MICE), which serve as major contributors of continued growth in South Africa's tourism industry (Donaldson and Ferreira 2009: 2; Akinboade and Braimoh 2010: 152). This no doubt has encouraged longer length of stays in South Africa by including pre- and post-event trips (Donaldson and Ferreira 2009: 2; Rogerson 2011: 319; Fenich, Hermann and Hashimoto 2012: 41), further contributing to R4 billion in South Africa's economy (Fenich, Hermann and Hashimoto 2012: 41). World class attractions in South African cities, such as Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban, include nature reserves, wine routes and World Heritage sites (Donaldson and Ferreira 2009: 2; Rogerson 2011: 319).

Although Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban are popular tourism destinations, tourism in South Africa faces challenges specifically with communities who have not benefited from the ownership of the national tourism product (Rogerson 2011: 319). This lack of ownership has led to a misrepresentation and opposition towards the tourism sector (Frey and George 2010: 622). In order to address the situation, government implemented Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) (Frey and George

2010: 623). BEE was introduced to encourage companies to address issues of management, strategic representation, employment equity, skills and development as well as corporate social investment, further leading to the BEE certification and government tenders (Frey and George 2010: 623; Magi 2010: 124).

Despite such barriers in South Africa, the hosting of the Soccer World Cup, in 2010, provided the country an opportunity to prove that it could host a major sport event in the same manner in developed countries, such as Germany, Korea and Japan, which hosted the previous world cups (du Plessis and Maennig 2011: 349; Knott, Allen and Swart 2012: 112). This has positioned South Africa as a key tourism and events destination in developing countries (South African Tourism 2010).

## **2.4 Community development**

Community development is not simply a one-dimensional process as it covers different programmes that make life worth living as well as ensuring the sustainability of the economic well-being of rural communities (Hameed, Saboor, Khan, Ali and Wazir 2016: 2). Community development is a broad notion that includes various concepts and a variety of social groups, government initiatives and non-governmental organisations (Stephens, Baird and Tsey 2013: 277; Rich, Bean and Apramian 2014: 74).

Community development is a process designed to enhance the community's quality of life and to create economic and socio-cultural development for the whole community (Gilchrist 2009: 23; Phillips and Roberts 2013: 1). It is also a "process of empowerment and transformation of individuals and communities", encouraging communities to engage in development interventions through empowerment (Colton and Whitney-Squire 2010: 262; Acharya and Halpenny 2013: 368). Furthermore, community development focuses on building active and sustainable local communities based on social justice and correlative respect, shifting power structures to remove barriers that inhibit people from participating in matters that affect their lives (Misener and Mason 2009: 773; Aref, Gill and Aref 2010: 157). This is based on interacting with people with an aim of helping them find ways to build co-operation, identify unmet needs, building capacity through skills and knowledge enhancement Gilchrist (2009: 23); Aref, Gill and

Aref 2010: 157), creating an understanding between individuals and groups, enabling them to make changes in their own lives, and to engaging with one another in order to find solutions to issues affecting their own lives (Gilchrist 2009: 23; Aref, Gill and Aref 2010: 157). These views on community development, provided by different authors, re-confirm the thoughts of Saayman (2009: 79) that development should not only provide economic benefits but should include social benefits that improve the quality of life for the local community.

Community development emerged in the United States of America in 1908 when the country life commission report, as well as the 1914 Smith Lever act, were introduced (Swanepoel and de Beer 2012: 34; O'Connor 2013: 11). The aim was to establish community organisations to promote enhanced living, enhanced farming, increase education and improve citizenship (Swanepoel and de Beer 2012: 34; O'Connor 2013: 11). Community development programmes can also be traced back to India's community development programme of 1947 after its independence, which further stimulated community development efforts in neighbouring Asian countries (Swanepoel and de Beer 2012: 34). In the 1950's and 1960's, popularity of community development reached a peak Swanepoel and de Beer (2012: 34), with community development corporations (CDC) being formed in the 1960's focusing on housing needs, as stimulated by US Federal legislation and providing funding for non-profit community organisations (Phillips and Pittman 2014: 4). Some of the features of community development was also based on assisting local people in decision-making, planning and taking action to meet their needs through the use of external resources (Ledwith 2011: 15).

In South Africa, community development is a broad inter-disciplinary occupation practised by a range of people from professionals to non-professionals (Mubangizi 2009: 439). Community development was unpopular during the apartheid period, as it was mistrusted by the government, due to its potential for political change. However, in the 1970's to 1990's, NGO's kept community development alive (Bowers-Du Toit 2012: 208; de Beer and Swanepoel 2013: 7). These NGO's include the Grassroots Educare Trust in Cape Town, Transvaal Rural Action Committee, the Surplus People's Project,

as well as the Soweto Crisis Committee, who played an important role in socio-economic community development (de Beer and Swanepoel 2013: 8). Civic, churches as well as labour organisations also kept community development alive, with self-help and mutual-aid work, such as stokvels (Self-help savings and loans group), increasing rapidly (Westoby 2014: 10). Furthermore, political activists, such as Mahatma Gandhi, deeply influenced forms of community development in South Africa through the satyagraha philosophy, which was a of non-violent resistance against racial injustice in South Africa (Westoby 2014: 10; Davie 2016: 1). Steve Biko, too, influenced forms of community development through education, drawing upon Paulo Freire's philosophy and practice (Westoby 2014: 10). Steve Biko was the president of the South African Student Organization (SASO), which he co-founded with a group of black students in 1968 (Biography 2016). The organization opposed the South African government's apartheid system (Evans 2015; Biography 2016). The organization established black community programmes through community health centres, advice offices and literacy classes (SASCO 2010). In 1972, Steve Biko also co-founded the Black Peoples Convention (BPC) which was a black activist group that focused on black community development, mainly, economic self-reliance and a return to African culture and values (Michigan State University 2016). He worked on social upliftment projects around Durban and created the Zimele Trust Fund, which assisted political prisoners and their families (Husbands 2004; Michigan State University 2016).

Community development is a process that helps a community to change and sustain its economic, social, cultural and environmental situation (Majee and Hoyt 2011: 48-49; Amalu, Ajake and Obi 2016: 476). It is also “a process joined by the connections between people based on values of respect, trust, mutuality, and dignity” resulting in friendliness and warmth, compassion and cooperation (Ledwith 2011: 3). Community development involves organisation, facilitation, and action, which enable people to establish ways to create the community they want to live in, providing vision, planning, direction, and co-ordinated action towards desired goals associated with the promotion of efforts aimed at improving the conditions in which local resources operate (Ledwith 2011: 3; Matarrita-Cascante and Brennan 2012: 297). Moreover, community development is also based on collective action which grows in strength as individuals



form groups that have the potential to become a social movement, identifying issues and workable solutions and further developing projects within their community (Ledwith 2011: 3; Stephens, Baird and Tsey 2013: 277).

Approaches of community development identified by Swanepoel and de Beer (2012: 41-44) include:

- Integrated approach: With this approach, problems are tackled in a correlated manner. It encourages different role players, such as government agencies, Non-Governmental organisations (NGO's) and community-based organisations to work in unity, thus, avoiding conflict;
- Collective action: This approach encourages co-operation among a group of people that share a mutual problem, need or concern by working together and sharing responsibility for action;
- Needs orientation: This approach suggests that a need has to exist before community development can take place;
- Objective orientation: With this approach, it is understood that community development takes place on a needs basis. Therefore, it has to be addressed by an objective to address the specific need;
- Action at Grassroots level: With this approach, it must be clear that the community should be the main role players, while other role players should assist the community in a facilitative manner, thus, allowing the communities to achieve their main goals;
- Asset based: With this approach, local assets are used. These assets come from a broad range, comprising of natural, infrastructural and human beings and their ability to organise (which is considered the most important asset). All these assets make community development different and development management different from any other management as it makes use of available resources, especially human resources in order to reach the objective. Moreover, the more the assets are used, the more they improve, for example, humans and their

organisational skills. This approach is, therefore, geared to build the assets for better use in future; and

- Democratic approach: This approach highlights that community development has a special democratic function, extending democracy beyond the ordinary three spheres of government structure. Within this approach, local government has a special function in community development and development planning, which provides a grassroots opportunity to the most deprived, isolated, the vulnerable, and the politically weak to participate in a democratic action that will give true meaning to their democratic rights as citizens.

The approaches highlighted above should be linked to tourism policies, as a means to improve community development.

#### **2.4.1 Local community development**

Community is characterised by strong connections of social relations that provide the ability to participate, co-operate and interact (Colton and Whitney-Squire 2010: 262). For local communities, “community development involves the satisfaction of basic needs including food, shelter, portable water and electricity, access to health facilities, basic education, clean environment as well as access to satisfactory cultural, spiritual, social and political life” (Amalu, Ajake and Obi 2016: 476). To ensure that this is achieved, planners and stake-holders, at all levels, must ensure that there exists a coherent use of the community resources, an increase in the productive capacity of the population, increase the people’s income, improvement in the people’s standard of living as well as organizing people to ensure self-sustaining economic activities (Amalu, Ajake and Obi 2016: 476). Moreover, local community development can be linked to providing access to finance and other tools to build affordable housing, establish businesses, and build community facilities such as schools, health clinics, and child-care centres, making marginalised communities more lively economically and socially stronger (Braunstein and Lavizzo-Mourey 2011: 2044; Erickson and Andrews 2011: 2056).

Community development also empowers marginalised communities through building confidence, building the capacity and sustainability of networks available in a community, as well as restoring its physical, economic, and social structures (Masud, Kari, Yahaya and Al-Amin 2015: 772). Colton and Whitney-Squire (2010: 264) suggests that development should be based on building healthy relationships, which relate to the asset-based approach, which focuses on constantly building and restoring broken relationships (*that are broken by oppression*) between local residents, local associations and local institutions. Without such healthy relationships based on healing, capacity building opportunities, which, according to Hamzah and Khalifah (2012: 13), is the basis of sustainable community development and a strong connection to culture and land, any kind of development, be it tourism, is likely to be unsustainable. Therefore, community development should also include factors such as: community empowerment; community wellness; economic development; community learning; and stewardship in order to be an effective progression (Colton and Whitney-Squire 2010: 264). Furthermore, the factors highlighted above by Colton and Whitney-Squire (2010) do not exist individually as they inter-relate and contribute to community development.

From the factors of community development highlighted above, it is clear that the focus of community development must not only be on the economic development of a community, but includes factors such as community empowerment, community wellness and community learning and stewardship. Furthermore, in order for a development programme to have a positive impact, the local community must be well represented during the whole process of development, especially at the planning and assessment stages (Ledwith 2011: 34; Wu and Pearce 2013: 438; Zadel, Ivančić and Čevapović 2014: 178). Thus, local residents need to become the main players as they are able to propose solutions, assess proposed projects and activities, simultaneously developing partnerships with different stakeholders (Wu and Pearce 2013: 439). Effective community development also requires thoughtful action, in order to challenge power structures, encouraging local control through community consultation, empowerment and through involvement in sustainable transformation (Partington and Totten 2012: 32).

It is also crucial that external aid engages with the local perceptions of problems and solutions, seeking out and building effectiveness of development programmes, which will result in the maximum use of local knowledge, reinforce self-help and self-reliance, and offer encouragement and self-confidence (Hayman 2012:13). The manner in which external organisations work with local organisations is also essential, and should be based on a local first approach that is locally led (Hayman 2012:14).

A study conducted by Jigang (2009: 230), using two cultural villages: Ghandruk and Briddam in Nepal that practice community development, revealed that community development activities practised in these villages include: the provisioning of employment opportunities for the unemployed youth in the fields of tour guiding and porters; as well as an opportunity for women to establish small businesses, including home-stay tourism, small hotels and lodges. The villages also provide education to women and children, health and sanitation improvement, conservation of cultural heritage, construction and development of social infrastructure, such as schools and toilets (Jigang 2009: 235). Community development practices in the two villages also include community programmes targeted for youth and women, as well as for the economically and socially underprivileged. Capacity building is also provided through training local community members in cooking, tour guiding, handicrafts, provisioning of security and information centres for tourists as well as learning the English language (Jigang 2009: 235). The villages also offer training in lodge management for the lodge operators in the area (Jigang 2009: 235). Similarly, this study intends to find out how SZCV contributes to community development.

#### **2.4.2 Tourism and Community Development**

Tourism serves as one of the most popular strategies for community development, enhancing local and national development (Aref, Gill and Aref 2010: 158; Ibrahim and Razzaq 2010: 8; Aref and Gill 2011: 94). It generates social peace, and cultural exchange, thus, improving the quality of life in an area by increasing the number of attractions, recreational opportunities, and services (Eshliki and Kaboudi 2012: 335). Tourism also offers residents with opportunities to meet interesting people, foster

friendships, learn about the world, and expose themselves to new perspectives (Eshliki and Kaboudi 2012: 335). In tourism, community development is evaluated under the terms participation, empowerment, sustainability and community capacity (Aref, Gill and Aref 2010: 157).

Furthermore, tourism facilitates community development through business mentoring and educational opportunities for local communities, increasing skills and knowledge in local communities, which translates to an improved livelihood amongst the community members (Aref, Gill and Aref 2010: 158). For local communities, tourism should be developed in a way that benefits the local communities, strengthens the local economy, employs local workforce, respects traditional lifestyles and cultures and is environmentally sustainable, using local materials, local agricultural products and traditional skills (Choi and Murray 2010: 576). Mechanisms, such as policies and legislation, should be introduced to ensure a flow of benefits to local communities (Choi and Murray 2010: 576).

Due to the above- mentioned positive contributions of tourism, many local communities now rely on tourism to provide economic, social, and cultural development amongst others within their community, which has led to tourism being increasingly viewed as a crucial component of community development (Aref, Gill and Aref 2010: 158). As can be seen from the literature, tourism is widely recognised as a tool for community development. Therefore, this study intends to draw links between the literature and the SZCV case study.

## **2.5 Community participation in tourism**

Participation is a process in which stakeholders, particularly the local communities, influence and share control of development initiatives and the decisions and resources which affect them Michael, Mgonja and Backman (2013: 84), with the goal being to improve communication between stakeholders in the interest of facilitating better decision-making and sustainable development (Aref 2011b: 21). Without participation, there is obviously no partnership, no development and no programme. Hence, lack of

community participation in decision-making to implement tourism development can lead to failure in the community development (Aref 2011b: 21).

Participation also allows local community members to select decision makers, including local authorities, to develop tourism policies that encourage local community members to participate in tourism (Magi and Nzama 2009: 97). Community participation in tourism can support and sustain local culture, tradition, knowledge and skill, and create pride in community heritage, especially for the community of Eshowe, living in close proximity of SZCV (Aref 2011b: 21). Furthermore, community participation in tourism contributes to development, empowerment and greater self-reliance of communities (Telfer and Sharpley 2008: 116). Hence, involving community and considering their views in the tourism planning and development process is a key component of effective planning (Hung, Sirakaya-Turk and Ingram 2011: 276; Nejati, Mohamed and Omar 2014: 136). Furthermore, involving community and allowing their views in the tourism planning and development process benefits policy makers as it provides a clear understanding of local attitudes towards tourism (Nejati, Mohamed and Omar 2014: 136). Community participation is a historical process that allows a community to become independent, allowing a transfer of power to communities and allows respect for the human values and beliefs (Singh 2012: 117; Michael, Mgonja and Backman 2013: 85).

The participatory development approach has appeared in international development repeatedly though it has been called by different terms and applied into the development process in different ways. Moreover, there are different ideas on types of community participation and different experts have classified the same concept under the same scope but with different names (Tosun 1999: 117). Thus, it is possible to examine types of community participation under many headings. The implication of United Nations (1981) have classified it under three main headings. These include: spontaneous participation; induced participation; and coercive participation (Tosun 1999: 117). In this typology of participation, spontaneous participation is at the high end of the participation sequence, in which the community is self-motivated and is actively involved in the process (Hung, Sirakaya-Turk and Ingram 2011: 278). Induced participation is where the authorities are ultimately responsible for final decisions and

the community merely suggests ideas for tourism development (Saufi, O'Brien and Wilkins 2014: 801-802). Coercive participation is at the lower end of the participation sequence in which authorities are unwilling to involve the public in decision-making, and participation is limited to policy implementation (Hung, Sirakaya-Turk and Ingram 2011: 278).

**Table 2.1: Tosun's typologies of participation**

TYPE OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION	DEFINING CHARACTERISTICS
<b>SPONTANEOUS</b>	Bottom-up; active participation; direct participation; participation in the whole process of development including decision-making, implementation, sharing benefit and evaluating; authentic participation; co-production; self-planning; wide participation; social participation.
<b>INDUCED</b>	Top-down; passive; formal; mostly indirect; represents degree of tokenism, manipulation and pseudo- participation; participation in implementation and sharing benefits; choice between proposed alternatives and feedback.
<b>COERCIVE</b>	Top-down, passive; mostly indirect, formal participation in implementation, but not necessary sharing benefits; choice between proposed limited alternatives or no choice; represents paternalism, non-participation, high degree of tokenism and manipulation.

**Source:** (Tosun 1999: 118)

From Table 2.1, it can be inferred that the most suitable of the three participation types for community-based tourism is spontaneous participation, allowing communities to be actively involved in the tourism planning and decision-making process.

Tosun's typologies of community participation can also be linked to Pretty and Hine's typologies of participation (see Table 2.2). These include: passive participation; participation by consultation; bought participation; functional-interactive participation, self- mobilisation; and connectedness.

**Table 2.2: Pretty and Hine’s typologies of participation**

Typology	Characteristic of typology
<b>Passive participation</b>	People participate through being told what has been decided or what has already happened. Here, shared information belongs to external professionals.
<b>Participation by consultation</b>	People participate through consultation or through responding to questions, decision-making process is not shared and professionals are not allowed to share people’s views.
<b>Bought participation</b>	People participate in return for food, money and other incentives and, when the incentives end, the local people that were involved in participation lose their share in technology or in practices.
<b>Functional</b>	In this type of participation, people participate through establishing groups to meet a set of pre-determined goals or objectives. The groups tend to be dependent on external initiations and organisers, but might later become self-independent.
<b>Interactive participation</b>	People participate through developing action plans and form groups in partnership with donor agencies in order to determine how available resources in a community are used, taking control of local decisions
<b>Self-mobilisation and connectedness</b>	People participate by taking up initiatives in order to modify systems independent of external institutions. Retaining control over how resources are used.

**Source:** Pretty and Hine (1999, cited in Mowforth and Munt 2008: 229).

Community-based tourism can be more appropriately linked to interactive and self-mobilisation (see Table 2.2), as communities are involved in local decision-making and control over how their resources are used.

Community participation improves the quality of life, enhances social wellbeing, fosters social empowerment and reinforces social capital (Talò, Mannarini and Rochira 2013: 1). Michael, Mgonja and Backman (2013: 85) point out that community participation in tourism, particularly in tourism development, can be observed from two concepts: participation of the local community in the decision-making process; and in the sharing of tourism benefits. Hence, one of the objectives of this study is to investigate community participation in decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV. Community participation can be linked to the interpretation of community development; as it provides opportunities for communities to mobilise their own capabilities, manage



their resources, make decisions and take control of the activities that affect their lives (Ponna, Putu and Prasiasa 2011: 307; Talò, Mannarini and Rochira 2013: 3).

Community participation is also an empowerment process that involves local people to identify problems, influence the decision-making and services that affect their lives, gaining and sharing the benefits of development taking place in their localities (Stone and Stone 2011: 99; Marzuki, Hay and James 2012: 588; Talò, Mannarini and Rochira 2013: 3). Such benefits need not always be financial, but may be intangible benefits, such as skills development, increased confidence, increasing trust and ownership of the project, which may be of greater value to the community (Stone and Stone 2011: 99). Furthermore, empowerment encourages self-confidence and self-esteem, increasing power by sharing it with the community (Ramos and Prideaux 2014: 463-464). Empowerment in community participation is the primary point for community members to participate in the decision-making process and further allows community members to improve the quality of life and obtain sustainable benefits from tourism, which is provided on an economic, social and political basis (Jigang 2009: 13; Boley and McGehee 2014: 86). Economic basis is linked to the provision of financial and public infrastructure; social basis is connected to equal access in education and capacity building that enables local community to develop tourism; and political basis is linked to tourism development opportunities and the right for communities to access their locality, and the right of choosing the type of development, and guaranteed protection by law (Jigang 2009: 13). Furthermore, in this view, empowerment results through an interaction between an individual and his/her environment, whereby an individual obtains socio-political abilities such as skills, a critical political consciousness, and the capacity to struggle for influence over their situation (Strzelecka and Wicks 2015: 383). "Empowerment represents the top end of the participation ladder where members of a community are active agents of change, having the ability to obtain solutions to their problems, make decisions, implement actions and evaluate their solutions" (Boley and McGehee 2014: 86). Furthermore, tourism empowerment includes empowering local community members to take greater control of tourism projects, influencing communities to participate in the tourism planning and development process (Tukamushaba and Okech 2011: 84; Butcher 2012: 103). Communities may also be empowered through

self-mobilisation, which allows communities to plan and conduct development projects within their community (Butcher 2012: 103).

Communities are expected to play an important role in the development of tourism (South Africa. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 1996: 45-46). Many communities and previously neglected groups, particularly those in rural areas, that have not actively participated in the tourism industry, retain significant tourism resources (South Africa. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 1996: 45-46). In tourism, community participation is considered one of the most essential tools, if tourism is to make a significant contribution to the national development of a country (Sebele 2010: 136). Community participation has also become a crucial element for tourism development initiatives, such as community-based programmes as well as organisations, such as the world bank, in order to address inefficiencies of highly centralised development approaches (Amalu and Ajake 2012: 18). Such initiatives also emphasise the importance of community participation in the decision-making process in order to strengthen a community's abilities to act for themselves (Amalu and Ajake 2012: 19). Community participation, associated with tourism, also reduces opposition to development, encourages cultural exchanges, peace and understanding, minimises negative impacts and perceptions of tourism McCabe, Joldersma and Li (2010: 761); Stone and Stone (2011: 99); Michael, Mgonja and Backman (2013: 85) and revitalises economies, helping local people to accept tourism ventures and tourism to be sustainable (McCabe, Joldersma and Li 2010: 761; Stone and Stone 2011: 99). In the Small Islands Developing States (SIDS), such as Solomon Islands and Fiji, the tourism industry is faced by a high degree of foreign ownership contributing to marginalised economic returns for the local community, with lack of local control and participation in tourism development (Shakeela, Ruhanen and Breakey 2011: 333). The white paper on the development and promotion of tourism in South Africa summarizes the following role of communities in tourism:

**Table 2.3: The role of communities in tourism**

1	Organize themselves at all levels (national, provincial and local) to play a more effective role in the tourism industry and co-operate with government and role players at all levels;
2	Recognize potential tourism resources and attractions within their communities;
3	Exploit opportunities for tourism training and awareness, finance and incentives for tourism development;
4	Seek partnership opportunities with the established tourism private sector;
5	Participate in all aspects of tourism;
6	Support and promote responsible tourism and sustainable development, oppose developments that are harmful to the local environment and culture of the community;
7	Participate in decision-making with regards to major tourism developments planned or proposed for the area;
8	Work towards enhancing positive benefits of tourism and minimize the negative impacts;
9	Organize themselves to maximize the sharing of information and experiences, possibly facilitated through financial assistance by local governments;
10	Have a representative voice in all tourism structures at national, provincial and local levels;
11	Encourage the media, particularly radio and print media, to proactively provide tourism information and awareness to communities;
12	Work closely with NGOs to educate communities concerning tourism and stimulates tourism awareness;
13	Make information on community tourism resources and attitudes transparent and accessible to all levels of national, provincial and local governments;
14	Inform the private sector, tourism parastatals, environmental agencies and NGOs on the importance of community involvement in tourism development; and
15	Actively participate in and promote responsible tourism.

**Source:** (South Africa. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 1996: 45-46)

The majority of the roles identified in Table 2.3 are related to objectives of this study. A study, conducted by Ahebwa and van der Duim (2013) on conservation, livelihoods and tourism in Uganda, highlights successful and critical factors in involving the local community in a tourism project. On a positive note, the study found that tourism

stimulates local employment and income in the village, employing 20 local community members as room and laundry attendants, guides, shop attendants as well as cleaners (Ahebwa and van der Duim 2013: 102). The study also found that tourism provides indirect economic opportunities, as mentioned previously, for community members, who are engaged in agriculture. These individuals are opportune to supply milk, bananas, eggs and vegetables for the lodge, thereby further expanding local produce (Ahebwa and van der Duim 2013: 104). The study further highlights that the community controls all tourism activities and operational funds are used to expand the local tourism product, including the construction of cottages, and designing the village trail for tourists. Tourism revenue is also used in capacity building to train employees at the Buhomo Lodge as well as for site planning; for the provisioning of support for community projects, such as the construction of schools, health facilities, and bridges as well as supporting craft community projects that involve local youth and women of the village (Ahebwa and van der Duim 2013: 101). Findings also indicate that the community members of Buhomo have formed associations such as the Buhoma-Bwindi Women Development Club, Mukono Women's Foundation and Batwa Association For Development which allow women to work together to achieve development (Ahebwa and van der Duim 2013: 105).

Adverse conditions of tourism in the village includes a high dropout rate in school children who perform cultural dances for tourists with their parents during school hours (Ahebwa and van der Duim 2013: 106).

van Breugel (2013: 5) argues that the success of tourism depends on the goodwill and positive co-operation of local people since they form part of the tourism product and should, therefore, be offered an opportunity to actively and equally participate in tourism- related development and activities (Magi and Nzama 2009: 97; Saarinen 2010: 714). López-Guzmán, Sánchez-Cañizares and Pavón (2011: 72) provide three justifications to the imperativeness of including local communities in the tourism decision-making process;

- The first being that communities are part of the tourist product;
- The second being that local communities adapt to changes easily; and

- The last is that, being involved, helps to open their minds and enables them to make their own decisions.

