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# Conference Proceedings

Collaboration & Co-creation Opportunities in Tourism

Edited by Cinà van Zyl



# Collaboration & Co-creation Opportunities in Tourism

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## MESSAGE FROM THE EDITOR

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On behalf of the University of South Africa and our sponsors, I am honoured and delighted to express our warmest South African welcome and gratitude that you have come to join us in our Rainbow Nation for the 7th Biennial International Tourism Studies Association (ITSA) Conference in association with the Tourism Educators of South Africa.

ITSA's mission to encourage interaction and co-operation between developed and developing countries closely links to this conference's theme of Collaboration and Co-creation Opportunities in Tourism, and fully reflects the importance of tourism as a modern-day engine for growth and development. In South Africa, tourism directly employs more employees than any other sector and remains a vital contributor to the South African economy. By being the first African host of the ITSA Conference, UNISA is contributing to the efforts to engage scholars from Africa with those spread across the globe in sharing research findings and in promoting ITSA's Leadership Agenda of reducing language and cultural barriers, facilitating in communication and generating more cooperation and networking among tourism scholars.

We are pleased to present the proceedings of the 7<sup>th</sup> Biennial International Tourism Studies Association Conference and the 2<sup>nd</sup> International TESA Conference entitled "Collaboration & Co-Creation Opportunities in Tourism". The event was organised by UNISA at the CSIR ICC in Tshwane from 6-10 August 2018. The proceedings present the work of academics and practitioners from across the world conducted on various aspects of innovation and progress in tourism.

All papers for the conference were double blind peer reviewed in two phases. All the abstracts submitted for the conference were firstly peer reviewed by two experts in the field for relevance to the conference theme and contribution to the academic debate. 152 abstracts were reviewed and 128 were found acceptable. All accepted papers were then given the opportunity to submit full conference proceeding papers utilising the comments from the first phase of double blind peer review for the improvement and submission of the full conference paper. Forty-seven full conference proceedings were submitted for inclusion in the conference proceeding, of these 29 were accepted for inclusion in the conference proceedings document. These full paper submissions were again double blind peer reviewed by two experts in the field as well as the editor. During the second review process each submission was reviewed for a) relevance to the conference theme b) quality of the paper in terms of its theoretical relevance and significance of the topic and c) contribution to the academic debate.

The 128 oral presentations covered a wide range of inter-disciplinary themes. The contributions were thematically selected for each group and are arranged in order of presentation in the proceedings. The subthemes / issues to be covered by the conference include, Tourism Cities and Urban Tourism; The Brazilian, Russian, Indian, Chinese and South African outbound tourism market; Tourism Policy, Planning and Governance; The Blue Ocean Economy and Tourism; Teaching and Learning in Tourism and Hospitality; Wildlife Tourism, Conservation and Nature Based Tourism products; Tourism and Hospitality Trends; Sustainable Macro Economic Development and Related Themes.

The editors and ITSA anticipate that readers of this volume will find the papers informative, thought provoking and of value to their research.

Cinà van Zyl

Conference Chair & Editor

UNISA

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## PEER-REVIEWED PAPERS

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# Exploring the factors influencing the behavior of the wine tourist, shaping motives and intentions: the case of Santorini, Greece

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## Abstract

The purpose of this paper is to explore and investigate the factors that affect the behavior of wine tourists in the island of Santorini, regarding the motivating factors that influence winery visitation, wine tourists' level of satisfaction, interest and knowledge on wine, as well as their demographic characteristics. The methodological approach of this paper was based on quantitative research methods. A survey was conducted with the use of structured questionnaires, which were given to winery visitors shortly after the end of their tour and visit. This research showed that wine tourism was not the main motivation for visiting the island of Santorini, but having a wine tasting experience was the main motivation for winery visitation. Research also showed, among various interesting findings, that the most important factor connected with their satisfaction was the quality of the staff that worked in the wineries. Understanding the motives, behavior and level of satisfaction of wine tourists in Santorini, will help draw their profile, and will assist wine industry stakeholders in making better decisions in order to strengthen their individual businesses and the Santorini wine industry as a whole, while creating a better experience for tourists.

## Keywords

wine tourism, wine tourist, profile, motivation, satisfaction.

### 1. Introduction

In order to be able to analyze wine tourism in depth, a thorough research is required in the wine tourism market, including tourists, since the wine producers and winery's perceptions are not enough for the sustainable development of the industry (Carlsen, 2004). The existing limited academic research in an area that wine tourism is developing rapidly, namely the island of Santorini in the Aegean region, was the main reason for undertaking this specific research. Existing infrastructures and organized activities combine wine with the local cuisine and alongside with the island's traditions compose an attractive tourism product, capable of highlighting the wine experience in the area (Kokkosis & Valassa, 2012). According to a survey conducted by Marathronas (2017) for CNN Travel, the island of Santorini is on the list of top 15 wine tourism destinations internationally.

### 2. Literature review

Wine tourism is a form of special interest tourism, and a significant component of both the wine and tourism industries (Hall *et al.*, 2011). According to Hall & Macionis (1998) wine tourism involves the visitation of vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for which wine tasting and experiencing the attributes of a wine growing region, are the prime motivating factors. Wine tourism concerns travel of wine lovers to wineries, wine growing regions and wine themed attractions, though it is debatable whether only wine lovers should be considered part of wine tourism (Getz, 2002).

Despite the significant progress made over the last decade investigating the profile of actual and potential wine tourists, the variety of factors affecting consumer behavior needs further exploration (Molina, *et al.*, 2015). Academic studies that investigated the profile, motives, intentions, attitudes, behavior typology and satisfaction of wine tourists mainly took place in the New World Countries (Byrd *et al.*, 2016) and less in European countries such as Spain, Italy, France (Lopez-Guzman *et al.* 2014).

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Similarly in Greece, academics have mostly addressed the issue of wine tourism through the supply side, mainly concentrating on the perspective of winemakers, rather than wine tourists (Stavrinoudis, *et al.*, 2012; Vlachvei, *et al.*, 2012). On the demand side, there is limited research, mainly exploring the profile and typology of wine tourists on the “wine roads” of Northern Greece (Alebaki & Iakovidou, 2011; Alebaki, *et al.*, 2015).

In general, the wine tourist seems to have a high level of income (Lopez-Guzman *et al.* 2014) suggesting a high purchasing power (Charters & Menival, 2011) and a high level of education (Carmichael, 2005). Hall *et al.* (2011) suggest that as in the New World countries the wine industry and the characteristics of their culture and landscape are different compared to Europe, similarly the typical profile of the wine tourist is also different.

Education has repetitively been seen as a motivation in winery visitation (Fountain & Charters, 2010) and personal development was identified as a vital attribute desired by wine tourists (Sparks, 2007). The scenery and the vast open areas with vineyards are an important motive (Getz, 1999), as the characteristics of the wine region could stimulate winery visitation (Hall *et al.* 2011). The wine experience, which is associated with wine tasting, training and friendly staff, constitutes one of the main targets of wine tourists (Getz & Brown, 2006). Wine tourists tend to choose a wine destination taking under consideration its image, local cuisine and weather conditions in the area (Sparks, 2007).

Since wine tourism is considered an interactive and not a passive form of tourism (Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2013), experiencing it in all its dimensions leads to the creation of strong memories (Gilmore & Pine, 2002).

### 3. Methods

The methodological approach of this paper was based on quantitative research methods. A survey was conducted with the use of structured questionnaires, which were given to winery visitors shortly after the end of their tour and visit. The questionnaires employed for the purpose of this research contained closed questions. They were easier and quicker to complete, the quantification and coding was easier and there was the possibility to ask more questions in relation to the time and money available.

The participants in this research were selected with the use of convenience and purposive sampling. A total of 280 questionnaires were distributed during a period of three weeks in August 2017, of which 161 were returned completed. However, 150 questionnaires were processed for statistical analysis, as there were 11 respondents who were Greek and could not be included, as this investigation concerned international tourists.

### 4. Findings

There were 150 respondents who took part in this research from 4 wineries in Santorini. A total 78.4% of the respondents visited Santorini for the first time and 21.6% were repeat visitors.

Respondents were asked which the main purpose for visiting Santorini was. As shown in Table 1, the highest percentage of the respondents (30%) visited Santorini for holidays.

*Table 1: Purpose of visit*

Wine tourism - visiting wineries	6	<b>4%</b>
Experience local culture	13	<b>9%</b>
Holiday	45	<b>30%</b>
Relaxation - leisure - recreation	37	<b>25%</b>
Cruise	4	<b>3%</b>
Attractive scenery - sunset	20	<b>13%</b>
Meet with friends and relatives	4	<b>3%</b>
Business	2	<b>1%</b>
Sightseeing - visiting attractions in the region	14	<b>9%</b>
Wedding anniversary	3	<b>2%</b>
Honeymoon	2	<b>1%</b>

More than half of the respondents, 65% stated that they were repeat winery visitors and 35% were visiting a winery for the first time. In order to determine the future intention of the participants, they were asked whether they were going to visit another winery during their staying in the island of Santorini. Results showed that 72% of the respondents had no intention to visit another winery in Santorini during their staying and only 28% answered positively.

As presented in Table 2, the most popular activity that respondents were engaged during their visit to the winery was wine tasting (33%).

*Table 2: Wine tourism activities during winery visit*

Guided winery - vineyard tour	21	<b>14%</b>
Self-guided winery - vineyard tour	6	<b>4%</b>
Tasted local products on display in the winery	18	<b>12%</b>
Dined at winery restaurant	14	<b>9%</b>
Purchased local products on display at the winery	3	<b>2%</b>
Purchased winery souvenirs	4	<b>3%</b>
Purchased wine	19	<b>13%</b>
Wine tasting	50	<b>33%</b>
Meet and discuss with the winemaker	3	<b>2%</b>
Attended staff educational presentations	12	<b>8%</b>

Table 3 shows the main motives for winery visitation according to the participants of this research.

*Table 3: Main motive for winery visitation*

To have a wine tasting experience	58	<b>39%</b>
To experience the atmosphere	19	<b>13%</b>
To drink wine	16	<b>11%</b>
To have a relaxing day out	9	<b>6%</b>
To find interesting and unique wines	7	<b>5%</b>
To increase my knowledge	6	<b>4%</b>
Positive recommendation by others	6	<b>4%</b>
The high reputation of the winery	5	<b>3%</b>
To learn more about the wine making process	5	<b>3%</b>
To go on a winery tour	4	<b>3%</b>
To be entertained	3	<b>2%</b>
For the rural setting	3	<b>2%</b>
To buy wine	3	<b>2%</b>
Positive past experience	2	<b>1%</b>
To socialize	2	<b>1%</b>
To eat at the winery's restaurant	2	<b>1%</b>

Results showed that 75% of the respondents do not have extensive knowledge on wine and 85% are not wine specialists. Most of the respondents (77%) do not read frequently articles that specialize in wine and 86% are not members in wine clubs. However, 95% are interested in wine and wine related activities and 67% stated that wine related activities are a sufficient element for taking the trip to the winery. As far as the consumption of wine was concerned, as it is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Consumption of wine

I drink a lot of wine	74	<b>49%</b>
I consume enough	43	<b>29%</b>
I drink a little	26	<b>17%</b>
I do not drink at all	7	<b>5%</b>

Additionally, it was important to investigate the level of satisfaction acquired from the winery visitation, as well as, the experiences and feelings derived from this wine tourism experience, presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Wine tourists' feelings and experiences

Opportunity to relax	41	<b>27%</b>
Novel – New experiences	27	<b>18%</b>
Sensation seeking	21	<b>14%</b>
Stimulation	17	<b>11%</b>
Indulgence	15	<b>10%</b>
Possibility of adventure	11	<b>7%</b>
Share similar values with other people	7	<b>5%</b>
Opportunity for introspection	4	<b>3%</b>
Possibility of romance	4	<b>3%</b>
Feeling of achievement	2	<b>1%</b>
Spiritual experiences	1	<b>1%</b>

Respondents also evaluated the most important factors that contributed to the overall satisfaction of the winery visitation. The most important factor for 23% of the sample was the politeness and friendliness of the staff, 19% stated the professionalism and knowledge of the staff, 18% the staff attitude, 11% service quality and 7% the individual attention from staff. Factors such as variety of wines (6%), attractiveness of the scenery (6%), winery tasting room (5%), rural landscape (3%), recreational and educational activities (1%) and wine and souvenir purchase (1%) follow with lower percentages. The last question concerns the sample's overall satisfaction from their visit to the winery. Results show that more than half of the sample (59%) were extremely satisfied, 37% stated that they are satisfied and 4% were neither satisfied nor dissatisfied.

The majority of the respondents, 62% were female and 38% were male. Visiting wineries is evidently more popular between the ages 18-29 as this band represented 73% of the respondents, followed by 24% in the age band 30-39.

Results also show that more than half of the respondents, 53%, have a bachelor degree, 31% have a master's degree and 7% stated having a PhD degree. Another 9% stated secondary education. There were no respondents with primary education or no formal education.

Finally, as far as income was concerned, 27% of the respondents stated a monthly income above 4.501€, 21% stated 1501-2500€, 18% had an income of 2501-3500€, 16% stated 3501-4500€, 13% earned 751-1500€ and finally 5% stated that earned less than 750€ at a monthly basis.

## 5. Implications

The main limitation of this research would be the collection period of primary data, as according to the wineries' managers, it does not reflect the seasonality of the product. Moreover, this sample would not be completely objective, as the number of participants is small compared to the total market. Although the sample concerns international tourists, the research is limited by its exploratory nature and in particular because it took place in a specific part of Greece. Finally, another major constraint of this research was that a large number of tourists refused to participate due to time constraints, as most of them visited the wineries in organized excursions and were on a very tight time schedule. It is suggested to repeat this research with similar objectives in

wineries in different parts of Greece as well as in a different time during the year in Santorini, preferable May or September, to investigate similarities or differences in the data acquired.

## 6. Conclusions

This paper contributes to the expanding of our understanding and knowledge of the context of wine tourism, examined from the demand side. The profile of wine tourists in Santorini wineries differs, compared to wineries in Europe and the New World. While findings agree with the literature as far as high level of education and income are concerned, differences can be spotted in age and gender.

Wine tourism is not considered the main motivation when choosing Santorini as a destination. The most popular activity for the wine tourists that constituted our sample, was wine tasting and guided winery vineyard tours. The main motives influencing the decision for winery visitation involved having a wine tasting experience, to drink wine and experience the atmosphere of the winery. The majority is not interested and has no intention of repeating the visit to the same or a different winery. Results show that the most important factors contributing to satisfaction concern polite, friendly, professional and knowledgeable staff, and service quality in general. The design of quality wine services would highlight the social aspect and could help approach both international and domestic wine tourists.

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## **An exploratory study of Muslim Millennial travellers in the digital age**

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### **Abstract**

The objective of this paper is to investigate the adoption and influence of social media by Muslim Millennial Travellers (MMT) when making their travel decisions. This study distinguishes the MMTs from the other millennials in terms of their differences in values, preferences and behaviour. The young Muslim travellers are digital natives who actively engage in social media to share and seek travel information within the e-ummah (online Muslim community). The MMTs motivations for social media, the most preferred social media and the ways in which they use digital media are investigated. A quantitative online study of 372 Muslim millennials travellers (MMT) aged 18-36, residing internationally is undertaken. The study provides managerial implications and a future research agenda. The findings indicate that MMT's use social media to remain highly accessible and visible online when they travel and use it actively for information seeking and sharing of halal tourism products and services. Social Networking Sites were mostly used to post status updates, actively curate their journeys and stay virtually connected. The MMTs demonstrated more favourable affective and cognitive attitudes toward Instagram and Facebook compared to Twitter and Snapchat. The contributes towards understanding the critical and evolving role of social media platforms as marketing tools in influencing Muslim Millennials travel purchase behaviours. Currently, there is no significant research on the MMTs, their social media use and the influence on their travel behaviour. This paper provides insights into this fast growing market segment's digital behaviour and the implications for travel planning.

### **Keywords**

Muslim millennial travellers, halal travel, Muslim-friendly travel, MMT travel behaviour, social media, digital platforms

#### **1. Introduction**

The rapidly growing global Muslim travel market presents a significant potential for the international market of Muslim travel related products and services. Mastercard-CrescentRating Global Muslim Travel Index 2017 (GMTI 2017) reports that there were an estimated 121 million Muslim international travellers in 2016, and this is projected to grow to 156 million by 2020. It has been further noted that the fast growing global Muslim population is generally young and increasingly affluent (Henderson, 2016) and that millennials are a major commercial force (Thomson Reuters & Dinar Standard, 2017).

The Muslim millennials are tech-savvy, self-empowered and enthusiastic consumers whose identities proudly encompass both faith and modernity (Janmohamed, 2016). Muslim millennial travellers (hereafter MMTs) make themselves highly accessible and visible online when they travel and the internet serves as a digital bridge for them to easily retrieve information and share their experiences of halal destinations, photos and commentaries on food options online and through sharing applications. This has implications for nuanced use of social media for marketing halal products and services to the MMTs.

While there has been increasing scholarly attention on Millennials in tourism (Moscardo & Benckendorff, 2010) and Muslim travellers (Jafari & Scott, 2014; Henderson, 2016), there is no significant study on the travel decision making process of Muslim millennial travellers, particularly their digital media habits when travelling. Social media platforms can be effective marketing tools in reaching out to and influencing the MMTs travel behaviours. To address the current gap, an exploratory transnational study was undertaken to investigate the use of social media by the MMTs in relation to their travel consumption patterns. The aim of this working paper is to present the preliminary findings on one section of the wider research on MMTs digital media use.

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## 2. Literature Review

In recent studies of digital habits of millennials (Valkenburg *et al.*, 2006; Bolton 2013; Deloitte, 2017) there are some commonly-shared traits and characteristics of Millennials that cut across cultures. Being exposed to constantly changing technologies that offer instant gratifications and multiple sources of information, millennials are seen as “more open to change, technologically savvy, better learners, more tolerant of diversity, and efficient multi-taskers” than previous generations (NAS 2006 cited in Bolton 2013, p.252). Millennials are more open to new technology as consumers in terms of using new digital devices and information systems, using the internet from multiple locations and devices (Vodanovich *et al.*, 2010).

Furthermore, a driving motivation for millennials’ use of social media is to socialize and experience a sense of community (Valkenburg *et al.* 2006), leading to them accumulating “social capital” (Berthon *et al.* 2011) where Social networking sites (SNS) like Facebook can boost their sociality because their identities are sustained by what they share and what others say about them, affecting their psychological and physical well-being such as strengthening familial ties and nurturing friendships that boost their self-esteem. In recent studies of millennials from Asian countries with Muslim populations, similar traits, uses and gratifications were also observed in their daily social media use (Manik, 2015; MMTS, 2017).

Beyond these generational similarities, Muslim Millennials’ digital usage are unique in that the internet has easily become the default space for fast, information-seeking and fact-checking on what lifestyle products from food to cosmetics and other services qualifies as “halal” within the e-ummah (online global Muslim community) (Janmohamed, 2016). By sharing their travel experiences and searching for relevant ‘halal’ information through social media, Muslim travellers actively engage in constructing their Muslim identity, meanings, mutual understandings and knowledge with each other (Mishra and Semaan, 2010).