Prior to South Africa's democratic transition, community participation in developmental activities and in government matters was considered in terms of a separate racial policy (Phago 2008: 239; Siyongwana and Mayekiso 2011: 142). Moreover, this period was based on a one-sided decision-making process and system of government that favoured a lesser population of the country Tau (2013: 152), thus, leading to a biased delivery of services and system of governing (Tau 2013: 152). Participation by community members from disadvantaged backgrounds was achieved through mass movements, which affected the manner in which policy decisions in government were made in South Africa during both the apartheid and democratic eras (Phago 2008: 239). South Africa has an informed constitution which places the foundation for grassroots democratization and good governance, providing for community participation in the construction, implementation and evaluation of integrated development planning at local level (Ndevu 2011: 1249; Tau 2013: 154). However, there still exists inadequate local community participation in the tourism industry mainly due to an absence of tourism information, absence of awareness and an absence of tourism-related training (Magi and Nzama 2009: 97). South Africa is also faced with a barrier of insufficient funds for promoting community projects in tourism, with a lack of incentives in order to reward private organisations that develop local capacity building and create employment opportunities for the local communities (Magi and Nzama 2009: 97). Other barriers include an absence of access to successful tourism markets, inequality in the provisioning of tourism benefits amongst local communities, and misusing of local cultures and community groups (Strickland-Munro, Moore and Freitag-Ronaldson 2010: 665).

Pretty (1995, cited in Mowforth and Munt 2008: 225) argue that there has been an increase in the number of studies based on development projects that view participation as one of the most crucial components of success in a project, resulting in large numbers of development agencies making the term "people participation" part of the normal language and citing participation as part of their work (Mowforth and Munt 2008:

225). Moreover, a number of scholars have extensively encouraged the dissemination of the participative approach (Blank 1989; Reed 1997; Simmons 1994; Simpson 2008; Ying & Zhou 2007; Lamberti, Noci, Guo and Zhu 2011: 1474). The argument presented by Pretty (1995) stating that participation is one of the most crucial components of success in a project is crucial for this study as one of the study objectives include investigating community participation in the decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV. Mowforth and Munt (2008: 225) argue that it is hard to find a development project that does not claim to adopt a “participatory approach” - involving local community members in the planning process, acknowledging the importance of indigenous knowledge and asserting to empower local community members. In the current study, the researcher investigated to what extent indigenous knowledge of the local people was utilised in SZCV. This was facilitated by asking respondents where they originate (in Eshowe or outside Eshowe, to ascertain if employees at SZCV originate from Eshowe) as well as asking for the respondents’ job description. More so, the researcher also investigated if employees of SZCV participate in decision-making in relation to the management and/or activities of SZCV and whether they were involved in the tourism planning process of SZCV.

## **2.6 Tourism employment**

The tourism industry is a major contributor to global employment opportunities (Dhiman 2012: 360). It provides employment to 204 million people globally, accounting for 10.9 per cent of all consumer spending as well as 6.9 per cent of all government spending, and also serves as a great multiplier effect on other industries (Amalu and Ajake 2012: 18; Dhiman 2012: 360). Furthermore, the International Labour Organisation (ILO) affirms that career opportunities in the tourism industry are more accessible than in many other sectors of the economy due to the diverse and fragmented nature of this industry (Zwane, Du Plessis and Slabbert 2014: 2).

The tourism sector is also considered valuable to developmental agencies, such as the United Nations World Tourism Organisation, since it is able to create employment opportunities for the educated and uneducated by promoting small tourism enterprises and creating infrastructural services for the poor (Gartner and Cukier 2012: 545).

Tourism also creates direct and indirect employment opportunities in service industries that are linked with the tourism industry, such as the transportation services through airlines, taxi cabs and cruise ships (Goeldner and Ritchie 2009: 67; Amalu and Ajake 2012: 18; Mbina 2015: 386). The direct employment includes front offices in hotels, restaurants, travel agencies, tourism information offices, aircrafts, cruise lines, resorts or shopping outlets. Such employment provides direct employment because employees are in contact with tourists and cater for tourists' demand (International Labour Office 2011: 1; UNWTO 2014: 24-25). Tourism also supports indirect employment, such as restaurant suppliers, and construction companies that build and maintain tourist facilities, as well as necessary infrastructure, aircraft manufacturers, various handicrafts' producers, and marketing agencies (International Labour Office 2011: 1; UNWTO 2014: 25). These are more or less dependent on the companies providing direct employment for their revenues.

Furthermore, the tourism industry develops the structure and balance of economic activities in the locality as well as encourages entrepreneurial activity for local communities (Saayman, Saayman and Ferreira 2009: 26; Manavhela and Spencer 2012: 536). The inverse effect of tourism provides a ripple impact as infrastructural advancements, such as the construction of new buildings, roads, and parks, are conceivable. Such constructions also provide temporary employment for the immediate community members (Snyman 2012: 397). However, loss of land and protected areas impose costs for local communities as they utilise natural resources, such as wood for craft making and fruits, to supply tourism destinations and to create a form of employment for themselves (Snyman 2012: 397). Furthermore, this loss of land and protected areas causes a growing concern for the conservation of natural resources, human wellbeing and the long-term economic viability of communities (Manavhela and Spencer 2012: 537). Part of the attractiveness of tourism jobs is a location's attractiveness to potential employees, perceptions of the standard of living, sociability, and attributes of the physical environment (Solnet, Ford, Robinson, Ritchie and Olsen 2014: 32). However, a range of these perceived benefits are derived by migrants that may motivate them to seek tourism employment in countries and destinations far from their homelands (Solnet, Ford, Robinson, Ritchie and Olsen 2014: 32). Drawing upon

the review of literature provided above, tourism employment can, therefore, be further explained as being direct, indirect and induced (de Beer 2011: 10; Ladkin and Szivas 2015: 116).

Although the tourism industry is of global importance, it includes negative impacts such as being largely dominated by a high rate of migrants, further creating an economic barrier for the indigenous local community (Shakeela, Ruhanen and Breakey 2011: 333). This can cause tension in the community, especially if the migrants are perceived to be a burden on community resources, to represent competition for jobs or if they do not integrate into the host society and, thus, seem to challenge social norms (Janta, Brown, Lugosi and Ladkin 2011: 1323). However, it is evident that migrants are satisfying tourism vacancies mainly because local employees are not willing to tolerate the poor working conditions of the tourism industry (Walmsley and Partington 2014: 78). In some circumstances, tourism employment has a low status, requires low skills, has informal working hours with low income, is monotonous, and highly-pressurized, with poor management and career structures and is not recognised as a main career option (Liu and Liu 2008: 164; Shakeela, Ruhanen and Breakey 2011: 334; Janta, Lugosi, Brown and Ladkin 2012: 433). Walmsley (2004); Baum (2007); Jiang and Tribe (2009); Costa, Breda, Malek and Durão (2013); Baum (2015) argue that the tourism labour market has eight characteristics, including; low pay, low skilled, related to a negative image to the extent of being “Mickey Mouse jobs in a candy-floss economy”, exposed to poor management, seasonality, a “refugee sector”, and lacks a clear career structure. Furthermore, the tourism industry possesses poor conditions, high staff turnover, minimal investment in training and challenges in recruiting skills in a number of key areas, high level of labour drawn from socially disadvantaged groups, poor status and the virtual absence of professionalism (Baum 2007: 1394; Jiang and Tribe 2009: 2). This makes employees more disposed to stress and creates an imbalance between work and life (Janta, Lugosi, Brown and Ladkin 2012: 433; Baum 2015: 209). Tourism also possesses insufficient opportunities for career development, low benefits, demands work in unsocial hours and leads to employee dissatisfaction (Costa, Breda, Malek and Durão 2013: 142; Lebe, Matjaž Mulej, Rok and Mulej 2014: 347; Ladkin 2015: 400). It can also lead to inflated amounts of income in payments for goods and services (Amalu



and Ajake 2012: 18; Spencer and Rurangwa 2012: 1054). Tourism increasingly demands skills traditionally associated with other areas of employment, attracting skills that are not especially unique and are readily available in the external labour market (Baum 2015: 209). This means that firms often deploy a weak internal labour market, proving that tourism is an easy industry to access Riley and Szivas (2009: 300), with employees often considered from a combined resource perspective with little recognition of individual needs (Duncan, Scott and Baum 2013: 3).

The tourism industry worldwide is faced with a barrier of not being able to attract or retain quality employees. This has resulted in a shortage of skilled personnel and other factors including low levels of pay and seasonality (Richardson 2009: 382; Solnet, Nickson, Robinson, Kralj and Baum 2014: 610). Furthermore, Zwane, Du Plessis and Slabbert (2014: 2); and Wakelin-Theron (2015: 244) also point out that the tourism industry is incapable in assessing the benefit of training and the expertise needed to provide training, which hinders and discourages the provision of on-going employee training in the tourism industry.

Problems associated with tourism employment are linked to labour intensity, highly dominated by females, part-time and seasonal employment, challenging working conditions with low wages, inconvenient working hours, low labour unions, and poor health and safety conditions (Liu and Liu 2008: 164; Ayac 2010: 13; Cave and Kilic 2010: 280; Cooper, Wheeller, and Ruhanen 2012: 206; de Beer, Rogerson and Rogerson 2014: 91). Similar tourism employment problems were previously highlighted by Christensen and Nickerson (1995: 2) who argued that concerns about tourism centre around low wages, minimal career opportunities, and seasonal and part-time jobs that leave workers under-employed. The tourism industry also faces systemic and inflexible workforce challenges relating to the sector's status as an employer, the impact of demand on career opportunities, workplace conditions, and employee participation (Solnet, Nickson, Robinson, Kralj and Baum 2014: 610). Another challenge associated with seasonal employment is retrenchment and attrition of employees who are forced to migrate to other cities to seek employment (Lundberg, Gudmundson and Andersson 2009: 890; Biermann 2011: 92; de Beer, Rogerson and Rogerson 2014: 91). This leads

to a negative employment image for the tourism sector and creates a problem in the recruitment and retention of quality staff in the tourism industry (Richardson 2009: 382). de Beer, Rogerson and Rogerson (2014: 91) also mention that, in the tourism industry, employees are expected to meet tourists' demands with a smile, while being overworked and underpaid.

Furthermore, other barriers of seasonality in employment, as highlighted by Biermann (2011: 92); Solnet, Ford, Robinson, Ritchie and Olsen (2014: 32) include; cash flow problems, unused capacity, a high need for seasonal and part-time employees, as well as difficulty in attracting investors. In Gambia, local hotels often cut off half of their staff during off-peak seasons, and, in Mexico, tourism employment is often associated with low salary and seasonality, with local communities feeling cheated by government as the best job opportunities are being taken or offered to non-indigenes of Mexico (de Beer, Rogerson and Rogerson 2014: 92). With these issues forming a background, this study also investigates various issues linked to employment at the SZCV. The tourism employment is also regarded to be an informal sector with high numbers of micro, small and medium enterprises, also including informal elements such as street vendors, locals selling arts and crafts as well as second homes that are used to provide tourist accommodation (Ayac 2010: 13). Although the tourism industry is faced with a number of constraints, some of the constraints are generally accepted as inevitable and natural processes (Zwane, Du Plessis and Slabbert 2014: 2). The SZCV case will also serve as a platform to determine the job levels, skills, capacity development, and tourism employment categories enjoyed by staff.

### **2.6.1 Human resource development in tourism**

The degree to which tourism succeeds or fails can be influenced by administrative actions (Solnet, Nickson, Robinson, Kralj and Baum 2014: 610). Therefore, human resources dimension is one of the most significant elements of any industry sector, particularly in a service sector, such as tourism, which is characterized by high levels of human involvement in the development and delivery of services (Baum 2012: 124; Cave, Brown and Baum 2012: 124; Shukla and Ansari 2013: 3). Human assets, such as employee knowledge, skills, experience, ability, personality, internal and external

relationships, attitudes, and behaviours, are essential for creating specific advantages for an organization (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan and Buyruk 2010: 172). Moreover, planning, managing and developing employees is a critical function that ultimately determines whether or not a tourism organization is competitively successful (Cave, Brown and Baum 2012: 125; Ladkin 2013: 116).

Human resources is a strategic, integrated and comprehensible approach to the employment, development and well-being of the people working in organizations (Lebe, Matjaž Mulej, Rok and Mulej 2014: 350). It contributes to employees' optimal skills and behaviours, enabling an organisation to sustain its competitive advantage and handle the pressure of competition (Singh and Yadav 2015: 87; Zizek, Treven and Mulej 2015: 335). Human resources has traditionally been a weak link in the tourism industry and is far from a simple employment management and should, therefore, adopt a holistic approach in a people business such as tourism (Lebe, Matjaž Mulej, Rok and Mulej 2014: 350). Investing in human resource development allows organisations to improve staff knowledge and capabilities, contributing to the provision of superior service quality and customer satisfaction (Prayag and Hosany 2015: 249).

Quality of staff, quality of performance and public image of an industry are considered key determinants of effective human resources management strategy (Lee-Ross and Pryce 2010: 2). However, tourism organisations and managers still face challenges in recruiting, developing and maintaining a committed, competent, well managed and well-motivated workforce that is focused on offering a high quality product to the increasingly demanding and selective customer (Nickson 2013: 2). Recruitment in the tourism industry is also challenging for small and medium-sized enterprises because they are often perceived to offer poor working conditions with low pay and long hours that may exacerbate work-family conflict (Solnet, Ford, Robinson, Ritchie and Olsen 2014: 32).

Highly successful tourism organizations appear to place substantial emphasis on the engagement, education and empowerment of their employees at all levels to deliver services that define and differentiate the organization from others in the field (Cave, Brown and Baum 2012). The restructuring and improving of old products and service quality in the tourism industry requires highly qualified employees and human resource

management supporting them with a holistic human resource management approach aimed at requisite wholeness of outcomes (Zizek, Treven and Mulej 2015: 338). Due to the rapidly changing environment of the tourism organisation, the evolutionary aspect of organizations and human resources management are important (Zizek, Treven and Mulej 2015: 338).

Despite tourism being an industry that relies on quality employees, many employers lack appreciation for tourism-educated employees and are inclined to choose non-graduated employees, favouring practical experience over formal education (Lyons, Young, Hanley and Stolk 2015: 2). This approach is not necessarily a bad thing in a service industry where people skills are highly valued and have the potential to make or break the visitor experience (Lyons, Young, Hanley and Stolk 2015: 2). However, the approach is consistent with the relatively unsophisticated management style of many small tourism business owners who may not have formal qualifications (Costa, Breda, Malek and Durão 2013: 141; Lyons, Young, Hanley and Stolk 2015: 2). Furthermore, this approach re-confirms that the tourism industry has poor management and career structures (Janta, Lugosi, Brown and Ladkin 2012: 433; Nickson 2013: 18). Thus, the tourism industry is faced with an over-reliance on informal recruitment methods; lack of evidence of good human resources management practices; little or no trade union presence; high levels of labour turnover; problems in recruitment and retention of employees; and competitive pressures which drive a cost-cutting and short-term approach to human resource management (Nickson 2013: 18). According to the literature, a mismatch exists between the type of staff required for the industry and the type of staff recruited. In South Africa, many students enrol for formal tourism qualifications at Higher Education and Further Education institutions. It would be to their disadvantage if the current recruitment strategies prevail. Therefore, this study also investigates tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees and capacity building (the training offered to SZCV employees). An opportunity exists to examine the qualification type and levels obtained by staff.

It is required that individuals who want a profession in the tourism industry need to obtain competencies that will enable them to adapt with the changing circumstances of

the business world (Zehrer and Mössenlechner 2009: 267). Due to increased level of competition among tourism enterprises, tourism employers now seek a diverse range of skills and attributes from new tourism graduates in order to sustain a competitive advantage (Richardson 2009: 382; Francis 2010: 30; Dhiman 2012: 360). Students who enter the fragile and vulnerable tourism industry need different skills, capabilities and knowledge in order to meet the needs of present and future tourists (Rosell 2015: 279; Sharpley 2015: 171; Sheldon and Fesenmaier 2015: 155). The tourism industry also seeks talented and demonstrative graduates who display a high degree of flexibility (Abu Horaira 2015: 186). Therefore, tourism educators should become more professional in nature, focusing on providing quality education that prepares students for the working life and provides them with employment opportunities that are appropriate to their qualifications (Huang 2015: 410).

Furthermore, undergraduate tourism management students require an industrial experience or internship through which they gain work experience and successful application of theoretical knowledge, which is seen as a foundation for students when they are employed in their first job in the tourism industry (Abu Horaira 2015: 187). Internships and industrial experience also help tourism management students to gain industrial work experience which forms part of the normal academic, encouraging students to apply theory in work settings and gain greater work capabilities (Abu Horaira 2015: 187; Huang 2015: 411). Tourism employers also seek a more flexible, adaptable workforce in order to transform their companies to be flexible and adaptable to the changing market and to meet consumer expectations (Zehrer and Mössenlechner 2009: 269). Therefore, having a skilled, enthusiastic and a committed workforce is crucial for the success of tourism business mainly due to most interactions between employees and customers being in a face-to-face exchange (Richardson 2009: 382; Singh and Yadav 2015: 89). Having a positive attitude towards employment and commitment also enables the tourism organisation to achieve customer satisfaction and increases customer loyalty (Richardson 2009: 382). Therefore, the front line staff in the tourism industry need to be professionally skilled in order to handle tourists from different continents and cultures (Singh and Yadav 2015: 89).

Tourism employees also seek tourism graduates that are proactive and able to see and respond to problems creatively and autonomously (Su 2015: 322). Tourism employers have also indicated that, in most cases, students are not prepared for the workplace, suggesting that universities should produce more employable graduates through the provisioning of transferable skills in leadership for communication, strategic thinking, planning, empathy and in decision-making, which are required in the workplace (Su 2015: 322). In addition, universities should improve and develop students' interpersonal skills, teamwork, communication and problem-solving skills in order to add value into students' intellectual capabilities (Zehrer and Mössenlechner 2009: 267; Dhiman 2012: 360).

The following major human resources techniques in the tourism industry are highlighted by Singh and Yadav (2015: 90-91):

**Performance Appraisal System:** This is one of the most crucial human resource development techniques which is applied in a professional organization as a tool to develop people. The tourism industry requires this tool for government officials as they believe more in principles and policies. An effective performance appraisal system gives motivation to employees, allowing certain organisational standards and goals to be easily achieved by the employees and tourist officers.

**Promotional Avenues and Career Opportunities:** To achieve effective performance by the employee, the performance needs to be connected to promotional and career opportunities. The growth path should also be visible to every person within the organisation. Promotion of non-deserving candidates may demotivate many people within the organisation, demotivating even the genuine people to drastic levels even after promotion. Therefore, increased career opportunities in the tourism industry can enhance the process of development with accelerating personal, social and professional growth.

**Training:** Training is a very important need for human resource development. Therefore, the skills gap needs to be bridged in order to enhance the capacity of people in the tourism industry to professionally manage tourists. Training is also essential at every level in the tourism organisation, whether at officer or employee level, or directly

or indirectly involved with tourists, such as travel agents, tourists' guides, tour operator, tourist information officer, among others. Therefore, in order to deliver superior services, tourism employees need to be trained with the changing pattern of services, enabling them to deal with improved and modern tools, techniques and equipment. With one of the research objectives being to identify tourism capacity building (the training offered to SZCV employees), it is crucial for SZCV employees, at all levels, to be trained to enable them to deliver superior services to tourists and to also be in line with the modern tools, techniques and equipment.

**Employee participation in Management:** Active participation of employees in the management of business and decision-making is essential for human resource development as it uplifts the moral and motivational level of employees. Employees feel enriched when their opinion is considered by management. Thus, the organisation benefits through the experiences and views shared by the employee. This is also essential to a service industry, such as tourism with human dependency, especially on tour guides, travel agents and public information bureaus. Without such links, the tourism industry cannot operate. Hence, the role of employees' opinion and concerns become crucial for policy formulation and implementation. With this said, it is crucial for SZCV to allow employees to actively participate in decision-making within the organization as their experiences and views will be considered, especially for policy formulation and implementation.

**Job Enrichment:** Job enrichment is another essential technique for human resource development as employees in the tourism industry take additional responsibility when they are promoted. They get highly motivated and try to give additional time and input in the organisation, which is highly beneficial for the growth of the tourism industry. Therefore, it is essential for human resource experts in SZCV to improve employment for employees in Shakaland as they will feel motivated to give additional time and input when interacting with tourists.

**Incentive system:** The incentive system plays an important role as a human resource development technique in the tourism industry. An incentive system can enhance

diminishing profitability of the tourism industry, particularly public companies. Receiving good incentives, as a reward, also motivate employees to give 100 percent performance. This system will encourage SZCV employees to provide improved services to tourists to the cultural village.

**Performance counselling:** Performance counselling is a process of understanding the performance gap and its reason to fill it. This system enhances the efforts made by employees to improve their performance in order to map the desired goals with the actual performance. It not only simplifies policy making, but also helps human resources experts in performance mapping. Performance counselling must take place in a friendly environment, allowing employees to share their actual feelings with the counsellor, and must be an objective-oriented process, rather than a compulsory process.

With regards to tourism education, tourism first appeared as a distinct area of study, and later developed as a clear area of study that could be followed as an undergraduate field of study and a research activity between the 1960's and 1972 (Airey 2008: 2; Fidgeon 2010: 700). Tourism's growth, as a separate area of study, was also enhanced by influential textbooks by authors such as McIntosh, in 1972, and Burkhart and Medlik, in 1974, titled "setting a boundary of the tourism curriculum" (Fidgeon 2010: 700). Individual schools of tourism and hospitality continued to emerge and bachelors and master degree programmes served to establish tourism and hospitality management as an authentic disciplinary approach (Haden 2015: 492). Tourism became a subject to study for the 16 to 18-year-old age category by 1990, which Great Britain referred to as further education. Companies, such as American Express, also encouraged and supported this creation of tourism qualification for the 16-year-old. This has been proceeded by the creation of national vocational qualifications (Fidgeon 2010: 700; O'Mahony and Salmon 2015: 133). These national vocational qualifications are offered in numerous schools and colleges, such as Intec College and Elangeni Colleges in South Africa, offering vocational studies in tourism. In South Africa, travel courses were introduced in the 1980s and tourism management courses were established in the early 1990s (Zwane, Du Plessis and Slabbert 2014: 3). These courses include tourism programmes that help to develop the skills, attributes and competencies required by



different components of the industry that offer graduates a wide range of employment opportunities (Zwane, Du Plessis and Slabbert 2014: 3).

The explicit aim of tourism education is to provide practical knowledge and skills that are relevant to a career in tourism, with the tourism curricula consisting of business and management-related modules, often complemented by practical field visits and industry placement or internships (Sharpley 2015: 171). The study of tourism not only offers the opportunity to explore the relationship that people and tourists have with the physical, social, cultural, political and technological world, but develops our knowledge and understanding of the world through an analysis of these relationships (Sharpley 2015: 172). Moreover, tourism acts as a lens through which a process of change and challenges can be identified, understood and critically analysed (Dredge, Airey and Gross 2015: 536; Sharpley 2015: 172). Furthermore, tourism studies should also help people to rethink the notions of tourism education, learning and professional identities (Rosell 2015: 279). Tourism studies should also rely upon authentic contexts, personal experiences, guided reflection and feedback Rosell (2015: 280), developing transferable skills, critical thinking and reflective practice of students that will enable them to effectively deal with challenges presented by the industry (Talbot and Cater 2015: 460).

Tourism is no longer studied for its own sake. However, it is a medium for exploring and potentially enhancing students' understanding and critical appreciation of contemporary trends, issues and challenges, such as globalisation, international political economy, technology and communication or the environment and development (Sharpley 2015: 172). Tourism has also emerged as an important sector due to its growth as an activity and also due to a growth in the organisations involved in meeting tourists' needs as well as an increase in the number of students enrolling into further and higher tourism education programmes (Fidgeon 2010: 700).

In the past, tourism programmes have been faced with a series of challenges, such as diversity of tourism education in the duration of the programmes and the faculties, departments, schools or colleges in which they offered (O'Mahony and Salmon 2015: 132). In some instances, tourism programmes have been offered in business schools, with the structuring of the tourism education system differing in each country, resulting

in variations in the duration and content (O'Mahony and Salmon 2015: 132). This results in tourism courses becoming more business-oriented and increasingly being considered a means of supporting industry and commerce Harrison (2015: 227), and leads to confusion of what is on offer and what to expect from the tourism industry (Petrova 2015: 386). The industry also faces a challenge of having a smaller percentage of managers who are educated to degree level in comparison to other industries (Petrova 2015: 386). Other challenges of the tourism education, as summarised by Harrison (2015: 227), are inclusive of:

- Employees focusing more on transferrable skills, problem solving and work experience rather than the mere award of a degree in travel and tourism;
- Students' expectations are most centred on positions in management and marketing and are also centred to possibilities for overseas travel; and
- Tourism courses, in some instances, are theoretical with a lack of conceptual contexts and links to both industry and disciplines from which the theories have been developed, with a gap in university courses with tourism industry expectations.

Tourism students have expressed a perception that the tourism industry, which is constantly developing, offers many different career opportunities to those who intend to participate in the field (Wakelin-Theron 2015: 243). Tourism students also assume that their qualifications will earn them better opportunities for further development after graduation (Jugmohan 2010: 37; Abu Horaira 2015: 185). Another assumption is that the tourism curriculum will meet the expectations of the tourism industry (Jugmohan 2010: 37). However, the tourism employment profile will constantly change in the future and requires a new paradigm for tourism education (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, Woeber, Cooper and Antonioli 2008: 63; Sheldon, Fesenmaier and Tribe 2011: 3). This change requires the development of life-long tourism learning opportunities that equip students for future learning, employment and life, focusing on students' affect, thought and action (Su 2015: 322). Tourism institutions, therefore, need to regularly conduct research in order to ensure that employees' needs are met by tourism educational programmes

(Dhiman 2012: 360-362). Educational institutions should also carry out and promote professional, social, personal and action-oriented skills in a sustainable manner in order to assure good employability opportunities for tourism graduates. Furthermore, these institutions should ensure that tourism students are better prepared to meet the demands of the business environment (Zehrer and Mössenlechner 2009: 269-284).