The young Muslim population take an active leadership position in the wider Muslim community to direct their fellow Muslims towards products that adhere to Islamic values. Social media is particularly used by the young in the community to guide and support Muslim travellers religious practices (Kamarulzaman *et al.*, 2016). These travellers easily form ‘imagined communities’ (Gruzd, Wellman, & Takhteyev, 2011, p.1298) through their shared use of social media applications, platforms and websites. It was found that social media websites influence Muslim consumers through four mechanisms: (1) identifying halal options and sources of products such as restaurants, (2) evaluating tradeoffs in Halal product offering and providing consumers with the power and legitimacy to make informed decisions, (3) verifying authenticity of halal products through undertaking protector and educator roles, and (4) protecting standards through mobilising the Muslim community to unite and raise Halal standards (Kamarulzaman *et al.*, 2016) .

The kind of content MMTs share via social media often focus on curating their local experiences over food and places to visit, ranging from topics about navigating cities, visiting tourist attractions, other places of interest, and experiences with halal food, restaurants or cafes, that reinforce their Muslim identity, values related to family and sociality as well as cosmopolitanism (Janmohamed, 2016). Hence, they are also projecting their imagined affordances as young Millennials who enjoy digital access and social media literacy, choosing to regularly share their travels on popular social media platforms such as Facebook, Instagram and personalised applications such as WhatsApp (Nagy & Neff, 2015).

Di Pietro *et al.* (2012) observe that the way people plan for, buy and consume tourist products and services through social networks can make the latter an efficient tool for tourism business and this can dramatically change the role of tourism

intermediaries. In line with the growing importance of digital media in travel consumption, this research studies the adoption and influence of social media by the MMTs.

### 3. Methodology

This working paper is part of a larger study researching on the travel behaviour of MMTs. As the purpose was to collect descriptive data, a quantitative survey form was designed to query on their preferred social media applications when travelling, their motivations for using social media applications, Keywords used in their online search and reasons for using social media during their travel. Respondents were provided with drop down menus to indicate their choices. MMTs were invited via various social media platforms and emails and they completed the questionnaire via SurveyMonkey. This paper presents the preliminary findings of 372 MMTs aged 18 – 36 years, residing transnationally. SPSS was utilised as a statistical tool to analyse the data.

### 4. Findings

#### 4.1 Respondents' Demographic Profile

A total of 372 persons responded to the survey. Some respondents did not provide demographical details (missing) and hence valid total did not always sum to total N size. The respondents' demographic representations are illustrated in the Table 1<sup>1</sup>. In this study, a substantial number of the respondents (n=270, 88%) were from Asia Pacific. This finding is congruent to geographical representation reported in other studies where only 20% of the world's Muslims live in the Middle East and North Africa, while 60% reside in Asia (Thomson Reuters and Dinar Standard, 2017).

*Table 1: Demographic and geographic representation of respondents*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent
Gender	Men	121	33%	39%
	Women	190	51%	61%
	Valid Total	311	84%	100%
	Missing	61	16%	
Age	18 to 20	21	6%	7%
	21 to 28	155	42%	50%
	29 to 36	135	36%	43%
	Valid Total	311	84%	100
	Missing	61	16%	
Region (of Nationality)	Africa	13	3%	4%
	Americas	5	1%	2%
	Asia and the Pacific	270	73%	88%
	Europe	14	4%	5%
	Middle East	6	2%	2%
	Valid Total	308	83%	100%
	Missing	64	17%	
<b>Total N (Valid Total + Missing)</b>		<b>372</b>	<b>100%</b>	

#### 4.2 Social Media Uses and Gratifications of MMTs

As digital natives, MMTs use social media primarily to remain highly accessible and visible online when they travel. This allowed them to connect and guide other MMTs within the wider e-ummah. Referring to Figure 1, when asked about their preferred social media applications while travelling, respondents rated their intensity of using Instagram and Facebook higher than that of Snapchat and Twitter. Respondents were allowed to provide up to three choices in their answers to the questions reported. For

<sup>1</sup> Some respondents did not provide demographical details and hence categories did not always sum to total sample size.

each item, the percentage indicated represented the number of times the item was chosen out of the possible total of 315 responses.

Respondents indicated a greater intensity of use—or more accurately more favourable affective and cognitive attitudes toward—Instagram and Facebook compared to Twitter. Alhbash and Ma (2017)’s study on social media uses and gratifications, found Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and Snapchat as the most used social media platforms and that the greatest amount of time was spent on Instagram.

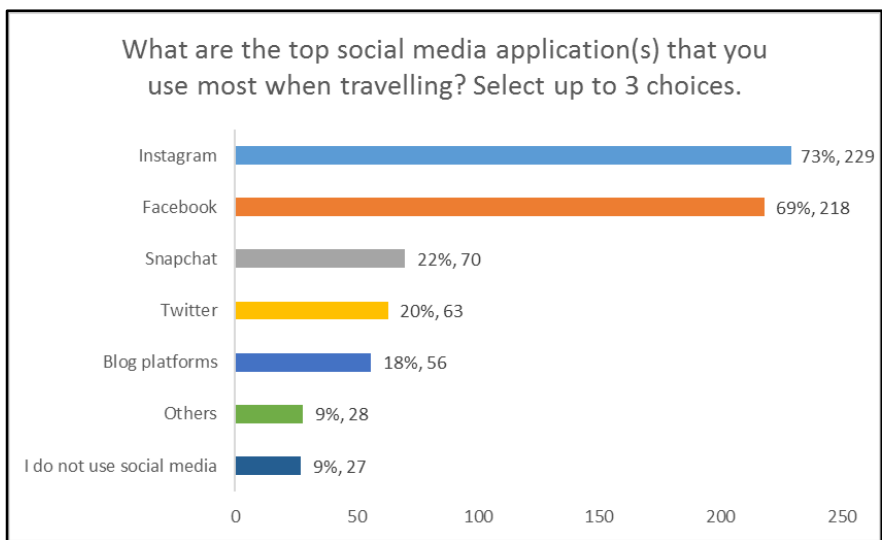


Figure 1: Social media applications used when traveling: percentage and count of each choice (out of 315 valid responses)

The MMT’s in the research are motivated to use Social Networking Sites to post (1) Status updates on social media of their trip (n=200, 63%), (2) actively curate their journeys on Photo- sharing sites (n=176, 56%), and (3) stay connected virtually through Instant Messaging apps (n=106, 34%). Figure 2 illustrates these means of sharing experiences. Similar to the previous survey question, respondents were allowed to provide up to three choices in their answers to the questions reported. Therefore, the percentage indicated for each item represented the number of times the item was chosen out of the possible total of 315 responses.

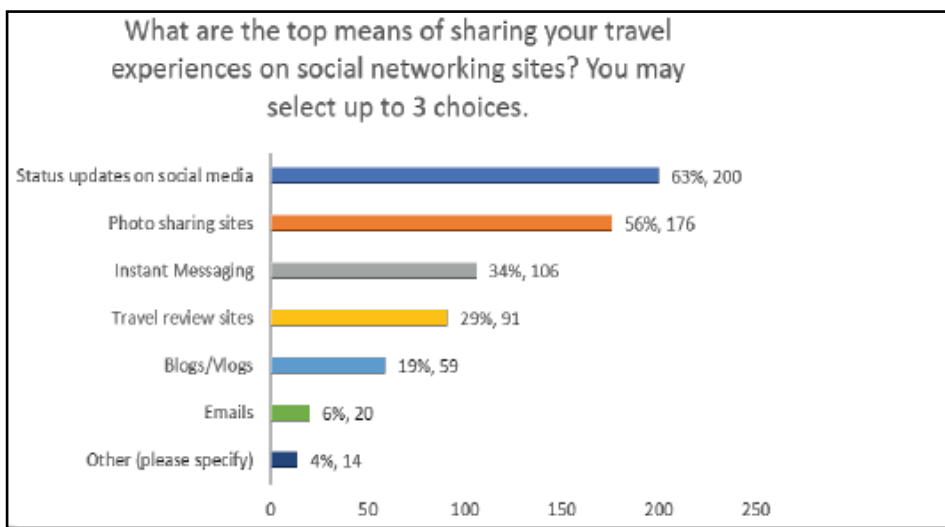


Figure 2: Top means of sharing travel experiences on social networking sites: percentage and count of each choice (out of 315 valid responses)

When asked about their motivations for using social media when travelling, about half of these travellers (48%) are more likely to use social media apps instrumentally to share information digitally about their travel experiences with friends and other travellers (about local experiences over food and places to visit, ranging from topics about navigating cities, visiting tourist attractions, other places of interest, and experiences with halal food, restaurants or cafes) and seek information about places and things to do there (36%). The descriptives were extrapolated from the survey item: *List down 3 keywords or phrases you use the most when doing online searches for your trip (e.g. 'halal food', 'things to do', 'direction of Qibla' etc)*. A total of 923 responses were received from 315 respondents. These responses were coded into nine categories, namely, information sharing, information seeking, self-documentation, social interaction, medium appeal, entertainment/passing time, others, and do not use social media. The coding yielded 449 unique responses, that is, each respondent was allocated only one response in each category even if she indicated twice. For example, a respondent stated “halal food” for her first choice and “halal restaurant” for her second. Both choices were coded as one category and one count was allocated to the respondent rather than two. For each category in Figure 3, the percentage indicated the number of times the category was chosen out of the possible total of 315 respondents.

Kamarulzaman *et al.* (2016) point out how important digital media is as a tool for Muslims searching for products and services that comply with their religious standards and beliefs. To tackle the challenge of finding halal travel products, many Muslim travellers take the serious responsibility to serve others within the community in identifying good halal products and authenticating the halal status. Visual evidence (photos and videos) are used to verify authenticity (Kamarulzaman *et al.*, 2016). The responses also reveal their expectations of what digital media should bring to them, i.e. what Nagy and Neff (2015) refer to as ‘imagined affordances’. These travellers expect that sharing their experiences online gives them a sense of security, and virtual bonding with their e-ummah community, fellow travellers and building a wider social network.

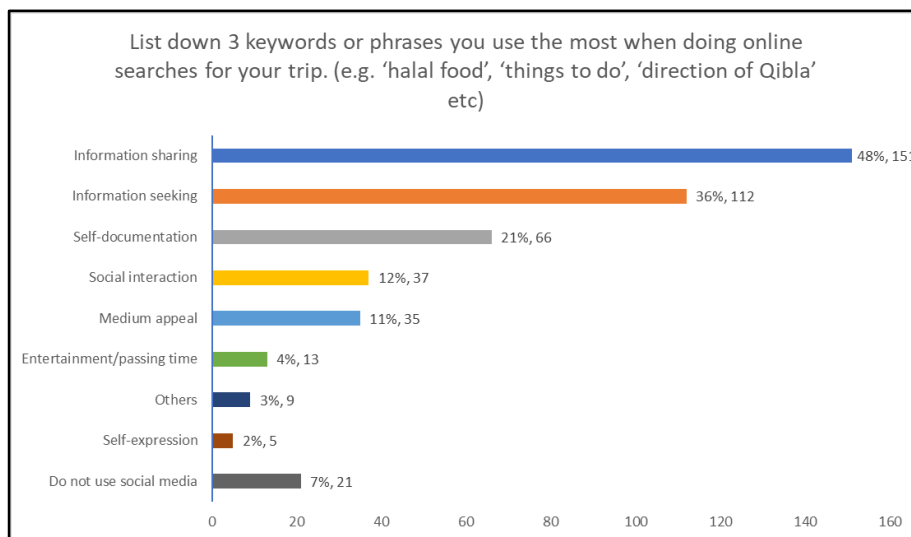


Figure 3: Social media application(s) and use

## 5. Implications

This study addresses the gap in understanding the digital behaviour of MMTs and the influence on their travel decisions. Information on social media play an important in determining their travel behaviours and MMTs share their travel experiences via status updates, photos, blogging and instant messaging Social media is used to seek and share information and experiences with the wider e-ummah. It is used to share valuable information regarding the location, quality and authenticity of halal products

(Kamarulzaman *et al.*, 2016). It is apparent that as digital natives, the MMTs have intertwined the digital world and the numerous technologies with their travel experiences.

The informal activities that MMTs perform on social media and sharing platforms have implications for the wider tourism industry and destination marketing. Few businesses have taken advantage of the online interactivity facilitated by social media and leveraged on its' potential to build relationships with the MMTs (Fadahunsi & Kargwell, 2015). The open sharing of travel experiences could be useful for consumer-related businesses to use social media to promote products and services, and tailor travel offerings that comply with Islamic faith for openness and full disclosure (Fadahunsi and Kargwell 2015, p.39). Within the e-ummah where reference group behaviours can be shared and observed, social media platforms can be highly effective tools to generate e-word of mouth recommendations. The tourism industry can adopt social media platforms such as Instagram and Facebook as brand communication tools to market the "Halal" concept and influence Muslim consumers' purchase behaviour and experiences.

## 6. Conclusion

There is a clear evidence of the large and growing young Muslim consumers globally that has led to the increasing demand for halal travel products and services (Jafari & Scott, 2014). Social media plays a critical role in linking the Islamic faith and values with the MMTs and at the same time influencing their purchase decisions. SNS stimulates communication among the e-ummah, and influences the way in which they produce and consume travel related information. It functions as a conduit between tourism businesses and the MMTs and mechanism through which information is transmitted between tourism suppliers and Muslim consumers.

Our main limitation of the current study was the high representation of Asians among the respondents. Although, Asians represent a significant Muslim population, the results cannot be generalized to the larger population of MMTs. Future research should aim to have a more diverse sample across the geographic regions. Research could also explore Muslim friendly social media and their influences on MMTs travel behaviours.

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# The effects of wildlife applications on the visitors' authentic nature experience in the Kruger National Park

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## Abstract

The world-renowned Kruger National Park offers a wildlife experience that ranks with the best in the world, attracting both local and international visitors to the region. Previous studies have identified educational activities, interpretation facilities and wildlife as key success factors which enhance the experiences of visitors to the Kruger National Park. In their efforts to provide visitors with information-rich experiences, innovation brought forth by technology developers has stakeholders debating whether the use of mobile applications is in line with best-practice and sustainability policies of the Kruger National Park. In 2016, South African National Parks released a media statement acknowledging the large number of visitor complaints arising from the abuse of the wildlife sighting applications in the Kruger National Park, citing reports of speeding, congestion and higher rates of lawlessness at animal sightings, all of which compromise the values of good game viewing and an authentic nature experience. This study followed a mixed methods approach to evaluate the opinions of all relevant stakeholders. The quantitative component comprised of an online questionnaire distributed to recent visitors to the Kruger National Park, and the qualitative component which comprised of semi-structured interviews with various stakeholders. While preliminary findings show that many visitors seek relaxation and escape, the demand to view endangered species and predators ranks highly. Results show that the visitor experience has indeed been negatively impacted by high levels of speeding and congestion in the park. However, there is little evidence to suggest that this sentiment arises as a direct result of the use of mobile applications. While the adoption of mobile applications amongst visitors is relatively high, trends indicate that many visitors utilise mobile applications as an alternative source for information relating to their sightings, 42% of whom suggesting that the technology further enhanced their overall experience. Results suggest that aspects negatively impacting the visitor experience are symptoms of unhealthy societal lifestyles, including high levels of technofence and a disconnectedness from nature.

## Keywords

mobile applications; technofence; authentic nature-experience; wildlife sightings; disconnectedness.

### 1. Introduction

Managed by the South African National Parks (SANParks), the world-renowned Kruger National Park offers a wildlife experience that ranks with the best in the world. Richly abundant in faunal and floral diversity, the country's flagship park attracts both local and international visitors to the region. Meyer (2015, p. 126) mentions that SANParks "...supports key research and management issues, using appropriate nature-based tourism as the best possible financial opportunity to support and supplement conservation; whilst providing sustainable, high quality, nature-based, value-for-money tourism experiences".

Commenting on the effects of rapid globalisation on nature-based tourism, Engelbrecht (2011, p. 90) is of the view that "...continuous research should be undertaken that will keep park management up to date with visitor trends...and their expectations when visiting a national park." Consumer access to smartphones has grown exponentially in recent years, and studies predict further growth in this sector. Ericsson (2015) predicted that by the year 2020, 6.1 billion people will have access to smartphones, which equates to approximately 70% of the global population. This trend has provided the platform for the development of various applications across an array of markets. Mostly designed by private developers, applications have served to provide visitors with a wildlife interpretation tool which is affordable, reliable and convenient. Several mobile applications provide information which would otherwise be found in books, information centres, online databases or through knowledge conveyed by tour guides.



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In a contrasting media release by South African National Parks (2016), it was noted that the organisation had been inundated with scores of visitor complaints emanating from the use of mobile applications, including reports of increased roadkill as a result of speeding, congestion at sightings, and higher rates of lawlessness. “As an organisation we appreciate the fact that technology has evolved and that guests are taking advantage of it, however this is compromising the values of good game viewing in national parks” (South African National Parks, 2016). They reflect on the sense of mystery which nature provides and identify mindfulness as a key contributing factor towards an authentic nature experience.

South African National Parks (2016) states that “...most guests appreciate the leisurely drive through the park, and that the potential reward of a good sighting is a key element of the visitor experience. This is an experience that SANParks commits to protecting and therefore the usage of these mobile applications is in direct contradiction to the ethos of responsible tourism espoused by SANParks”. They concluded that the organisation discourages the irresponsible use of wildlife sighting applications so as to protect the principles of responsible ecotourism.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 *An authentic nature-experience: mindfulness and connectedness*

Page and Connel (2009, p. 648) define the visitor experience as “the overall impression, understanding, rating and meaning a visitor attaches to their encounter with a specific place, event, holiday or activity”. Findings by Engelbrecht (2011) identified educational activities, interpretation activities and wildlife as key success factors which fell short of meeting the expectations of the visitor.

The principles of responsible ecotourism encourage a sense of mindfulness when visiting natural areas. Ferreira and Harmse (2014:1) emphasise that “natural areas have always attracted people and that a growing number of tourists are seeking authentic, inspiring and transformational experiences in nature”. They further emphasise how “it is crucial that the visitors’ attitudes change from ‘rush around looking for lions’ to being more focused in understanding the ecological interactions and finer cultural-historical details of the Kruger National Park, so becoming ‘mindful’ visitors”.

### 2.2 *The fine line: technoference and authentic nature experiences*

In the advent of globalisation, Frantz *et al.* (2005, p. 427) maintain that the modern worldview “makes it easier for people to harm nature without feeling the distress that a sense of connectedness with nature would potentially create”. In contrast, findings by Crawford *et al.* (2017, p. 977) suggest that technology can be used to facilitate exposure to nature among younger generations, with the added benefit of enjoyment. “Using technology when spending time in nature may seem unnecessary, and perhaps even detrimental to previous generations, but many of today’s youths are accustomed to using technology outside” (Crawford *et al.*, 2017, p. 977).

Dickinson *et al.* (2016:200) note that there is “evidence of ambiguity with regard to the use of mobiles in tourism, relating to a desire to ‘get away from it all’ while realising the value of connectivity to perform useful tourism functions.” They concluded their findings stating that “it is unclear whether the connection-disconnection dilemma will remain, grow in prominence or decrease as new technological norms emerge” (Dickinson *et al.*, 2016, p. 200).

### 3. Methods

This study followed a mixed methods approach, consisting of both quantitative and qualitative components. The quantitative component comprised of short, closed questions in the form of an online visitor questionnaire. An email containing a summary of the study and a link to the online visitor questionnaire was distributed to a database of recent visitors to the Kruger National Park. As closed questions were utilised in the questionnaire, descriptive and inferential statistics (Maree, 2012) we used to encapsulate the quantitative data gathered using IBM SPSS (ver. 25) statistical analytics software.

Several questionnaire respondents took the opportunity to share and further elaborate on their experiences in the form of written email communication sent directly to the researcher. Priori coding and content analysis (Maree, 2012) has been used to analyse open ended questions and interviews, whereby responses were categorised into common themes and categories, by utilising ATLAS.ti (ver. 8) analytical software.