Educational institutions should encompass usable research and partnerships that help to build competencies that matter to the industry (Huang 2015: 410). Moreover, educational institutions can also teach skills and competencies through integrated development, whereby development takes place through the degree programme; or through parallel development, whereby skills are established in extra-curricular modules offered by the institutions career-service programmes (Zehrer and Mössenlechner 2009: 272). This is done by several education institutions through work-integrated learning (WIL), and linking the divisions between theory and practice (Jugmohan 2010: 38). Furthermore, the Department of Tourism in South Africa has introduced a tourism buddies' leadership programme, in order to assist learners in acquiring skills and knowledge that are valuable in the tourism sector (Baloyi 2016: 57). The objective of this programme is to empower unemployed youth through offering the opportunity to train in tourism programmes and to acquire theoretical and practical experience (Baloyi 2016: 57). This will benefit the local tourism industry by providing skilled youth who can add value to local establishments and improve the standards of the local tourism and hospitality sector, further leading to reduced unemployment and improved livelihoods locally (Baloyi 2016: 57). Furthermore, educational institutions may also involve internships programmes as part of the curriculum, and increase employer involvement in university programmes or offer additional employment-based training (Zehrer and Mössenlechner 2009: 272).

Apart from the industry requirements of tourism graduates to the industry, there exists a concern amongst tourism management graduates, who leave the tourism industry or who fail to enter the industry upon graduation due to lack of employment satisfaction, poor working conditions and the lack of motivating factors (Richardson 2009: 383). This afore-mentioned concern often results in high staff turnover and wastage of trained and

experienced personnel, which raises an issue of whether or not the tourism industry is meeting students' expectations (Richardson 2009: 383). It is, therefore, crucial for students to have a better representation in the tourism industry for which they are being prepared and to develop impressions and contacts through their educational experiences (Huang 2015: 410).

Regardless of the existence of links between higher education and the industry through internships, guest speakers from the industry and through field trips Zehrer and Mössenlechner (2009: 268), there still exist some gaps in the expectations of employers and educators, as tourism employers draw attention on general transferable skills and practical skills, while educators are developing theoretical and specific tourism materials (Jugmohan 2010: 36; Dhiman 2012: 361). This creates a need for strong communication between tourism education providers and the tourism sector (Wang, Ayres and Huyton 2010: 8). Furthermore, Dhiman (2012: 363) argues that, if tourism programmes and the curriculums offered are adjusted to meet tourism industry needs, the tourism programmes should reflect the needs of today as well as the short- and long-term future of the tourism industry. Consequently, students will possess the skills and training required to perform well at tourism entry level positions and further offer them a basis for continued growth as a tourism professional (Munar and Montaña 2009: 71). Therefore, there is a need to change the content in tourism education in order to keep up with the tourism industry requirements (Dhiman 2012: 363; Dredge, Airey and Gross 2015: 541-542).

## **2.7 Capacity building**

Capacity building is a complex and difficult term to define and refers to the narrow notion of staff development through formal education and training programmes in order for staff to be regarded as fully qualified personnel (Moscardo 2008: 9-10; Aref and Gill 2011: 94; Koutra and Edwards 2012: 779). The concept capacity building was first introduced during the late 1980's and can be traced back to the work of Paulo Freire' who gained international recognition for his experiences in literacy training in North-eastern Brazil (Giampiccoli, Jugmohan and Mtapuri 2014: 658; University of Miami 2016). Freire's most renowned work is "Pedagogy of the Oppressed" (1970), where he

argued for system of education that emphasizes learning as an act of culture and freedom (University of Miami 2016). Capacity building later became popular in developing countries when the bottom-up approach of community-based tourism was seen as a catalyst for community development, assisting in minimising the dependency towards government in the provisioning of employment and business opportunities (Hamzah and Khalifah 2012: 14).

Capacity building may also refer to a process whereby “individuals, groups, organisations and countries develop their abilities individually and collectively in order to perform functions, solve problems and achieve objectives” (Moscardo 2008: 9-10; Koutra and Edwards 2012: 779; Uchendu 2015: 240). Capacity building is also an on-going process that seeks to obtain, transfer, match and enhance skills and competencies of people, through education and training (Crabbe, Martinez, Garcia, Chub, Castro and Guy 2009: 182; Yigitcanlar 2009: 5; Swanepoel and de Beer 2012: 26). It prepares and enables people to enter into a range of situations with steady abilities, independencies and self-confidence, having the capacity to actively engage in obtaining agreements and solutions that work (Crabbe, Martinez, Garcia, Chub, Castro and Guy 2009: 182; Yigitcanlar 2009: 5; Swanepoel and de Beer 2012: 26). Furthermore, capacity building is built before a community project begins (Hamzah and Khalifah 2012: 11). In order for capacity building to be effective, it needs to be research based, focused on developing educational and content knowledge, collaborative, closely linked to the local context, evaluated beyond measures of satisfaction and involves building leadership capacity (Dinham, Crowther, Bain, Walker and Chan 2011: 703). Moreover, it needs to become more extensive to the point that it moves beyond the still persistent focus on workshop-based training (Virji, Padgham and Seipt 2012: 116). It must be a long-term attempt that strengthens institutions and builds human resource capabilities on an end-to-end basis, not only addressing capacity gaps in knowledge generation and sharing, but also catalyses efforts to move from knowledge to action (Virji, Padgham and Seipt 2012: 116).

Capacity building is a crucial component for the development, implementation and maintenance of effective community development (Aref, Montgomery and Ma'rof 2013:

58). It cannot transpire without action of community leaders in building community capacity, as they are able to enhance capacity by ensuring active involvement of community members (Aref, Montgomery and Ma'rof 2013: 58). Capacity building is also a necessary function of governance and other local government-related activities (Swanepoel and de Beer 2012: 26). It is used in creating awareness in the local community with regards to resources management, development and creating an enabling environment (Swanepoel and de Beer 2012: 26). In tourism, capacity building includes strengthening human resources, strengthening organisational and individual capacity, developing suitable facilities and training for tourism, as well as assessing tourism impacts (Aref 2011a: 348; Hamzah and Khalifah 2012: 12). This, further assists communities to improve their ability to participate in the tourism decision-making process, increasing qualities and assets that a community is able to draw upon in order to improve their lives (Hamzah and Khalifah 2012: 12). For communities, capacity building is an effective, observable and highly-valued process for tourism developers to be able to contribute to sustainable community development, which stimulates community development processes and addresses tourism developmental issues (Aref and Gill 2011: 94). These issues mentioned in the literature is important to this study and is linked to the third objective of this study on tourism capacity building opportunities.

The levels of community, as indicated by Aref and Gill (2011: 95); and Pat-Mbano and Ezirim (2015: 399), are divided into individual level, organisational level and community level:

- At individual level, capacity building refers to the ability of individuals to set and achieve objectives through knowledge and skills enhancement;
- At organisational level, it refers to anything that influences an organisation's performance, leadership, structure of the organisation, resource mobilisation, physical and intellectual resources; which also includes organisation strategy, management, business approach, and organisation linkages, such as networks and partnerships and organisation systems; and

- At community level, it includes informal and formal linkages between organisations and individuals and organisations within the community, infrastructure within the community, networks and resources from external support to community and focuses on social capital developments, which includes networks, relationships between people in a community and levels of trust and co-operation that exist within a community. All activities that community members engage in enable the community to address problems, and improve their communities. This level of community is necessary for the community of Eshowe, as it allows community to use any form of linkages, whether formal or informal, to be able to enhance development of any kind within the community, thereby, allowing communal problems to be addressed effectively.

Different concepts have been used by authors, such as Murray, Moscardo, Skinner and Chaskin, in order to evaluate capacity of communities. These include positive attitudes, knowledge and information, skills, education and training (which also highlights the third objective of this study, which is to identify tourism capacity building opportunities, the training offered to SZCV employees), access to resources, partnerships, relationships, networks and collaborations, civic engagement, participation and involvement; a shared vision, local support and communication (Bennett, Lemelin, Koster and Budke 2012: 754).

## **2.8 Rural tourism**

Rural tourism is a term adopted by the European Commission which was used to classify tourism activities in rural areas (Popescu and Badita 2011: 130). The term became recognised during the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century in Europe (Barlybaev, Akhmetov and Nasyrov 2009: 640; Romeiro and Costa 2010: 75). The development of rural tourism provided alternate employment and reduced migration of community to cities for employment purposes (Romeiro and Costa 2010: 75; Calado, Rodrigues, Silveira and Dentinho 2011: 159; 2013).

Since its development in Europe, rural tourism has increased in developed countries worldwide playing a crucial role in the development of rural areas that were

economically and socially marginalised in the past (Iorio and Corsale 2010: 153; Su 2011: 1438; Agapito, Mendes and do Valle 2012: 325). Among European countries, rural tourism is widely recognised, promoted and relied on as a catalyst to tackle socio-economic challenges faced by rural areas (Su 2011: 1438; Wang, Cheng, Zhong, Mu, Dhruva and Ren 2013: 117). In countries such as France, United Kingdom and Austria, rural tourism has a crucial influence and a growing demand (Su 2011: 1438). Other countries, such as the United States of America, also benefitted through employment and growth in income levels, reduction in poverty and increase in education (Kline and Milburn 2010: 321; Swanson, Kline and Milburn 2011: 77). Furthermore, rural tourism is recognised as a tool with the potential of enhancing rural development and serves as a vehicle in improving the quality of life of the people located in rural areas (Nzama 2010: 46).

Rural tourism takes place in the countryside, encouraging visitors to travel to small towns and rural tourist attractions that may not have been generally visited and involves rich local resources (Polucha and Žukovskis 2010: 92; Ezeuduji and Rid 2011: 189; Chuang 2013: 154; McLaren and Heath 2013: 19). The term rural tourism is interpreted as tourism that offers tourists with a personalised contact of the local communities, providing tourists with a feel of the countryside and an opportunity to engage in the activities, traditions and the way of life of local people (Aref and Gill 2009: 68; Briedenhann 2009: 380; Kastenzholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques and Lima 2012: 208). Rural tourism usually takes place in natural areas and forms part of cultural tourism, ecotourism, community-based tourism, agro-tourism, culinary tourism, adventure tourism, volunteer tourism, back-packing tourism, as well as outdoor tourism activities; which are inclusive of horse riding, biking, sightseeing and water-based activities (Aref and Gill 2009: 68; Rønningen 2010: 15; Swanson, Kline and Milburn 2011: 77; Mihailović and Moric 2012: 268). Rural tourism destinations are located in rural areas, based on features that are of a rural context, and include natural resources, as well as traditional practices (Agapito, Mendes and do Valle 2012: 327). These destinations are controlled by the local community and developed for the purpose of delivering long-term positive impacts to an area (Agapito, Mendes and do Valle 2012: 327). The rural tourism destinations not only offer attractions for tourists to stop and visit but offer a



complete tourism package that is appropriately promoted (Swanson, Kline and Milburn 2011: 80; Yi, Day and Cai 2011: 148; Popescu, Badita and Mazilu 2014: 73). It also includes accommodation, warm hospitality from host community, restaurants, leisure facilities, attractions and events (Swanson, Kline and Milburn 2011: 80; Yi, Day and Cai 2011: 148; Popescu, Badita and Mazilu 2014: 73).

According to Vukic, Popovic and Kuzmanovic (2012: 673), rural tourism destinations can be categorised into three attractions:

- Attractions that can be seen, which include tours to local sights, traditional places and historical sites;
- Attractions that can be bought, including tangible products that tourists can take home such as souvenirs and;
- Attractions that enables tourists' participation, such as hiking and bird watching.

Furthermore, rural tourism destinations provide opportunities to poor rural community members owning rich culture and unspoilt tribal land. Such destinations also provide tourists with unique tourism experiences; whereby local community members share their knowledge on the history, culture and natural heritage of a rural attraction (Agapito, Mendes and do Valle 2012: 327; Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques and Lima 2012: 208; San Martín and Herrero 2012: 341; McLaren and Heath 2013: 19). Tourists are provided with an opportunity to discover the rural community's way of life and to experience nature, which also forms part of the push factors for tourists to visit rural attractions (Agapito, Mendes and do Valle 2012: 327; Kastenholz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques and Lima 2012: 208; San Martín and Herrero 2012: 341; McLaren and Heath 2013: 19). Other push factors include tourists' interest to participate in outdoor activities, such as mountain climbing riding, searching for peace and an isolation from people, and a change from a daily routine (Pesonen, Komppula, Kronenberg and Peters 2011: 34; Alaeddinoglu, Turker, Ozturk and Can 2013: 12). Tourists are also attracted by cultural uniqueness, flora and fauna and explore majestic landscapes of rural tourism destinations (Agapito, Mendes and do Valle 2012: 327; Mthembu 2012: 66; Alaeddinoglu, Turker, Ozturk and Can 2013: 12). Furthermore, rural tourism destinations offer rural communities with small business opportunities through traditional

performances, or through offering guided tours to the majestic landscapes of the rural areas (Agapito, Mendes and do Valle 2012: 327).

This form of tourism has an important market share that is determined by its diverse attractions (Chuang 2013: 152; Ioan, Radulescu and Bran 2014: 15). It is identified as means to develop and sustain rural areas, serving as an essential tool for economic and social regeneration of rural areas (Polo Peña, Jamilena and Rodriguez Molina 2012: 1046; Phillips, Wolfe, Hodur and Leistritz 2013: 93). Rural tourism reduces rural-urban migration through the provision of employment opportunities and improvement of rural livelihood conditions (Marzuki, Ali and Othman 2010: 23; Yi, Day and Cai 2011: 148; Mthembu 2012: 66). Polo Peña, Jamilena and Molina (2012: 1045-1046) also pointed out that rural tourism sustains the culture, character, landscape, habitats and the rural economy of the host communities. They further alleged that rural tourism develops sufficient understanding, leadership and a vision amongst decision makers of a rural area to realise the risks of placing too much reliance on tourism (Polo Peña, Jamilena and Rodriguez Molina 2012: 1047). Furthermore, this form of tourism enables decision makers to work towards a balanced and diversified rural economy (Polo Peña, Jamilena and Rodriguez Molina 2012: 1047). The appeal of rural areas for tourism and leisure purposes depends on its natural characteristics; quality and range of attractions and facilities which meet tourists' expectations (Popescu, Badita and Mazilu 2014: 71).

It is crucial to develop tourism in rural areas in order to increase participation of the rural marginalised communities in the development of tourism as well as to evenly distribute benefits of tourism (Nzama 2010: 45). In South Africa, rural areas are characterised by underdevelopment, unemployment, low literacy rates as well as a lack of basic infrastructure (Nzama 2010: 44). However, such areas are also rich in cultural qualities and have a potential of being packaged as tourism products (Nzama 2008: 1). On that note, South Africa is currently experiencing an increase in the number of tourists travelling not only for purposes of appreciating flora and fauna but who want to get into contact with local people in order to experience and understand a culture that is different from their own, thereby, broadening their knowledge and personal experiences (Nzama 2008: 2). This desire to get into contact with local people has led to home

stays, whereby local communities open their homes without modifying their usual way of life for the tourists (Nzama 2008: 2).

### **2.8.1 Rural tourism and community development**

Tourism has been understood as a road to rural and community development Lenaoa and Saarinen (2015: 205) and, as a growing industry, has great potential to provide benefits to its destination areas and communities, introducing new economic uses for regional economies (Saarinen 2013: 110). The promotion of tourism has been regarded as highly beneficial for the goals of rural development, especially in rural and other marginal areas (Saarinen 2013: 110). The benefits of rural tourism include income generation for local communities, which can then be used by communities towards the sustainability of their traditional activities, the creation of employment, and the promotion and conservation of their local arts and cultures (Tsephe and Obono 2013: 273).

Tourists' arrivals to rural areas also create a flow of external currency into the rural economy, indirectly contributing to business development, household incomes and to employment (Mthembu 2012: 65). Rural tourism also generates foreign exchange, improving local public services and increases demand for goods and services (Tsephe and Obono 2013: 273; Lenaoa and Saarinen 2015: 205). Moreover, the presence of tourists to a rural area can also lead to new leisure opportunities (Mthembu 2012: 65). Rural tourism also generates rural development through rural tourism revenues being used for the purpose of enhancing infrastructure through the construction of paved roads (San Martín and Herrero 2012: 341). It can also be used in catalysing public services, including roads, electricity, public transport as well as sewage and litter disposals (San Martín and Herrero 2012: 341; Tsephe and Obono 2013: 273). Rural tourism also stimulates host communities to maintain their cultural heritage, enabling tourists to experience local culture, generating community unity, creating cultural and regional pride and leading to communities being responsible for rural development (Ezeudji and Rid 2011: 189; Mthembu 2012: 65; Stepanova 2013: 117; Goulding, Horan and Tozzi 2014: 553). With poverty being the main challenge of rural areas, tourism could be a useful activity in developing rural economies, valuing and preserving

natural resources and cultural heritages which are situated in marginalised rural communities (Mthembu 2012: 66; San Martín and Herrero 2012: 341). Rural tourism also stimulates the development and conservation of local crafts, local food, music, dance, and storytelling, which serve as valuable assets for attracting and keeping tourists in a destination for a longer period of time (Popescu, Badita and Mazilu 2014: 71). Moreover, rural tourism serves as an additional form of income for rural dwellers rather than solely depending on government grants. This further enables community members to acquire essential skills in order to develop other business opportunities in the service sector (San Martín and Herrero 2012: 341; Popescu, Badita and Mazilu 2014: 71).

Successful rural tourism development relies upon offering a full tourism package, appropriate community leadership, support and participation of local government, sufficient funding for tourism development and strategic planning based on a community level (Popescu, Badita and Mazilu 2014: 72). It also relies upon co-operation between business people and local leadership; co-operation between rural tourism entrepreneurs, information, technical assistance for tourism development and promotion, good convention and visitor bureaus, as well as extensive support of tourism from the community (Popescu, Badita and Mazilu 2014: 72).

The following reasons why tourism can relate well to the needs of the poor are highlighted by Zapata, Hall, Lindo and Vanderschaeghe (2011: 726):

- tourism is consumed at the point of production, providing an opportunity for direct interaction, additional purchases, and indirect income;
- rural areas, where most of the poor population live, are often rich in capital assets of great value for the tourist industry, such as music, art, wildlife, or climate;
- tourism is labour-intensive, providing more job opportunities for women and young people and new types of jobs and skills;
- tourism contributes to strengthening the social capital of the poor;
- tourism promotes the creation of small and micro-entrepreneurs;

- tourism supports the construction of public infrastructure and the conservation of natural and cultural heritage, providing cultural pride, greater awareness of the natural environment, and a sense of ownership in the communities.

On the contrary, adverse effects of rural tourism include seasonal and part-time employment. Such form of employment is synonymous with low salary; which creates difficulty in times of inflation on local land and house rent increases (Koster and Lemelin 2009: 257; Goulding, Horan and Tozzi 2014: 553). Rural tourism generates low incomes for local rural population when tours are organized by urban tourism agencies, requiring urban tour guides (Calado, Rodrigues, Silveira and Dentinho 2011: 160). This often causes short visits, considering that both meals and overnight staying are made in the city nearest to the place visited. This type of tourism also uses the rural space and its basic infrastructures, with most of the value generated remaining in urban enterprises and employees (Calado, Rodrigues, Silveira and Dentinho 2011: 160). Adverse effects of rural tourism also consist of the deterioration of local culture due to the interaction of local community with tourists from different backgrounds; and increased costs in the transportation of people (Stepanova 2013: 118). Rural tourism causes neglect of farming activities, which constitute the main source of family income; and increases the cost of living in communities (Stepanova 2013: 118). This form of tourism also causes traffic congestion, conflicts between tourists and residents, increases crime, changes traditional structures, reduces local services, such as shops selling daily consumables, replacing them with souvenir shops that are developed in areas with restricted parking and scarce availability of public transport (de Jesus 2013: 28; Goulding, Horan and Tozzi 2014: 553). Furthermore, rural tourism also causes an exclusion of the local communities in rural tourism planning, decision-making and ownership; while, in most cases, planning and ownership are put into action without any understanding of what tourism is or how it should be managed (Koster and Lemelin 2009: 257; Goulding, Horan and Tozzi 2014: 553). This causes residents to become vulnerable to change in ways beyond community control and threatens their quality of life (Hwang, Stewart and Ko 2012: 328). From an environmental perspective, rural tourism causes environmental degradation due to litter, affects local biodiversity, creates a need for development

which the local area cannot sustain; causes a disturbance to peace and results in the increase of waste dumping (de Jesus 2013: 28; Goulding, Horan and Tozzi 2014: 553).

## **2.9 Cultural Tourism**

Culture was not strongly associated with tourism as only a few wealthy people participated in cultural tours for educational motives (Richards 2011: 10). Not until the 20<sup>th</sup> century did a fair percentage of tourists become more knowledgeable on cultural tourism Debeş (2011: 234); Petroman (2013: 385) and the desire to seek new experiences on holidays with more communities started recognising the value of culture as a means of generating tourism enhanced cultural tourism (Richards 2010: 10; Debeş 2011: 234). By the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, culture and tourism became the two most crucial growth industries that metamorphosed into cultural tourism. It then became the most desirable development option for countries and regions globally (Richards 2010: 9).

Today, cultural tourism is the most extensive industry in the world, accounting for 40% of the total world tourist arrivals in 2007 (Ivanovic and Saayman 2013: 138). Cultural tourism enjoys an increasing interest as both a tourist activity and research focus (Gnoth and Zins 2013: 738). The cultural tourism industry is also linked to many cultural products that are privately owned or owned by the public. This provides tourists with an authentic experience and has become the centre of attention through innovators (Debeş 2011: 234). Great cultural centres of the world, such as Venice, Paris, London and Beijing, have attracted large numbers of tourists for many years. The motivating factor amongst tourists to travel to such places was to experience different cultures (Butler, O'Gorman and Prentice 2012: 324).

Cultural tourism includes a range of activities and experiences based on combined concepts of culture and heritage (Debeş 2011: 234). This form of tourism is often interpreted as the movement of people outside their normal place of residence for cultural reasons, such as festivals, performing arts and cultural tours (Slusariuc and Nedelea 2013: 40). Cultural tourism is also interpreted as travel that “satisfies the

human need for diversity, raising the cultural level of the individual and gives rise to new knowledge, experience and encounters” (Tomljenović and Kunst 2014: 85).

### **2.9.1 Cultural tourism in South Africa**

Cultural tourism had been unnoticed by the South African government, remaining unrealised for almost two decades (Ivanovic and Saayman 2013: 139). However, in recent times, many international tourists have had an interest in visiting South Africa as it is home to diverse cultures with distinctive music, art forms, and traditional rituals that symbolise values and beliefs (Strydom and Venske 2010: 249). Tourists have also been attracted by cultural attractions, which include cultural villages, such as the Zulu or Ndebele cultural villages, cultural festivals, and township tours, such as Soweto township tours. Furthermore, the United Nations educational Scientific and cultural world heritage sites (UNESCO), such as the Robben Island, Cape Floral Kingdom, Cradle of the humankind, Isimangaliso Wetlands Park, Vredeford Dome, Drakensburg Mountain Range and the Richtersveld Cultural landscape, have attracted several tourists, locally and internationally (George 2008: 30; Perry and Potgieter 2013: 103; South African Tourism 2015). South Africa has tourism attractions associated with struggle during the apartheid era. Some of these are inclusive of the Robben Island, where the former South African president, Nelson Mandela, as well as other political prisoners, were imprisoned; and museums detailing South Africa’s history of apartheid, such as the District six Museum in Cape Town (George 2008: 30). South Africa’s rich and diverse cultural and natural resources have also offered a competitive advantage and formed as a basis for tourism development and growth (Nzama 2010: 47). Despite the increasing interest of the South African cultural tourism by international tourists, there still exists a challenge in showcasing South African culture in a dignified and authentic manner (Strydom and Venske 2010: 249). Authenticity is a crucial factor in cultural tourism, as cultural tourists are now tremendously sensitive to authenticity of cultural attractions and have become tremendously selective in their consumption choices, expecting constant production of new authentic tourist experiences based on unique experiential value (Ivanovic and Saayman 2013: 173). Authenticity is also an important matter in question because tourism research challenges the objective of

reality by questioning which context and opinion exists (Gnoth and Zins 2013: 739). Cultural tourism must, therefore, fulfil two basic functions in the tourism system: to be strong enough to pull people away from their homes and to provide tourists with satisfaction that they derive from travel (Strydom and Venske 2010: 249). In the case of South Africa, however, there also exists an issue in international tourists' demands not being met by South Africa's cultural product (Strydom and Venske 2010: 249). A gap also has been identified in cultural experiences, such as in museums, cuisines, curio shops and township experiences. These facets require improvements and diversification, notwithstanding the fact that cultural tourism in South Africa possesses a pulling power to get visitors into the country (Strydom and Venske 2010: 249). In order to enhance and develop South Africa's heritage and cultural tourism products, former South African Tourism Minister, Marthinus van Schalkwyk, launched a National Heritage and Cultural Tourism Strategy in 2012 (South African Tourism 2012). This marked an important milestone attained in producing a guiding framework and the first blueprint for the development of heritage and cultural tourism in South Africa (South African Tourism 2012), setting the following aims:

- To provide strategic guidance in order to support the integration and co-ordination of heritage and cultural resources into mainstream tourism for product development and sustainable tourism;
- To utilise heritage and cultural tourism products through strategic partnerships and through local community participation in order to stimulate sustainable livelihoods at community grass-roots levels;
- To provide an opportunity to increase awareness, increase education and to outline conservation needs of heritage and cultural resources for sustainable tourism, which is in line with value of respect for culture and heritage; and
- To provide an opportunity for the diversification of tourism products and the formalisation of the segment of heritage and cultural tourism towards contributing to the growth of tourism;



Furthermore, Marthinus van Schalkwyk also highlights that cultural heritage tourism has provided opportunities for a range of small, medium and micro enterprises (SMME's) in the arts and craft industry, cultural landscapes and heritage sites, as well as in cultural festivals (South African Tourism 2012). He further states that heritage and cultural tourism products create authenticity and uniqueness in the global tourism market (South African Tourism 2012). Marthinus van Schalkwyk also highlights heritage and culture as vital drivers in making a destination attractive and competitive, as it enhances the image and social cohesion of a destination (South African Tourism 2012). He concludes by stating that the country's heritage and cultural diversity have the potential to be packaged into quality, innovative and authentic products that meet the needs of the market and provide value for money (South African Tourism 2012).

As reported in the White Paper (South Africa. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 1996: 35), the guidelines to effectively manage and preserve cultural resources of South Africa include the following:

- i. ensure tourism takes note of cultural heritage resources within specific communities and environments;
- ii. cultural resources should be managed to the negotiated for the benefit of all interested parties within the communities;
- iii. access to management of cultural resources should be as broad as possible within specific communities and should promote co-operation between all affected parties; and
- iv. land-use planning and development projects for tourism should include effective protection and sustainable utilization of cultural resources.

### **2.9.2 Cultural tourism and community development**

Cultural tourism leads to community development, stimulating the economy through the tourism revenue and fostering pride to local communities (Slusariuc and Nedelea 2013: 40). Cultural tourism also creates communication and cultural understanding between host communities and tourists; further creating vibrant public areas and amenities that

result in enhanced quality of life for residents and tourists (Yamada, Heo, King and Fu 2011: 225; Gnoth and Zins 2013: 739; Slusariuc and Nedelea 2013: 40). In many countries, inclusive of European countries, culture is used as a catalyst in restoring the socio-economic environment and building strong community ties (Slusariuc and Nedelea 2013: 40). Since being recognised as a new type of tourism, cultural tourism has grown from being a niche market to being a recognisable and definable form of tourism (Wang, Yamada and Brothers 2011: 555). This includes other independent forms of tourism, such as heritage tourism, urban tourism, rural tourism, indigenous cultural tourism, contemporary tourism and arts tourism (Ivanovic 2008: 79; Mbaiwa and Sakuze 2009: 62; Wang, Yamada and Brothers 2011: 555).

Furthermore, Ivanovic (2008: 81) gives an interpretation of each of the following forms of tourism:

- Heritage tourism represents the history of a certain cultural group;
- Arts tourism includes travelling for the purpose of experiencing high culture such as high arts of opera, museum, exhibitions or theatre;
- Urban cultural tourism involves travelling to cultural cities offering a wide range of art, heritage and contemporary attractions, such as New York, where tourists find a mix of different cultures to be appealing;
- Rural cultural tourism includes travelling for the motive of experiencing tourism activities that are based in rural areas, such as engaging in ecotourism or tourism, and visiting second homes; and
- Indigenous tourism, which is interpreted as a tourism activity that allows indigenous people to be involved directly through control and by having their culture as the main attraction.

Okumus, Avci, Kilic and Walls (2012: 639); and Liu (2014: 973) divide cultural tourism into three dimensions: scope, type, time and travel:

- Scope: cultural tourism includes a wide range of activities and objects. This includes the basic elements of a daily life, work practices, local dress, history, language, handicrafts, historical destinations, religion, religious destinations, traditions, leisure activities, music, local cuisine, festivals and local communities;
- Type: tourists may either visit museums cultural villages or local communities to experience the community's way of life;
- Time: objects or performances can either reflect a historical or a present cultural theme; and
- Travel: cultural attractions can either be offered at various locations or can be immobile in nature, such as historical icons in museums.

Tourism increases cultural understanding and preserves cultural and national heritage Papanis and Kitrinou (2011: 319) by promoting cultural pride, enhancing infrastructure, benefiting the local communities through the provisioning of tourism and recreational facilities, improving the standard of living, stimulating the local economy, and broadening education and promoting peace (Goeldner and Ritchie 2009: 32; Acheampong 2011: 199; Dimoska and Petrevska 2012: 12).

Cultural tourism is interpreted as tourism whereby visitors learn about one another's history and behaviour (Slusariuc and Nedelea 2013: 39). This involves the movement of people for cultural purposes, such as cultural tours, travelling to cultural monuments, traveling to study folklore, and pilgrimages (Ivanovic 2008: 77; Slusariuc and Nedelea 2013: 40). Cultural tourism also includes visits to cultural attractions outside a person's place of residence, with an aim of gathering recent knowledge and experience that will satisfy an individual's cultural needs (Rudan 2010: 578). Such a visit (cultural visit) is motivated by an interest in history, arts, heritage and lifestyle of the location, region, or group (Urosevic 2010: 1307). "Cultural tourism is also a form of experiential tourism in search for new and deep cultural experiences for an aesthetic, intellectual, emotional and physiological motive" (Okumus, Avci, Kilic and Walls 2012: 639). This serves as the means to communication and connection and a catalyst in achieving economic, social and political empowerment (Debeş 2011: 236). Cultural tourism also comprises of

a tourism industry that is owned, controlled, accepted and desired by the local people; satisfying socio-cultural and economic needs; relying highly on cultural products, artefacts and the host population (Mbaiwa and Sakuze 2009: 62; Özel and Kozak 2012: 166). Cultural tourism focuses on communities with diverse customs, unique forms of art and discrete social practices that distinguish cultural tourism from other forms of culture (Özel and Kozak 2012: 166).

Regardless of culture being associated with a region or a specific ethnic group, it is crucial to consider the manner in which culture is portrayed; who has ownership of how it is presented, as well as whether or not local communities are being exploited as culture is being formed into tourism (Telfer and Sharpley 2008: 108). Therefore, host communities of cultural tourism should have control over what should be shown and withheld from the tourists in order to manage and control impacts from cultural tourism (Ivanovic 2008: 101).

## **2.10 Cultural Villages**

Cultural villages form a central part of a new industry after the 1994 period, while also serving as foundation to the heritage tourism in South Africa (Bovana 2010: 32). They are one of the main types of cultural tourism products in South Africa and employ a number of people who are knowledgeable about cultural activities and are able to ratify them to the visitors (Mearns 2007: 38). They are interpreted as purpose-built structures for the intention of tourist visitation and represent the way of life of a cultural group that existed or still exists (Conradie 2012: 3; Ndlovu 2013: 52). Furthermore, cultural villages also represent the way of living of local people, allowing visitors to learn about the culture of the people and their past and present ways of living (Moswete, Saarinen and Monare 2015: 281). The activities and attractions linked to cultural villages include guided tours, cultural exhibitions and craft workshops, where local people can be employed as tour guides and demonstrators. They usually consist of a homestead to display the living arrangements, an arena for dance, music and other live cultural displays (Mearns 2007: 38). More so, cultural villages are usually linked to craft shops,

traditional food outlets, as well as accommodation facilities which offer traditional dance performances and cultural displays (Bovana 2010: 38).

Many deprived communities in South Africa have ventured into the cultural village market, using their culture, both past and present, as a source of hope and employment (Mearns 2007: 38). South African cultural villages allow tourists an experience of how local inhabitants of a land once lived and are mainly found in the eastern part of South Africa (South African tourism 2015). The villages celebrate ethnic diversity of the country or focus on one ethnic group, enriching the tourist experience through broadening their knowledge and understanding (South African tourism 2015). Such cultural villages include:

- Lesedi Cultural Village which is cited as one of the best tourist attractions in South Africa, located in the core of the African bushveld among the rocky hills within the Cradle of Humankind, provides visitors an opportunity to learn about the captivating cultures and traditions of the people of Africa, which transcend the five traditional homesteads occupied by the Zulu, Xhosa, Pedi, Basotho and Ndebele tribes who live according to tribal folklore and traditions of their ancestors.
- Shangaana Cultural Village, located outside Hazyview, in Mpumalanga, celebrating Shangaan culture.
- Basotho Cultural Village, in the Free State, enabling visitors to experience authentic hospitality and learn about traditional arts, crafts and ways of life of the Basotho people; and
- Matsamo Cultural Village, located near Swaziland, provides visitors an authentic Swazi culture experience, which is well preserved in the area (South African Tourism 2016).

Furthermore, the cultural villages form part of a cultural representation with the history of the village normally being traced back to the colonial and apartheid periods, and have become popular attractions amongst tourists (Ndlovu 2013: 52). However, they are

criticised due to the manner in which they portray cultural identities as this has often catalysed the raising of questions on authenticity (Ndlovu 2013: 52). Criticism of such villages also relates to the relationship of the tourism income in cultural villages which is between the white manager, who is entitled to the major share of the tourism income, and the local community members of the host destination, who perform traditional dances in an unethical manner in order to generate income (Ndlovu 2013: 52). South African cultural villages are now believed to be representing inaccuracy and myths of indigenous communities, presenting cultural traditions in a manner that is regarded as being romantic, superficial and ahistorical and is believed to be authentic in the global and in the tourist imagination (Conradie 2012: 4; Ndlovu 2013: 52-53). Additionally, cultural villages are constructed in order to satisfy the expectations of western tourists rather than satisfying the expectations of the indigenous community, whose culture is being represented, with some cultural villages not being in a hospitality form or in a culture sharing form which exists in indigenous cultures; as they seem to portray the western culture (Conradie 2012: 4; Ndlovu 2013: 54). Cultural villages often provide tourists with a short, clean version of history that does not represent political influence, but rather represents cultural commodification and tribalism stereotyping, which is based on European influence that promotes an opinion which is not based on actual experience but that is rather biased to the culture of indigenous people (Conradie 2012: 4). Ndlovu (2012: 52) further indicates that the Zulu cultural villages in South Africa create negative imaginations of Zulu identities in the constructed images of the villages that form part of the entangled package of racialized multiple and heterogeneous global hierarchies.

Ndlovu (2013: 54); and Moswete, Saarinen and Monare (2015: 281-282) further argue that ownership of the cultural villages is divided into the following three categories:

- i. White entrepreneurs, who are outsiders to the culture, being represented with an intention to either generate income through the cultural village or to use the cultural village to promote other businesses linked to the cultural village, such as hotels and curio shops;

- ii. Indigenous entrepreneurs, who establish cultural villages based on their cultures in order to obtain income and to also create cultural understanding and cultural exchange; and
- iii. The state, who encourages the idea of a cultural village with the aim of strengthening projects that are based on a country's history. The state is also most likely interested in preserving indigenous cultures and local development through employment creation.

Ndlovu (2013: 55) emphasises his argument with the case of the Phezulu Safari Park. This park is situated at Botha's hill, 35 kilometres from Durban in the KwaZulu-Natal Province in South Africa. Since the inception of this park, the Zulu culture has been showcased, whereby tourists gain an insight into the Zulu beliefs and rituals. However, the park displays a stereotype image of the African identity (Ndlovu 2013: 59). Ndlovu (2012: 55); and Ndlovu (2013: 59) further elucidates his argument when he mentions that cultural villages in South Africa often portray the Zulu culture as violent, vicious people who are feared and admired for their braveness, particularly for the role of Shaka Zulu, who conquered certain clans and tribes in Zululand and found the Zulu nation through unity. Such portrayal is depicted through witchdoctors, warrior dance performances and traditional weapons (Ndlovu 2013: 59). Ndlovu (2012: 55) further argues that the entrance to the Phezulu Safari Park has a signpost with a picture of a crocodile. However, in this safari park, there are members of Zulu communities who perform Zulu culture before an audience but there is no hint that human beings are part of the tourism package in this signpost. The Phezulu Safari Park is also decorated with pictures of animals and birds, giving an impression that Phezulu Safari Park has more to do with animals than human beings (Ndlovu 2012: 55). Another issue raised by Ndlovu (2013: 60) is the uneven share of income generated through the Phezulu Safari Park where the larger portion goes to the Phezulu Safari Park business. Some of the community members residing in close proximity to Phezulu Safari Park have often benefitted more financially as the Phezulu Safari Park is strategically situated near a hotel serving as a draw card to generate income in the hotel business (Ndlovu 2013: 59-60). Furthermore, he asserts that cultural villages in South Africa cannot be viewed as

generous, as there are only few or no goodwill projects constructed to benefit the indigenous communities; but can be viewed as a way to exploit cultural resources for the benefit of the Phezulu Safari Park business (Ndlovu 2013: 60). The white populace is often the managers or owners of cultural villages, while the majority of tourists are whites; who are being entertained by Black performers. This trend has continued to represent South Africa's historic racial hierarchies of the past which were caused by a division of labour which makes the exploitation of local communities' to appear as normal, natural and unquestionable (Ndlovu 2013: 60). Hence, it is, therefore, important to determine whether the SZCV case mimics the issues highlighted in the literature or whether different cultural villages, that are linked to tourism businesses and communities, offer different benefits.

### **2.10.1 Cultural villages and community development**

Cultural villages have great potential to contribute to a more equitable distribution of tourism-based developments and produces positive and direct benefits to communities across the country (Moswete, Saarinen and Monare 2015: 282). Cultural villages create employment and income, through traditional performances, arts and crafts centres, offering guided tours to tourists, as well as allowing local community members to sell their local produce (Zhou and Liu 2008: 150; Conradie 2012: 1-5). These villages allow individuals and groups to build their identities, re-addressing stereotyping and educating local communities to preserve their cultural heritage and customs (Zhou and Liu 2008: 150; Conradie 2012: 1-5). Cultural villages also educate and create awareness for local communities about their own history and identity; providing a clear understanding of community tourism; restoring culture and making it more attractive to tourists; fostering cultural pride, as well as further allowing local communities to achieve financial independence and self-sufficiency and confidence (Zhou and Liu 2008: 149-152; Conradie 2012: 5-7). It further stimulates a sense of responsibility for local communities to protect and pass on their culture (Zhou and Liu 2008: 152). Cultural villages also allow communities to participate in tourism of their indigenous area, further allowing co-operation between local residents, public and private sector as well as professional artists, thus, enhancing the quality of life of local residents (Hong and Lee 2014: 750-



753). Developing natural landscapes and improving environmental quality further creates environmental awareness and encourages local communities to protect their natural environment (Zhou and Liu 2008: 147-152). Moreover, local communities receive training on how to deliver quality customer service and how to keep the tourism facility in the expectations of the tourists (Zhou and Liu 2008: 154).

## **2.11 Conclusion**

This chapter discussed tourism and its contribution to community development, with emphasis to economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts that tourism has on the local community. From the literature review provided, it is clear that tourism has an economic, social and environmental significance which creates employment, enhances cultural understanding and preserves cultural and national heritage. The chapter further highlighted that tourism promotes cultural pride, enhances infrastructure, and benefits the local communities through the provision of tourism and recreational facilities. Moreover, the afore-narrated literates assert that tourism improves the standard of living, stimulates the local economy, broadens education and promotes peace. On the contrary, it also accounts for costs caused by inappropriate development or over-development causing environmental degradation, leading to a rise in the price of land and goods; affecting the values of the indigenous or host community; resulting in crowding, social conflicts, and loss of control from the host community. The literature also emphasised the imperativeness of community empowerment and the need to participate in the tourism planning, decision-making and development processes. The concluding section of this chapter highlighted the adverse and inverse consequences of cultural villages on their immediate community.

The next chapter provides a detailed explanation of the methodology used in this study.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides an explanation of the type of research approach applied in this study and the data collection method used in order to achieve the aim and objectives of the study. The chapter discusses the research design, the Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village case study, the target population of the study, sampling method, as well as how data were analysed. Pilot testing and confidentiality, validity, reliability and ethical considerations are also discussed in this chapter.

#### **3.2 Research Approach**

Research approaches are plans and procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (Creswell 2014: 1). This plan comprises several decisions, however the overall decision involves which approach should be used to study a topic (Creswell 2014: 1). The selection of a research approach is also based on the nature of the research problem being addressed, the researcher's personal experiences, and the audiences for the study (Creswell 2014: 1).

##### **3.2.1 Interpretive paradigm**

This study adopted a qualitative approach within the interpretive paradigm, which is essential for a qualitative research. The study also consisted of some form of quantitative approach. However, greater emphasis was placed on the qualitative approach. An interpretive paradigm is explained as a paradigm guided by a set of beliefs and feelings about the world and how it should be studied and understood (Denzin and Lincoln 2013: 26). In this paradigm, the focus of the researcher is to understand lived experiences and to explore the manner in which people interpret and make sense of the world in which they live (Grbich 2013: 7; Ormston, Spencer, Barnard and Snape 2014: 22). Interpretivists assert that the subjective interpretation of reality makes reality to be fully understood (Dhingra and Dhingra 2012: 2). Therefore, for this

study, the aim was to gather rich, in-depth data from employees of SZCV, regarding their views and experiences on SZCV's contribution to community development in Eshowe.

### **3.2.2 Qualitative approach**

The qualitative approach is not built upon a single theory, but uses flexible methods and approaches that enable contact with the respondents involved in the research (Gray 2014: 161). It provides rich descriptive data required to be interpreted through identification and coding of themes and categories, generating qualitative findings that provide theoretical knowledge and practical use (Boeije 2010: 11). Moreover, it allows respondents the freedom in determining what is relevant, and providing relevancy in their own context (Flick 2011: 14; Gray 2014: 161). The methods and techniques used in this approach include ethnography, grounded theory, narrative analysis, phenomenology, cultural studies, interviews, survey research, participant observation, feminism as well as participatory research (Boeije 2010: 8; Denzin and Lincoln 2013: 12; Gray 2014: 161). This approach involves collecting more in-depth information from respondents (Dawson 2009: 15). This enables the researcher to examine people's experience in detail through research methods such as in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, observations and life histories (Denscombe 2010: 273; Hennink, Hutter and Bailey 2010: 9). Furthermore, it allows the researcher to identify issues from participants' perspectives and to understand meanings and interpretations provided by respondents with regards to behaviour, events or objects; providing an interpretive understanding of the human experience (Boeije 2010: 8; Hennink, Hutter and Bailey 2010: 9; Wagner, Kawulich and Garner 2012: 126; Denzin and Lincoln 2013: 13).

The qualitative approach can be used in a case where little information is known about the phenomenon being studied or can be used to gather new information on issues where much information is already known (Gray 2014: 162). Conducting qualitative research provides an in-depth understanding of complex issues; identifying and explaining social or cultural norms of a culture or a community; addressing 'why' questions to explain and understand issues and 'how' questions that define procedures or behaviours (Hennink, Hutter and Bailey 2010: 9; Neuman 2011: 165). In qualitative

research, questions are more exploratory and open-ended in nature, and respondents are required to answer the questions spontaneously using their own words (Flick 2011: 12; Grbich 2013: 26). Thus, this study applied the qualitative approach as a means to obtaining an in-depth and emic perspective from the respondents of the study.

### **3.2.3 A historical overview of qualitative research**

Qualitative research was developed in the late 19th century and was rapidly adopted in social sciences (Ormston, Spencer, Barnard and Snape 2014: 13). This approach took place in a form of ethnographic work in America and Britain, which focused on understanding the social world or culture, shared behaviour, beliefs and values of a certain group (Ormston, Spencer, Barnard and Snape 2014: 13). By the mid-twentieth century, a high level of community studies were carried out, especially in the United Kingdom, by sociologists Young, Willmott and Frankenburg (Ormston, Spencer, Barnard and Snape 2014: 13). It was during this period (twentieth century) that more qualitative researchers began to engage more directly with their study respondents gathering their views through interviews rather than carrying out observations (Ormston, Spencer, Barnard and Snape 2014: 13).

### **3.2.4 Quantitative approach**

The quantitative approach is a type of approach for testing objective theories through examining the relationship among variables (Creswell 2014: 4). The variables can be measured on instruments so that the numbered data can be analysed using statistical procedures (Creswell 2014: 4). Therefore, this study applied the quantitative approach for the purpose of analysing the numbered data from the respondents.

### **3.2.5 Life History Approach**

The life history approach is a collection of an individual or group's lived experience, in the past and present, which is analysed by researchers who then combine narrative accounts with social, political economic and historical contexts where the experiences took place (Bathmaker and Harnett 2010: 3; Gill and Goodson 2011: 157). The focus of this approach is to understand the relationship between social change and the life of an individual or groups (Gill and Goodson 2011: 157). Often, using a qualitative approach

to collect data through in-depth interviews, allows the researcher to encourage a flow in the interview with minimal interrogation, permitting the participant to control the sequencing of his/her stories, thus, reducing the issue of giving power to the researcher (Gill and Goodson 2011: 160). The nature of the research approach is to understand how the patterns of different life stories can be linked to their wider historical, social, environmental, and political contexts (Adriansen 2010: 41).

In life history research, the researcher analyses how people talk about their lives, experiences, events in life and the social context they occupy (Germeten 2013: 612). The researcher becomes intimately acquainted with respondents by listening to the stories of past experiences, feelings and meanings attached to those experiences (Olive 2012: 248). In order to understand the contribution of tourism to community development, the researcher used the Life History Approach, which allowed respondents to talk about their experiences with regards to the contribution of community development in SZCV.

### **3.3 Research design**

A research design is a plan, structure and strategy of investigation that the researcher uses in order to obtain answers to the research questions or problem, answering questions validly, objectively and accurately (Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2009: 49; Kumar 2011: 94). The research design also allows the researcher to decide the type of study design he/she will use; how data will be collected from respondents; how respondents will be selected; how data will be analysed, and how the findings will be structured (Kumar 2011: 94).

#### **3.3.1 The case study**

This study adopted the case study methodology. A case study is a strategy in which the researcher goes into much depth to understand the phenomenon being studied Creswell (2009: 13), with the focus of the study being an event, an activity, a geographic area, a process of one or more individuals, a group, a community, a sub- group of a population, a town or a city which must be regarded as one entity (Kumar 2011: 126). Furthermore, the focus must not only be on demographics or statistics of a case, but

also on participants' perceptions and experiences (Mabry 2008: 215; Creswell 2009: 13; Kumar 2011: 126; Denzin and Lincoln 2013: 47; Harding 2013: 16). Case studies are also strongly associated with qualitative research, as they allow for the generation of various methods of data collection (Gray 2014: 163; Lewis and Nicholls 2014: 66). The approach is used when a single viewpoint cannot provide a full explanation of the research issue (Lewis and Nicholls 2014: 66).

Rule and John (2011: 4) interpret a case study as a methodical and in-depth investigation of a particular instance in order to generate knowledge. Furthermore, Kumar (2011: 126) points out that, when selecting a case, the researcher normally uses purposive, judgmental or information-oriented sampling techniques, which is also the case in this study as the researcher selected purposive sampling techniques. Case studies also provide an insight and an understanding into a certain instance, and can be used to explore a general problem within a limited and focused setting, providing transferability on other similar cases (Rule and John 2011: 7). The case selected for this study was Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village in Eshowe. In this study, the researcher investigates the extent to which SZCV contributes to local community development in Eshowe, using the SZCV employees as a case study.

### **3.3.2 Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village case study**

SZCV is located 160km away from the city of Durban in the heart of Eshowe, within the municipality of uMlalazi (see Figure 3.1) and was originally built for the filming of the highly commended international television series Shaka Zulu in 1984 to 1985. This film showcased the life of the ruler of the Zulu empire - King Shaka Zulu (Shakaland 2015). SZCV was later used for the filming of other television programmes such as the John Ross story which was filmed in 1986, and Ipi ntombi in 1990 (Shakaland 2015).

Currently, the cultural village offers visitors from all over the world a unique Zulu culture experience including a better understanding of the Zulu people and their customs, (Shakaland 2015).

Owned by Tourvest in Zululand, the cultural village includes a cattle pen and is divided into 55 rooms which are in a form of beehive huts that include authentic African decor,

complete with wooden interiors, thatched roofs and an earthy, warm atmosphere (Tourvest 2012; Shakaland 2015). The Shisa Nyama restaurant, with its authentic setting and traditional Zulu style, offers guests an opportunity to enjoy ethnic dishes (aha 2016). The arts and crafts on display are nothing short of impressive in their diversity and colourful loveliness (aha 2016). The surroundings of the village are peaceful with the hills in the east offering a splendid view of the Mhlatuze Valley, where Shaka's military stronghold, Kwa Bulawayo, once stood (aha 2016). Activities in Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village include:

#### Nandi experience

This includes a three-hour daytime adventure named in honour of Shaka's mother – Nandi. It permits tourists to enjoy an audio visual presentation of the life of Shaka Zulu, followed by a guided tour through the Shakaland Royal Kraal.

#### Team building activities

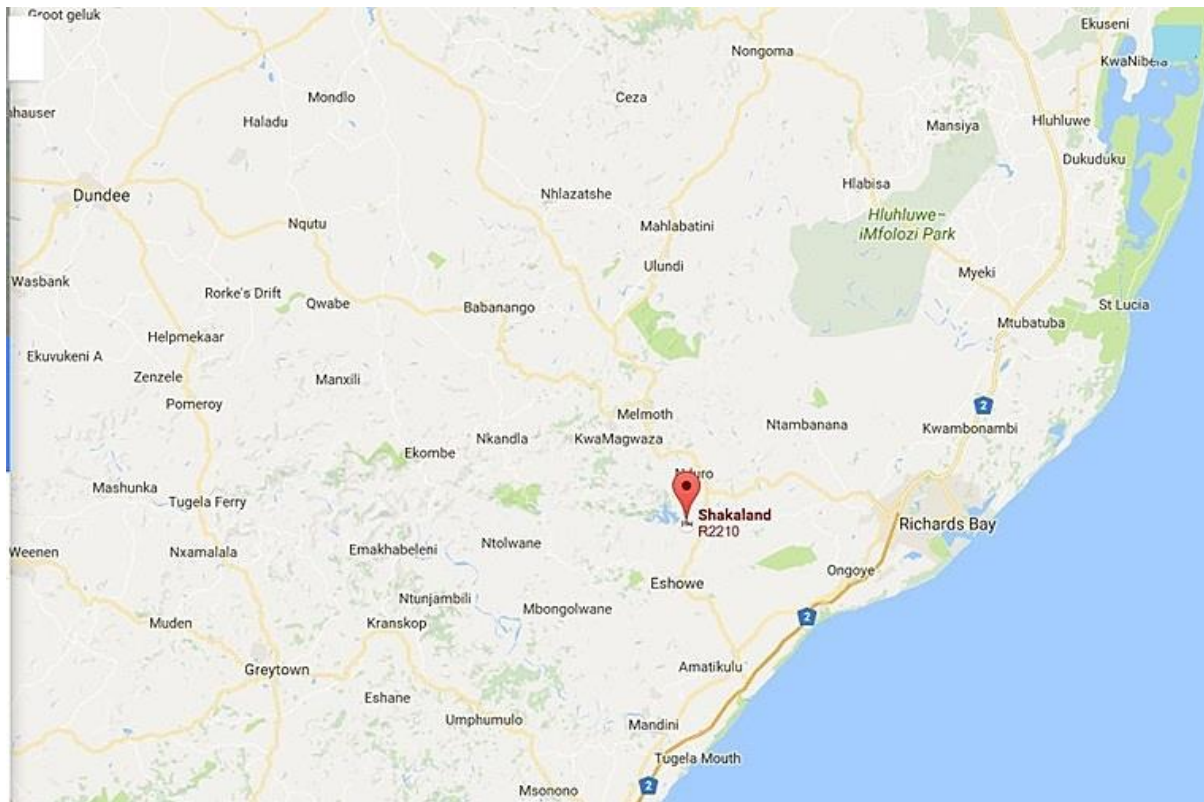
This includes activities whereby participants represent their respective tribes in a game. These participants are being trained by a Zulu warrior to throw traditional and hunting spears. Teams may also enjoy a game of survivor whereby each team finds objects needed to survive in Zululand, which are hidden in and around Shakaland.