### 4. Findings

#### 4.1 Trends in visitor motivations

A total of 1035 participants successfully completed the online visitor questionnaire, a sample which was characterised by older segments of the population, with 41% participants categorised as 60 years and older. The sample was dominated by South Africans (91%).

To determine the visitor motivations and activities in which people seek to partake while in the Kruger National Park, a Likert scale was used to rank various pull factor activities from *not important at all* to what visitors found to be *extremely important* during their visit (Fig. 1). Results indicated that *relaxation and escape* and *predators* ranked highly, whereas *cultural and historical sites* ranked relatively low.

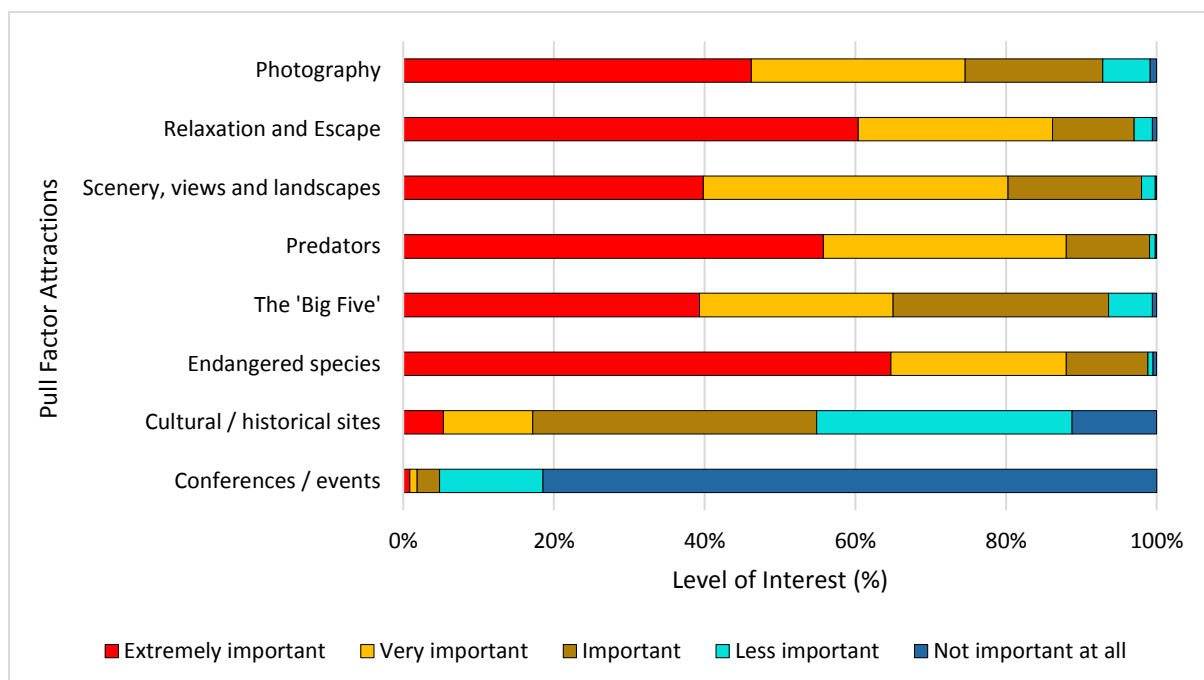


Figure 1: Potential pull factors attracting visitors to the Kruger National Park each ranked from 'extremely important' to 'not important at all'

A total of 41.6% of respondents indicated that they, or a passenger in their vehicle, utilised a mobile application during their visit in the Kruger National Park (Fig. 2). These included both applications which share the location of a sighting, as well as applications which provide users with additional information.

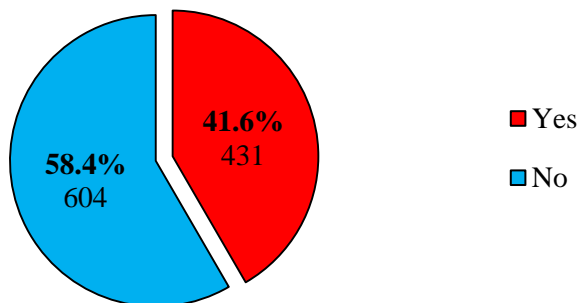


Figure 2: The number of respondents with a wildlife app installed on their mobile device

Of the participants who actively make use of mobile applications, 42.23% indicated that their respective mobile applications improved their experience, in contrast to 9.98% who indicated that their respective mobile application detracted from their experience. *Additional information* was selected as the biggest motivating factor for making use mobile applications, followed by *finding more sightings* and *sharing the location of sightings* (Fig. 3).

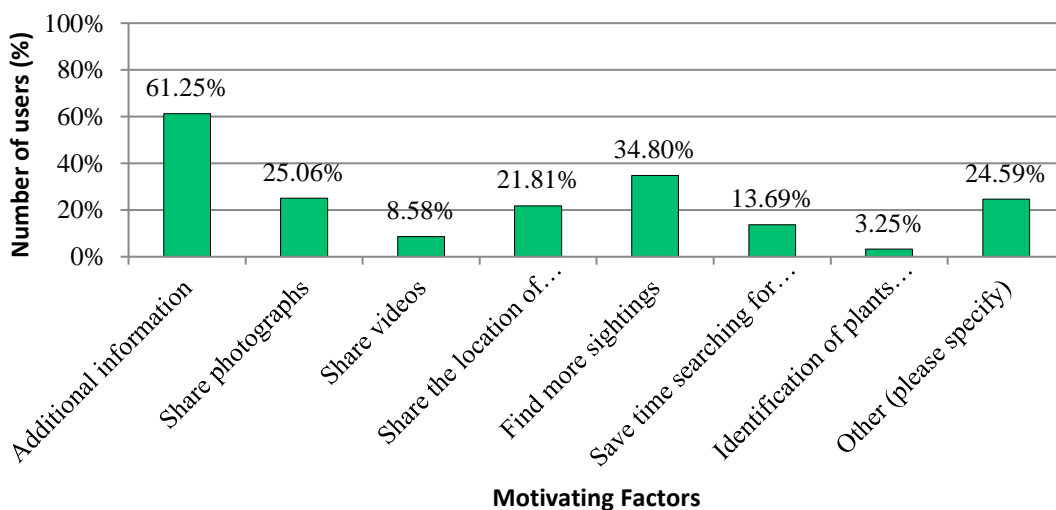


Figure 3: Motivations of mobile application users in the Kruger National Park

With a high number of overall users expressing an interest in predators and the big five species, it is no surprise that a location sharing application was selected as the most popular mobile application, with *Latest Sightings* (48.95%) dominating the market. Other location sharing apps however, such as *Sightings Tracker* (4.17%) and *Tracking the Wild* (3.7%), reflected low user utilisation.

The vast number of mobile applications which provide users with additional information, such as *Sasol eBirds* (39.9%) and *Roberts Multimedia Birds of SA* (27.84%) followed in rank. This reflects the high number of overall users who indicated an *extremely important* interest in bird species (44.83%).

#### 4.2 Insight into the visitor experience

Visitor reports of increased lawlessness are factors which significantly detract from the visitor experience, each of which are discussed below. To define and gauge the severity of congestion, participants indicated the number of vehicles present at a general sighting before the area begins to feel unpleasantly congested. The results below (*Table 1*) indicate that visitors are generally tolerant of between 4 to 6 other vehicles in the immediate proximity of a sighting ( $\bar{X} = 5.68$ ).

*Table 1: Number of vehicles before respondents felt a sighting of great interest began to feel unpleasantly congested*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	1 other vehicle	9	.9	.9	.9
	2 other vehicles	26	2.5	2.5	3.4
	3 other vehicles	103	10.0	10.0	13.3
	4 other vehicles	175	16.9	16.9	30.2
	5 other vehicles	272	26.3	26.3	56.5
	6 other vehicles	175	16.9	16.9	73.4
	7 other vehicles	67	6.5	6.5	79.9
	8 other vehicles	70	6.8	6.8	86.7
	9 other vehicles	15	1.4	1.4	88.1
	More than 10 other vehicles	123	11.9	11.9	100.0
	Total	1035	100.0	100.0	

An email respondent (ER5, 01/08/2017) defines a congested area based on line of sight, maintaining that “when the sighting became so crowded, and the people at the back cannot see, they start over-reacting, driving through the bush to see, and even squeezing past all the cars, only to drive up to the lions, take a photo with their smart phone, in order to post the sighting.”

Many self-driving visitors in private vehicles maintain however that much of the congestion which occurs at sightings is due to the behaviour and high number of open safari vehicles operating in the park. “Although we understand that they would like to show their clients the Big Five, we are of the opinion that they are depriving them from the experience of tranquillity and relaxation by just speeding from one sighting to the next, without enjoying all that the Park has to offer” - ER11 (21/08/2017). The results below (*Table 2*) clearly illustrate the negative perception generated around open safari vehicles, with *yes* (71.1%) being the overwhelming response.

*Table 2: Perceptions of visitors regarding the presence of Open Safari Vehicles at a sighting of great interest*

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	736	71.1	71.1	71.1
	Occasionally	206	19.9	19.9	91.0
	Rarely	54	5.2	5.2	96.2
	No	39	3.8	3.8	100.0
	Total	1035	100.0	100.0	

Speeding, although monitored by traffic officials, remains a negative factor influencing visitor experiences. Numerous respondents recalled incidents where vehicles drove through sightings at speeds higher than which the situation allowed, and in doing so having chased animals away and in some cases even potentially resulting in roadkill. Participants who make use of mobile applications indicated how they would respond to a notification of a nearby sighting of significance (*Table 3*). While many

respondents indicated they would maintain their current speed (16.2%), the number of respondents who would drive faster than usual (3.3%) should be of concern, considering the high population of visitors who enter the park.

Table 3: Reaction of respondents, with a location-sharing mobile application, to a notification of a wildlife sighting of great significance nearby

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Avoid the location	40	3.9	9.3	9.3
	Drive slower than usual	46	4.4	10.7	20.0
	Drive same speed as usual	168	16.2	39.0	58.9
	Drive faster than usual	34	3.3	7.9	66.8
	Unsure / No Response	45	4.3	10.4	77.3
	Not Applicable	98	9.5	22.7	100.0
	Total	431	41.6	100.0	
Missing	System	604	58.4		
Total		1035	100.0		

In efforts to enhance visitor engagement, some respondents indicated that they would support a mobile application developed and managed by South African National Parks. “What we do need from time to time is a better mechanism to report bad driving...” - (ER24, 01/08/2017).

While many visitors claim speeding and congestion to be negative impacts, some participants find location-sharing applications to be too distracting, diminishing their experience of the park. “I deleted it not long after installing as it definitely distracted from our park experience. Instead of searching for animals...the good old-fashioned way I was constantly looking at my phone. We don’t mind too much if it is a slow viewing day as we realise it is real life and being in the park is just so lovely” - (ER9, 02/08/2017). Another email respondent (ER15 - 03/08/2018) confirmed this sentiment of technoference, stating that “it has always been... a place of refuge, peace and quiet. There was always an air of expectation and excitement for what may be seen around the next bend. It must take all the expectation and fun out of visits.”

This leads one to question the impact of restrictions, should they be imposed, on the development and use of location-sharing mobile applications in the Kruger National Park (Table 4).

Table 4: Visitor reaction on repeat visits to the Kruger National Park should the use of location-sharing apps be restricted

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Visit more than usual	163	15.7	15.7	15.7
	Visit as usual - no reaction	702	67.8	67.8	83.6
	Visit as usual - express my disapproval	78	7.5	7.5	91.1
	Visit less than usual	12	1.2	1.2	92.3
	Stop visiting the park	8	.8	.8	93.0
	Unsure / Undecided	31	3.0	3.0	96.0
	Other (Please specify)	41	4.0	4.0	100.0
	Total	1035	100.0	100.0	

Commenting on the use of sighting applications in the park, this email respondent describes how they make use of social media to share knowledge and experiences. “Although I would look at wildlife sightings Facebook pages in the evenings, after the day was

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done, I did not make use of these apps during my stay to find animals, simply because I am opposed to the idea...” - ER4 (01/08/2017).

#### 4.3 The utilisation of traditional alternatives

While mobile applications are a relatively new method of obtaining and sharing information, these same principles have been utilised throughout the park for decades by means of literature sources, sighting boards and word of mouth.

Literature sources, such as map books and field guides remain the most reliable source of accurate information. However, with factors such as weight restrictions on international flights and the development of the ‘instant generation’, various mobile applications are now able to provide the same information conveniently, and at a fraction of the cost. “We enjoy nature and like to know as much as possible about all the different fauna and flora in the areas we visit. We do however not really make use of social media to obtain the relevant information, but rather use books. We have books on birds, mammals, reptiles and plants to help us identify and learn more about what we encounter” - (ER11, 21/08/2017).

Sightings boards, positioned at all the park entrances and main camp sites, may be an unreliable source in efforts to locate animal sightings, yet it has been able to attract the attention of visitors from various demographics and age groups. “I have noticed that many people are looking at the boards and that it does contribute to visitor enjoyment and excitement. For that purpose, they could be retained but there are also a growing number of visitors that want more detailed information on a broader variety of topics and information” - (ER13, 08/08/2017).

#### 5. Implications

These findings seek to provide insight into the forever-changing mindset of visitors in the current period of rapid technological developments. They will assist in further enhancing visitor interpretation and best practice strategies utilised by Kruger National Park Management and application developers.

#### 6. Conclusion

The results indicate that while speeding, overcrowding and other factors are having a definite negative influence on the visitor experience, the cause of such cannot be laid solely at the utilisation of location-sharing sighting applications. While relaxation and escape may rank highly, whether it is achieved at a desired level remains unclear. To reduce the negative impact on visitor experiences, holistic strategies are required to address these longstanding issues. While measures have been taken to improve operations of open safari vehicles, a significant negative sentiment remains. Traditional methods of information interpretation should be considered in attempts to provide visitors with additional information.

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# Effectiveness of Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) as part of the Marine and Coastal Tourism Management Strategy in South Africa, the Case of Aliwal Shoal MPA in the south of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

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## Abstract

The increasing pressure on the marine environment in South Africa gave rise to the declaration of Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) as part of protection and management of coastal and marine resources. Aliwal Shoal, located in Umkomaas in the south coast of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), is one of the MPAs that were designated in 2004. South Africa has also signed various international agreements, and joined the global MPA networks, in support of sustainable use, and improved quality of the marine resource management. MPAs as management mechanisms have however presented their own challenges, due to insufficient knowledge among government officials, weak law enforcement and compliance, lack of transparency and poor communication between stakeholders affected. On the basis of published sources, questionnaire surveys and interviews, this article argues that, while the MPAs have a huge marine environmental management value, the government should research them before implementation, and the management impact of the existing MPAs should be assessed, hence the relevance of this study.

## Keywords

Recreation, marine resources, management challenges, ecosystems, oceans governance

### 1. Introduction

MPAs have been declared as one of mechanisms to manage marine spaces where marine tourist activities occur. This study examines the effectiveness of the Aliwal Shoal MPA, south of KZN, as part of marine management strategy. Its management impact on the tourism activities should be weighed in relation to its success to regulate the coastal and marine environments where such tourist activities take place. While Aliwal Shoal MPA has achieved some of its objectives, its management effort has been marred by weak law enforcement, the government's lack of knowledge, lack of public consultation processes and poor monitoring programmes.

### 2. Literature Review

Worldwide increasing tourism activities within marine areas, and their pressure on already stressed ecosystems, is a growing concern (White and Nicklen, 2013). Marine and coastal tourism, marine resource protection and oceans governance are thus some of the key focus areas in South Africa's Oceans Economy framework (Operation Phakisa, October 2015). The north and south coasts of KZN province form the core of its marine and coastal tourism. Umkomaas (where Aliwal Shoal is located) and other coastal towns are popular diving and fishing destinations in the south coast, and have become part of the international tourism market. The socio-economic value of marine tourism is thus evident in studies done in such shark diving attractions as Gansbaai in the Western Cape, Sodwana Bay, north of KZN, and Aliwal Shoal (Dicken and Hosking, 2009; Dicken, 2014; Du Preez *et al.*, 2012).

The growing demand for tiger shark diving tourism, uncontrolled use and exploitation of coastal and marine resources, has prompted South Africa to sign a number of international protocols, and pass various national legislative Acts, in support of responsible utilization and quality management of marine and coastal ecosystems (Rogers and Laffoley, 2011). South Africa has also prioritized marine protection in the form of MPAs, defined as 'physical space in the ocean where human activities are more strictly regulated than the surrounding waters', as part of marine conservation strategy (Attwood *et al.*, 1997). South Africa is part of the global network of MPAs which promotes sustainable multi-use of marine resources (Fish and Walton, 2012). Although



MPAs vary worldwide, their vision is to create a balance between use of the coastal and marine resources and the general maintenance of diverse ecosystems, together with other management approaches (Van Lavieren and Claus, 2012). This study evaluates the effectiveness of the Aliwal Shoal MPA, the first MPA in the south of KZN.

### 3. Research Methodology

The study combined both the qualitative (semi-structured interviews) and quantitative (survey questionnaire) data collection methods. Through snowball sampling, researchers accessed stakeholders from diving, fishing and hospitality (hotels and restaurants) industries, and representatives from local tourism committees, with whom to conduct semi-structured interviews in Umkomaas to gain insight into the observations of stakeholders regarding the role of Aliwal Shoal MPA in protecting and managing the marine ecosystems. Researchers also distributed 98 questionnaires among dive operators, fishing groups, tourism business owners (restaurants, hotels), tourists/clients and tourism business employees. The SPSS analysis of the questionnaires is represented in tables in the text. This paper is an analysis of the data collected, hence a need for further research.

### 4. Findings

#### 4.1 The impact of MPA in Aliwal Shoal

Studies conducted along the coastline of Kenya and Tanzania, and Seychelles, confirmed the abundance and richness of commercially and recreationally important species in protected areas. Such regions relied on management and advisory committees, and partnerships between stakeholders such as tourism businesses, patrol boats and local communities to enforce law within MPAs. Hence, there has been a decline in the number of detected offences such as the use of destructive fishing methods and gears in some MPAs (Francis *et al.*, 2002). In South Africa, MPAs manage and protect marine resources, help rebuild fisheries and integrate conservation with tourism and other human activities. Within Isimangaliso Wetland Park, north KZN, and within Aliwal Shoal, the fishing of ragged-tooth, bull and tiger sharks, which are the main tourist attractions, is prohibited to protect them from anglers (Dicken, 2014). The study that was conducted in 2016 revealed mixed feelings regarding the impact of the Aliwal Shoal MPA on tourism management, some reflected on the tables below. On Table 1, 22.8% believed that the MPA supports and manages tourism development, while the majority (50%) strongly felt that the MPA is an effective management tool.

Table 1 showing mixed opinions of the respondents regarding the management impact of an MPA in Aliwal Shoal: Where 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=not sure, 4=disagree, 5= strongly disagree

Sn	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not Sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
		%	%	%	%	%	%
1	MPAs are an effective and a sustainable management tool.	19.6	50	6.5	12	10.9	98.9
2	MPAs support and manage the tourism development.	22.8	15.2	9.8	16.3	29.3	93.5
3	They protect the natural resources and the general marine population.	15.2	20.7	15.2	19.6	23.9	94.6
4	The implementation of MPAs should be accompanied by a dialogue and collaboration between local tourism businesses, conservationists, government and local communities.	28.3	34.8	4.3	12	13	92.4

On Table 2 below, 39.1% and 41.3% strongly felt that MPAs provide valuable management services to tourism and recreational facilities, and enhance tourism growth. 45.7% believed that MPAs enrich tourism development patterns, and attract more tourists (34.8%) in the region.