#### School/educational programmes

The school programme includes activities such as ukweshela (the courtship ceremony), induku (stick fighting), imikhonto (spear making), isangoma (whereby school children visit a Sangoma or Inyanga; indlu yesthombe (an audio visual presentation on an overview of Shaka's life); amabutho (fighting formations), whereby the chief demonstrates the art of warfare and explains how King Shaka Zulu was able to build a Zulu nation in his reign of twelve years; ixhiba (beer making and a demonstration of hut building); KwaNgema (the home chief Ngema) as well as the beer drinking ceremony.

## Cultural tour

Guided by an English- speaking African guide dressed in ethnic Zulu attire, the cultural tour includes foot stomping, tribal dancing by assegai-wielding warriors dressed in traditional animal skin, consultations with a sangoma (a spiritual leader believed to have the ability to communicate with the ancestors) and consultations with the inyanga (traditional herbalist), as well as engaging in spear making, pot making and beer-making ceremonies (Shakaland 2015).



**Figure 3.1: Map of Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village and surrounding areas**

**Source:** (Google Maps. 2016)

*Nb: SZCV is situated in the earmarked Shakaland region*

### **3.3.3 uMlalazi Municipality**

uMlalazi Local Municipality is one of six local municipalities located within the area of the uThungulu District Municipality (The local government handbook 2012). The



municipality is one of the largest local authority areas in South Africa (The local government handbook 2012).

The Municipality is made up of Eshowe (which is the case study area of the current study), Mtunzini, and Gingindlovu (uMlalazi Local Municipality 2012). The main economic sectors in uMlalazi include agriculture, which accounts for 33%, tourism, which accounts for 10.1% and, manufacturing, which accounts for 5% (The local government handbook 2012).

The municipal area appears to have sufficient sources for the provision of water. A complicating factor is the rippling topography, which is characteristic of the entire municipal area (The local government handbook 2012). Main roads through the area are in good condition. However, the district roads and farm roads (including the road leading to SZCV which is situated in an orange farm) are in poor condition and in need of upgrading (The local government handbook 2012).

### **3.3.4 Eshowe**

Eshowe is the oldest town of European settlement in Zululand and lies in the Uthungulu district of Zululand (SA-Venues.com 2016). The area has been the home to four Zulu Kings, namely, Shaka, Mpande, Cetshwayo and Dinizulu and was the British military headquarters after the Anglo-Zulu war of 1879 (SA-Venues.com 2016; Zululand-eco-adventures 2016). The rich natural diversity, refreshing climate and a variety of unusual attractions draw the human habitation to Eshowe (Tourism-KwaZulu-Natal 2016).

### **3.4 Target Population**

Gray (2009: 148) interprets a population as the total number of possible units included in a study, or the total specified group of study elements. In this study, the target population consisted of 84 individuals employed by SZCV.

### **3.5 Sampling method**

Sampling methods in qualitative research aim to present a wide range of perspectives and experiences (Boeije 2010: 35-36; Flick 2011: 12). The sample is being intentionally

selected according to the relevance and needs of the research, with cases being specifically selected as they provide rich information and educate researchers about issues that are important in research (Boeije 2010: 35-36; Flick 2011: 12). The selection of sample respondents in qualitative research is often flexible. This occurs once the field work begins, with the sample being small or in a form of single cases (Gray 2014: 217). This study adopted a purposive sampling method which Gray (2014: 217) interprets as a method whereby the researcher chooses respondents that will provide the best perspective on the phenomenon of interest. Bryman and Bell (2011: 442) interpret purposive sampling method as a non-probability form whereby the researcher samples respondents in a strategic manner, in terms of relevancy to the research questions and objectives of the study. Purposive samples are, therefore, used when people, events or surroundings are selected because they provide significant information that could not be gained from other sampling designs (Gray 2014: 217). In order for the researcher to achieve the aim and objectives of the study, interviews were conducted with 84 individuals employed at SZCV.

### **3.5.1 Sample Size**

Sampling involves defining which groups, cases or fields will be used in the study (Flick 2011: 50). For this study, the researcher purposely selected 84 employees of SZCV. The sample was purposely selected on the basis that they are employees of the SZCV. Hence, the researcher anticipated to conduct interviews with 84 respondents. However, only 65 respondents were willing to participate.

The sample comprised of employees and is broken into two categories:

#### **Senior staff members**

Maintenance manager, food and beverage supervisor, housekeeping supervisor;

#### **General employees**

Unit accountant, reservationist, receptionists, inventory clerk, porter, security guards, drivers, room attendants, waitresses, bar lady, bar man, chefs, scullery, food and

beverage cleaners, maintenance labourers, cultural chiefs, sangoma, herbalist, cultural guides, cultural dancers as well as cultural women.

**Table 3.1: Sample dynamics**

<b>Population</b>	<b>Sampling</b>	<b>Sample number</b>	<b>Data collection method</b>
SZCV employees	Purposive sampling	84	Face-to-face semi-structured interviews

**Source:** Self-generated by the researcher

### **3.6 Measuring Instrument**

In order to develop a measuring instrument, research questions are transformed into topics which are raised during the interview (Boeije 2010: 67). Furthermore, when the interview is selected as a measuring instrument, the researcher must prepare a clear and engaging introduction for the interview, introduce himself/herself as well as the research, and ask for permission to record the interview (Boeije 2010: 69). The researcher must make it clear to the respondents that they may stop the interview if needed, indicate how long the interview will take, explain the motive of the interview and thank respondents for participating at the end of the study (Boeije 2010: 69).

There are a number of measuring instruments that can be used, namely - interviews, questionnaires, focus groups and observations (Acheampong 2011:177). The interview was employed as the measuring instrument in this study in order to gather data to meet the objectives of the study. The interview questions were structured in a way that allowed flow and continuity of the interview. Respondents were also able to clearly observe matters that related to the research question. Furthermore, the interview enabled the researcher to obtain respondents' views on the matters relating to the study, further enabling more interview topics related to the study to emerge during the conversation.

### **3.6.1 Layout and contents of the interview questions**

An informative section about the interview was placed at the beginning of the interview question. This included the name of the person interviewed, date of the interview, as well as the place of the interview. Each interview was divided into the following sections:

**Section A:** Included demographics questions including respondents' age, gender, race, residential and educational information as well as information regarding employment at the SZCV;

**Section B:** Tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees; type of employment as well as job satisfaction levels;

**Section C:** Capacity-building opportunities (the training offered to SZCV employees), considering the type of training offered to SZCV employees, duration of training offered to SZCV employees as well as whether or not SZCV employees received any certificates for the training encountered;

**Section D:** Highlighted the employment information of SZCV employees as well as the historical information of employment prior to being employed at SZCV - including positions held and promotion opportunities offered prior to working at SZCV as well as an indication of salary increase since being employed at SZCV;

**Section E:** Community participation in the decision-making and tourism planning process within the SZCV; including whether or not SZCV employees were involved in the decision-making and planning process of tourism in SZCV; and

**Section F:** Highlighted the contribution of tourism in SZCV; analysing how the SZCV contributed to community development; provided examples on the impact that SZCV has on the community; a mention on any community development programme that SZCV has in order to inform the local community about how they can benefit from being involved in SZCV, as well as respondents' views for improving community development in Eshowe.

### **3.7 Respondent recruitment**

The researcher approached the General Manager to seek permission to conduct the study with the employees of the SZCV. This was done through email correspondence. The General Manager confirmed through email that it was fine to go ahead with the study (appendix D: 175). Upon arrival at SZCV, the researcher met with the manager of SZCV to discuss the procedure for the selection of respondents. The manager then introduced two key employees who introduced the rest of the respondents to the researcher. The researcher then met each respondent of the study, introduced and explained the research topic and aim along with the consent form that each respondent was supposed to sign once they read and understood the contents of the form. The researcher then explained to the respondents that one of the requirements for the Masters of Technology Degree at the Durban University of Technology is to conduct fieldwork using questionnaires or interviews, or any other suitable approach. The researcher emphasised the imperativeness of conducting interviews to the respondents of the study. The researcher then went along to explain each interview question in the respondents' native language as a means to providing an in-depth understanding on the nature of their participation in the study. The researcher then proceeded with the interview questions which took about fifteen minutes for each respondent.

### **3.8 Data Collection**

There are a variety of means by which data are collected in qualitative research. The researcher can use verbal material from daily life, such as chat sessions, advertisements; and request organisations and individuals to correspond through letters, minutes and emails (Boeije 2010: 58). Researchers may also conduct interviews or invite people to participate in focus groups, or request permission to observe and take part in the daily lives of the studied respondents (Boeije 2010: 58). For this study, the data collection method used was semi- structured interviews. This served as the primary data collection method. Interviews were conducted with 84 employees of SZCV including senior staff members and general employees.

### 3.8.1 Interviews

An interview is a conversation between the interviewer and the participant (Nieuwenhuis 2010: 87). During the conversation process, the interviewer asks questions and collects data from the respondents (Nieuwenhuis 2010: 87).

Interviewing is described as an intimate process which offers the researcher an opportunity to know and understand how the respondents think and feel (Terre Blanche and Kelly 1999: 128). Additionally, interviews are prepared and executed in a systematic manner (Sarantakos 2003: 246). Interviews provide the researcher an opportunity to learn about social life through the perspectives, experiences and language of the people living in it, with respondents being provided an opportunity to share their story and knowledge and providing their own perspective on a range of topics (Boeije 2010: 62). Qualitative interviews provide the researcher an opportunity to pay attention to the views or experiences of each respondent for an extended period of time (Harding 2013: 22; Morgan 2014: 51). This allows the researcher to ask questions that are intended to help the respondents to think more deeply about the issue at hand; and also exploring ideas further (Harding 2013: 22; Morgan 2014: 51). The current study utilised semi-structured interviews to gather relevant information from the respondents. All interviews conducted in this study were face-to-face interviews however they were not recorded.

Gray (2014: 177) explains that data can be obtained by using open-ended questions, and can be informal, conversational or semi-structured in cases where additional questions are to be used or can be in a standardised form. Qualitative interviews are not entirely pre-structured in relation to their contents, formulation sequence and answers. However, through preparation, a researcher is able to draft a list of topics and questions to be asked in the interview *semi-structured* (Boeije 2010: 62).

Therefore, the strengths of a qualitative interview, summarised by Morgan (2014: 51), include the following:

- allows interview topics to emerge during the conversation;

- allows the researcher to listen to other people's interpretations and perspectives; and
- allows the researcher to collect depth and details on a range of factors related to a topic.

Wisker (2008: 192); and Hennink, Hutter and Bailey (2010: 109-110) highlight the following areas where interviews are crucial:

- in determining how people make decisions;
- in investigating people's beliefs and perceptions;
- in determining motivations for behaviour;
- in establishing interpretations attached by people to their experiences;
- in examining people's feelings and emotions;
- in examining people's personal biographies or stories;
- in examining the context surrounding people's lives; and
- when covering issues that are sensitive.

### **3.8.2 Semi-structured Interviews**

Semi structured interviews are the most common form of interview used in qualitative research (Dawson 2009: 28; Robson 2011: 280; Gray 2014: 385). Semi-structured interviews provide structure and guidance to the interview; the researcher has a guide to follow with a number of topics and a limited number of questions on which each respondent comments (Robson 2011: 280; Rubin and Rubin 2012: 31; Harding 2013: 31).

Semi-structured interviews include an interview schedule which reflects what the interviewer says in an introduction form, introductions to questions or to a group of questions Robson (2011: 261), a range of possible answers to questions, response codes, as well as closing comments (Robson 2011: 261). In a semi- structured

interview, the interview schedule includes preliminary comments, list of topic headings and key questions to ask under the headings, response codes, as well as closing comments (Robson 2011: 285).

This form of interview includes both the researcher's topics of interest and additional interests and insights raised by the participant, which were not anticipated at the start of the interview, as new issues arise (Flick 2011: 112; Gray 2014: 385; Morgan 2014: 54). Flick (2011: 112) further asserts that this form of data collection enables respondents to respond extensively as they wish, and expand on their answers. One feature of this type of interview is the use of both closed- and open-ended questions (Flick 2011: 112). In this study, each staff member employed at SZCV was interviewed using semi-structured interviews.

### **3.9 Data analysis**

When analysing interviews, the researcher has to make a decision whether to rely on notes or to record the interview dialogue on a tape recorder or on another electronic device (Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2009: 248). The interview provides both a process of data selection and interpretation. Therefore, the researcher needs to rapidly decide what is to be noted down and how it must be phrased (Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2009: 248-249). Hence, it is important for the researcher to be selective in the study field and record notes in a manner that allows the data collected to correspond to research questions (Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2009: 249).

#### **3.9.1 Qualitative data analysis**

In qualitative research, there exists general approaches to analysis which provide a useful framework as well as valuable knowledge about the nature of qualitative analysis (Henn, Weinstein and Foard 2009: 253; Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, O'Connor and Barnard 2014: 271-272). Approaches to qualitative analysis also differ between different traditions in terms of the main focus and aims of the analytical process (Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, O'Connor and Barnard 2014: 272). These include: ethnographic accounts, life histories which is the approach adopted in the current study, narrative



analysis, content analysis among others (Spencer, Ritchie, Ormston, O'Connor and Barnard 2014: 270-271).

The qualitative data, in this study, were analysed using thematic analysis. The researcher identified themes from descriptions provided by respondents when the interviews were conducted. Thematic analysis is a qualitative method for identifying, analysing, and reporting insight into patterns within the data set (Braun and Clarke 2014: 57).

Braun and Clarke (2014: 60-69) provide a six-phase process to conducting a thematic analysis:

- 1) Familiarizing yourself with the data and identifying items of potential interest;
- 2) Generating initial codes;
- 3) Searching for themes;
- 4) Reviewing potential themes;
- 5) Defining and naming themes; and
- 6) Producing the report.

Such processes were used for the current study. However, a professional statistician was also employed to intensify the validity and reliability in this study.

### **3.9.2 Quantitative data analysis**

Graphs, cross tabulations and figures were used for analytical purposes. Inferential statistics, using Spearman's correlations at a significance level of 0.05, was employed. The SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) analysis programme was used to analyse data. Bryman and Cramer (2009: 21) suggest that the advantage of using the SPSS programme is that it enables the researcher to analyse quantitative data rapidly and in many different ways, eliminating long hours spent on scores, carrying out calculations and making unavoidable mistakes that occur while such calculations are

carried out. The quantitative data were analysed using descriptive statistics. The results obtained from the quantitative data are shown through tables and figures in order to show the frequency of occurrence, as well as identifying statistical relationships between the variables. The quantitative responses in this study are developed into various themes and coded.

### **3.10 Pilot testing**

A pilot study is a small scale version of what the researcher intends to conduct in his/her study (Robson 2011: 141).

According to Gray (2009: 359), pilot testing helps eliminate questions that are confusing and unreliable. It enables the researcher to fine tune the questions posed and reduces ambiguity. Pilot testing enhances the response rate amongst respondents in the final questionnaire draft.

In the current study, a pilot study of 6 interviews was conducted with SZCV employees in order to test validity and reliability of the interview questions. The employees were individually addressed on the motives for gathering data. The researcher then conducted interviews with each individual respondent. The results from the pilot test indicated that the researcher had to make adjustments to the interview questions in order to create a flow in the interview questions, while some other questions in the interview were also rephrased to facilitate a better understanding of questions posed.

### **3.11 Delimitation**

The study is limited to the SZCV employees. This study is also geographically confined to the province of KwaZulu-Natal. This province has eleven districts, namely - Amajuba, eThekweni, iLembe, Sisonke, Ugu, uMgungundlovu, uMkhanyakude, uMzinyathi, uThukela, Uthungulu and Zululand. The focus was on one area in the district of uThungulu, which is divided into seven areas (Babanango, Empangeni, Eshowe, Mandini, Melmorth, Mtunzini and Richard's Bay). The researcher's focus, however, was on the community of Eshowe due to the tourism activities in this locality. Furthermore, this community related to the aim of the study. The province of KwaZulu-Natal has

several cultural villages, namely; Dumazulu traditional village, Simunye Cultural Village, Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village, Phezulu Village, Isithumbu Zulu village; Thanda Zulu Viillage, Simunye Cultural Village, Izintaba Zulu Cultural Village. However, the current study is based on the Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village.

### **3.12 Limitations**

Some of the employees of the SZCV were not willing to participate in the study and, as a result, the number of respondents in the study decreased from the intended 84 respondents to 65. Travelling to SZCV was time-constraining and cost intensive. More so, the remoteness of the area also posed difficulty in accessibility of the cultural village.

### **3.13 Confidentiality and anonymity**

When conducting research, researchers make a commitment to maintain participants' confidentiality and anonymity by not disclosing the names of respondents that have taken part in the research as well as not reporting respondents' comments in ways that will make them identifiable (Webster, Lewis and Brown 2014: 96). Confidentiality involves an assurance made by the researcher not to reveal respondents' identity or present the research findings in any way that will enable a participant's identity to be revealed (Saunders and Thornhill 2012: 667). In this study, confidentiality and anonymity was assured through using the data collected for the purpose of a dissertation; and the names and the information provided by the respondents were not disclosed to a third party.

### **3.14 Validity and reliability**

Validity refers to the issue of whether or not an instrument or indicator, that has been used, really measures what it intended to measure (Bryman and Bell 2011: 159; Gray 2014: 150). In semi-structured interviews, validity is measured by ensuring that the question content focuses on the research objectives (Gray 2014: 388). For this study, validity was assured through the design of the interview questions; which included questions relating to the work history of SZCV employees, information on capacity building as well as descriptions of various ways in which tourism in SZCV contributes to

community development in Eshowe. The strategy used to collect data also ensured validity. This was possible by the use of a qualitative and quantitative approach, whereby the researcher was able to examine people's experience in detail through conducting interviews with SZCV employees as well as examining the relationship among variables in the current study. Validity is not an aspect that qualitative researchers generally strive for. However, they tend to seek credibility in relation to the aspect of the verification of research (Denscombe 2010: 299; Major and Savin-Baden 2010: 20).

Gray (2009: 158) points out that reliability takes place when a research instrument gives the same results whether it is being measured today or the next day. The results will be consistent. Reliability is based on whether a measure is consistent when used in a different context, with the focus being on replication *being able to repeat the same results* (Mason 2014: 92-93). To ensure reliability of the research instrument used in this study, six interviews were conducted with SZCV employees for pilot testing.

### **3.15 Ethical consideration**

Research is a human practice whereby social values and ethical principles apply. Hence, the researcher needs to consider whether the research conducted will exploit respondents or deceive them in any way; will the publication of the study be detrimental to respondents of the study; and will respondents be identified despite the measures taken to protect their identity (Boeije 2010: 44).

Research ethics refers to moral principles that guide a research, guiding moral choices of behaviour and relationships with others, allowing research to be conducted in a manner that is responsible and morally defensible (Gray 2014: 68). The aim of research ethics is to ensure that no research processes violates human rights, causes any form of harm or reveals the confidential nature of each individual participant involved in the study (Gray 2014: 68). Research ethics also includes a commitment to respect respondents and their privacy, a commitment to knowledge and protecting the researcher as well as ensuring that an informed consent is provided to respondents (Wisker 2008: 86; Robson 2011: 197; Gray 2014: 73).

Ethical guidelines inform researchers that they should not physically or psychologically harm respondents and should provide a fully informed consent where human subjects are involved, (Wisker 2008: 87; Harding 2013: 25). The informed consent ensures that respondents are able to decide whether or not to participate in the study, providing full knowledge of study risks and benefits and how respondents can actively participate giving their consent (Bulmer 2008: 150; Boeije 2010: 45). The respondents in a research study have a right to withdraw from the study at any time, even if they signed an informed consent (Wisker 2008: 87; Boeije 2010: 45). In order to avoid problems, researchers need to try and understand the respondents' perspective of how they would want to be treated in the research, making the most ethical decisions, providing relevant information about the study and using ethical methods to collect information from respondents (Webster, Lewis and Brown 2014: 83-84). Researchers also need to cover all ethical issues, completing all ethical questions from the ethics form, with respondents being fully aware of their rights and what it means to give consent (Wisker 2008: 87).

Ethical standards that were followed in this study were in accordance with the Durban University of Technology ethical standards and included ensuring respondents' confidentiality of information provided in each semi-structured interview, which will not be disclosed to anyone besides the researcher's supervisor and will later be stored by the researcher for at least 3 years. Respondents' names will not be disclosed to anyone. The researcher also provided a letter of information to the respondents, informing them about the contents of the study and written consent, which permits respondents to participate in the study (appendix A: 166). Respondents were also given the right to withdraw from the study freely. Both the letter of information and the informed consent form were clarified by the researcher in the respondents' home language (IsiZulu). Respondents were not subjected to any risk while the fieldwork was conducted. Moreover, respondents were not asked to make statements that caused discomfort, diminished their self-esteem or caused embarrassment or regret. Respondents' employability was not placed at risk while the study was conducted and their involvement in the interview was at their own will and interest.

### **3.16 Conclusion**

This chapter outlined a rich detail of the research methods used in the study. The qualitative approach was used to examine the contribution of tourism to local community development. In addition, the quantitative approach was used for the purpose of analysing the numbered data from the respondents of the study. The chapter also provided an outline of the Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village case study; the research design employed in this study and the type of sampling method used to select study respondents. It concluded with an outline of the ethical standards applied in this study.

Chapter four is dedicated to the findings, interpretation and analysis of data obtained in the current study.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **STATEMENT OF FINDINGS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF THE PRIMARY DATA**

#### **4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the results of the study and discusses the findings attained from the interviews conducted in this study. The data collected from the respondents were analysed using the SPSS version 22.0. The results present the descriptive statistics in the form of graphs, cross tabulations and other figures for the qualitative data that were collected. Inferential techniques included the use of correlations and chi-square test values, which were interpreted using the p-values.

#### **4.2 The Sample**

In total, 84 interviews were dispatched and 65 were returned. This translates to a 77% response rate. The response rate is appropriate and justifiable since Fincham (2008: 2) asserts that a response rate should be above 60%.

#### **4.3 The Research Instrument**

The research instrument comprised of 32 items, with a level of measurement at a nominal or an ordinal level. The interview questions were divided into six sections, which measured the various themes illustrated below:

Section A: Biographical Data;

Section B: Tourism Employment Categories in SZCV;

Section C: Capacity Building Opportunities (the training offered to SZCV employees);

Section D: Employment Information;

Section E: Community Participation in decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV; and

Section F: The contribution of tourism in SZCV.

**4.3.1 Section A: Biographical Data**

This section presents the biographical characteristics of the respondents.

Table 4.1 describes the overall gender distribution by age.

**Table 4.1: Gender of the respondents by age**

			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Age – coded	10 - < 20	Count	1	0	1
		% within Age - coded	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	3.1%	0.0%	1.5%
		% of Total	1.5%	0.0%	1.5%
	20 - < 30	Count	3	5	8
		% within Age - coded	37.5%	62.5%	100.0%
		% within Gender	9.4%	15.2%	12.3%
		% of Total	4.6%	7.7%	12.3%
	30 - < 40	Count	12	12	24
		% within Age - coded	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	37.5%	36.4%	36.9%
		% of Total	18.5%	18.5%	36.9%
	40 - < 50	Count	9	13	22
		% within Age - coded	40.9%	59.1%	100.0%
		% within Gender	28.1%	39.4%	33.8%
		% of Total	13.8%	20.0%	33.8%
	50 - < 60	Count	3	2	5
		% within Age - coded	60.0%	40.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	9.4%	6.1%	7.7%
		% of Total	4.6%	3.1%	7.7%
	60 - < 70	Count	4	1	5
		% within Age - coded	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
		% within Gender	12.5%	3.0%	7.7%
		% of Total	6.2%	1.5%	7.7%
Total	Count	32	33	65	
	% within Age - coded	49.2%	50.8%	100.0%	
	% within Gender	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	% of Total	49.2%	50.8%	100.0%	

Overall, the percentage of males to females was approximately 49.2%: 50.8%. Within the age category of 40 to 50 years, 40.9% were males and 59.1% were females. The outcome of these results shows that the SZCV has more female employees in



comparison to their male counterparts. This outcome suggests the nature of employment categories at the SZCV. The reason for this difference is that job categories, such as arts and craft work, cleaning duties, front-office duties, as well as room attendant duties, are more likely to be taken up by women.

This gender ratio is consistent with several studies in the field of study. For example, Aykac (2010: 13) affirms that the tourism industry is a female-dominated one due to tourism services resembling domestic services provided at home, which are mainly performed by women.