Table 2: Rating of the respondents' observation of the positive role of MPAs: Where 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=not sure, 4=disagree, 5=strongly disagree

Sn	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
		%	%	%	%	%	%
1	MPAs provide valuable goods & services (seafood, recreation, storm protection etc.).	39.1	13	12	19.6	8.7	92.4
2	They provide support and management to tourism and recreation activities.	41.3	17.4	22.8	9.8	3.3	94.6
3	They protect, manage and restore fisheries/fish populations, and generally conserve marine biodiversity.	33.7	19.6	25	12	4.3	94.6
5	The positive impact of MPAs on biodiversity improves the recreational value of designated areas and the quality of diving and other marine tourism activities.	30.4	18.5	23.9	19.6	1.1	93.5
6	They can reduce exploitative fishing in multiple fisheries if properly designed, sited and managed.	35.9	16.3	17.4	19.6	2.2	91.3
7	They attract more tourists	34.8	12	12	19.6	16.3	94.6

MPAs therefore ensure sustainable utilization of marine resources by tourists and other stakeholders within and outside MPAs. This reduces exploitative fishing practices, protects, manages and restores fish populations, and generally conserves marine biodiversity (according to 33.7% of respondents). This, according to 34.8% of the respondents on Table 2, attracts more tourists to the protected marine destination. The fact that it is an MPA, one respondent stated, 'prevents people from exploiting it', if properly managed. 30.4% believed that its status as a protected area adds value to the quality of tourist activities. Without monitoring, one respondent said, 'travellers would just come and pollute the reef system, why would anyone else want to come here? We have got the diving, and that brings people here. If the reef is dirty and unprotected, who would want to come here?' Therefore, the MPA in the region increases the number of tourists and monitors their activities, since species are protected. Another respondent added,

*MPAs make the protection of fish effective. The sharks eat small fish. Without MPAs, there would be no more fish for sharks, then the sharks disappear, and then what about divers? Where would they go? MPAs contribute to healthy parks as nobody will want to come to a dirty park. The reef is there for everybody to enjoy, but within control*

MPAs thus foster ethical behaviour to protect and sustain fish populations, promote stewardship ethics, and support sustainable fishing at destinations (Ditton *et al.*, 2002). Therefore, according to Table 3 (below), 31.5% of the respondents strongly believed, and 32.6% believed, that more MPAs should be proclaimed to cover those areas not yet protected in KZN. Aliwal Shoal MPA allows tourists to come and fish, dive and watch animals in a protected and managed environment. Studies show that precautions have been taken to maintain the Aliwal Shoal MPA status. These include the application of the shark-swimmer distance requirement which, in this case, is one meter. No studies have confirmed the negative impact of human relationships with tiger sharks within the Aliwal Shoal MPA (Dicken and Hoskins, 2009). The financial benefits (user-pay) accrued are likely to support its sustainability. However, literature also highlights some management challenges in the MPAs, including Aliwal Shoal, as a management mechanism.

#### 4.2 The effectiveness of the MPA

The effectiveness of South Africa's MPAs has been hampered by poor management, weak law enforcement, conflicting interests, lack of public consultation processes, poor monitoring programmes in the management plans and others hindrances. Most MPAs were proclaimed without research based knowledge to assess their impact (Attwood *et al.*, 1997). Scientists must work in concert with local communities, user groups and management authorities, to build up local trusts, and strong social awareness of the

reasons for maintaining MPAs (Kaimowitz and Sheil: 2007). Case studies in Kosi Bay and St Lucia, north of KZN show the positive outcomes of such partnerships (Attwood *et al.*, 1997). The Aliwal Shoal MPA is not immune to such management challenges. While some respondents in Umkomaas saw the value in the MPA, others argued that, in its current state, it has no meaning. On Table 1 above, 29.3% strongly disagreed that MPAs play a significant management role. 23.9% disagreed that MPAs protect natural resources and the general marine population. They highlighted a number of challenges.

Tourism business owners in Umkomaas indicated that ‘the current MPA [Aliwal Shoal] is an MPA on paper, nothing else’. ‘How do you protect the environment? By putting barriers?’, one of the respondents asked. He stated that there are no clear lines showing where the MPA starts and ends. Another respondent continued,

*If you read some of those laws, you wonder if they did not take something from the Cape. One Mampara [idiot] is sitting in the Cape, saying ok no crayfish, no trawling nets, your lines must be up, your lines must not be on the water, we do not have that here*

Provincial and regional variations should be considered when designing MPAs. As reflected on Table 3 below, the government did not do sufficient research before proposing the Aliwal Shoal MPA, hence their lack of knowledge of what they are managing.

Table 3: showing respondents opinions regarding the effectiveness of the MPA: Where 1=strongly agree, 2=agree, 3=not sure, 4=disagree, 5=strongly disagree

Sn	Items	Strongly Agree	Agree	Not sure	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
		%	%	%	%	%	%
1	The design and implementation of MPAs was based on thorough research by the government, which helped them understand the marine environments.	17.4	14.1	12	26.1	28.3	97.8
2	The government followed appropriate processes and stakeholders were consulted regarding the design and implementation of MPAs before promulgating them.	12	20.7	15.2	23.9	25	96.7
3	Stakeholders were part of decision making in the process of implementing the MPAs.	27.2	17.4	12	16.3	23.9	96.7
5	The management and enforcement of MPAs is characterized by a close partnership between the government/public sector and private sector/local business.	15.2	20.7	10.9	20.7	29.3	96.7
6	Adequate law enforcement is applied to ensure compliance among all MPAs users.	14.1	17.4	2.2	14.1	47.8	95.7
7	More MPAs should be proclaimed to cover other unprotected marine areas in the south coast and in the country as a whole.	31.5	32.6	3.3	13	15.2	95.7

Without research, one respondent asked,

*How do you tell me what to do in the sea if you don't even know what is in there? In Aliwal Shoal, the ecological area is managed primarily by the divers and the fishermen. If we see some suspicious activities, we start phoning each other and the authorities*

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They manage the marine environment through a ‘gentleman agreement’ principle, in which they use their knowledge of the ocean to determine what and what not to do. They can help the government monitor and manage the MPA. Therefore, as Table 3 shows (23.9%), there is a need for a partnership between businesses and the government. On Table 3 above, 23.9% of the respondents disagreed, and 25% strongly disagreed, that public consultation happened in the establishment of Aliwal Shoal MPA. Without transparency, one respondent indicated, ‘There is one-sided view, that of the government’. The big business rights holders such as Vikings and I & J ‘hold huge sway due to their access to, and complicity with, the political class of South Africa’, another respondent said. Public participation, and a dialogue between affected stakeholders, can boost effective management which, according to these respondents, is currently poor. 47.8% of respondents strongly felt that law enforcement is poor. For example, in Aliwal Shoal, some fishermen spearfish on the reef, which is a crown area. One respondent said, ‘when we see these people fishing illegally, we tell them to go because what they are doing is dangerous for people under the water. We monitor what is happening in there, not the government’. Another respondent thus claimed that what attracts tourists to Aliwal Shoal is not its MPA status, but its reef structure. He said, ‘Aliwal Shoal was popular before it became an MPA. It attracts tourists because it is a diving destination. An MPA can never be a complete MPA because of industrial arts. SAPPI (South African Pulp and Paper Industries), is a big paper company in Umkomaas. The government has given SAPPI a license to pump their waste into the reef. As highlighted below,

*One litre of oil contaminates a million litres, and that pump pushes rubbish into the ocean 24/7, for years. Animals do not want to swim in dirty water that smells, the Ph value is wrong. They issue them [SAPPI] license to pollute water and then declare an MPA in the same area*

If the MPA was properly managed, it would improve the status of marine and coastal tourism in the region, and the general management of the ocean/marine species against illegal dealings.

## 5. Implications

Studies conducted in South Africa and elsewhere show that MPAs play an important role in the management of marine resources (Francis *et al.*, 2002; Dicken, 2014). They conserve, manage and protect marine resources, help rebuild fisheries and integrate conservation with tourism and other human activities in the coastal areas. The Aliwal Shoal MPA status helps with the management and monitoring of tourism activities. Such leisure pursuits happen within a controlled environment. Studies that were conducted in Umkomaas show that 27.2% of the population see the value of an MPA. 50% felt that the Aliwal Shoal is an effective marine management tool, 45.7% believed that the MPAs manage and enrich tourism development patterns, while 33.7% felt that MPAs have contributed hugely towards environmental awareness among local residents. In essence, the Aliwal Shoal MPA has helped reduce exploitative and destructive recreational activities and improved marine management services in the area under study. Therefore, more MPAs should be proclaimed for marine areas not yet protected. Against this positive outlook is the position that the management of marine areas through MPA has its own challenges. In South Africa, these challenges include poor management, the government’s lack of knowledge, weak law enforcement, conflicting interests, lack of public consultation and poor monitoring programmes, rendering the role of MPAs as a marine management tool ineffective. The research results on Aliwal Shoal suggest that this MPA is not immune to these management challenges. There was a strong argument from interviews and public opinions that the government did not do proper research before proclaiming it, hence their lack of knowledge of what they (government) are managing. Proper processes were not followed to invite comments from the public regarding its establishment. Law enforcement is another major challenge. As Table 3 shows in the document, above 48% of the respondents highlighted poor law enforcement as one of the major hindrances. In conclusion, as much as the pressure on South Africa’s

marine ecosystems is a legitimate concern, the proclamation of the MPAs as part of marine management strategy has not effectively managed and protected South Africa's marine environment and tourism activities therein.

## 6. Conclusions

In essence, the Aliwal Shoal MPA has helped reduce exploitative and destructive recreational activities and improved marine management services in the area under study. However, the management of marine areas through MPA has its own challenges. Poor management, lack of knowledge, weak law enforcement, poor public consultation and monitoring programmes render the MPA role less effective as a marine management tool. These are weak areas in the Aliwal Shoal MPA, yet essential to produce a more positive goal-orientated approach to MPA management to promote a coordinated management effort for common good. The proclamation of the MPAs as part of marine management strategy has not effectively managed and protected South Africa's marine environment and tourism activities therein.

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# Giving wings to a capital city's image: hosting of the Red Bull X-Fighters

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## Abstract

Capital cities as unique destinations are often perceived as being uninteresting environments or places with negative associations and as such face challenges in attracting visitors. Varied types and scales of events are increasingly used as platforms to create exposure and attract leisure visitors to cities. The study aimed to determine whether hosting of an extreme sports event (motocross) could influence visitor perceptions of and attachment to the administrative capital city of South Africa, the City of Tshwane. A survey was conducted in both 2014 (445 visitors) and 2015 (227 visitors) measuring visitors' motivations for attending; their perceptions of the event; attachment to the event venue, sport type and event brand; as well as future intentions. The initial descriptive analyses indicate that visitors were attached more to the venue/city and the specific branded event than to the sport itself. The strongest future intentions were indicated as being toward the host city as a place that offers exciting experiences. Suggestions for further analyses and future research are made.

## Keywords

Capital city, events, destination image, place attachment

### 1. Introduction

Capital cities cannot only rely on their capital city status to attract visitors. In many respects these cities often have to work harder at utilising existing resources to address negative perceptions of it being uninteresting environments or to move beyond negative associations with unpopular political leadership. Capital cities have to manage contrasting images and perceptions. The City of Tshwane is a metropolitan city within the province of Gauteng, South Africa. It is the administrative capital of South Africa, housing government departments and the largest diplomatic contingency after Washington DC. Some of the most significant changes in South African society have taken place within the city and it is an established space of power (Mabin, 2015). It positions itself around the concepts of excellence (African capital city of excellence; igniting excellence) and has a strong desire to grow tourism (Heath & Kruger, 2009). After being selected as host city for the 2010 FIFA World Cup, events were identified as one of the platforms to achieve this and the city started focusing on hosting significant once off, but also establishing annual events (Gibson, Walker, Thapa, Kaplanidou, Geldenhuys & Coetzee, 2014; Kruger & Heath, 2013). In 2014 and 2015 the city hosted one of the five events on the Red Bull X-Fighters World Championship tour. Uniquely, it was the first time permission was granted for an event of this nature to be hosted on the grounds of the Union Buildings as seat of the presidency. The study aimed to determine whether hosting this extreme sport event had an influence on visitor perceptions of and attachment to the City as a place for leisure.

### 2. Literature review

#### 2.1 Capital cities and events

A growing body of research within tourism explores the role that events (across the range of event types) play in branding and promotion of urban destinations. Though much of this pertains to sports events and especially mega events, recognition is given to smaller scale and other types of events such as the 'Capital of Culture' initiative in Europe. As such, cities increasingly aim to present a portfolio of events that can contribute to overall image enhancement and development (Clark & Misener, 2015; Richards, 2015; Stokes, 2008). Affective image is an important component of a destination's overall image to drive repeat visitation to urban destinations (Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou & Kaplanidou, 2015). Events are experiences often associated with heightened emotions and therefore ideal platforms through which to reach visitors' emotional affiliations with a destination. Affect (feelings) toward an event in turn can act as precursor to image formation and the perceived fit between the event and host city image; ultimately leading to positive word-of-mouth intentions (Oshimi & Harada, 2016). A challenge for event planners is venue selection and within cities where there is limited space available to develop new venues, thought is given to creatively

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utilising existing spaces (Flecha, Lott, Lee, Moital & Edwards, 2010). Public spaces are often restricted and use is contested, but the nature of these spaces have the potential to contribute to strong place narratives if made available for hosting of events (Mercer & Mayfield, 2015; Smith, 2014; Stevens & Shin, 2014).

## 2.2 Attachment

Place attachment is defined as any positive or negative relationship that a person has with the location or the specific sports event, creating an emotional bond with that place or event (adapted from Kyle, Graefe, Manning, & Bacon, 2003). It is increasingly recognised as key in understanding the relationship between spectators/attendees and the host destination (Davis, 2016; Lee, Kyle & Scott, 2012). Place attachment contributes to the success and sustainability of events, making it important to determine whether attachment is toward the event itself or the sport as this will result in different attitudes (after Hinch & Holt, 2017). The level of attachment of visitors may differ based on their level of involvement in the activity or experience. The closer a tourism experience is to an individual's lifestyle, the greater their emotional attachment to the area visited (Gross & Brown, 2008). An increase in the number of visitations to a place is also associated with higher levels of attachment (Snider, Hill, Luo, Buerger & Herstine, 2011). Furthermore, place attachment may increase in the light of perceived benefits received through visitation (López-Mosquera & Sánchez, 2012) and the specific meaning attached to a place by the visitor (Wynveen, Kyle & Sutton, 2012).

## 3. Methods

Two surveys were conducted among spectators of both the 2014 and 2015 events using the same self-completion questionnaire. Convenience sampling was used to include spectators spread across different parts of the grounds of the Union Buildings and throughout the duration of the event. The 2014 sample included 445 and the 2015 sample 227 spectators. The questionnaire started with attendance motivation (15 items on a Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Secondly, attachment to the place, the event and level of involvement in the sport of motocross (12 items on a Likert scale from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree). Thirdly, attitude toward the event (6 items on a semantic differential scale: boring/exciting; unpleasant/enjoyable; uninformative/informative; average/unique; unimportant/must-see; ordinary/elite). Fourthly, future intentions toward the sport, event brand and host destination (8 items on a Likert scale from 1 = definitely not to 5 = definitely).

## 4. Findings

### 4.1 Sample profiles

Referring to Table 1, in both samples majority of the participants were males with an average age of 28. Almost half of the 2015 sample (43%) also attended the 2014 event, and a small number of individuals in both samples also attended other events on the respective World Tours (in other countries). Majority were accompanied by friends and/or relatives, came from the surrounding neighbourhood or neighbouring city/town, did not overnight in the host city (as visitors) and made use of private transportation.

Table 1: Demographics and travel behaviour

Variable	Categories	2014	2015
Sample size	-	445	227
Gender	Male	68%	53%
	Female	32%	47%
Average age	-	28	28
Attended other events of that year's World Tour	-	7%	11%
Have attended the 2015 event in Tshwane	-	n/a	43%
Place of origin	Surrounding neighbourhood/s	56%	35%
	Neighbouring city/town	31%	55%
	Other province	11%	9%
	Other country	2%	1%
Companions (multiple choice, multiple response question measured in frequencies)	Friends	299	136
	Family	167	114
	Alone	20	6
	Rider support team	14	4
	Other*	9	9
Overnight type	Unpaid (returning home or staying with friends and relatives)	73%	93%
	Paid accommodation	27%	7%
Mode of transport	Private	84%	86%
	Public	16%	14%

\*Other included work colleagues

For the remainder of the analyses, the data of the two samples are combined.

#### 4.2 Motivations for attending and perceptions of the event

Red Bull presents various different types of extreme events and respondents had to indicate their main reasons for attending the event (Table 2) as well as their perceptions about this specific event (Table 3). The event was mostly perceived as 'exciting', followed by being 'enjoyable' and 'unique'; matching the desired experiences of excitement, enjoyment and attending this special event. It was least regarded as an 'informative' event (e.g. being educated about the sport). The overall mean of 5.9 also indicated an overall positive feeling towards the event (refer to Table 3).

Table 2: Motivations for attending the event

Motivation	Mean
Excitement	4.44
Appreciate rider skills	4.43
Time with friends	4.26
Time outdoors	4.20
Friendly family atmosphere	4.16
Relaxation	4.11
Learn about motocross	3.80
Status international event	3.78
Status of event venue	3.73
Motocross favourite sport	3.68
Socialise likeminded people	3.66
Escape	3.66
Share accomplishment of riders	3.56
Time with family	3.52
Support favourite rider	3.33



Table 3: Perceptions about the event

Descriptor	Mean
	2015
<b>Exciting</b>	6.28
<b>Enjoyable</b>	6.12
<b>Unique</b>	6.00
Elite	5.90
Must-see	5.88
Informative	5.39
Overall mean	5.92

#### 4.3 Attachment to the sport of motocross, the event venue/destination and the branded event

Respondents had to indicate their feelings toward (1) the sport of motocross, (2) the event venue/destination, and (3) the Red Bull branded event (refer to Table 4).

Table 4: Attachment to the sport of motocross, event venue and event brand

Items	Mean
<b>This venue is the perfect location for this event</b>	<b>4.09</b>
<b>Attending this particular Red Bull motocross event is more important to me than attending any other motocross event</b>	<b>3.46</b>
<b>I regularly attend any entertainment events hosted in this City</b>	<b>3.44</b>
<b>I follow all the extreme sport events hosted by Red Bull in the media</b>	<b>3.44</b>
<b>I am very fond of visiting this venue specifically</b>	<b>3.31</b>
I have a special connection to attending this Red Bull event	3.20
I spend a lot of time following riders and the sport of motocross through the media	3.10
I attend as many Red Bull extreme sport events as possible	3.00
I dedicate my free time to attending any motocross events	2.94
I attend as many motocross events as possible throughout the year	2.88
I often travel away from home to attend any motocross events	2.71
I would not have attended the event if it was hosted at another venue	2.66

The five highest rated items relate to the venue, the host city and the event brand. The high rating given to the event ('venue is perfect for the event') could have been influenced by the fact that majority of respondents came from the surrounding area (or within the province), making the event 'perfect' in terms of proximity. However, in a follow-up open-ended question respondents were asked whether they thought this international event should have been hosted at another location in South Africa. In both years, the vast majority (76% in 2014 and 82% in 2015) indicated that this was the ideal venue for the event. Other venues mentioned included Cape Town (33 – good views, more beautiful, atmosphere, tourism), Johannesburg (31 – more people, accessibility, various large arenas/stadiums), Loftus Stadium in Tshwane (17 – more seating, shade), KwaZulu-Natal (11 – Durban, Moses Mabida Stadium), Free State (2 – Bloemfontein, centrally located), two other venues in Tshwane (Voortrekker Monument, showgrounds) and Midrand (Kyalami racetrack).

#### 4.4 Future intentions

Respondents had to indicate their future intended behaviour towards the sport of motocross, the host city and the event brand (refer to Table 5). The results correlate with the results on attachment, where the strongest future intentions were indicated as being toward the host city.

Table 5: Future intended behaviour

Future intention	Mean
<b>Recommend this city as a place for exciting entertainment</b>	<b>4.19</b>
<b>Return to this city to experience more of its offerings</b>	<b>4.14</b>
<b>Attend other entertainment events in this city more often</b>	<b>4.08</b>
Follow other Red Bull extreme events in the media	4.07
Attend more motocross events	4.00
Follow the sport of motocross in the media	3.97
Buy more Red Bull products	3.70
Attend a Red-Bull X-fighters World Tour event in another country	3.49

## 5. Implications

The top six reasons for attending the event focused on a leisure experience, matching spectators' perceptions of the event as being 'exciting', 'enjoyable' and 'unique'. It could therefore be said that the event matched the desired experiences of individuals and could have contributed to the high number of repeat visitors (43% of the 2015 sample). The finding supports research that affect (feelings) toward an event can act as precursor to image formation, ultimately leading to positive word-of-mouth intentions (Oshimi & Harada, 2016). The initial descriptive analyses indicate a greater attachment towards the event venue/city and the specific event (Red Bull X-Fighters). These results corroborate with the results on future intentions, where the strongest future intentions were indicated as being toward the host city (recommending the city for entertainment, returning to the city for more experiences and attending other events in the city). Further inferential analyses are suggested to test differences between visitor categories (first time versus repeat visitors; the 2014 versus 2015 samples), as well as structural relationships between the attachment factors and future intentions.

## 6. Conclusion

Upon initial investigation, it appears that this unique extreme sports event has benefitted the city through an increased perception that it can offer exciting leisure experiences. The choice of venue as significant public space and famous landmark has also allowed media coverage away from the 'normal' mostly political imagery associated with the city. When selecting events to host within a city, it is important to match the event's characteristics with the desired perceptions of the city. In this instance, the event arguably contributed toward changing residents' and visitors' perceptions of the city as 'boring' by offering an event perceived as exciting.

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## **Collaboration as a potential strategy for addressing socio-cultural impacts of tourism development: Insights from Nigeria**

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### **Abstract**

Using selected clans in Anambra and Enugu States as case studies, this study discusses collaboration as a potential strategy for addressing socio-cultural consequences of tourism to help achieve responsible tourism development. Most studies in this field focus on economic factors which are easier to measure than socio-cultural. Our study aims are to explain how tourism operators are using local peoples' socio-cultural values and practices for tourism, the challenges encountered and how collaboration/community participation can help to address these challenges. The findings presented in this study are from ongoing PhD fieldwork. This is a qualitative research which adopts an ethnographic method of data collection. The study utilizes triangulation of methods to interact with participants through in-depth interviews, focus group discussion and participant observation. There are four groups of participants: traditional rulers; village representatives; men, women and youth and tourism officials. Tourism development in Anambra and Enugu States is localized. This is a consequence of poor funding and stakeholder' attitudes including those of government and tourism planners. Stakeholders adopt a top-down approach to tourism development thus neglecting the views of the local people. This affects the peoples' perception of tourism and its consequences. Positive and negative socio-cultural results of tourism were observed. The local people argued that if they are part of the planning and decision-making process, they can support tourism development and help address potential problems. The findings from this study will serve as reference point to future tourism researchers. This research contributes to knowledge on Nigerian tourism, especially with regards to the need for collaboration between stakeholders in tourism planning and development. Such a strategy has the potential to minimize anticipated negative impacts of tourism development.

### **Keywords**

socio-cultural impacts, tourism, development, collaboration, responsible tourism, Nigeria

#### **1. Introduction**

Authors including Andriotis (2007); Dredge and Jamal (2015); Gunn (2004); and Tosun and Timothy, (2003) noted that adequate tourism planning influences how tourism develops, and addresses impacts. Many governments and destination managers develop tourism without proper consideration of the consequences for the local people and their culture. When tourism stakeholders, including researchers, consider the impacts of tourism they often focus on the environmental and economic aspects while ignoring socio-cultural aspects. According to Andriotis (2007), those involved in early research into the outcomes of tourism planning restricted it to the measurement of economic impacts in developed countries because it was relatively easy to measure. There remains insufficient literature from emerging economies (Javier, 2016) including countries in Africa.

The limited studies focused on socio-cultural impacts of tourism development in Africa were conducted in countries such as Ghana, South Africa, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Tanzania, and Kenya. Findings from these studies showed that unplanned tourism development negatively influenced the local peoples' socio-cultural values and practices including their religion, cultural practices, festivals, family relationships, historic sites and monuments. These impacts lead to staged authenticity (presenting peoples' culture as original to meet tourists' expectation), demonstration effect (observable changes in the behavior of the local people because of the actions of tourist, which may not hitherto be acceptable in the community), commodification of culture, sex tourism, drug trafficking, aggression and cultural conflict (Anstrand, 2006; Et, 2013; Mbaiwa, 2005; Muganda, Sirima and Marwa, 2013; Nzama, 2008; Tichaawa and Mhlanga, 2015). We argue that community participation in tourism, a tenet of responsible tourism, might help address these negative impacts. This is important if tourism is to gain the support of residents who understand the environment, and which tourism requires to thrive (Cole, 2006; Javier, 2016).

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Therefore, we argue that collaboration/community participation can help minimize the negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism development in Southeastern Nigeria and increase the positive consequences. To do this requires developers to educate the local people, adopt genuine community participation, and address unequal power relations amongst the stakeholders. Collaboration/community participation which follows a bottom-up approach is likely to induce greater positive community input. Findings from the ongoing research will also contribute to responsible tourism discourse which is a new area of research in Nigeria.

## 2. Literature Review

Importantly, as Gunn (2004) noted, “the traditional view that all tourism development is positive is merely a half-truth” (p:4). Tourism has positive and negative results, which discussions with stakeholders, including local people, prior to development may increase or ameliorate. Javier (2016) argues that the local peoples’ goodwill is needed in tourism planning to ensure sustainability and reduce negative impacts. We provide a brief overview of evidence from African countries to support this view.

### *2.1 Study of socio-cultural impacts of tourism development from Western Africa*

In a study of resident perception of tourism impacts in Ghana, Et noted that tourism in Elmina and Ada impacted the communities economically, environmentally and socio-culturally. According to Et, an increase in the adverse impacts of tourism creates resentment among hosts and de-motivates tourists (Et, 2013). Et argued that if residents were involved in tourism planning and development, they would develop positive attitudes. Et noted that while tourism revitalized the peoples’ festivals and encouraged production of arts and crafts, the artworks were commodified to appeal to tourists, and the festivals modified to include football games, state dancing competitions and beauty pageants; all modern forms of entertainment. Tourism development has equally led to over-population and pressure on infrastructure, an increase in local crime, drug abuse and prostitution (Et, 2013). Et found that Elmina respondents’ perceptions were more positive than those of Ada who had little contact with tourism. He argued that the tension in Ada was avoidable if the people were included in the development process.

### *2.2 Study of socio-cultural impacts of tourism development from Southern Africa*

Nzama (2008) in a study of socio-cultural impacts of tourism on rural areas around the Kwazulu-Natal region of South Africa, observed that the low level of local people’s involvement in tourism resulted in negative socio-cultural impacts on their lifestyle. The author found that tourism development made visible changes to the peoples’ culture and daily life. According to Nzama, staged authenticity, which manifested as loss of authentic culture of the local people was a negative impact that genuine community involvement could help overcome through dialogue. The author argued this was because those involved in the industry better understood the processes and consequences of tourism than people who were less involved. Therefore, there is need to sensitize the local people for more informed participation. Nzama also found that the elders in the community expressed more concerns about the changes in their lifestyle brought about by tourism than the youth.

### *2.3 Socio-cultural impacts of tourism development from Eastern Africa*

In Tanzania, Anstrand (2006) observed that tourism negatively impacted the socio-cultural lifestyle of the local people, leading to changes such as loss of identity and values. The author argued that negative consequences occur when peoples’ culture turns into commodities to conform to tourists’ expectations. Anstrand also noted that unplanned tourism can lead to cultural and technological standardization, to satisfy tourists which might not conform to the people’s beliefs. Other negative consequences of

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tourism include loss of authenticity, frontstage and backstage distinctions (the local people behave to appeal to tourists and then go back to their daily lifestyle), cultural clash and irritation due to tourist behavior (Anstrand 2006). The author noted that planning could help ameliorate these impacts.

McComb, Boyd and Boluk (2016) therefore argued that collaboration/community participation aids in representing local peoples' concerns and expectations, and is a potential strategy for engaging with them and ensuring responsible tourism. This is consistent with Tosun and Timothy's argument that local people often have better knowledge of the environment which can assist in tourism development including what is likely to work and what will not (Tosun and Timothy, 2003). There are however various types of community participation, including full, pseudo, spontaneous, coercive and nominal but not all are beneficial to the local people (Tosun; 2006; White, 1996). Possible limitations to collaboration/community participation, especially in emerging economies are peoples' lack of knowledge or ability, unequal power relations, lack of tourism skills, poor institutional structure and limited access to tourism resources. Because of these limitations, Tosun (2000) noted that scholars need to test the application of community participation in developing countries to measure its usefulness.

### 3. Methodology

This is a working paper. This paper presents findings on the socio-cultural impacts of tourism development from the ongoing fieldwork in Southeastern Nigeria. The research is qualitative. The study uses an ethnographic method of data collection to elicit first-hand information through direct observations, focus group discussion and interviews. This strategy will elicit knowledge of the peoples' culture and tourism activities. During the fieldwork the researcher will ask the people of the selected clans in the states- Agulu-Aguinyi and Ntuegbe Nese- to select a representative from each village. Each representative will participate in the FGD sessions. The men, women and youth representatives from each town will be interviewed separately using semi-structured interviews. Other participants to be interviewed include traditional rulers, priests of shrines and groves in the community, and selected tourism officials. Seventeen FGDs with selected representatives, and 65 interviews will be conducted with the participants. The researcher chose this method to capture the diverse views of the people about whether they want increased tourism and to discuss how best to address positive and negative socio-cultural impacts.

### 4. Results

The researcher has conducted preliminary inquiries prior to beginning the ongoing fieldwork. An analysis of interactions with the local people showed some themes and categories. These include:

**Tourism development in the area is localized:** Key tourism resources include festivals, heritage/historic sites, monuments, shrines, sacred groves, caves and mythical lakes. Most of these resources have not been properly harnessed for tourism development because of poor access roads, poor infrastructure development, poor working conditions between the local people and government and lack of basic amenities. These issues have challenged tourism development in the region and must be addressed if the local people want to further develop tourism.

**Lack of skills:** The local people also lack the required skills and resources to develop tourism on their own, thus, the need for collaboration between stakeholders. Such collaboration would ensure that stakeholders are better placed for informed decisions on tourism development in the area.

**Lack of trust:** The local people voiced fears about dealing with the Nigerian government because of the top-down development approach it usually adopts, which most times neglect the views and contributions of the local people as a major key stakeholder in tourism development.

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**Negative impacts of tourism:** People also expressed concern about the negative impacts of tourism in the communities including changes in the behavior of some community members (especially youth who emulate visitors), defacing of monuments, attitudes of the people towards tourists, increases in prices of commodities, and the violation of local customs by tourists. Whilst the current economic recession in Nigeria influenced some participant's willingness to welcome tourism as a source of income, many elders spoke of their concern to retain the authenticity of their cultural values and practices. Most youth saw employment opportunities from tourism.

**Need for collaboration:** Majority of the respondents that the researcher interacted with agreed that collaboration/community participation is a good strategy for addressing socio-cultural impacts. They however pointed out that issues of power relations, empowerment, education and ownership of tourism development should be addressed. Addressing these concerns is consistent with responsible tourism which recognizes that the local peoples' views need to be included. These preliminary discussions support results from other scholars who worked on similar topics in Africa, including Mbaiwa (2005) in Botswana; Tichaawa and Mhlanga (2015) in Zimbabwe and Nzama (2008) in South Africa.

This study seeks to achieve genuine community participation which supports bottom-up approaches such as spontaneous, full or transformative strategies for addressing negative and positive socio-cultural impacts of tourism in Southeastern Nigeria. If properly implemented, responsible tourism development may be achieved in the region.

## 5. Implications

This study contributes to knowledge on Nigerian tourism, especially that focused on collaboration/community participation to address negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism to help achieve responsible tourism. The findings from the study will serve as a reference point for future researchers, and as a potential policy tool for tourism planners and government in the study area.

## 6. Conclusion

Since this study is still ongoing, it is expected that the results from the fieldwork will contribute to our understanding of the potential benefits and problems associated with adopting collaboration/community participation during tourism planning and development, especially in an emerging economy such as Nigeria. Collaboration is not an assurance that tourism would be sustainable, however, absence of collaboration is tantamount to misunderstanding among stakeholders, crisis and failure of sustainable tourism development at the tourism destination. Whilst there are also some challenges associated with collaboration, the strategy is viable for representing stakeholders' voices, concerns, and expectations. If stakeholders can address issues of power relations, mistrust, legitimacy, and adopt genuine collaboration/participation, there is a possibility of determining if the local people would want to develop tourism and participate in addressing the socio-cultural impacts. This will help achieve responsible tourism development in Southeastern Nigeria which is still a growing tourism destination.

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## Community relationships and maintaining long-term support for protected areas and ecotourism

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### Abstract

In this theoretical conceptual paper, the relationship of the communities in, and adjacent to protected areas are discussed. Highlighting the importance of these relationships and how the community's support contributes to the protected areas' conservation and ecotourism. A case-study literature review was conducted, revealing similar results that maintaining a long-term relationship with the community people plays an influential role in the protected areas' biodiversity, the community livelihoods and the tourism within the area. Protected areas without the support of the community characterise less successful results in aspects of economic, social and environmental gain. Thus, the inclusion of the community people in the decision-making plans and the implementation of management methods is vital. Including the community opens doors to their viewpoints and understanding, which contributes positively and creates a support network between, the community people, protected areas' staff, tourism staff and organisations. An approach that can add further value towards creating supportive networks and long-term relationships is resilience thinking. Using resilience thinking is the way forward, it reconnects the biosphere through linking people and ecosystems. Transparency among the various people involved in the decision-making, implementing and management phases creates trust. To sustain this trust and long-term relationships among all, there needs to be a mutual benefit where all benefit. Ideally – equally, where the community, protected area tourism and the conservation of the land all reap benefits.

### Keywords

communities, relationship, inclusion, conservation, tourism, resilience thinking

#### 1. Introduction

For conservation to be successful it needs to be a partnership between the land and the people. Where the land benefits the people and the people conserve the land to continue to benefit from the land - a mutual benefit for both (Putnam, 1993). Private reserves, also known as protected areas, are sought-after destinations in the tourism industry and are a crucial instrument for conserving nature. The International Union for Conservation of Nature states a protected area is a “*clearly defined geographical space, recognised, dedicated and managed through legal or other effective means, to achieve the long-term conservation of nature with associated ecosystem services and cultural values*” (IUCN, 2008:1). Ecotourism is a form of tourism used with expectations of reducing environmental impacts, whilst contributing towards environmental protection, improving the socioeconomic well-being in host communities (Sirakaya *et al.*, 1999). Policymakers and conservationists are increasingly using protected areas as a tool for ecotourism, biodiversity conservation as well as a medium contributing towards community livelihoods (Appiah-Opoku, 2011).

Many lives in Southern Africa were altered in the late 1800s and early 1900s with the advent of colonialism. Many indigenous people were displaced and/or restricted to natural resources. This affecting their attitudes and perceptions of the communities towards protected areas and ecotourism (Snyman, 2014). Methods have evolved to mitigate these growing negative perceptions through conservation and ecotourism policies. Resulting in communities being included in decision-making and sharing the benefits made to build a relationship with the communities (Chandralal, 2010). Protected areas, communities and ecotourism are part of an ever-constantly changing environment. To keep up with these changes, methods of thinking and approaches, especially in the design, implementation and management phases need to be adaptable and kept up to date. Such an approach, that can be used to maintain and to improve the relationship between communities, protected areas and the sustainability of ecotourism is resilience thinking. Resilience thinking incorporates knowledge specifically to strengthen resilience in nature and society into an interconnected social-ecological system. This interconnected social-ecological system works towards a partnership between communities, tourism and environmental stakeholders.

## 2. Literature

Sustainable ecotourism's role in socioeconomic development and conservation in protected areas have been studied from a range of viewpoints (Eagles *et al.*, 2002; Honey, 2008). Previously conducted research demonstrates that tourism and visitation in protected areas creates negative and positive impacts; environmentally, socially and economically (Eagles *et al.*, 2002; Snyman, 2014; Spenceley & Snyman, 2017). Indirect positive impact associated with tourism is that protected areas, generate a revenue source that support ongoing conservation efforts, communities benefit through social costs and improvements in infrastructure in the communities. Community attitudes impact the ecotourism industry as well as protected areas, which are interlinked with each other through direct costs, employment and human-wildlife conflict (Snyman, 2014). It has been argued that if benefits are given to the local communities, that they will have positive perceptions towards ecotourism and protected areas (Emptaz-Collomb, 2009; Waylen *et al.*, 2009). The support of the local communities for ecotourism, conservation and protected areas is heavily based on the 'needs theory' (Doyal & Gough, 1991). This is because one's general basic need is attended to before sustaining tourism and conservation interventions. Thus, lower household income members being less supportive (Doyal & Gough, in Emptaz-Collomb, 2009). Community needs, and livelihoods can be addressed and improved with the assistance of government, non-government organisations, NPO initiatives and private sector organisations. This solution is accomplished through community development projects by improving access to education, healthcare, infrastructure, transport, and employment training and opportunities. It is these projects that create a more supportive environment in the local communities adjacent to protected areas. The social exchange theory can also be applied to this, especially with regards of communities in, and adjacent to protected areas where social behaviour derives from "*a process of exchange based on maximising personal benefits and minimising personal disadvantage*" where "*individuals weigh the rewards against the costs to select the most beneficial social relationships in which to engage, according to the theory*" (Miller, 2013:1). Research done by Strickland-Munro & Moore (2014:1161) used the resilience framework and it was stated that it was useful in accessing "*local community perceptions whilst retaining awareness of the broader multi-scalar context in which interactions occur*".