Acharya and Halpenny (2013: 374) report a similar finding in a study to discuss homestay as a tourism product operated by women in rural areas. They identify such employment categories as a vehicle for community development through women's emancipation from gender inequality and conventional labour division. The findings revealed that tourism business in rural Nepal has apparently transferred to the domain of women, with homestay businesses in rural Nepal being mostly managed by the indigenous women of local communities. In many homestays in Nepal, women undertake all the responsibilities such as arranging accommodation, providing food, performing cultural shows, and guiding for sightseeing, hiking and trekking in their areas. Women are also the operators of the handicraft shops, souvenir stores and tea-houses in their communities.

Table 4.2 indicates the mean age and the standard deviation among respondents.

**Table 4.2: Age of respondents**

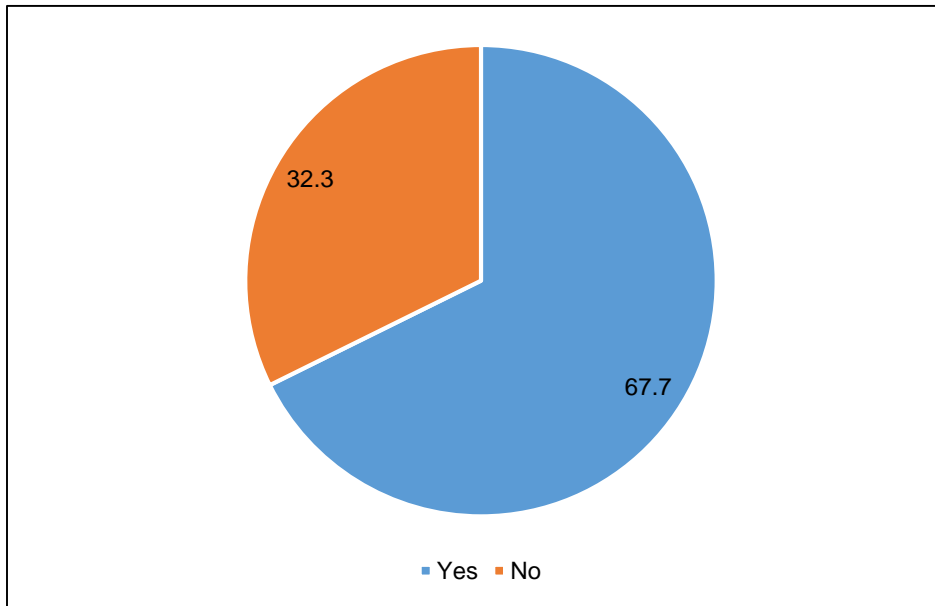
N	Mean	Std. Deviation
65	40.0000	10.35616

This is a crucial statistic as it indicates that the sample is constituted by an older and more experienced set of respondents. The findings suggest that the older and experienced respondents continue working in order to be able to provide for their families.

**Table 4.3: Race of respondents**

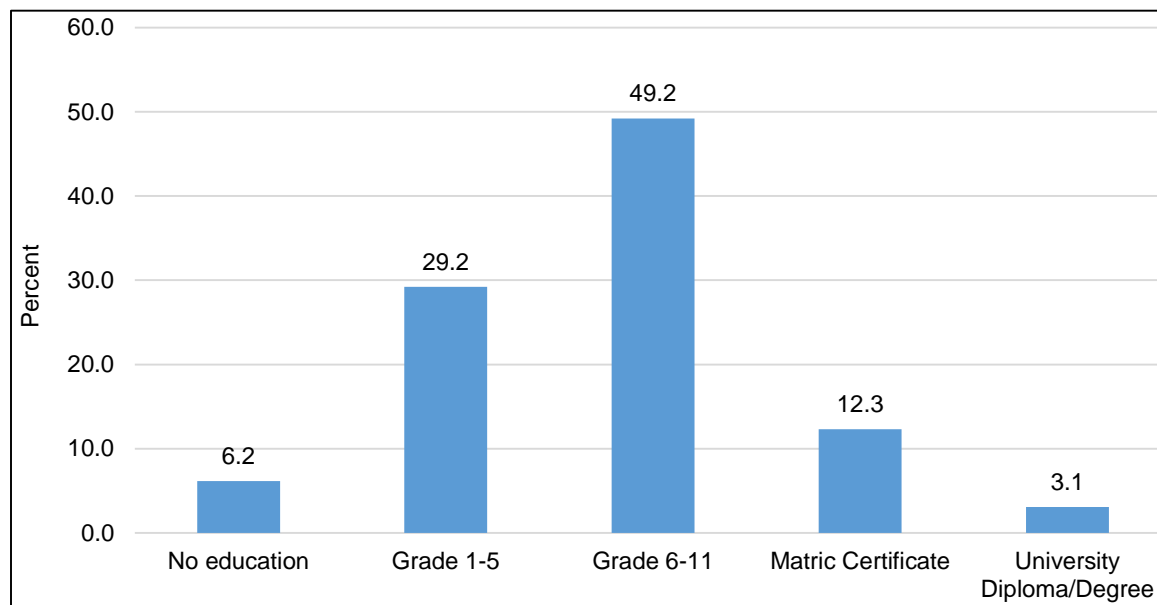
	Frequency
African	65

By race, all 65 respondents of the study were African, as SZCV is situated in a rural setting. The results on race indicate that the SZCV does not mimic the case of Phezulu Safari Park, highlighted by Ndlovu (2013: 60), wherein the White populace are often the managers or owners of cultural villages. More so, the majority of the Phezulu Safari Park tourists are whites, who are being entertained by Black performers. Hence, all respondents of this study were African, including top management.



**Figure 4.1: Respondents' place of birth**

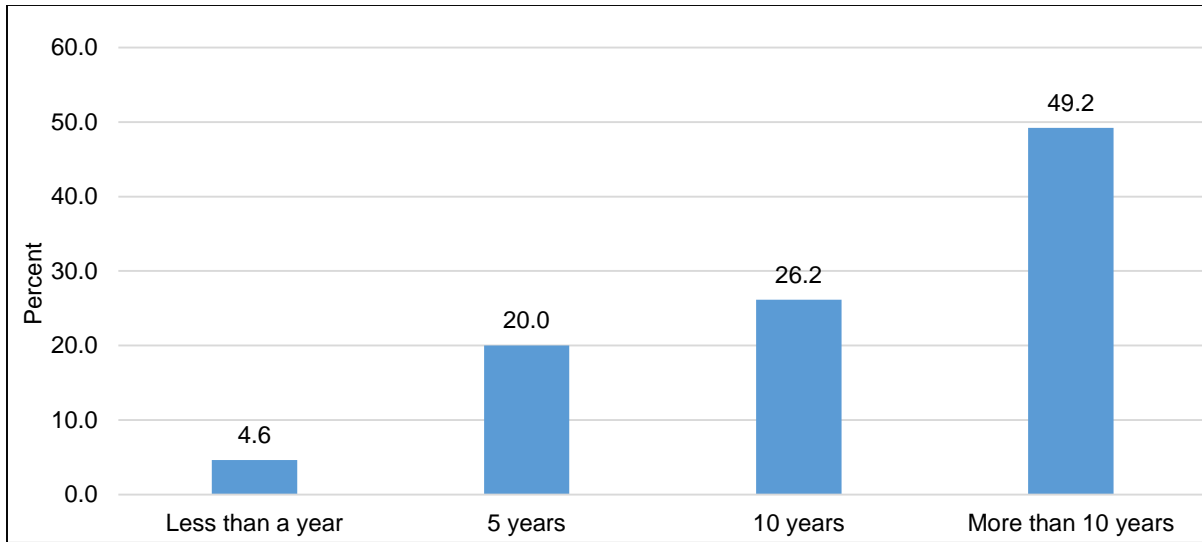
Figure 4.1 reveals that 44 of 65 (67.7%) respondents were born in Eshowe. Only 21 of 65 (32.3%) respondents indicated that they were born in areas located outside of Eshowe, such as Nkwaleni and Melmorth. This finding corresponds with studies conducted by Swanepoel and de Beer (2012: 34), who maintain that community participation in community development projects involves the local indigenous community.



**Figure 4.2: Level of education**

The results pertaining to level of education indicate that 32 out of 65 (49.2%) respondents opted out of school before obtaining a Matric certificate. Only 8 out of 65 (12.3%) respondents completed Matric, while 2 out of 65 (3.1%) respondents completed a tertiary qualification.

These results signify that tourism employers are inclined to choose non-graduate employees who have obtained experience in the tourism field, which favours practical experience over formal education (Lyons et al. 2015: 2). Furthermore, the results obtained are consistent with studies conducted by Jugmohan (2015: 136), who reported low educational levels of project members in a study to evaluate the pre-conditions for community-based tourism using two local communities (Noqhekwane and Ndengane). The results also signify that the tourism industry creates employment opportunities for the educated and uneducated (Gartner and Cukier 2012: 545).



**Figure 4.3: Period of employment**

The results for period of employment indicate that 3 out of 65 (4.6%) respondents had worked for less than a year at SZCV, while 17 out of 65 (26.2%) respondents had at least 10 years work experience. These are vital statistics as responses obtained would have been from workers who have been in the system for an extensive period of time (this would imply that respondents would again be knowledgeable and highly experienced).

The results correlate to the respondent's age as the majority of the respondents had indicated that they were between the ages of 40-50, 50-60 and 60-70 years in the age category. This implies that respondents, who mentioned that they were between these age categories, had been employed in SZCV for more than 10 years. These years of experience are advantageous to SZCV as knowledge and skills acquired by such employees can be transferred to other employees. Thus, it enhances capacity building in the tourism industry.

### 4.3.2 Section B: Tourism Employment Categories in SZCV

This section looks at the tourism employment categories offered in SZCV.

**Table 4.4: Job description of the respondents**

	Frequency
Arts and craft worker	13
Bar man/bar lady	2
Chef	4
Cleaner	2
Cultural chief	1
Cultural dancer	9
Cultural lead dancer	2
Cultural lead dancer, Traditional herbalist	1
Cultural manager	1
Driver	1
Food and beverage manager	1
Front office manager	1
Hygiene service provider	1
Maintenance labourer	7
Maintenance manager	1
Porter	1
Receptionist/reservationist	2
Room attendant	7
Sangoma	1
Scullery, Cleaner	1
Security	1
Spaza shop retailer	1
Waitress	4

With regards to job description, 13 out of 65 respondents indicated that they are employed in SZCV as arts and crafts workers. A further 9 out of 65 respondents work as cultural dancers. While 7 out of 65 respondents are employed as room attendants. Only 4 out of 65 respondents work as chefs and waitresses in SZCV. The results on job description interrelate with the second objective of the study which seeks *to analyse tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees*. This finding reveals that there are different forms and levels of tourism-related employment categories offered in

SZCV. Some of these employment categories include: cultural dancers, cultural chief, cultural manager, as well as food and beverage manager. More so, the results imply that cultural villages are usually linked to craft shops, traditional food outlets as well as accommodation facilities, who offer traditional dance performances and cultural displays (Bovana 2010: 38).

The afore-mentioned findings are consistent with that of Sebele (2010: 140) who affirms that community-based tourism at Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust (Botswana) has become a highly significant source of employment for local communities, with the sanctuary employing locals in a variety of jobs ranging from cleaners, drivers and tour guides.



Figure 4.4: showing (a)- (b) SZCV's cultural dancers; (c) cultural dancers engaging



Figure 4.5: showing (a) arts and craft work; (b) the Ukhamba bar; (c) tourist outside of Zandla Zethu curio shop



Figure 4.6: showing (a) Outside one of the beehive huts; (b) Inside one of SZCV's beehive huts

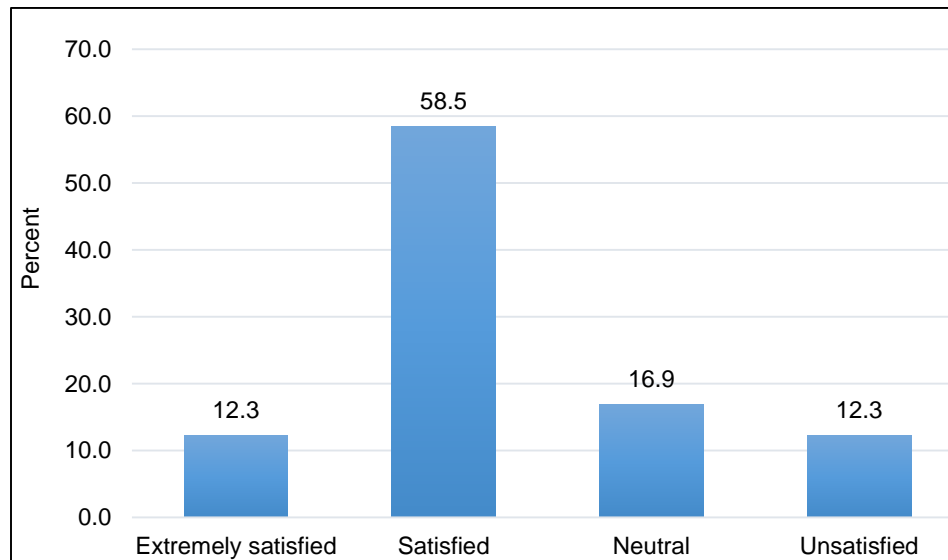
#### 4.3.2.1 Type of employment (Full-time/Part-time)

Table 4.5 investigates the cross-tabulation between “Are you a full time/part time employee at SZCV?”

**Table 4.5: Type of employment**

			Are you a permanent or a temporary employee at SZCV?		Total
			Full-time	Part-time	
Are you a full time/part-time employee at SZCV?	Full-Time Employee	Count	43	0	43
		% of Total	66.2%	0.0%	66.2%
	Part-Time Employee	Count	0	22	22
		% of Total	0.0%	33.8%	33.8%
Total	Count	43	22	65	
	% of Total	66.2%	33.8%	100.0%	

The result for type of employment shows that 43 out of 65 respondents are employed on a full-time basis. The remaining 22 out of 65 respondents were part-time employees. The results correlate with earlier studies which assert that tourism employment in some circumstances offers part-time and seasonal employment (Ruhanen and Breakey 2011: 334; Janta, Lugosi, Brown and Ladkin 2012: 433).



**Figure 4.7: Job satisfaction**



The results for job satisfaction indicate that 38 out of 65 (58.5%) respondents were satisfied with their jobs, while 8 out of 65 (12.3%) respondents were unsatisfied with their jobs. From the results above, it is evident that the majority of employees in SZCV are satisfied with their duties at the Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village. Job satisfaction is linked to positive employee outcomes and organisational performance (Sledge, Miles and van Sambeek 2011: 126). Hence, Colakoglu, Culha and Atay (2010: 200) point out that satisfied workers are more likely to satisfy the clients, which often translates to progress for an organisation.

These results also suggest why 32 of the respondents had more than 10 years' work experience at the SZCV. It can further be deduced from the results that, if the employees were unsatisfied, they may have left SZCV to work in other establishments. This would have resulted in a loss of experienced workers at the cultural village. Hence, a significant percentage of respondents remained working at SZCV, thus, increasing their work experience.

#### 4.3.3 Section C: Capacity-Building Opportunities offered to SZCV employees

This section looks at capacity-building opportunities offered to respondents, whether or not respondents were trained for their positions in SZCV as well as the type of training offered to respondents in SZCV.

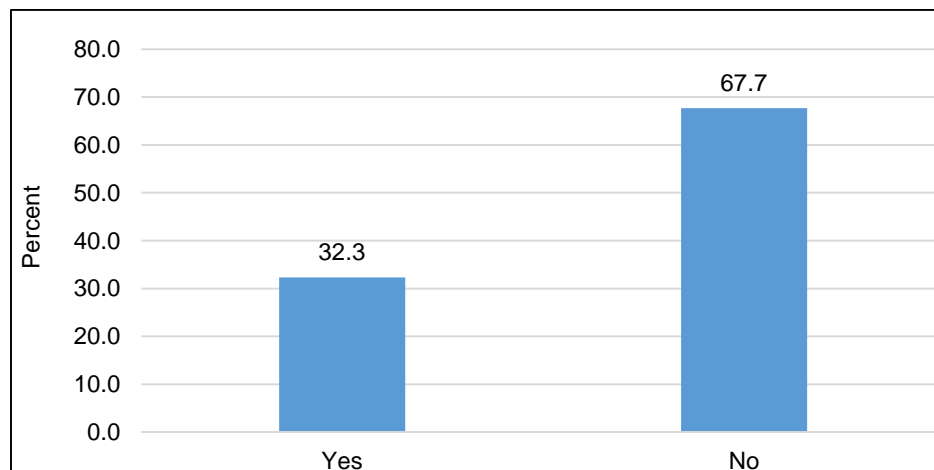


Figure 4.8: Training

The results show that only 21 out of 65 (32.3%) respondents received training, while the remaining 44 out of 65 (67.7%) did not receive training. However, respondents might not have been trained because they performed cultural activities they were accustomed to from an early age. Some of these cultural activities form part of Zulu culture and includes cultural dance, stick fighting and spear making. The low frequency on training did not relate to the second study objective, i.e., *To identify the tourism capacity building opportunities (the training offered to SZCV employees)*, as few respondents indicated that they were trained for their positions at SZCV.

**Table 4.6: Types of training offered by SZCV**

	Frequency	Percent
Bar attendant training	1	4.8
Cultural dance performance	1	4.8
Delivering superior customer services and to create a clean and friendly environment for tourists	1	4.8
Delivering superior customer services, cooking and baking	1	4.8
Front desk training	1	4.8
How to clean the rooms and how to open and close hotel room windows and fans	1	4.8
How to communicate with tourists as they are potential buyers of arts and craft work	1	4.8
How to handle visitors	1	4.8
SZCV databases, and how to communicate with tourists	1	4.8
To communicate with tourists and how to deliver superior customer services	1	4.8
To communicate with tourists and solve internal issues	1	4.8
To communicate with tourists and how to offer a unique cultural experience through arts and craft	1	4.8
Tour guiding	1	4.8
Train the trainer, winning ways of workers	1	4.8
Waitressing	1	4.8
Arts and craft	2	9.5
First aid	2	9.5
Housekeeping	2	9.5
Total	21	100.0

Only one respondent received training in all of the categories, except for arts and craft, first aid and housekeeping. Furthermore, 2 out of 65 respondents indicated that they

had received training in housekeeping. Only one respondent received training in cultural dance performance. This cultural dance performer was from the Xhosa tribe which suggests that he might not have been fully acquainted with the IsiZulu traditions. Hence, training was required. Individual respondents mentioned that they had received training in front desk, tour guiding, how to communicate with tourists and how to deliver superior customer services.

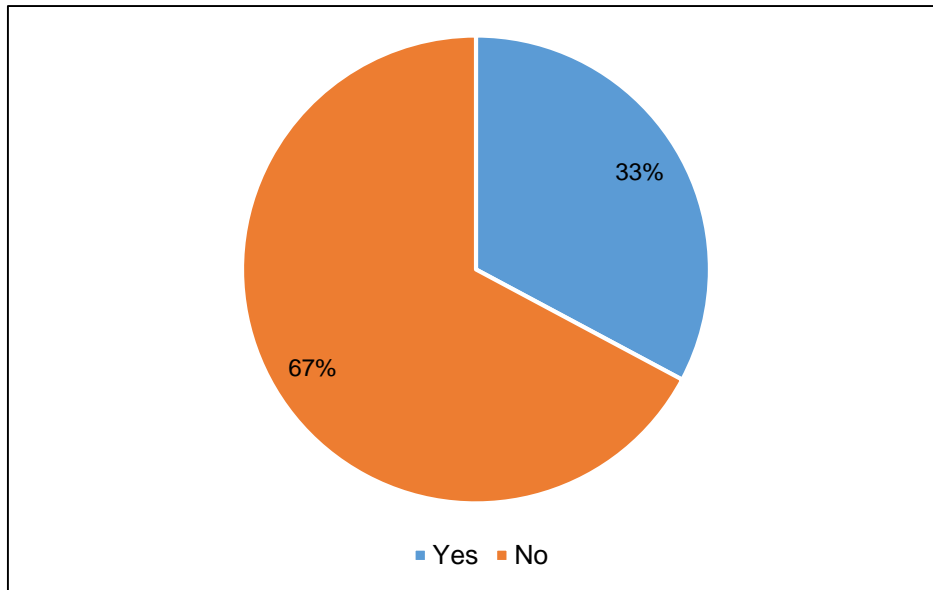
**Table 4.7: Training certificates**

	Frequency	Percent
First aid certificate	1	4.8
Geochem certificate	1	4.8
Service delivery certificate	2	9.5
Waitress certificate	1	4.8
Winning ways of workers certificate	1	4.8
Housekeeping certificate	2	9.5
No	13	61.9
Total	21	100.0

The results on training certificates indicate that 13 out of 21 respondents received training certificates. Among those that had received training certificates, 2 out of 21 respondents received certificates in housekeeping and service delivery, while individual respondents received training in first aid, waitressing, winning ways of workers and geochem (chemical manufacturing company).

#### 4.3.4 Section D: Employment Information

This section explores whether or not respondents were employed in other places prior to working in SZCV. It also ascertained if they had salary increases or were promoted at SZCV.



**Figure 4.9: Employment history**

The responses for employment history show that 21 out of 65 (33%) respondents were employed in other companies before securing employment with SZCV, while 44 out of 65 (67%) respondents indicated that SZCV was their first employer. This outcome corroborates with Figure 4.3, as it indicated 32 out of the 65 respondents had more than 10 years' work experience at the SZCV.

**Table 4:8: Previous employment history**

	Frequency	Percent
Chef at Mbhengane, lower salary	1	1.5
Construction worker at JCB Muttingson, lower salary	1	1.5
Construction worker at Lamonka, lower salary	1	1.5
Construction worker in Durban, contract expired	1	1.5
Construction worker in Eshowe, lower salary	1	1.5
Construction worker n Esofranki construction, contract expired	1	1.5
Crop farmer, opted for permanent employment	1	1.5
Cultural lead dancer and scullery in Kwabhekithunga, company stopped operating	1	1.5
Cultural lead dancer in Sibaya casino and in Lesedi cultural village, Lower salary	1	1.5
Cultural lead dancer, Sibaya casino, temporary employment	1	1.5
Customer service provider at Nongoma pharmacy, lower salary	1	1.5
Domestic worker in Eshowe, lower salary	1	1.5
Domestic worker in La Lucia, lower salary	1	1.5
Domestic worker in Pietermaritzburg, lower salary	1	1.5
Gardener in Cadmen construction and Sanpenn, plumber in Shell forest, lower salary	1	1.5
House constructor in Rustenburg at stocks and stock, lower salary	1	1.5
Room attendant at Booyens hotel in Johannesburg, lower salary and high cost of living	1	1.5
Maintenance labourer and local driver at Anglo American, contract expired	1	1.5
Restaurant manager at McDonalds and Ninos, hotel manager at boutique hotel, lower salary	1	1.5
Security guard in Mfezi security company, lower salary	1	1.5
Total	20	100.0

The responses for previous employment history show that 1 out of 65 respondents was employed as a cultural lead dancer and scullery in Kwabhekithunga. However, the company stopped operating and, thus, the dancer found an opportunity at the SZCV. Another respondent was a cultural lead dancer in Sibaya casino before being employed at Lesedi cultural village. The respondent then resigned at the Lesedi cultural village upon receiving a better offer at the SZCV. More so, 1 among the 65 respondents was employed as a temporary cultural lead dancer in Sibaya casino and was offered a permanent position in SZCV.

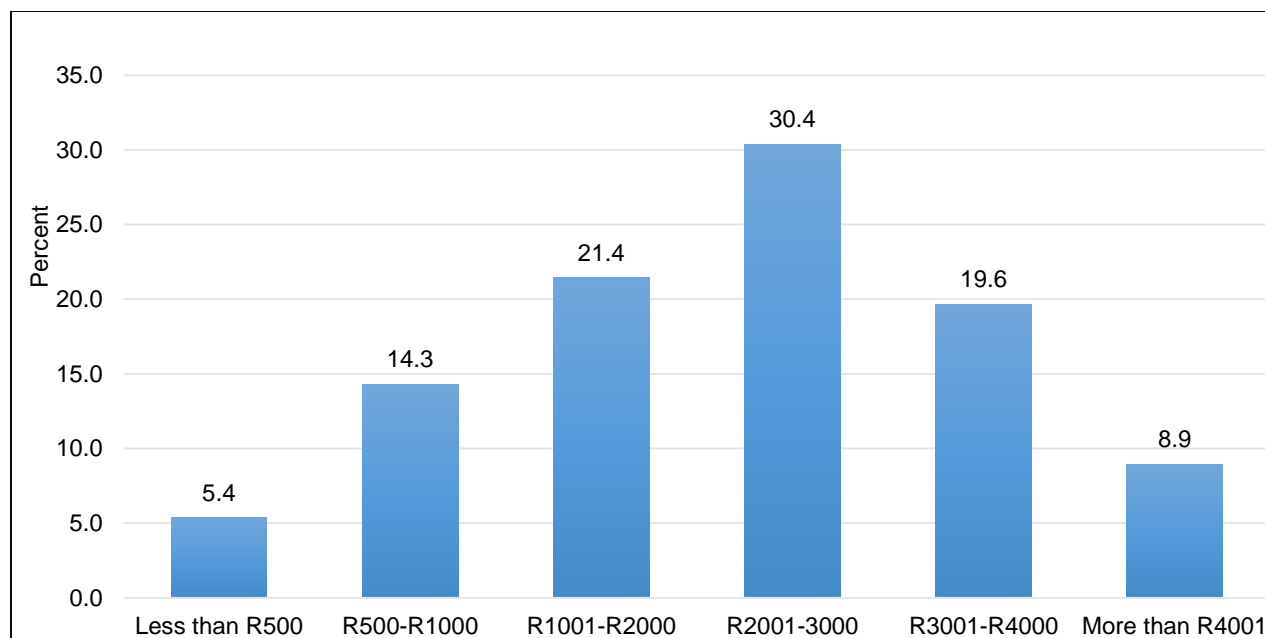
Other respondents indicated different employment positions, such as chefs, construction worker, crop farmer, customer service provider, domestic worker, gardener, plumber, room attendant, maintenance labourer, local driver, restaurant manager, and security guard. Reasons for leaving previous employment included - lower salary; expired contract; opted for permanent employment; company stopped operating; temporary employment; high cost of living in Johannesburg.