### 2.1 *The implications between wildlife in tourism and within the communities*

Implications dealing with protected areas and communities are underlying drivers such as community cultural norms and values they have regarding to nature as well as existing poverty and lack of education (Strickland-Munro & Moore, 2014). Communities face many challenges living in, and adjacent to protected areas with wildlife. These challenges include the loss of livestock, damage to crops and even loss of human lives. Other associated costs including the direct cost of paying someone to guard livestock and crops. The costs and time associated with these security measures could be put to other uses within the community. Such factors creating negative attitudes among community members towards wildlife, protected areas and in the long run, ecotourism. Community dependency on tourism affects communities through, influencing their attitudes, perceptions of tourism and thus their methods of conservation (Strickland-Munro & Moore, 2014). Not all community members are impacted negatively, and positive attitudes exist where members benefit from ecotourism especially within these protected areas and ecotourism industries. However, communities need to benefit further from conservation and ecotourism or measures of mitigation. Financial reimbursements and benefits alone won't alter or improve people's attitude towards conservation, ecotourism and protected areas as the shaping of attitudes is complex. Social-cultural impacts of tourism also occur among communities; changes in behaviour, cultural practices, community organisation and value systems (Andereck *et al.*, 2005). However, tourism can also enhance cultural identity and the understanding of the different cultures, eliminating cultural stereotypes. Unfortunately, future benefits for communities adjacent to protected areas is also dependent on the economic benefits of tourism and the development of economic

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opportunities for the communities (Strickland-Munro & Moore, 2014). This is dependent on addressing the community's economic disadvantages and their expectations of tourism as well as the capacity of the community.

## 2.2 Mitigation solutions

Possible solutions to improve the relationship between communities, wildlife and protected areas do exist. Education is vital for not only for development growth within communities, but it also increases employment opportunities for community members. Through ecotourism, initiatives of development projects are in communities, increasing education infrastructure as well as shared knowledge. Education contributes to the implementation of conservation awareness campaigns and spreads the knowledge of protected areas and ecotourism (Snyman, 2013). Through education and awareness, communities are more aware of the costs of living adjacent to wildlife. More positive attitudes and expectations of protected areas and ecotourism may come out of this. Another solution is innovative thinking when devising designs and management plans for protected areas, ecotourism and implementing them. Providing livelihood strategies to adjacent protected area communities is also a means of empowering communities, making them less dependent on the natural resources alone and tourism. This dependence on ecotourism employment opportunities, reimbursements and benefits are risky and creates vulnerability within communities, especially to external shocks (e.g. the occurrence of drought). Thus, the need to steer ecotourism towards a complex adaptive system of a diverse livelihood portfolio. Hulme & Murphree (2001) discuss that for most rural communities, conservation is an investment for the present and future value of everyone, with their first and main goal being sustaining a livelihood. This intangible relationship between communities, protected areas and ecotourism, assists communities adjacent to protected areas to earn an income and to conserve their natural resources, all of which improves their livelihoods. To alter communities' dependency on ecotourism and protected areas, communities need to adapt and become more resilient. Resilience thinking thus can be applied to the phases of design, implementation and management of conservation and development approaches. The Stockholm Resilience Centre (2014:1) defines resilience thinking as *"the capacity of a system, be it an individual, a forest, a city or an economy, to deal with change and continue to develop"*. *"Resilience thinking embraces learning, diversity and above all the belief that humans and nature are strongly coupled to the point that they should be conceived as one social ecological system."* This form of thinking embraces complex adaptive systems which contributes to a better understanding of changing systems and how to manage them. Protected area tourism is increasingly being acknowledged as a complex social-ecological system. A system including uncertainty, unpredictability and complexities thus resilience thinking is suitable in devising plans, and the management thereof. It is essential to see the communities as an integral part of this complex system. Many unpredictable external influences beyond control impacts the communities which many propose a ripple effect in the system and the interaction between the community people, tourism industry and protected areas.

Resilience thinking is a shift away from traditional development thinking, which is outdated. This form of thinking comprises of the following notions: resists change; responds to shock and disturbance with strategies to promote persistence; plans are static; unchanging systems; considers humans separately from nature; strives for maximum efficiency views and redundancy is a waste of resources (Conservation Training, 2017). The resilience thinking approach is ideal for community relationships with protected areas, especially when making collective decisions. Planning for change builds a strong foundation for protected areas and leads to practical and actionable goals to manage and market change. These goals need to be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and have a time span to have an impact on the environment and the people (Conservation Training, 2018). Along with resilience thinking, the management and the role of communities in tourism is on the rise. Research shows, improving this relationship and the resilience of communities can also play a major role in the sustainability of protected areas and the marketing thereof. The

relationship between the communities, stakeholders and the private sector plays a vital role in conservation, this relationship takes time, empowering communities helps contribute positively towards protected areas and tourism. This relationship also plays a role in increasing public interest in tourism and the visitation in protected areas (McCool, 2009). Sound management practices of protected areas contribute towards standards of tourism, contributing to the quality of tourism.

### 3. Conclusion

Literature on sustainable tourism approaches with communities in, and adjacent to protected areas mainly evolves around the social, environmental and economic impacts of tourism on protected areas. Representing room for advancements regarding the resilience thinking approach. Mainly focusing on community relationships and maintaining long-term support for protected areas and ecotourism. Participating in resilience thinking and approaches is a means of insuring against future shocks. Uncertainties and people's limited understanding of the consequences of human-induced impacts and changes which are making the planet more vulnerable. We are living in unpredictable times due to increasing population, widespread development and facing environmental challenges daily such as climate change. Thus, there is a need for intervention, one which will effectively accelerate biodiversity conservation whilst linking people and ecosystems, such as the resilience thinking approach. The relationship between the communities, tourism and protected areas plays an important role in the adaptability and resilience of social-ecological system as they are intricate and complex. Therefore, a combined trustworthy long-term relationship between communities and protected areas is fundamental.

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# Innovation and Performance in Hotels in Kenya and South Africa

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## 1. Introduction

Globalization of markets and the extreme and rapid growth of technology have made innovation and differentiation a necessity for every company (Song, van der Bij & Weggeman, 2006; Tajeddini & Trueman, 2008). Innovation is a significant ingredient at present to service companies generally and especially hospitality and tourism firms (Martínez-Ros and Orfila-Sintes, 2009). Innovation in hotels is particularly crucial since it keeps the product and service current and fresh for guests. However, empirical studies on innovation performance in the hotel sector remain limited (Erfurt-Cooper & Cooper, 2009; Orfila-Sintesb, Crespí-Cladera & Martínez-Ros, 2005). Moreover, most innovation studies in service and tourism have been conducted as case studies in only one country. Few researches have been done using survey methods in more macro contexts such as multi-country markets to explore contexts that differ due to a variety of issues including regulatory environments (Sandvik *et al.*, 2014; Tajeddini, 2014). Also, an improved understanding is required of how interaction between technologies - online social networks and mobile technologies - and innovation types affect hotel performance (Ho & Lee, Y., 2007). The current study therefore, set out to achieve the following objectives: to identify and rank innovation types undertaken by hotel in South Africa (SA) and Kenya; to examine the relationship between determinants of innovation and innovation types in use in hotels in SA and Kenya; and to investigate the relationships between innovation types and different hotel performance dimensions in SA and Kenya. Thus, this research contributes to comprehensive understanding of the innovation types, determinants of innovation, as well as innovation – performance relationship in hotel research. Moreover, this research responds to previous calls to test innovation performance models in different contexts.

## 2. Literature Review

A critical review of literature reveals little comprehensive understanding of the innovation types, determinants of innovation, as well as innovation – performance relationship in hotel research (Hjalager, 2010). Hence, there is need for a study that to adopts survey design to investigate categories of innovation and how they are related to driving forces of innovation and performance of hotels (Hult, Hurley, & Knight 2004; Szymanski, Kroff, & Troy 2007). Additionally, majority of innovation researches have been conducted in some specific contexts, thereby leaving such studies with a number of limitations regarding the generalizability of their results (Damanpour & Gopalakrishnan, 2001). This study therefore responds to previous calls to test innovation performance models in different contexts.

## 3. Methods

### 3.1 Data collection and sampling

The study was conducted in South Africa and Kenya. The researchers applied cross-sectional survey design using web based survey to systematically gather data from managers of star rated hotels listed in the websites of Tourism Regulatory Authority (TRA) Kenya and Tourism Grading Council of South Africa (TGCSA). The hotel managers were randomly contacted through email addresses gathered by the researchers from the websites of TRA and TGCSA in order to participate in the survey. A total of 105 and 122 managers, respectively for Kenya and South Africa participated in the survey.

### 3.2 Measurement

All measures in the current study were drawn from previous research and aligned with the conceptual aspects of each construct. The scales of measurement for the *four types of innovation* were adapted from the studies by Nieves *et al.* (2014), Nasution *et al.* (2010) and the contents of the Oslo Manual (OECD, 2005). The researchers adapted the scales used by Palacios-Marqués *et al.*, (2015) and Carmichael *et al.* (2011) to measure *online social networks*. For mobile technologies, the researchers developed a list of 22 items based on the previous studies of Kim and Kizildag (2011) and Kim *et al.* (2014). Finally, *financial and non – financial* measures were derived from the works of Avci *et al.*, (2011). All the observed variables were measured with descriptive anchors on numeric five-point Likert-style rating scale (Jaccard & Wan, 1996). Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the questionnaire items, with response ranging from 5 = definitely agree and 1 = definitely disagree.

### 3.3 Data Analysis

The IBM Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 was used to explore the data. The researchers used descriptive statistics to identify and rank innovation types used by hotels in SA and Kenya. Principal factor analysis was used to assess the dimensionality, reliability, and validity of the scales. Finally, multiple linear regression analysis was used to investigate relationships among determinants of innovation, innovation types and performance of hotels.

## 4. Findings

### 4.1 Psychometric Properties

The current research applied principal factor analysis (PCA) with Varimax to assess the dimensionality, reliability, and validity of the scales, consisting of 8 factors. Table 1 shows the results of the measurement analysis, including loadings, composite reliabilities (CR), and average variances extracted (AVE). Table 1 illustrates that the values of CR range from .71 to .88, all exceeding .70, which is the acceptable CR level (e.g. Bagozzi and Yi, 1988). The values for AVE from each construct (ranging from .64 to .78) also exceeded the threshold level (.5). All item loadings ranging from .68 to .78 are significant at the 5% significance level, indicating convergent validity (Barclay *et al.*, 1995).

Table 1: Reliabilities, factor loads and AVE scores

	Variable	CR	AVE
South Africa	Innovation in Product	.76	.71
	Innovation in Process	.78	.71
	Innovation in Market Knowledge	.77	.71
	Innovation in Management	.76	.66
	Online Social Media	.80	.60
	Mobile Technologies	.88	.76
	Financial Performance	.71	.78
	Non-Financial Performance	.79	.64
Kenya	Innovation in Product	.94	.87
	Innovation in Process	.89	.77
	Innovation in Market Knowledge	.87	.76
	Innovation in Management	.85	.78
	Online Social Media	.89	.87
	Mobile Technologies	.80	.75
	Financial Performance	.81	.74
	Non-Financial Performance	.71	.78

Note. CR = composite reliabilities; AVE = average variances extracted.

#### 4.2 Mean Scores

Table 2 shows means and standard deviations of the study variables. Most of the variables had very high means suggesting that they were highly rated by the respondents. All variables had small standard deviations indicating that more of the data were clustered about the mean.

The first objective of the current research was meant to identify innovation types undertaken by hotels in South Africa and Kenya. Table 2 reveals that innovation in process was ranked highest followed by innovation in market knowledge, innovation in products and innovation in management by hotels in South Africa. Hotels in Kenya ranked highest innovation in processes followed by innovation in management, innovation in products and innovation in market knowledge.

The second objective of this study was to examine the relationship between determinants of innovation and innovation types in use in hotels in South Africa and Kenya. Table 3 reports that *innovation in process*, *innovation in market knowledge* and *innovation in management* were strongly linked to *online social media* among hotels in South Africa. The adjusted R<sup>2</sup> was .18 for *innovation in process*, .27 for *innovation in market knowledge*, and .26 for *innovation in management*.

Table 2: Mean Scores of Study Variables

City	Factor	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean	Std. Deviation
South Africa	Innovation in Product	2.00	5.00	3.63	0.77
	Innovation in Process	3.00	5.00	4.03	0.66
	Innovation in Market Knowledge	2.00	5.00	3.66	0.80
	Innovation in Management	2.00	5.00	3.40	0.78
	Online Social Media	2.00	5.00	3.66	0.69
	Mobile Technologies	3.00	5.00	3.90	0.55
	Financial Performance	2.00	5.00	3.48	0.75
	Non-Financial Performance	3.00	5.00	3.68	0.57
Kenya	Innovation in Product	3.00	5.00	4.15	0.55
	Innovation in Process	3.00	5.00	4.46	0.78
	Innovation in Market Knowledge	3.00	5.00	3.92	0.64
	Innovation in Management	4.00	5.00	4.23	0.44
	Online Social Media	3.00	5.00	4.00	0.71
	Mobile Technologies	3.00	5.00	3.92	0.76
	Financial Performance	2.00	5.00	3.69	0.85
	Non-Financial Performance	2.00	4.00	3.31	0.63

However, Table 3 also confirms that *innovation in process* and *innovation in product* were significantly linked to *online social media* while *innovation in management* was associated with *mobile technologies* amongst hotels in Kenya. The adjusted R<sup>2</sup> was .12 for *innovation in product*, .52 for *innovation in process*, and .25 for *innovation in management*.

The third objective of the current research sought to establish the relationship between innovation types and performance of hotels in South Africa and Kenya. Table 4 reports these relationships. Innovation in process and innovation in market knowledge had a significant influence on financial performance (R<sup>2</sup> = .40) while innovation in process was strongly linked to nonfinancial performance among hotels in South Africa (R<sup>2</sup> = .20). The adjusted R<sup>2</sup> for the significant relationships were .40 and .21 respectively. On the other hand, Table 4 explains that innovation in management had a strong influence on financial performance whereas innovation in products had a significant relationship with non-financial performance among hotels in Kenya. The adjusted R<sup>2</sup> was .43 for innovation in product and .44 for innovation in management.



Table 3: Results of regression analyses - determinants of innovation and innovation types (Standardized Regression Coefficients)

Determinants of innovations	Innovation in Product		Innovation in Process		Innovation in Market Knowledge		Innovation in Management		Financial Performance		Non-Financial Performance	
	$\beta$	p value	$\beta$	p value	$\beta$	p value	$\beta$	p value	$\beta$	p value	$\beta$	p value
South Africa												
Online Social Media	.26	.12	.42	.01	.50	.00	.48	.00	.18	.31	.13	.45
Mobile Technologies	.28	.10	.10	.54	.11	.47	.11	.46	.16	.36	.24	.17
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.17		.18		.27		.26		.04		.06	
Kenya												
Online Social Media	.66	.00	.88	.01	.09	.79	.31	.35	.10	.80	-.10	.79
Mobile Technologies	-.38	.23	.20	.45	.44	.23	.36	.02	.28	.47	.47	.24
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.12		.52		.11		.25		.05		.00	

Table 4: Results of regression analyses - innovation types and performance of hotels (Standardized Regression Coefficients)

South Africa	Innovation Types	Financial Performance		Non-Financial Performance	
		$\beta$	p value	$\beta$	p value
	Innovation in Product	.06	.68	.15	.37
	Innovation in Process	.43	.02	.49	.02
	Innovation in Market Knowledge	.40	.02	.12	.55
	Innovation in Management	-.11	-.59	-.21	.34
	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.40		.20	
Kenya					
	Innovation in Product	-.02	.97	.43	.02
	Innovation in Process	-.06	.88	.10	.79
	Innovation in Market Knowledge	-.31	.52	.12	.80
	Innovation in Management	.44	.04	-.32	.54
	Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	.34		-.26	

## 5. Implications

The first objective sought to determine how hotels in SA and Kenya rank the innovation types. The findings reveal concurrence in ranking of innovations in processes and innovations in products, respectively, in first and third positions by hotels in SA and Kenya. The findings confirm that innovation in processes is the ultimate platform for improved services that will be recognizable to the customer (Gunday *et al.*, 2011). Consequently, product innovation involves the improvement of a product or service and is manifested in changes directly observed by the client and considered to be new (Hjalager, 2010).

The second objective intended to establish association between determinants of innovations and innovation types. From the significance of the values obtained, the results show that investments in online social media by hotels in SA are seen to be likely to innovate in terms of processes, market knowledge, and management. On the other hand, investments in online social media and mobile technologies will lead to innovation in processes and management, respectively for hotels in Kenya. This position is in line with Hjalager's (2010) view that technologies especially emerging technologies constitute the main agents for process, market and management innovations, particularly for hotels (Hjalager, 2010; Buhalis & Law, 2008).

Concerning the third objective which aimed at establishing the relationship between innovation types and hotel performance, it can be argued that focus on innovations in processes and market knowledge will improve financial performance while concentration on innovations in processes will enhance non-financial performance of hotels in SA. Paying attention to innovations in management will lead to financial progress while focusing on innovations in products will lead to improved nonfinancial performance of hotels in Kenya. When hotels invest in innovations in processes and management they are likely to reduce production, delivery, administrative, and transaction costs (OECD, 2005) thereby increasing their financial performance. Furthermore, innovations in marketing are aimed at addressing customer needs, opening up new markets, or newly positioning a

firm's product on the market, with the objective of increasing the firm's sales (OECD, 2005). Besides, new products or services in the shape of innovations are undertaken not only to provide customer value but also to create additional streams of revenue.

## 6. Conclusions

The results indicate that hotels in SA and Kenya prioritize innovation in processes compared to other innovation types. According to the results obtained, investment in emerging technologies such as online social media and mobile technologies present significant effects in hotel's ability to innovate in specific innovation types. Moreover, the results demonstrate that focus on specific innovation types has increasing significant effect on financial and non-financial performance of hotel. Thus, investment in innovations in processes, management and marketing is expected to reduce costs and increase hotel performance.

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## Sustaining livelihoods through land restoration: myth or reality

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### Abstract

This paper investigates the extent to which land ownership through restoration results in sustainable livelihoods for the Nonoti Beach community, in KZN. During the apartheid era, Black communities were evicted from their ancestral land to make way for tourism development. After 1994, the first democratic government prioritized restoring land back to the dispossessed communities. Previously disadvantaged communities organized themselves to reclaim their lost land, and Nonoti Beach community is one of those communities. There has been delays in the land reform process in the country, but the Nonoti community received a settlement in 2004 and the land was restored back to them. The objective of this study is to investigate the strategies in place to prepare new land owners to live sustainably on restored land, the role of various stakeholders to give post-settlement support to ensure that land ownership through restoration results in sustainable livelihoods. This paper is anchored on sustainable livelihoods framework which is used to capacitate people to continuously make a living and improve their quality of life and at the same time ensuring there are options through sustainable coping and adaptive mechanisms. This research was conducted using a mixed method approach and data was collected using in-depth interviews, questionnaires and focus groups. The sample of this study consists of the local community members and representatives from the government agencies. The findings of this study reveal that the new landowners were not capacitated with training and skills to live sustainably on the land they have acquired through the land claims process, which is contradictory to poverty alleviation and eradication.

### Keywords

Sustainable livelihoods, land restoration, land reform, coastal tourism

#### 1. Introduction

Coastal tourism has in most places in South Africa resulted in eviction of the rural communities, more especially during the apartheid era. "In many parts of the country, contestations have emerged with communities organizing themselves to reclaim their lost land after the democratic government prioritised restoring the land back to the previously dispossessed communities to correct past injustices" (DRDLR 2009). There have been delays in the restoration of land back to the original owners, however, this paper focuses on a community whose land has been restored. The Nonoti Beach community is a rural community which, comprises of approximately 300 households with about 1600 beneficiaries of state grants (Sivest 2011). Most rural areas in South Africa are faced with various socio-economic problems such as high illiteracy rates, unemployment, the scourge of HIV/AIDS pandemic and poverty (Walker 2013) and the study area is not immune from these challenges.