These results on previous employment history also show that, regardless of not being trained in SZCV, respondents had already acquired work experience in similar fields in SZCV. This includes - cultural dancers, chefs, cleaners, food and beverage manager, scullery, maintenance labourers and security guards. The results on work experience also correlate with Figure 4.13, which indicates that 44 out of 65 respondents were not trained in SZCV, as it was unnecessary to train employees that had already acquired experience in similar fields.

**Table 4.9: Salary increase**

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	44	67.7
No	21	32.3
Total	65	100.0

The results to establish if respondents received a salary increase indicate that 44 out of 65 respondents obtained a salary increase while working at SZCV. This salary increase correlates with Figure 4.8, as it reveals that 38 out of 65 respondents were satisfied with their jobs at SZCV. Only 21 out of 65 respondents indicated that they did not obtain a salary increase at SZCV.



**Figure 4.10: Salary scale of respondents employed at SZCV**

In terms of salary scales of respondents, 17 out of 65 (30.4%) respondents indicated that they earn R2001-R3000; a further 12 of 65 (21.4%) respondents earn R1001-R2000, while only 5 out of 65 (8.9%) respondents earn more than R4001. These low incomes indicate that a large number of respondents are unskilled and untrained. Hence, only 8 out of 65 respondents had completed Matric while only 2 out of 65 respondents had a tertiary qualification. Another attribute to the low incomes is that certain respondents are employed as vendors in SZCV. Such vendors are inclusive of the self-employed arts and crafts workers, who run their operation in SZCV. These individuals survive on patronage from the frequent visits of tourists at SZCV. Thus, this finding suggests that the SZCV not only provides a source of livelihood for low skilled personnel, but also provides a variety of employment categories.

The results also corroborate with earlier studies which affirm that tourism employment often provides employment for low-skill personnel; has informal working hours with low income, and career structures (Shakeela, Ruhanen and Breakey 2011: 334; Janta et al. 2012: 433).

Table 4.10 indicates respondents' employment promotions in SZCV.

**Table 4.10: Promotion and salary increment among SZCV employees**

	Promoted	Salary Increment	Frequency	Percent
Arts and craft worker	No	No	12	18.5
Arts and craft worker, community spaza shop retailer	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Bar lady	No	No	1	1.5
Bar lady, room attendant	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Chef	No	No	4	6.2
Cleaner	No	No	2	3.1
Cleaner, scullery, hostess, receptionist, reservationist, food and Beverage assistant front office	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Cultural chief	No	No	1	1.5
Cultural dancer	No	No	7	10.8
Cultural dancer, arts and craft worker	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Cultural dancer, cleaner, scullery	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Cultural dancer, bar man	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Cultural dancer, room attendant	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Cultural dancer, tailor for traditional attires, cultural lead dancer, inyanga	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Cultural dancer, traditional herbalist	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Cultural dancer, waitress	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Cultural lead dancer	No	No	2	3.1
Cultural dancer, cultural manager	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Chef, food and beverage manager	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Food and beverage, cultural dancer, room attendant	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Food and beverage, maintenance labourer	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Hut builder, cultural dancer	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Hygiene service provider	No	No	1	1.5
Maintenance labourer	No	No	6	9.2
Maintenance labourer, maintenance manager	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Meeting and greeting guests, cultural dancer	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Porter	No	No	1	1.5
Receptionist	No	No	1	1.5

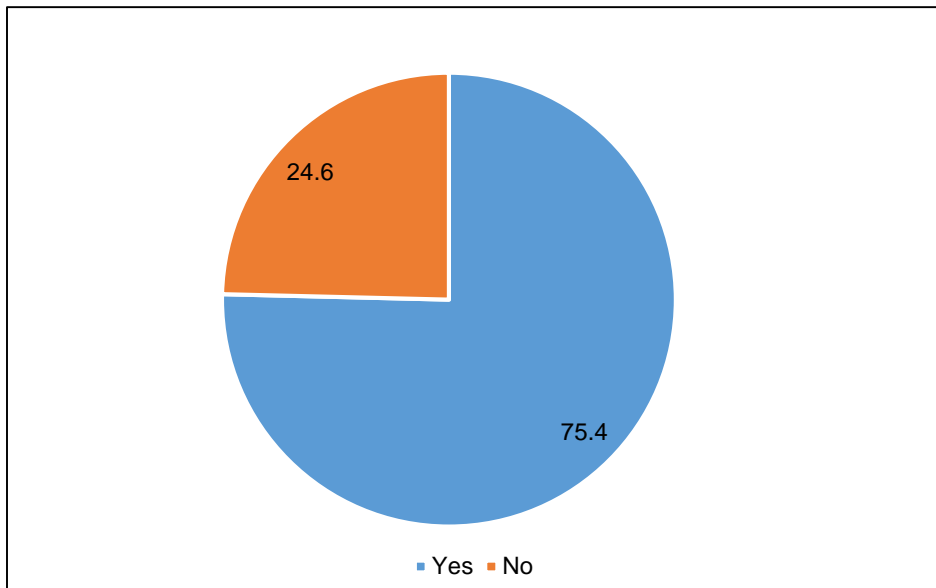


Room attendant	No	No	3	4.6
Room attendant, waitress	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Security guard	No	No	1	1.5
Cultural dance performer, porter, driver	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Waitress	No	No	2	3.1
Waitress, food and beverage assistant manager, reservationist, receptionist	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Waitress, room attendant	Yes	Increased salary	1	1.5
Total	65		65	100.0

The results on employment promotions indicate that 21 out of 65 respondents have received promotions with a salary increase in SZCV. However, these figures are shown in different employment categories, which include - cultural dancer, cultural lead dancer and Inyanga. The results also show that only 12 out of 65 respondents have remained as arts and craft workers and have not been promoted, while only 7 out of 65 respondents have remained as cultural dancers and have not been promoted in SZCV. The results correspond with Figure 4.13, which signifies that only 21 out of 65 respondents have been trained for their positions. This could be due to the issue that training in the cultural establishment is linked to low-level positions and may not necessarily assist in promotions.

#### **4.3.5 SECTION E: Community participation in the decision-making process and tourism planning process within SZCV**

This section looks at respondents' participation in the decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV.



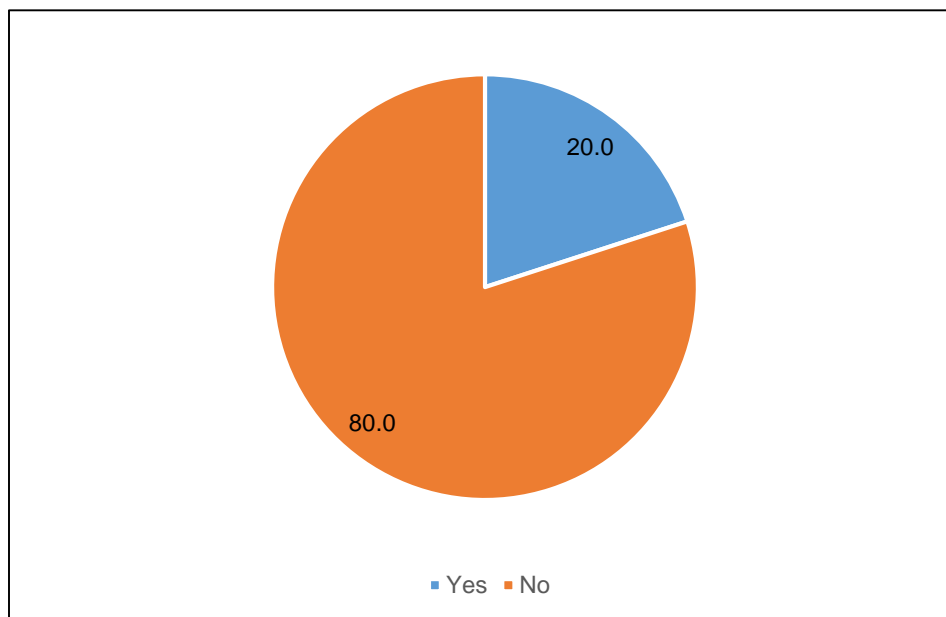
**Figure 4.11: Participation in decision-making**

The question on participation in decision-making shows that 49 out of 65 (75.4%) respondents participate in SZCV's decision-making process, while only 16 out of 65 (24.6%) respondents indicated that they do not participate in decision-making. In this regard, one of the objectives of this study was *to investigate community participation in decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV*.

The results corroborate with the White Paper (South Africa. Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 1996: 45-46), which indicate that communities need to participate in decision-making with regards to major tourism developments. Additionally, the responses in Figure 4.16 create the opportunity for the Eshowe community to mobilise their own capabilities, manage their resources, make decisions and take control of the activities that affect their lives (Ponna, Putu and Prasiasa 2011: 307; Talò, Mannarini and Rochira 2013: 3).

When asked to justify how they are involved in the decision-making process in SZCV, 4 out of 65 respondents said that they were not involved in decision-making because they were employed as temporary employees at SZCV, while 3 out of 65 respondents said "I don't know why I have not been asked to participate in decision-making", and 2 out of 65 respondents said that management has never requested for their opinion in decision-

making. Only 2 out of 65 respondents from arts and craft employees were involved in the decision-making process regarding additional arts and craft work that needed to be made in order to attract more tourists while, another 2 out of 65 respondents from the room attendants were involved with issues such as additional cleaning equipment. Another 2 out of 65 respondents from the front desk were involved with issues such as new tourism services and innovative approaches aimed at enticing tourists. The rest of the respondents that were involved in decision-making had lower frequencies. Hence, their responses were excluded from the sample. The results show that, although some of the respondents were involved in decision-making, it mainly concerned issues related to their work and that staff are largely excluded from strategic decision-making.



**Figure 4.12: Community involvement in tourism planning**

The question on community involvement in tourism planning show that only 13 out of 65 (20%) respondents had been involved in the tourism planning process of SZCV, while the remaining 52 out of 65 (80%) respondents were not involved in tourism planning. The results signify that the planning process in SZCV is non-inclusive of community members as their views are often not considered in the tourism planning process. The majority of respondents (52 of 65) indicated that they were not involved in the tourism planning process. The non-inclusion of community views to the tourism planning

process of the SZCV could possibly undermine tourism sustainability and impede developmental opportunities (Aref 2011b: 21).

#### **4.3.6 SECTION F: The contribution of tourism in SZCV**

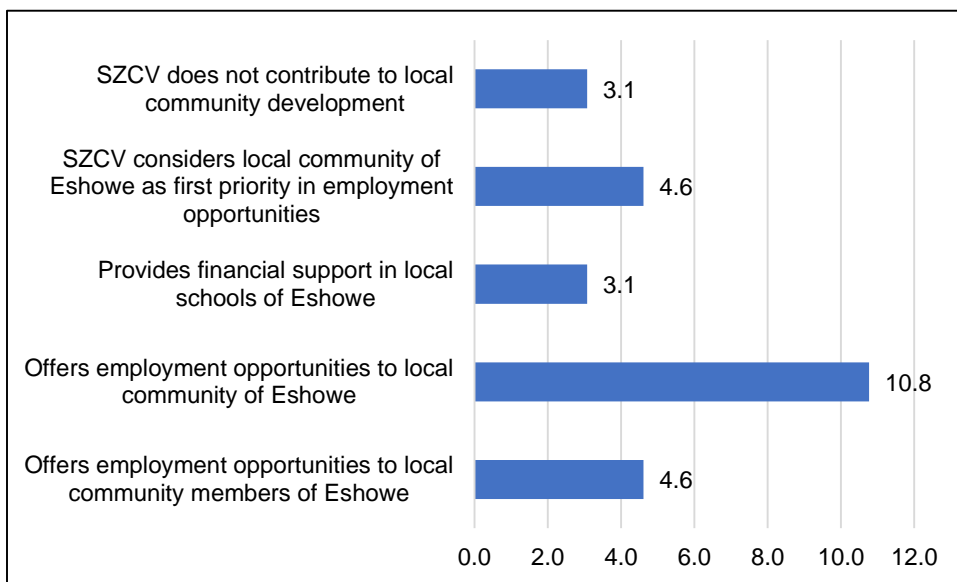
This section summarises the community's understanding of the term community development, as well as the extent to which SZCV contributes to local community development.

##### **4.3.6.1 Community's understanding of community development**

When respondents were asked to provide a self-explanation of the term community development, 3 out of 65 respondents interpreted the term as “process of uplifting local communities through offering employment opportunities”, while 2 out of 65 respondents interpreted community development as the “process of enhancing a community's quality of life through employment opportunities”. Furthermore, 5 respondents attributed the term community development with “the provision of employment opportunities”. There were mixed views from other respondents. Some interpreted community development as a “process of enhancing local services through road development”. Other respondents interpreted community development as “enhancing local services through construction of malls and employing local community members at such malls; while other respondents attributed community development to the construction of more local schools”. In some respondents' opinions, community development, “is about delivering community development services through housing projects and clean water supply”. A few respondents interpreted community development as “educating people about their own culture while promoting cultural exchange”. Furthermore, some respondents interpreted community development as a “process of empowering communities to be involved in decision-making, creating mutual understanding and equal benefits in communities”. Other respondents interpreted community development as a “process of educating and training community about tourism”; and a “process of empowering local community to establish small ventures and encouraging self-reliance”.

These divergent interpretations provided by respondents also inter-relate with two of the study's objectives, i.e., *to identify tourism capacity building opportunities (the training*

offered to SZCV employees); and to investigate community participation in decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV, as respondents expressed that community development meant participating in the decision-making process as well as being trained and educated about tourism. The multiple interpretations of community development from the respondents are not unusual, as various literature sources discuss this precept from a vast array and similar perspectives to those mentioned by the respondents of the study. Thus, it can be deduced that the term “community development” has various connotations.



**Figure 4.13: The extent to which SZCV’s contributes to local community development**

Figure 4:18 demonstrates that 7 out of 65 (10.8%) respondents assented that the SZCV contributes to local community development through offering employment opportunities to local community of Eshowe, while 3 out of 65 (4.6%) respondents had a similar response as they alleged that SZCV offers employment opportunities to local community members of Eshowe. Additionally, 3 out of 65 (4.6%) respondents affirmed that SZCV gave preference to the local community of Eshowe with regards to employment opportunities, while 2 out of 65 (3.1%) respondents acknowledged that the SZCV provides financial support to schools within the community. Only 2 out of 65

(3.1%) respondents maintained that the SZCV does not contribute to local community development.

This finding buttresses the assertion of Aref, Gill and Aref (2010: 158) as they mention that tourism offers a multi-faceted array of opportunities to communities through direct, indirect and induced employment opportunities; which often strengthen and propel the stimulation of regional and local economic development.

In this regard, one of the study objectives was *to ascertain the extent to which SZCV contributes to local community development in Eshowe*. Hence, as inferred from the results, SZCV contributes to local community development through employment opportunities to local community members; provision of financial support to community schools; and preferential consideration regarding employment opportunities. Thus, in line with the afore-mentioned objective, it can be deduced that the SZCV significantly contributes to local community development.



Figure 4.14: showing (a) Syafunda community; (b) Inside view of Syafunda community centre



Figure 4.15: Masibambisane community shop



Figure 4.16: SZCV employees and tourists

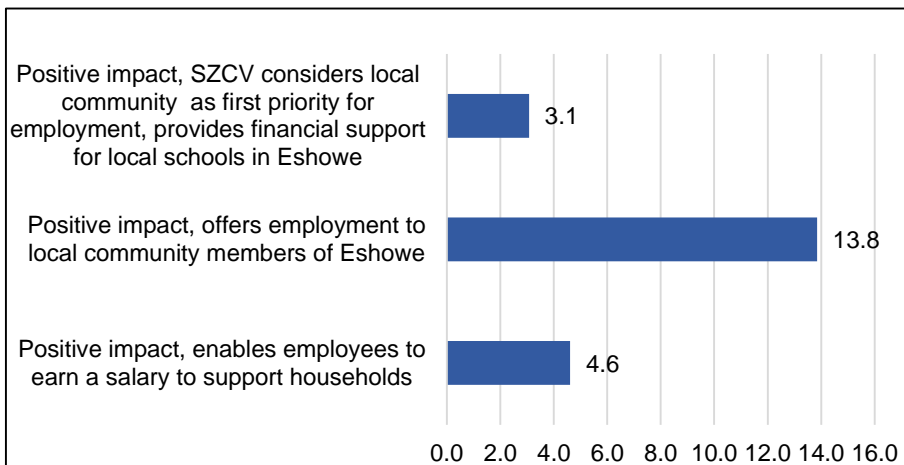


Figure 4.17: SZCV's impact linked to the community of Eshowe

Figure 4.17 indicates that a significant number of respondents affirmed that the SZCV has a positive impact on their community. Among these respondents, 13.8% attributed SZCV's positive contribution to its provision of employment to local community members; 4.6% attributed this to the monthly income earned by employees; and while 3.1% attributed this positivity to the priority given to community members regarding employment opportunities over non-community members.

Overall, the results show that SZCV has a positive impact on the community of Eshowe, as it contributes to community development through offering employment opportunities. Invariably, the cultural village has inversely impacted positively on the Eshowe community.

The remaining 51 out of 65 respondents agreed that SZCV has a positive impact on the community. However, these (responses) were of low frequencies. The comments which constituted the low frequencies from other respondents were: “SZCV offers employment opportunities for Eshowe community and environmental sustainability”; “SZCV alleviates poverty for local community of Eshowe through employment opportunities and educates local community about tourism”; “SZCV creates cultural exchange and educates majority of people about the background of the Zulu culture”; “SZCV delivers development to Eshowe”; “SZCV provides free accommodation for employees”; and “SZCV enables employees to earn a salary of which they use to pay for children's tuition fees”. Hence, the most common response was linked to employment and salary.

**Table 4.11: Community development programmes**

	Frequency	Percent
Yes	11	16.9
No	54	83.1
Total	65	100.0

The question on community developmental programmes shows that 54 out of 65 respondents were not aware of any community developmental programmes which inform community members on how they could benefit by being involved in SZCV. A total of 11 out of the 65 respondents were aware of community development programmes that inform local community about how they can benefit from being involved with SZCV. This is a negative outcome as the community members of Eshowe, who are not employed at SZCV, are not well informed on how they could benefit from SZCV. Thus, the significance of publicising community developmental programmes cannot be over-emphasised as community members will be made aware of opportunities. Furthermore, community members, who are not directly employed at



SZCV, could benefit from the tourism value chain which could have a ripple and beneficial consequence on community members as well as the cultural village.

**Table 4.12: A list of the community development programmes in SZCV**

	Frequency	Percent
Community development programme that empowers the youth to further their education	1	9.1
Cultural programme that educates SZCV employees about the background of King Shaka and about the Zulu culture	1	9.1
Cultural programme that extends employee knowledge about the Zulu culture	1	9.1
Rhino poaching awareness that educates about the negative impacts of rhino poaching, provides free educational tours for school children	1	9.1
School children programme: school children learn about tourism and about the Zulu culture	1	9.1
Tourism educational programme: educates about tourism impacts	1	9.1
Tourism educational programme: educates on tourism benefits that help a person to become a bread winner in the household	1	9.1
Women empowerment programme: women showcase their skills in handicrafts	1	9.1
Youth and women empowerment programme: educating about tourism and its impacts	1	9.1
Youth empowerment programme: empowers youth to be involved in tourism and sports, educating youth about the Zulu culture	1	9.1
Youth empowerment programme: empowers youth to study further, and tackle issues	1	9.1
Total	11	100.0

Table 4.12 indicates a list of community development programmes in the SZVC. Overall, it can be inferred that communities that reside in close proximity of tourist attractions can benefit directly and indirectly, as is in this case. However, an awareness programme needs to be in place to stimulate this mutual benefit.

#### 4.4 Discussions on Correlation

Bivariate correlation was also performed on the (ordinal) data. The results are attached in the appendix (appendix C: 173-174).

Correlation is interpreted as an experiential relationship between two variables whereby changes in one variable are linked with changes in the other variable or certain attributes of one variable are associated with certain attributes of the other variable (Babbie 2010: 70). Furthermore, correlations also seek to determine whether the relationship found between two variables is positive or negative (Babbie 2010: 70).

The results indicate the following patterns:

Positive values indicate a directly comparative relationship between the variables and a negative value indicates a converse relationship. All significant relationships are indicated by a \* or \*\*. Negative values imply a converse relationship. This means that the variables have an opposite effect on each other; that is, as one increases, the other decreases. The following correlations were found in this study:

The correlation value between “Were you trained for your position” and “Do you participate in decision-making in relation to the management and activities of SZCV?” is 0.395. Therefore, the more training respondents had undergone, the more they were involved in the decision-making process of SZCV.

The correlation value between “Were you trained for your position” and “Are you involved in the tourism planning process of SZCV?” is 0.395. This means that the more respondents were trained for their positions in SZCV, the more involved they were in the planning process of SZCV.

A strong correlation was also found between “Were you trained for your position” and “are there any community development programmes that inform local community about how they can benefit from being involved in SZCV?” is 0.302. This shows that the more training respondents had undergone, the more knowledge respondents had on community development programmes of SZCV.

A negative value of -0.549 was found between “Has your salary increased since working at SZCV?” and “Please indicate your current salary per month”. This negative value suggests that the more salary increases respondents received at SZCV, the less willing they were in stating their current monthly salary.

The correlation value between “Do you participate in decision-making in relation to the management and activities of SZCV?” and “Are you involved in the tourism planning process of SZCV?” is 0.286. This suggests that the more respondents participated in decision-making process, the more involved they were in the tourism planning process of SZCV.

From the above results on correlations, it is clear that training, which was the third objective of the study, i.e. To identify tourism capacity building opportunities (the training offered to SZCV employees), had a major impact on the results as the following occurred:

The more training respondents received, the more they participated in decision-making in relation to the management and activities of SZCV. More training also meant that respondents were more involved in the tourism planning process of SZCV. The more respondents were trained, the more knowledgeable they were of community development programmes that inform local community about how they can benefit from being involved in SZCV.

#### **4.5 Conclusion**

This chapter presented five core findings (from the empirical analysis) which are relatively tied to the objectives of the study. In the analysis, numerous statistical approaches were used to determine the descriptive and inferential results. This was illustrated through frequency tables and graphs. A Bivariate correlation was also performed as a means to identifying the significant relationship and differences between the variables of the study.

The results obtained from the analyses and interpretation of data indicated that tourism in the SZCV contributes immensely to local community development in Eshowe, particularly through offering employment opportunities. More so, the respondents also

expressed their views on how the SZCV could enhance development in their community. Significant challenges were also identified through the analysis and interpretation of data. Some of these challenges include lack of capacity building opportunities and community involvement in tourism planning.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter provides a review of the research aim, objectives, findings, conclusions and recommendations of the study. The chapter begins with a summary of the main findings and proceeds with the conclusions and recommendations which were drawn from the objectives. The chapter further discusses suggestions for future research regarding the contribution of tourism to local community development.

#### **5.2 Review of the aim and objectives of the study**

The study sought to examine the contribution of tourism to local community development. In order to achieve the aim of the current study, the researcher formulated five research objectives, which are outlined below.

##### **5.2.1 Research objectives**

1. To ascertain the extent to which SZCV contributes to local community development in Eshowe;
2. To analyse tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees;
3. To identify tourism capacity building opportunities (the training offered to SZCV employees);
4. To investigate community participation in decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV; and
5. To recommend strategies for improving local community development through SZCV in Eshowe.

#### **5.3 Overview of the study**

Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village is located in the KwaZulu-Natal province along the east coast of South Africa. Shakaland is on the site that filmed the Shaka Zulu series, which were popular in South Africa during the 1980's. This series was based on the life of King Shaka Zulu who was an acclaimed warrior of the Zulu empire. After the film, all but one

of the Zulu kraals were destroyed. This kraal remains today and forms the basis of Shakaland. The aim of this study was to examine the contribution of tourism to local community development. This was done through ascertaining the extent to which SZCV contributes to local community development in Eshowe; analysing tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees; identifying tourism capacity building opportunities (the training offered to SZCV employees); investigating community participation in the decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV, and recommending strategies for improving local community development through SZCV in Eshowe. The researcher anticipated that a better understanding on the contribution of tourism to local community development would provide insight on how to improve community development in Shakaland. This study employed both the quantitative and qualitative research approaches. However, greater emphasis was placed on the qualitative approach through the use of semi-structured interviews. The qualitative approach was used to gather in-depth information from respondents, such as the type of training respondents have undergone; respondents' promotions and salary increases; respondents' participation in decision-making in Shakaland and an explanation of how SZCV contributes to community development in Eshowe. The researcher intended on interviewing all 84 employees from Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village, excluding the manager, in order to receive a 100% response rate. The employees were purposely selected on the basis that they are employed at Shakaland. However, only 65 of the semi-structured interviews were retrieved.

#### **5.4 Interpretation of the findings by research objectives**

The key findings gained from the study focused on the main research objectives. The findings of the study included:

##### **5.4.1 Objective 1- To ascertain the extent to which SZCV contributes to local community development in Eshowe**

The findings of the study reveal that Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village generates employment and income, through cultural dance performances, arts and crafts centres, offering guided tours to tourists, as well as allowing local community members to sell

their local produce. The cultural village also provides preference to the local community of Eshowe regarding employment opportunities as well as financial support in local schools of Eshowe. Thus, the study affirmed that the SZCV had significantly contributed to community development in the Eshowe community as it has partly alleviated concerns, such as poverty, through direct and indirect employment. Additionally, respondents of the study allege that the SZCV played a pivotal role in improving the standard of living amongst several households. Hence, it is arguable that the SZCV has contributed directly and indirectly to individuals' standard of living as well as that of the community of Eshowe.