After the land claim was finally approved in March 2004 and the settlement was reached in favour of the community, the land was then managed by Inqaba Trust on behalf of the Nonoti Beach community (Sivest 2011). The Deputy Minister of Rural Development and Land Reform believes that rural communities have to be mobilized and capacitated to participate in the planning, coordination and post-delivery support of the government's CRDS to ensure that members of the rural community become the captain of their own destiny (Boyle 2010). The development of a resort is planned for Nonoti Beach, which is expected to sustain the lives of the surrounding rural community (Burton 2012). Sivest (2011) proposes that the anticipated positive socio-economic spin-offs from this development include the creation of job opportunities and the upliftment of the local community through training and skills development, more especially for the youth and women.

The focus of this paper is on capacity building strategies aimed at supporting the new landowners to live sustainably on restored land. It also addresses the skills gap and measures to address the skills shortage amongst the new land owners. Lastly, this paper assesses the benefits enjoyed by the community whose land has been restored and the challenges encountered. There is limited research on strategies to ensure sustainable livelihoods are achieved on restored land as well as measures to monitor and evaluate these strategies.

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Leijzer and Denman, (2013) argue that adequate post-settlement support should be given to the new landowners so that the land continues to be productive and they are empowered to use land productively for job creation and food security. This paper is anchored on sustainable livelihoods framework (SLF), which is used to analyze livelihoods and to build the capacity of people to continuously make a living and improve their quality of life. SLF ensures that there are options for present and future generations to improve their livelihoods (Metelerkamp 2011). “The SLF equips rural people with skills to help them create a livelihood for themselves and their households, using assets they have access to” (Greenberg 2010). In SLF, people are the main concern rather than the resources they use as it supports poor people as they address the constraints or take advantage of opportunities.

## 2. Literature review

The development of rural areas and the eradication of poverty have remained central to the South African Government’s programme of action (Du Toit 2008). The South African government acknowledges the importance of people’s participation and gender equality in environmental issues and rural development (Boyle 2010). This paper discusses the extent to which the South African government is succeeding in implementing the CRDS to eradicate poverty in Nonoti Beach through land ownership resulting from restoration.

Extant literature was reviewed and the theoretical orientation on land reform in this paper is discussed from three countries, namely, India, Zimbabwe and South Africa that are all developing nations, tracing the history and progress of land reform in each of these countries. Moyo (2011) argues that land reform is aimed at the progressive realization of socio-economic rights, however, the process of land distribution in these countries has been slow, limiting the socio-economic empowerment. Based on the above observation, it becomes essential to suggest policy measures that should be adopted in order to fast track the land reform and to ensure that it enhances socio-economic rights, and correct past injustices, more especially for the poor and marginalized communities (Boyle 2011).

### 2.1 *Land Reform in India*

Land reform in India was aimed at reducing levels of landlessness by transferring ownership of land to the landless. May (2013) proposes that this move was aimed at promoting social justice associated with more equitable distribution of land assets as well as improving agricultural efficiency, while, simultaneously, allowing more people to participate in the country’s growing economy. Scoones (2010) caution that despite the efforts at land reform, the number of landless people in India has increased since reform efforts began 3 decades ago and that the richest 10% of the population now owns more land than they did previously. Metelerkamp (2010) argue that the observation above is twofold; firstly, it might mean that efforts on land reform have been insufficient to counteract state’s capitalist development strategy or, secondly, it might mean the high population rates in India are making these land reform efforts not to bear the desired fruit.

### 2.2 *Land Reform in Zimbabwe*

Metelerkamp (2011) states that when Zimbabwe gained independence in 1979, 46, 5% of the country’s arable land was owned by approximately 6000 white commercial farmers who made up less than 1% of the population who also owned 70% of the best farming land. President Mugabe initiated the willing buyer-willing seller initiative. “In 1992, the Land Acquisition Act was passed removing the ‘willing buyer-willing seller clause, empowering the government to buy land compulsorily for redistribution, and a fair compensation was to be paid for land acquired. During this time, 1 million hectares of land was acquired and fewer than 20

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000 families were resettled. Much of the land acquired during this time was of poor quality” (Green 2013). In 2000, the amendments in the land reform act allowed the government to confiscate white owned land for redistribution to black farmers without compensation (Moyo 2011). The self-styled ‘war veterans’ began invading white owned farms forcibly removing owners, torturing and killing them. Moyo (2011) states that in the first wave of farm invasions, a total of 110 thousand square kilometers of land were seized. Many parcels of land were controlled by people close to government” (Green 2013), which defeated the main purpose of land reform, which was to improve the lives of the landless.

### *2.3 Land Reform in South Africa*

Qalam and Lumet (2012), state that in South Africa, from the 17<sup>th</sup> century onwards, dispossession by white settlers of the land occupied by indigenous black societies was centrally important in creating a racially polarized and highly unequal society. Qalam and Lumet (2012) further explain that from 1948 to 1990, the apartheid government relocated millions of black people in both urban and rural areas, to create separate racial zones and ethically defined ‘homelands’. Greenberg (2010) believes that redistribution of farmland, together with other rural development programmes can make a significant contribution to poverty eradication in the rural areas of South Africa.

In South Africa, land reform has its roots in the Natives Land Act of 1913. In 1991, the state president of the time, F.W. de Klerk declared the abolition of several apartheid rules including the Population Registration Act, the Group Areas Act, as well as the Natives Land Act and replaced them with the Abolition of Racially Based Land Measures Act. This act stated that “no one could be deprived of any land rights based on race. In 1994, the democratic government initiated a land reform process focusing on restitution, land tenure reform and land distribution (Greenberg 2010). Metelerkamp (2011) defines restitution as the process whereby the government gives monetary compensation to individuals who were forcibly removed. This policy was a failure resulting to the ‘willing buyer-willing seller’ approach, whereby the government bought land from the owners for distribution to the previously disadvantaged (Qalam and Lumet, 2012).

According to Lahiff (2010) “the ‘willing buyer-willing seller system proved difficult to implement because owners were not afforded the opportunity to see and assess the productivity of the land and were not involved in decision making before the purchase” The South African government then decided to change the redistribution process to a more decentralized process (Boyle 2010), hoping for more community participation. This system also failed. Metelerkamp (2011) states that “by late 2009, only 7% of land had been redistributed and the 30% target was shifted to 2025”. The slow pace of land reform in South Africa is attributed to the lack of measures to deal with the post-settlement support and market linkages for land beneficiaries. The ultimate goals of land reform are also unclear, whether it is historical redress, black economic empowerment or poverty alleviation (Greenberg 2010).

Boyle (2010) observed that 90% of the farms transferred in the restitution programme are no longer functional and attributed this to the inadequate capacity of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) to fulfill its mandate. Restored farms fail as a result of lack of adequate post-transfer support coupled with over-arching agricultural policies towards emerging farmers and the fact that land reform on the food security in South Africa is poor (Leijzer and Denman 2013). It has been noted that land reform efforts in India, Zimbabwe and South Africa focus on agricultural land within the rural sector of the economy, despite the fact that only five percent of South Africa’s GDP is derived from agriculture. Green (2013) proposes that these countries should shift the focus of land reform from agriculture to other land uses, for example, tourism development.

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Green (2013) argue that the post settlement support is important for poverty reduction. Post settlement support involves access to credit, water provision for irrigation purposes, information sharing and training. According to Cousins (2014), South Africa urgently requires practical agrarian reform policies that capacitate Black farmers to use the land productively to sustain their livelihoods.

#### *2.4 Skepticism towards the political nature of land reform and restoration*

Leijzer and Denman (2011) propose that in most countries, including South Africa, land reform is a deeply political process. This is confirmed in CAI (2011) where it is stated that many land reforms emerged from a particular political ideology such as socialism/communism in countries such as Zimbabwe, capitalism in South Africa, feudalism in India, authoritarianism in Botswana, etc. In South Africa, land reform was a priority for the ANC when it took over power reigns in 1994 and passed the Restitution of Land Rights Act. The country's target was to transfer 30% of agricultural land back to Black farmers within five years under a 'willing buyer-willing seller program (Metelerkamp 2011). Land reform could be used as a tool to alleviate conflicting land laws which could make marginalized groups vulnerable to exploitation. This motion is confirmed in Boyle (2010), who argue that land reform has potential benefits to preserve and conserve the environment, thereby leading to sustainable productivity.

Land reform has the potential of positive social and economic outcomes but it is an intensely political process, thus other people are skeptical that through this land reform, they might be disadvantaged. Scoones (2010) confirms this notion when he declares that others fear that they might lose out in the political power struggles underlying land reform. Critics of land reform (Aliber *et al.* 2013) caution that land reform may further disadvantage marginalized groups such as the local communities or women, while others are concerned about the institutional capacity of governments to implement land reform.

There is a concern that restored land might not be used productively and that owners of expropriated land might not be adequately compensated or compensated at all, which will further exacerbate conflict. Moyo (2011) confirms that countries such as Zimbabwe are good examples of the perils of large scale reforms whereby land redistribution contributed to economic decline and increased food insecurity in the country, more especially for the poor communities.

### 3. Methods

This study was conducted using the mixed method research design. Primary data was collected by observing and recording interactions and obtaining perspectives from various people involved in the social interaction by using in depth interviews, a focus group as well as questionnaires. Secondary data was collected using document analysis. Purposive sampling technique was used to identify stakeholders with a vested interest in coastal tourism, which include members of the local community (20) and representatives from the government agencies (5). A focus group was used to achieve a blend of ideas from different participants with divergent views, and to achieve triangulation. Collected data was analysed using predetermined themes.

### 4. Results

#### *4.1 Key constraints limiting post-settlement support to the new landowners*

“A key requirement for sustainable coastal tourism is for the local community residing along the coast to benefit from the industry, thereby, helping to alleviate poverty, improving livelihoods and encouraging better management and conservation

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practices” (DoT 2012). Skills development is in the development plan of the proposed Nonoti Beach Resort but its implementation is questionable. This is confirmed by the new landowners when they indicated that they have not undergone any training in hospitality and hotel management, financial management, Customer Service Excellence, etc. that is aimed at capacitating them to benefit economically when the proposed Nonoti Beach Resort becomes operational which defeats the main objective of alleviating poverty and improving livelihoods.

Cousins (2014) argue that giving post-settlement support to the new landowners is extremely challenging due to the fragmented manner in which government departments operate. In South Africa, the Department of Land Affairs undertakes land reform. Post-settlement support is the mandate of the agricultural department and water supply the department of Water Affairs. This notion is confirmed by Lahiff (2010) where he states that the greatest challenge is that the three departments do not work together to support beneficiaries of land reform. The other problem is that about 1% of the national budget is allocated to land reform. Boyle (2010) states that “the National Treasury has been reluctant to allocate money to land reform due to the failure of many land reform projects to make impact on rural poverty”. The major constraint of land reform is weak capacity in the relevant government departments, having staff who are insufficiently trained. Lahiff (2010) argue that regional policymaking focuses on farming and agriculture as the main driver of rural economic development, and ignore other aspects driving rural economies. Aliber and Cousins (2013) argue that agricultural policy is often criticized for focusing on food and farming, and for not considering the connections between agricultural production and other aspects of the rural economy.

#### *4.2 The significant role that could be played by government to ensure that land reform is both effective and pro-poor.*

South Africa has excellent policies that can address the historical legacies of dispossession, maintain levels of production and help reduce rural poverty. Amongst these strategies is the integrated agrarian reform whose details are lacking. It is recommended that the government should work closely with other actors in society. Active participation of potential beneficiaries is important considering the fact that the tourism sector is a multi-faceted industry with the potential to create jobs (Leijzer and Denman, 2013). The government should consult with civil society organizations and the private sector to strengthen policies and to ensure that they receive broad based support. The South African policy should aim at attaining a socially relevant development; therefore, it needs to pay attention to the education, training and skills imparted to the new landowners (Bramwell 2011). For land reform to offer effective support to the new landowners, a new fully-fledged department of agrarian reform with sufficient numbers of well-trained staff should be created. Area based planning to integrate redistribution, restitution, tenure reform, small-farm support and infrastructure development should be established. Cousins (2013) cautions that the government should develop realistic policies that deliver real benefits for communities at grassroots level.

#### *4.3 The role of institutions of higher learning in giving post-settlement support to the new landowners*

Various stakeholders should be involved to aid policy making and to suggest ways to improve the management of coastal areas to alleviate poverty. The institutions of higher learning can play a pivotal role in giving post-settlement support to the new landowners. This notion is confirmed by Respondent 5 where he said

*Institutions of higher education, as research based organizations, are capable of conducting researches on the productivity of the land and, if found not to be suitable for agricultural purposes, they can suggest other viable economic activities that can sustain the lives of the new landowners. They can also work with other government institutions to identify training and skills development needs to capacitate new landowners to live sustainably on restored land.*



The post-settlement support from institutions of higher institutions includes planning for, implementing and monitoring capacity building amongst the new landowners by identifying the existing skills and skills gap amongst the community whose land has been restored. The results of this research reveal that the expertise of the institutions of higher learning was not used to suggest strategies to help new landowners to live sustainably on restored land at Nonoti Beach.

## 5. Conclusion

The results of this paper indicate that land reform has happened in different parts of the world, more especially amongst the developing nations. After the first democratic elections in South Africa, the priority of the government was to restore land back to the original owners but this led to further marginalization of previously disadvantaged groups. The results of this research reveal that land restoration cannot achieve poverty alleviation if the new landowners are not given post-settlement support in terms of training, skills development aimed at capacity building to live sustainably on restored land. This paper reveals that in all the three countries whose land reform processes were studied, post-settlement support for land beneficiaries in terms of training, credit, infrastructure development and marketing, has been ineffective. These results prove that land reform by itself is not the sole solution to rural poverty, but complimentary measures aimed at creating jobs and other kinds of livelihood options are needed (Aliber and Cousins, 2013). There is also evidence from reviewed literature that restoring the land does not automatically lead to sustainable livelihoods. It is evident from this study that the new landowners must be fully capacitated with training and skills to live sustainably on restored land through the proposed beach resort, once it is operational. The government in its policies should cater for the skills development intended for the new landowners to live productively and sustain lives in the land gained through land restoration. The results of this paper indicate that government departments should come out with an integrated plan to capacitate the new landowners to live sustainably on restored land and enhance their involvement and participation in the tourism activity earmarked for this community. This paper also proposes that the policies on land reform should go through monitoring and evaluation to ensure that their implementation maximizes benefits accruing to the previously neglected communities.

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# Social Class' Effect Revisited: An Empirical Study of Chinese Outbound Travel Behaviours

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## Abstract

The association between social class and travel behaviours is an interesting but controversial topic. Using data from a cross-country survey of China, this paper takes Chinese mainland residents' outbound travel as an example and revisits the effect of social class on travel behaviours. The Logistic Regression Model on predictive odds of outbound travel and the Negative Binomial Regression Model on predictive number of outbound travel countries/areas show that social class has no significant direct influence while it does moderate income's effect on travel behaviours, and the higher the social class, the smaller the effect of income on travel behaviours. The findings reemphasize the importance of social class and facilitate the topic from "does social class affect travel behaviours" to "how social class affects travel behaviours".

## Keywords

social class; income; outbound travel behaviours; China

### 1. Introduction

The association between social class and tourists' travel and consumption behaviours has long been recognized (Timothy, 2005; Zheng & Zhang, 2013) while not achieving agreement yet. By now, there are mainly three points of view: social class determinism, social class irrelevant theory and social class limited theory. However, some previous researches confuse the concept of social class and income which though correlate but not equal to, meanwhile, some empirical studies are based on the data from destination rather than market generating areas which may decrease the representativeness of the samples. By using social class scheme based on occupation which is thought to be the origin of social class (Coleman, 1983) and data from a comprehensive cross-country survey of China, this paper takes Chinese mainland residents' outbound travel as an example and aims to revisit and clarify the real effect of social class on travel behaviours.

### 2. Literature review

#### 2.1 Three views on social class' effect on travel behaviours

The first research mentioning the relationship between social class and traveling can be traced back to Veblen's famous book "The Theory of the Leisure Class", in which he points out that the upper class differentiates themselves to the lower working class by traveling, sports and art consumption (Veblen, 1994). With the view that consumer motivation varies constantly by social class was set forth in the 1950s by Chicago school, the concept of social class won entry into marketing discipline (Coleman, 1983) and since then, the relationship between social class and travel behaviours became a research topic and mainly three views are formed by now as following:

*Social class determinism*, that is, social class plays a decisive role in travel behaviours. People within the same class or group tend to exhibit similar behaviours, tastes, and preferences when it comes to choosing a holiday destination (Heitmann, 2011), while people in different classes differ in the distance and types of tourism destination, traveling expenditure, organization of the trip, length of stay, accommodation, activities in destination and so on (Cohen, 1984; Seaton, 1992; Heitmann, 2011; Zheng & Zhang, 2013; Liang & Yang, 2017).

*Social class irrelevant theory*, which states that social class has no influence on travel behaviours. Beck (1992) and Lash & Urry (1994) argue that traditional class-based consumption patterns should be disappearing as people no longer wish to be associated with a mass or class in the old sense, and research on the golf tourists' length of stay in the southern coast of Portugal by Barros *et*

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*al.* (2010) and research on Texas residents' leisure fishing participation by Floyd *et al.* (2006) do not show significant difference among social classes.

*Social class limited theory*, which argues that social class only plays part in some specific travel behaviours. For example, Ying *et al.* (2016) finds that social class has significant impact on cultural and hedonic travel behaviours, however, it is not the best way to predict natural and shopping ones. Even for cultural travel behaviours, more detailed research show that social class only works on festival/musical and knowledge seeking activities, but not on theme park/amusement parks and local fairs and events (Kim *et al.*, 2007).

## 2.2 Purpose of the present research

In general, the previous researches make a great contribution for understanding the relationship between social class and travel behaviours. Nevertheless, some researches take income as (one of) the measurement of social class, however, although they are correlated, they are not equal to each other (Liu, 2018; Coleman, 1983; Bihagen, 1999; Martineau, 1958), and social class derives, in its root, more from occupational differentiation than from income (Coleman, 1983). Meanwhile, some previous findings are based on the data from destinations, which may decrease the representativeness of the samples due to the destination's attraction to some specific groups of people. Therefore, it is necessary to revisit the role of social class on travel behaviours based on a more appropriate social class scheme and data from market generating areas.

## 3. Methods

### 3.1 Research area, data and variables

Chinese society undergoes great changes since the Reform and Opening-up in late 1970s, and the transition of economic system and the progress of modernization bring continuous changes of the social class scheme: some new social classes are forming and the distinctions in social status, economic situation, life style and interest's identity among social classes are gradually becoming clearer (Lu, 2002). Meanwhile, tourism industry experiences rapid development in the past years and China keeps as the first outbound travel source country all over the world for years. Hence force, China is undoubtedly a good place for the research.

The data for this research is from Chinese General Social Survey (CGSS) which is a comprehensive and continuous cross-country survey. CGSS2008 is the only available one that meets the requirement of the present research, and finally 2676 among 3010 observations is valid for the research by removing of missing values. Outbound travel behaviour is the dependent variable and measured by odds of outbound travel and number of outbound travel countries/areas in this paper, which are from the question that "Have you ever travelled to the following countries, including Japan, Korea, South-east Asia, Europe and USA?". As for the dependent variable---social class, this research takes Liu (2018)'s social class scheme which includes 7 social classes and could be summed up as upper class, middle class and lower class. Besides, some important variables that have been proved to affect travel behaviours are controlled, including income, gender, age, education, marriage status, family size and living areas.