#### **5.4.2 Objective 2- To analyse tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees**

It is evident, from the study, that SZCV employees occupy various tourism employment categories, including Cultural dancer, Arts and craft worker, Room attendant, Receptionist/reservationist, Chef, Bar man/bar lady, Traditional herbalist, Maintenance labourer, and Waitress. However, the types of jobs offered do not require high-level skills. Most of the jobs can be performed with basic education. This may be an advantage to the majority of the staff employed at the cultural village. For example, the cultural dance performance is linked to cultural roots and is passed on from one generation to the next. The same situation may apply to the persons making and selling handcrafts, as well as the traditional herbalist. The lack of education may also be a disadvantage and could stifle possible promotions to management positions. Thus, without the presence of such a tourism establishment in Eshowe, some of the residents might have been unemployed, however, staff should be encouraged to further their studies.

#### **5.4.3 Objective 3- To identify tourism capacity building opportunities (the training offered to SZCV employees)**

The SZCV offered training to 21 out of 65 (32. 3%) employees (this is shown in Figure 4.13) in categories such as cultural dance performance, bar attendant, delivering superior customer services, front desk training, tour guiding, arts and craft, and

housekeeping. Training in management or levels of training that can provide opportunities to move into management level is not existent. Most of the training has been linked to the low-level positions and is directly related to the employees' current positions. Moreover, training mainly focused on the enhancement of service delivery and may not necessarily assist in promotions or in salary increases. Hence, the number of promotions also shows no upward mobility. However, it is evidential that these forms of training were expedient as respondents did allude that their skills were sharpened by the highly skilled personnel who trained them. More so, it is evidential that employees are adapting quite well to different forms of training that they have undergone. This is showcased by the cultural dance performers' ability to adopt ancient Zulu dance styles within a short space of time while preparing for the Heritage day festival. On the contrary, logistics and finance have been two main issues undermining the frequency of training at the SZCV. Hence, to address these issues, the SZCV should appoint a staff whose duty will mainly focus on capacity building amongst employees of the SZCV.

#### **5.4.4 Objective 4- To investigate community participation in decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV**

As illustrated in Figure 4.16, 49 out of 65 (75.4%) respondents indicated that they are involved in decision-making. Their involvement in decision-making was required for superficial activities, while they were excluded from key decision-making. The employees of the SZCV were only involved in activities such as arts and craft work that were needed to attract more tourists. The involvement of housekeeping staff was also required for concerns which related to the purchase of additional cleaning equipment. However, this is directly related to their present jobs and is linked to improvements in what they do and not at strategic level. This means that the general staff suggestions or advise do not influence the SZCV's decision, nor do the employees' suggestions influence management decisions in the planning process of this tourism establishment. This is a current reality in the South African tourism transformation context, whereby the disadvantaged communities, residing in close proximity to tourism resources, are unable to play a pivotal or contributory role to major decisions which affect their livelihood.



#### 5.4.5 Objective 5- To recommend strategies for improving local community development through SZCV in Eshowe

The fifth objective of this study, which was to recommend strategies aimed at improving local community development through the SZCV, will be addressed in section 5.6. Respondents' views, regarding strategies capable of improving local community development in Eshowe, were also solicited by the researcher. These suggested recommendations are practicable and are intended to contribute towards local community development in the area of study. Thus, the study achieved the fifth objective. Table 5.1 provides recommendations suggested by the respondents of the study on how the cultural village can enhance local community development.

**Table 5.1: Recommendations for improving local community development emanating from respondents**

1	Provide financial support for children who want to further their education in tertiary institutions
2	Employ more local community members of Eshowe who are well informed about the Zulu culture as well as cultural dances
3	SZCV should collaborate with local government in order to provide housing projects for underprivileged community members
4	SZCV should cooperate with macro organizations to offer more funding opportunities to more local schools besides the Ncemaneni Primary school
5	SZCV needs to provide a health facility in Eshowe and a nearby high school in Eshowe as a means to preventing children from travelling long distances before attending school
6	SZCV needs to liaise with banks in order to provide an Automated Teller Machine (ATM); as this will make banking facilities accessible to tourists who need to make withdrawals; and also hire a local security guard at this machine
7	SZCV needs to empower the youth to study further as a means to dissuading them from drug abuse, while using tourism to enhance their living conditions
8	SZCV needs to extend its cultural establishment in order to create job opportunities for the unemployed youth of Eshowe
9	SZCV should partner with local government in improving the modes of transport in and around Eshowe.
10	SZCV should offer full-time employment to arts and craft employees
11	SZCV should liaise with international companies in order to promote SZCV to a more standardized tourists' entity

Some of the recommendations suggested by the respondents seem ambitious. It could be that they view the SZCV as an organisation with the power to take a lead and voice their ideas.

The approaches of community development highlighted in section 2.4 of this study suggest that a need has to exist before community development can take place, allowing problems to be tackled in a correlated manner. More so, co-operation should exist among a group of people that share a mutual problem, need or concern by working together and sharing responsibility for action.

Furthermore, the approaches suggest that the community should be the main role players in community development to achieve their main goals, while other role players assist the community in a facilitative manner.

Local assets should also be used. These assets come from a broad range, comprising of natural, infrastructural and human beings and their ability to organise. All these assets make community development different and development management different from any other management as it makes use of available resources, especially human resources, in order to reach the objective. More so, community development has a special democratic function, extending democracy beyond the ordinary three spheres of government structure. Community development avails individuals at the grassroots, particularly the most deprived, vulnerable and the politically weak to participate in a democratic action that will give true meaning to their democratic rights as citizens.

The approaches of community development will not only improve local community development in SZCV, but will also allow the community of Eshowe to work in co-operation towards a shared need and objective, making use of local assets in Eshowe.

## **5.5 Conclusions linked to objectives 1 to 5**

The South African cultural villages allow visitors to experience a first-hand experience of how the ethnic community lived several decades ago. Hence, the following concluding comments are drawn from the main research findings.

### **5.5.1 Conclusions linked to ascertain the extent to which SZCV contributes to local community development in Eshowe (objective 1)**

The findings drawn from this objective indicate that the SZCV significantly contributed to local community development in Eshowe and has already succeeded in providing local community development to the community of Eshowe. The contributions are inclusive of offering employment opportunities to the local community of Eshowe. The cultural village, as reiterated in the body of this study, has directly and indirectly contributed to the host community through the following means - giving preference to community members regarding employment opportunities; provision of financial support to local schools; collecting donations and supplying computers and textbooks to the local school of Ncemaneni; preserving the Zulu culture; raising funds to construct a local primary school in the area (Ncemaneni Primary School); training and empowering school children in sports and cultural activities; employing local children as cultural dancers during the weekend and enabling them to interact with tourists; creating cultural exchange; empowering local community members to obtain employment and skills broadening through tourism.

### **5.5.2 Conclusions linked to analysing tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees (objective 2)**

The findings drawn from this objective indicate that a range of tourism-employment opportunities and tourism-related employment categories exist for the community members of Eshowe. The range of tourism employee categories offered at the cultural establishment are inclusive of - arts and craft workers, bar tenders, chef, cleaner, cultural chief, cultural dancer, cultural lead dancer, traditional herbalist, cultural manager, driver, food and beverage manager, front office manager, hygiene service provider, maintenance labourer, maintenance manager, porter, receptionist, room attendants, sangoma, scullery, security spaza shop retailer, as well as waitress. However, the researcher established that the types of jobs offered in the SZCV do not require high level education and skills. Therefore, the SZCV has to develop a literacy and skills programme to enable existing employees, without a qualification, the chance

to take charge of possible promotions to management positions. The study also stressed that most of respondents employed in such positions are Eshowe indigenes. Thus, this finding affirms that the cultural establishment considers the Eshowe community as first priority in employment opportunities, as they possess specific knowledge of their community in comparison to non-Eshowe individuals.

### **5.5.3 Conclusions linked to identifying tourism capacity building opportunities (the training offered to SZCV employees) (objective 3)**

The findings from this objective show that the managerial team of the SZCV should address issues inclined to capacity building as a majority of respondents indicated that they were not trained for their positions in SZCV. This suggests that the cultural establishment does not consider formal educational and training to be a crucial entry requirement for potential employees in Shakaland. Hence, this strengthens the assertion why only few respondents indicated that they were trained for their positions in Shakaland. More so, the results indicate that the SZCV needs to plan its training and development activities in line with its policy. Capacity building is imperative, in this context, as some of the SZCV employees require skills development and abilities in order to be more efficient and productive at the SZCV. This outcome also suggests that SZCV employees are not given learning opportunities and do not have the privilege to reinforce what they learn thorough practice. Hence, it can be inferred that the SZCV training process is not effective and does not promote self-esteem amongst employees.

### **5.5.4 Conclusions linked to investigating community participation in decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV (objective 4)**

The findings drawn from this objective indicate that some respondents participate in the decision-making process of the SZCV. However, the cultural establishment needs to involve the employees in decision-making at the strategic level and not only directly related to their present jobs. The SZCV also needs to consider community views and incorporate such input when constructing the tourism planning process. In consonance with this concern, it is suggested that the management of SZCV should empower general staff to be on the board of SZVC and influence management decisions, thus,

involving the general staff members in the tourism- planning process. Although they may not have high education levels, their experience at the reserve may contribute to positive outcomes.

#### **5.5.5 Conclusions linked to recommending strategies for improving local community development through SZCV in Eshowe (objective 5)**

Although the findings of this objective indicated that the cultural village has enhanced local community development, regular meetings with the broader community and SZVC may show other possible avenues for community development. This may come as the needs of the community and SZCV alter. Possible strategies should be drawn from different tourism approaches, for example, community-based tourism, good practices linked to the community and the tourism value chain.

## **5.6 Recommendations**

This sub-section outlines practicable suggestions for this study. The recommendations have been streamlined with the study's aim and objectives. These recommendations focus on the following sub-headings:

- Local community development through tourism contribution;
- Creation of employment;
- Capacity building; and
- Community development through interactive participation and self-mobilisation.

The afore-mentioned themes are further elaborated below.

### **5.6.1 Local community development through tourism contribution**

This sub-section focuses on strategies the SZCV can utilise in underpinning local community development through tourism. It provides suggestions not currently undertaken by the SZCV.

Firstly, this study recommends that the SZCV forms a partnership with other tourism business in close proximity to the SZCV. A partnership can be made with tourist attractions, such as the Lake Phobane; Mpushini Falls; IMfolozi Game Reserve; and the Eshowe 18-hole golf course. All these identified tourist attractions are within 5-20 kilometres from the SZCV.

The above tourist attractions have been identified as these places attract a high volume of tourists. If some of these recommendations are adopted, they could increase the possible benefits to communities that are residing along SZCV, as follows:

- The SZCV can also encourage local communities to volunteer in SZCV, acquiring the appropriate work experience as potential employees.
- The tourists visiting the cultural establishment can be encouraged by management of the SZCV to purchase locally-produced products and support local service providers in the area of Eshowe.

- The SZCV can also collaborate with local partners to support community projects that improve local livelihoods.
- The SZCV needs to construct a nearby high school in Eshowe, as suggested by the respondents of the study, preventing children from travelling long distances to go to high school.

### **5.6.2 Creation of additional employment categories by SZCV**

The researcher, having spent a few weeks at the SZCV, has identified some employee categories that are not being offered at this cultural village. Hence, some of these recommendations offered are amongst the employee categories offered at cultural villages such as the Basotho and Shangana Cultural Village. The creation of more employment categories in the SZCV will increase employment opportunities, provide additional income for the tourism establishment and inversely impact on the standard of living among the households of Eshowe.

These employment categories have been recommended as they are feasible. More so, the two identified employment categories are recommended as a means to providing employment for the locals, diversifying services offered by the SZCV, while attracting more tourists. These include, firstly, a spa facility for tourists' relaxation, which will benefit the community of Eshowe, as it will create employment, and, secondly, the establishment of an outlet for herbal medicine, which can possibly result in the attraction of clients from within and outside the province. Such a medicinal outlet could be headed by the Inyanga, while opportunities will be provided to a few other indigenes of Eshowe who will work alongside the Inyanga.

### **5.6.3 Capacity building**

There still exists inadequacy in capacity development, particularly amongst rural communities of South Africa, such as the Eshowe community. Therefore, the researcher proposes the following measures to enhance capacity building:

- **Skill acquisition**

Every employee of the cultural establishment needs to be trained to obtain professional expertise. Such training should be conducted, regardless if the SZCV employee is a full-time employee, or part-time; or is familiar or not with the Zulu customs. Hence, the researcher recommends that the SZCV appoints a registered Skills Development Facilitator (SDF) to undertake a skills audit and assist in the development of a Workplace Skills Plan (WSP) within the cultural establishment. This will assist the SZCV to identify needed skills and describe the range of skills development interventions that will be used to address these needs, whilst increasing the possibility of promotions and improving the salary scales in the SZCV. Furthermore, the WSP will facilitate access to a required grant for skills training within the SETAs (Sector Education and Training Authorities). In the case of the SZCV, a relevant SETA would be the CATHSSETA (Culture, Art, Tourism, Hospitality, and Sport Sector Education and Training Authority) which is one of 21 SETAs established under the Skills Development Act of 1998. It aims to facilitate skills development within arts, culture and heritage, conservation, gaming and lotteries, hospitality, sport, recreation and fitness, as well as the travel and tourism sector. The funding is paid by employers as a levy for skills development and 80 per cent of the funds are passed through SARS (South African Revenue Service) and the DHET (Department of Higher Education and Training) to the SETAs.

Employees also need to be rewarded with training certificates after they have undergone training. This will boost their morale and keep such employees motivated. As an agendum to sustaining quality services to the tourists, such training should be conducted quarterly amongst reservationists and cultural dancers, who engage mostly with the tourists; while annual training should be conducted amongst employees, such as the room attendants, porters and drivers. The quarterly training has been recommended for the afore-mentioned employees due to the ever-changing nature of their work, while the latter group has been recommended due to the monotonous nature of their work. The SZCV should also extend customer services training for employees who indicated that they had not been trained in SZCV. Such employees include drivers, maintenance labourer, porter, receptionist/reservationist, scullery, security and spaza shop retailer.



The SZCV should also improve its human resource process through collecting data on human potential (skills) in the destination before hiring local community members of Eshowe, as this will instigate local recruitment procedures. SZCV, in co-operation with local government, needs to provide regulatory frameworks that ensure economic, environmental and cultural sustainability, as well as poverty alleviation and increased social inclusion for its tourism product. The cultural establishment should also increase knowledge and technology transfer, sharing relevant computer software and new technology, and assisting with setting up management systems. The SZCV should also increase “awareness-raising” on tourism issues within the local community. Such “awareness-raising” may be simply to increase understanding and support for tourism among the local community.

- **Internship**

The SZCV should invest in staff training, collaborating with local authorities and institutions to develop training programmes and promote recruitment, by providing placements/internships for local students studying towards tourism qualifications.

#### **5.6.4 Community development through interactive participation**

The term “Interactive participation” refers to collective reasoning or brainstorming by a group to solve a certain issue affecting the concerned group of individuals. This initiative – interactive participation has often been used to address managerial issues, and to sustain and develop ideas (Buntings 2010: 761). In consonance with this preposition, the management of the SZCV can use this approach to liaise with individuals from the community, as well as tourists to re-evaluate, analyse and assess activities and services rendered by the SZCV. This interactive participation can be carried out on a quarterly basis. Such an initiative can result in the innovation of new tourism ideas and sustainability and development of the SZCV.

The tourism planning process of SZCV, when re-evaluated and re-designed, should include community views, as this may result in the gradual realization of SZCV’s full potentials. Furthermore, this avails the opportunity for community members to identify and highlight concerns that are most imperative. More so, community involvement can result in creativity which will enhance the Zulu cultural experience amongst tourists.

Additionally, this will also ensure community support for the cultural tourism establishment.

### **5.7 Recommendations for future research**

The study presents a diverse range of opportunities for further studies. While this study focused on the contribution of tourism to local community development as well as strategies for improving local community development through SZCV in Eshowe, further studies can be conducted on the following aspects:

- Employability of community members in South African cultural villages;
- An investigation of stakeholders' level of interaction and involvement in the South African tourism industry; and
- This study can be replicated in other cultural tourist attractions in South Africa, such as the Shangana Cultural Village in Hazyview, Mpumalanga, as well as the Basotho Cultural Village in the Free State.

Such a study will allow for the comparison of strategies utilised by various rural tourism destinations in order to foster rural development through tourism. Furthermore, a study of this nature may also provide valuable and comparable insights into tourism as a poverty elimination strategy. Such studies are highly imperative, due to the high incidences of poverty recorded across rural communities of South Africa, which are, often, the host communities of most tourist attractions.

### **5.8 Conclusion**

This study demonstrated tourism's contribution to local community development in the SZCV cultural establishment. The findings indicated that tourism, through the SZCV, has contributed immensely to local-community development through the following means: offering employment opportunities to the local community of Eshowe; provision of financial support; donations and supplies of computers and textbooks for the Ncemaneni primary school of Eshowe; preservation of the Zulu culture; and raising of funds to construct the local primary school of Ncemaneni. However, SZCV is faced with

some setbacks. Consequently, setbacks, such as lack of capacity building opportunities and community involvement in tourism planning, minimal employee training, not recognising high performing employees, as well as minimal existence of community development programmes in SZCV have undermined the growth and development of the SZCV. The cultural establishment should, therefore, consider re-evaluating the tourism planning and training process, in order to integrate more employees and community members of Eshowe in the two processes. The SZCV should further improvise more strategies to achieving an impactful community development strategy besides the current approaches being used. The establishment should also seek more ways to reward high performing employees and develop more community development programmes for the community of Eshowe.

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## Appendix A: Letter of information and consent

A1526 Inanda Newtown  
Durban  
4000  
23 April 2014

Dear participant,

I am currently undertaking a research project as part of my studies towards a Master's degree in Technology in the Faculty of Management Sciences at Durban University of Technology. The study aims to examine the contribution of tourism to local community development by SZCV.

Would you agree to be interviewed for the study? The interview will take approximately 20 minutes. Participation is voluntary and you are free to withdraw from the study at any time without giving reasons, and without prejudice or any adverse consequences. The information you give will only be used for research purposes and will be aggregated with other responses and only the overall or average information will be used. Your identity and individual answers will be kept totally confidential. Should you wish to discuss this further please feel free to contact me (Nothando Sithole, researcher, cellphone number: 079 043 4559, email: sitholenothando@yahoo.com, or my supervisor, Dr Giampiccoli, Research Associate, telephone: 072 924 9386, andrea.giampiccoli@gmail.com), or the (IREC Administrator, Lavisha Deonarian: 031 373 2900 or LavishaD@dut.ac.za ).

Your assistance will be much appreciated,

Yours faithfully,

Nothando Sithole  
079 043 4559  
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.com

## Appendix B: Interview Questions

Interview Questions for employees of Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village

Name of Person Interviewed:

Date of Interview:

Place of Interview

### SECTION A – Biographical Data

**A1. Age** .....

**A2. Gender**

Male	1
Female	2

**A3. Race**

White	1
Black	2
Coloured	3
Indian	4
If other, specify .....	5

**A4. Were you born in Eshowe?**

Yes ..... No .....

**A4a if answered no to question A4, where were you born?**

.....

**A4b If born outside of South Africa, which country?**

.....

**A5. Indicate your highest level of education**

No education	1
Grade 1-5	2
Grade 6-11	3
Matric Certificate	4
University Diploma/Degree	5
If other, specify .....	6

**A6. How long have you been employed in SZCV after its establishment in 1984?**

Less than a year	1
5 years	2
10 years	3
More than 10 years	4

**SECTION B –Tourism employment categories offered to SZCV employees**

**B1. What is your job description at SZCV?**

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**B2. Are you a permanent or a temporary employee at SZCV?**

Permanent	1
Temporary	2

**B3. Are you a full time-part time employee at SZCV?**

Full-Time Employee	1
Part-Time Employee	2

**B4. Please indicate level of job satisfaction**

Very satisfied	1
Satisfied	2
Neutral	3
Unsatisfied	4
Very unsatisfied	5

**SECTION C – Capacity Building**

**C1. Were you trained for your position?**

Yes	1
No	2

**C2. If answered yes to B1, please describe the training you have undergone**

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.....

**C3. How many times have you undergone training?**

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.....

**C4. Did you receive any training certificate?**

Yes Specify.....	1
No	2

**SECTION D– Employment Information**

**D1. Were you employed prior to working at SZCV?**

Yes	1
No	2

**D2. If yes, then please provide previous employment description prior to working at SZCV, what were your employment positions where you were employed at, what was the name the company/companies previously employed at, how much did you earn (higher or lower income compared to the salary you earn in SZCV).**

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**D3. Has your salary increased since working at SZCV?**

Yes	1
No	2

**D4. Please indicate your current salary per month**

Less than R500	1
R500-R1000	2
R1001-R2000	3
R2001-3000	4
R3001-R4000	5
More than R4001	6

**D5. What has been your job history in SZCV (please indicate various positions held, possible increase in salary and promotion opportunities).**

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**SECTION E – Community participation in the Decision-making and tourism planning process within SZCV**

**E1. Do you participate in decision-making in relation to the management and/or activities of SZCV?**

Yes	1
No	2

**E2. If yes to D1, please explain how, if no explain why?**

.....

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.....

.....

.....

.....



**E3. Are you involved in the tourism planning process of SZCV?**

Yes ..... No .....

**E4. If yes to D3, please explain how, if no explain why?**

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.....  
.....

**SECTION F- The contribution of tourism in SZCV**

**F1. Community development is a process designed to improve the community's quality of life and to create conditions of economic and social progress for the whole community. Please explain in your own words what community development means to you?**

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.....  
.....

**F2. To what extent does SZCV contribute to local community development? For instance, does SZCV lead to skills development, is there more employment opportunities for Eshowe community in SZCV, is there community empowerment workshops for Eshowe community by SZCV, is part of the revenue from SZCV used for local infrastructure in Eshowe, does SZCV expand local products and services or does SZCV improve the standard of living for Eshowe community? Please explain**

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**F3. Does SZCV have a positive or negative impact on the community? Please list examples**

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.....  
.....  
.....

**F4. Is there any community development programs that inform local community about how they can benefit from being involved in SZCV?**

Yes	1
No	2

**F5. If yes to E4 please provide a list of the community development programs and explain how they benefit the community of Eshowe.**

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**F6. Are there any recommendations for improving local community development of SZCV in Eshowe?**

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Thank you for your co-operation and assistance

### Appendix C: Correlation Table

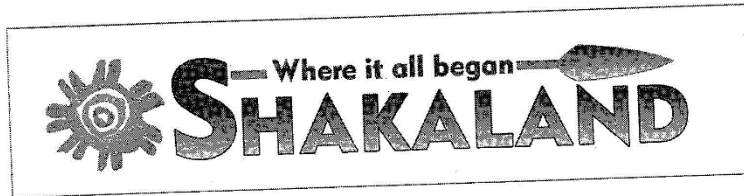
			Were you trained for your position?	Were you employed prior to working at SZCV?	Has your salary increased since working at SZCV?	Please indicate your current salary per month	Do you participate in decision-making in relation to the management and/or activities of SZCV?	Are you involved in the tourism planning process of SZCV?	Is there any community development programs that inform local community about how they can benefit from being involved in SZCV?
Spearman's rho	Were you trained for your position?	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	1.000 65						
	Were you employed prior to working at SZCV?	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.063 .620 64	1.000 64					
	Has your salary increased since working at SZCV?	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.055 .662 65	.134 .291 64	1.000 65				
	Please indicate your current salary per month	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	-.209 .121 56	-.261 .054 55	-.549** .000 56	1.000 56			
	Do you participate in decision-making in relation to the management and/or activities of SZCV?	Correlation Coefficient Sig. (2-tailed) N	.395** .001 65	.096 .450 64	.216 .084 65	-.393** .003 56	1.000 65		
	Are you involved in the tourism planning process	Correlation Coefficient	.395**	.005	.181	-.150	.286*	1.000	

of SZCV?	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.967	.149	.269	.021		
	N	65	64	65	56	65	65	
Is there any community development programs that inform local community about how they can benefit from being involved in SZCV?	Correlation Coefficient	.302*	.034	.049	-.087	.163	.595**	1.000
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.014	.787	.701	.524	.195	.000	
	N	65	64	65	56	65	65	65

\*\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

\* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

## Appendix D: Letter of authorisation from Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village



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**23 April 2014**

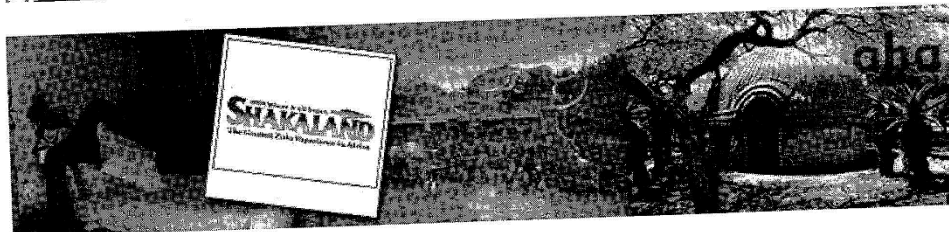
I Hanlie Lombard, General Manager of Shakaland, confirm  
That we will allow Nothando Sithole, to certain information  
For her thesis on the contribution of Tourism to community development: the  
case of Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village.

Regards



**Hanlie Lombard**  
General Manager | Shakaland

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## Appendix E: Editing Certificate

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23 January 2017

EDITING CERTIFICATE

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Dissertation title: "The contribution of tourism to local community development: the case of Shakaland Zulu Cultural Village"

This is to certify that I have proofread and edited the dissertation of Nthanda Valencia Sithole for accuracy of language and expression. After implementing changes, wherever applicable,

I declare that this dissertation, to the best of my knowledge and ability, is grammatically correct and error-free.



Dr H.L. Garbharran

B.A., Honours, M.P.A., D.P.A.