### 3.2 Methodology

The paper uses Logistic Regression model to test the odds of outbound travel given it is a two-classification variable and Negative Binomina Regression model for the number of outbound travel countries/areas which is a frequency variable. Given that income is a decisive factor of travel behaviours, as almost all the previous researches show (Guo *et al.*, 2009) and social class may affect how people use their money (Coleman, 1983; Bihagen, 1999), the present paper will investigate not only social class' direct effect

on travel behaviours but also its effect on the relationship between income and travel behaviours which could be called as social class' moderating effect. The research model is as Figure1 shows.

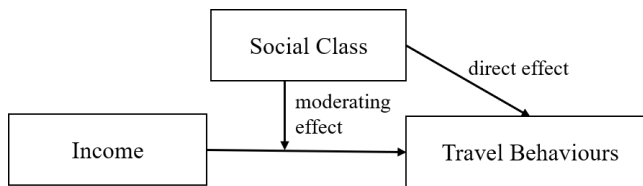


Figure 1 Research Model

#### 4. Findings

##### 4.1 Descriptive statistics

Table 1 Descriptive statistics of variables (N=2676)

Variable	Description	Mean value	Standard deviation	Minimum value	Maximum value
Dependent variable					
The odds of outbound travel	Have you ever been travelled abroad, 0=no, 1=yes	0.025	0.157	0	1
The number of outbound travel countries/areas	How many foreign countries/area have you travelled, ordinal variable, 0-5	0.037	0.278	0	5
Independent variable					
Social class	Working class, 0=no, 1=yes	0.615	0.487	0	1
	Middle class, 0=no, 1=yes	0.365	0.482	0	1
	Upper class, 0=no, 1=yes	0.020	0.141	0	1
Controlled variables					
Income	Natural logarithm of annual household income	9.762	1.161	0	14.509
Gender	0=female, 1=male	0.488	0.500	0	1
Age	How old are you	44	13.518	18	98
Education	Years of schooling	4.870	2.710	1	13
Marriage status	0=single, 1=married	0.867	0.340	0	1
Family size	How many family members in your home	3.206	1.393	1	11
Living area	East China, 0=no, 1=yes	0.369	0.483	0	1
	Middle China, 0=no, 1=yes	0.357	0.479	0	1
	West China, 0=no, 1=yes	0.274	0.446	0	1

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistic of the variables, and among the 2676 observation samples, the ratio between male and female is 0.49: 0.51, and the percentage of upper, middle and lower class is 2.0%, 36.5% and 61.5% respectively, which is close to the current social class situation of China (upper class 2.0%, middle class 34.1%, lower class 63.9%) (Liu, 2018). Table 1 also shows that the mean value of the odds of outbound travel and number of travel countries/areas are 0.025 and 0.037 respectively. More detailed statistics show that the proportion of tourists who had travelled abroad in each social class is upper class 7.41%, middle class 4.40% and working class 1.28%, and the number of travel countries/areas is mainly 1 or 3 for upper class, 1 to 5 for middle class and 1-2 for working class.

##### 4.2 Social class's effect on outbound travel behaviours

Table 2 and Table 3 show the regression model results, and in each table, model 1 is the model with controlled variables only, model 2 shows the direct effect of social class, and model 3 shows the moderating effect of social class by introducing the interaction between social class and income.

Table2 Logistic Regression on predictive odds of outbound travel

	Model1	Model2	Model3
social class (working class)			
middle class		0.057 (0.323)	3.885 (3.749)
upper class		-0.323 (0.684)	13.260* (5.537)
middle class*income			-0.370 (0.354)
upper class*income			-1.231* (0.514)
income	0.775*** (0.149)	0.790*** (0.159)	1.180*** (0.296)
gender (female)	0.839** (0.282)	0.857** (0.284)	0.883** (0.284)
age	0.005 (0.010)	0.005 (0.011)	0.005 (0.010)
education	0.149*** (0.045)	0.148** (0.049)	0.140** (0.049)
marriage (single)	-0.321 (0.354)	-0.310 (0.356)	-0.258 (0.357)
family size	-0.125 (0.110)	-0.123 (0.110)	-0.135 (0.110)
living area (East China)			
Middle China	-0.591 (0.348)	-0.585 (0.348)	-0.534 (0.348)
West China	-0.543 (0.369)	-5.534 (0.369)	-0.488 (0.369)
Cons.	-12.340*** (1.703)	-12.560*** (1.801)	-16.578*** (3.159)
Log likelihood	-261.498	-261.287	-258.176
LR chi2	110.73	111.15	117.38
Prob > chi2	0.0000	0.0000	0.0000
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.1747	0.1754	0.1852
Number of observations	2676	2676	2676

Table3 Negative Binomina Regression on predictive number of outbound travel countries/areas

	Model1	Model2	Model3
social class (working class)			
middle class		0.175 (0.321)	5.546 (4.306)
upper class		0.006 (0.738)	16.847* (7.326)
middle class*income			1.483*** (0.352)
upper class*income			-0.515 (0.408)
income	1.081*** (0.199)	1.049*** (0.205)	-1.572* (0.683)
gender (female)	0.871** (0.291)	0.862** (0.291)	0.903** (0.289)
age	0.013 (0.011)	0.133 (0.011)	0.012 (0.011)
education	0.120* (0.050)	0.116* (0.053)	0.106* (0.051)
marriage (single)	-0.512 (0.379)	-0.499 (0.380)	-0.502 (0.375)
family size	-0.205 (0.118)	-0.198 (0.119)	-0.209 (0.118)
living area (East China)			
Middle China	-0.502 (0.347)	-0.504 (0.347)	-0.481 (0.344)
West China	-0.408 (0.383)	-0.418 (0.383)	-0.376 (0.379)
Cons.	-15.186*** (2.124)	-14.946*** (2.163)	-19.305*** (3.656)
Log likelihood	-320.603	-320.435	-317.871
Pseudo R <sup>2</sup>	0.153	0.153	0.160
Alpha	7.181***	7.120***	6.433***
Number of observations	2676	2676	2676

Note 1: Significance \*\*\*  $P \leq 0.001$  \*\*  $P \leq 0.01$  \*  $P \leq 0.05$

Note 2: The brackets in variables are reference groups.

Note 3: The brackets in the coefficients are standard errors.

Although the logistic coefficient of single interaction item in model 3 is not statistically significant, both AIC and LR test show model3's superiority to model2, which means the comprehensive test is significant (Jaccard, 2014).

According to the two tables, social class does not have significant effect on the odds of outbound travel and the number of outbound travel countries/areas; however, it does moderate income's effect on them. Specifically, as the natural logarithm of income increases by one unit, the odds of outbound travel and the number of outbound travel countries/areas becomes 0.95 times and 0.92 times respectively as the original for upper class, 2.25 times and 2.63 times for middle class, and 3.25 times and 4.41 times for working class, that is, the higher the social class, the smaller the effect of income on outbound travel behaviours.

In addition, the model results also show the significant impact of income, gender and education on outbound travel behaviours. Male's odds of outbound travel and number of countries/areas are higher than female, and the more the income and the education, the more the odds and number of countries/areas.

Figure2 and Figure3 furtherly show the interaction effect between social class and income on outbound travel behaviours, from which we can see: upper class' outbound travel behaviours receives very little influence from income, and the higher the income, the lower the outbound travel odds and number of countries/areas, which maybe is related to the more limited free time and more official outbound restrictions of upper class with higher income; unlikely, middle class and working class' outbound travel grows significantly with the increase of income, especially the latter, and the upward trend of middle class' outbound travel happens earlier than working class as income increases.

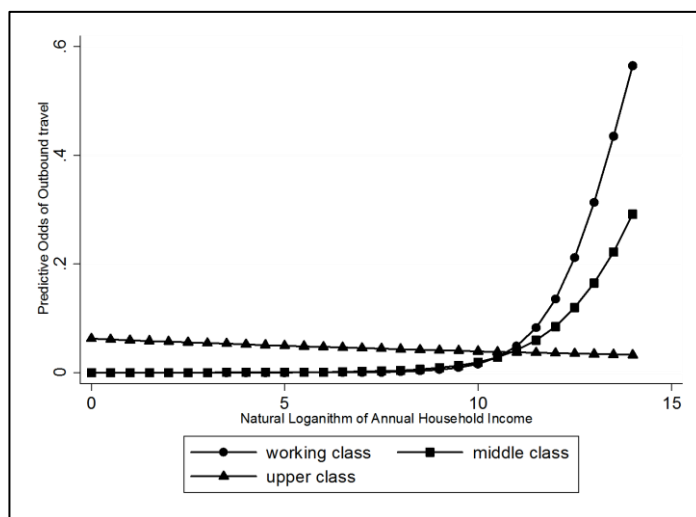


Figure2 Income's effect on predictive odds of outbound travel by social classes

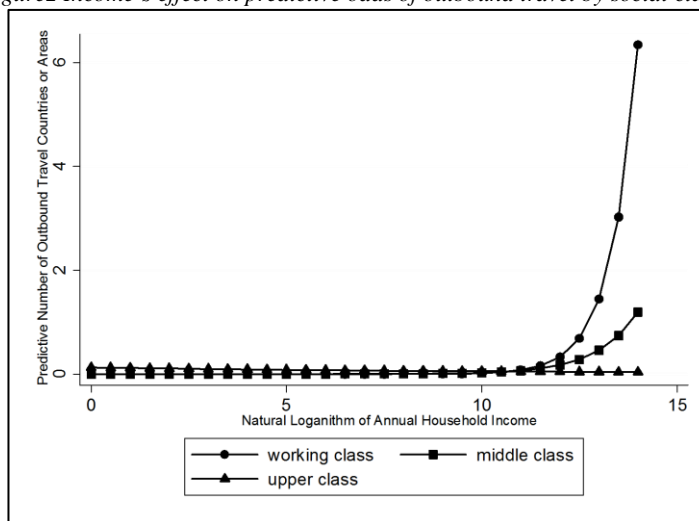


Figure3 Income's effect on predictive number of outbound travel countries/areas by social classes

## 5. Implications

According to the above analysis, though social class does not affect travel behaviours directly, it does play a role by moderating income's effect on them, which shows that social class should not be neglected in the research of travel behaviours. As Bourdieu emphasizes again and again that "income cannot explain why people with same economic level show difference in diet, clothing and so on" (Zhou, 2003), when talking about travelling, it is also important to take social class into consideration, together with income.

The findings also show that outbound travel is almost as a fixed activity as upper class' habitus and income plays a very small part in it, meanwhile, as for middle and working class, especially the latter, outbound travel is still as "an aspiration" which may be changed into action when income increases to some certain level. Therefore, 1) it is necessary to take different strategies when developing outbound travel market belonging to different social class, and middle class and working class, should be paid more attention by outbound travel business operators; 2) it should be noticed that there may be potential sense of deprivation and unfairness due to different outbound travel opportunities among social classes, and corresponding strategies should be taken into consideration by governments.

## 6. Conclusion

Based on the clarification of social class and income, the present paper takes data from market generating area and revisits the role of social class, moreover, by introducing the interaction of social class and income, the paper facilitates the research from "does social class affect travel behaviours" to "how social class affects travel behaviours". It is found that social class moderates income's effect on the odds of outbound travel and number of countries/areas, and the higher the social class, the smaller the effect of income on them. In other words, social class affects how people use their income on outbound travel behaviours.

Due to limitations of the data, there are some shortcomings in this paper which needs to be furtherly considered: firstly, the measurement of travel behaviours only covers the odds of outbound travel and number of travel countries/areas, other factors such as frequency, length of stay, expenditure of outbound travel are not included; secondly, discretionary time which is an important factor in travel behaviour and may be related with social class is not included in the regression model.

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## Managing HCD risk in tourism organisations – a collaborative responsibility

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### Abstract

Tourism faces unique skills gaps and despite investments in human capital development (HCD) most managers are not aware, nor held accountable for the benefits and risk of HCD. This paper explores the responsibility of collaborative role players in managing HCD risk in South African tourism. Interviews with managers reveal the benefits from collective management of HCD risks such as: employee retention, learning transfer, misaligned training needs, disengaged employees and financial mismanagement. The research adds to SA HCD risk knowledge. Practically, the top five SA HCD tourism risks and risk management collaborators are revealed.

### Keywords

tourism, measurement, human capital development (HCD), risks, collaborative, South Africa.

#### 1. Introduction

Human capital development (HCD), talent acquisition and augmenting the workforce are three of the top ten global and South African human capital trends (Deloitte, 2017). Rapid change, disruptive social and technological systems and digitalization, demands optimal integration between human and technological capabilities. Mismatched capabilities require ongoing appraisals and regular interventions to keep employees empowered and engaged (Chatterjee, 2017). Efficient managers help drive change and commit to achieving the organisation's objectives (Hamel, 2015). Employee productivity enhanced by knowledge, skills and competencies is a major driver of success in service organisations, hence contributing to GDP (Syltevik, Karamperidis, Antony & Taheri, 2018; Chatterjee, 2017).

Tourism is labour intensive and optimal performance places a high premium on employee quality performance (Saltik & Avci, 2018; Cinnirella & Streb, 2017). HCD is part of a service organisation's long-term strategy and is measured, managed for return on investment (ROI) and risks (Kong, 2015). An investment in HCD presents a risk larger than that in physical capital (Israelsen & Yonker, 2017), yet, such research in the tourism sector is limited (Mayombe & Lombard, 2015; Jasson & Govender, 2016; Saltik & Avci, 2018). This article explores HCD risk, focusing on the collaborative responsibilities of different role players in South African (SA) tourism organisations.

#### 2. Literature

Self-motivated employees, seekers of new knowledge, are more mobile and at risk of poaching by rival organisations. As the owners of knowledge, they are instrumental in increasing workplace performance (Kuruczleki, Pelle, Laczi & Fekete, 2016). SA has digital technology and skilled workers who are flexible and adapt easier to technological demands. These capabilities contribute to workplace performance (Cinnirella & Streb, 2017). This implies that HCD risk is relevant to all organisations dependent on evolving human capital. The risk of losing key employees is more severe in smaller organisations (Israelsen & Yonker, 2017) and inability to manage risk may threaten its survival or ability to grow (Kong, 2015). The tourism industry is characterised by small businesses and owner-managers with limited management skills and expertise (Zwane, Du Plessis & Slabbert, 2014). As such it is highly dependent on the retention of skilled employees to survive (Aksoy, Sengun & Yilmaz, 2018).

Most organisations do not assess the value of, or the risk from HCD and without positive evidence of value created from limited resources, training budgets may be reduced (Roberts, 2017). A reduction in employee development may lead to reduced

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organisational performance (Hamel, 2015), loss of key employees (Israelsen & Yonker, 2017), and poor customer service (Sheridan & Williams, 2011). The risk of not managing HCD risks far outweighs the costs associated with developing employees. Managers in tourism service organisations should be held accountable for employing, training and retaining competent staff (Roberts, 2017).

HCD increases corporate innovative capabilities and enables global competitive opportunities (Kong, 2015; Aksoy *et al.*, 2018). All efforts aimed at creating knowledge through continuous learning build the human capital stock of the investing organisation, and enhance labour productivity and country knowledge (Cinnirella & Streb, 2017). Management's inability to identify, quantify or address HCD risk not only reduces competitiveness, but also depletes national capabilities. Poorly engaged employees present the risk of high employee turnover, reduced motivation, performance, innovation and ultimately poor customer service (Deloitte, 2017). Millennials demand an engaging work environment, where all their needs are met. Most South African service organisations admit to being unprepared for this trend (Deloitte, 2017). HCD interventions, usually initiated by line managers, are executed by HRD professionals, consultants or external training providers. Financial officers do not request evidence of impact and value for money following resources committed to HCD interventions. Although managers are held accountable by the shareholders to act in their best interest, few are called upon to report on HCD return on investment (ROI) and HCD risks (Brink, 2014). The ability of employees to apply newly acquired skills, the impact on the organisation and the ROI are not measured or managed by most organisations due to a lack of skills and knowledge about HCD evaluation (Kirkpatrick & Kirkpatrick, 2013).

### 3. Method

A qualitative design, using semi-structured interviews as the instrument for data collection was employed for this study. Interpretativism was the philosophical paradigm guiding this research. The participants' subjective understanding and interpretation of their world enabled the creation of new knowledge for this research study (Mouton, 2009; Creswell, 2015; Gringeri, Barusch & Cambron, 2013). The research population for this study consists of all operational managers in tourism organisations in South Africa. The sample population (n = 28) was purposefully selected from executive, senior and junior managers. The questions posed to participants were of a specific professional nature that required specialised knowledge (Welman *et al.*, 2010).

A self-developed semi-structured interview guide was used as the research instrument (Creswell, 2015). The interview guide consisted of three distinct sections, namely interview consent, biographic data, and HCD and risk questions (Guercini, 2014). The latter section was the main part of the interview schedule and comprised eight semi-structured questions posed to all participants. Personal, one-on-one interviews, lasting for approximately one hour, were conducted in person by the researchers. Prior to the interviews, consent was obtained, the interviews were recorded either in writing, or audio recorded or both. Interviewing was terminated once data saturation was reached. The study followed a qualitative inductive thematic analysis. Responses were categorized according to the nine themes identified for this study. Common and profound responses were highlighted as significant findings (Emmel, 2015). Themes were aligned to the research objectives in order to answer the research question. Ethical approval, consent, confidentiality, withdrawal and data quality was assured in this study (Venter & Van Zyl, 2017).

#### 4. Findings

Participants were HCD managers (12), HCD practitioners (9) and HCD directors (7). Participant years of experience include 5 to 10 years (11); 1 to 4 years (6); greater than 15 years (5); 11 to 15 years (3); and less than 1 year (3). Most participants had a university degree.

Participant HCD roles included: career counselling; conducting assessments; skills committee role; training needs analysis; skills planning; designing and delivering of HCD interventions; advising HCD stakeholders; meet performance management gaps; and aligning HCD to business objectives. In the voices of research participants, HCD roles include the following:

“I engage line managers to do skills analysis and workplace skills plan then send it to TETA [Training authority]” (P9)

“Part of skills committee, workplace skills plan compilation, also the bursary, internship and learnership committees ... co-deciding on the programmes and selection of employees ...” (P18)

Multiple stakeholders are involved in HCD management including the employers, employees (trainees), line managers, HCD managers and professionals, enterprise risk managers, financial managers and training authorities (SETA's).

The highest risk category was that of poor employee retention. Learning transfer is ranked as the second main risk of HCD. The third most prevalent HCD risk are misaligned training needs analysis, peer negativity and non-attendance of interventions. The fourth HCD risk is employee disengagement prior to or during HCD interventions. The fifth HCD risk is budget constraints from fruitless HCD expenditure, unmet targets, incompetent training practitioners, inept systems and non-compliance.

Participants reported managing HCD risks via commitment forms, restraint of trade and service contracts. Obtaining employee buy-in, providing incentives and rewards, and aligning jobs to training needs are means of managing HCD risks. ROI calculation and keeping a risk register was seldom seen as a measured role of HCD risk management. HCD risk management functions include: efficient HCD systems support; mentoring and coaching; succession planning; HCD funding; line manager support; accredited training; effective HCD; and accountability. Purposely managing HCD risk is linked to improved operations by most participants (15), while 10 participants linked performance improvement to risk management. Positive HCD risk management include: promotion opportunities; higher staff retention; improved skills transfer; learning organisation; accurate ROI; and positive training needs analysis. In the voices of participants:

“...Minimises the risks of poor performance. Minimises the risks of customer dissatisfaction. Minimises the risks of reputational [damage]. Enhances the ability to achieve strategic objectives.” (P15)

“Reduces inefficiencies. Increases performance.” (P2)

Figure 1 displays the stakeholders who must collaborate in SA tourism HCD risk management.

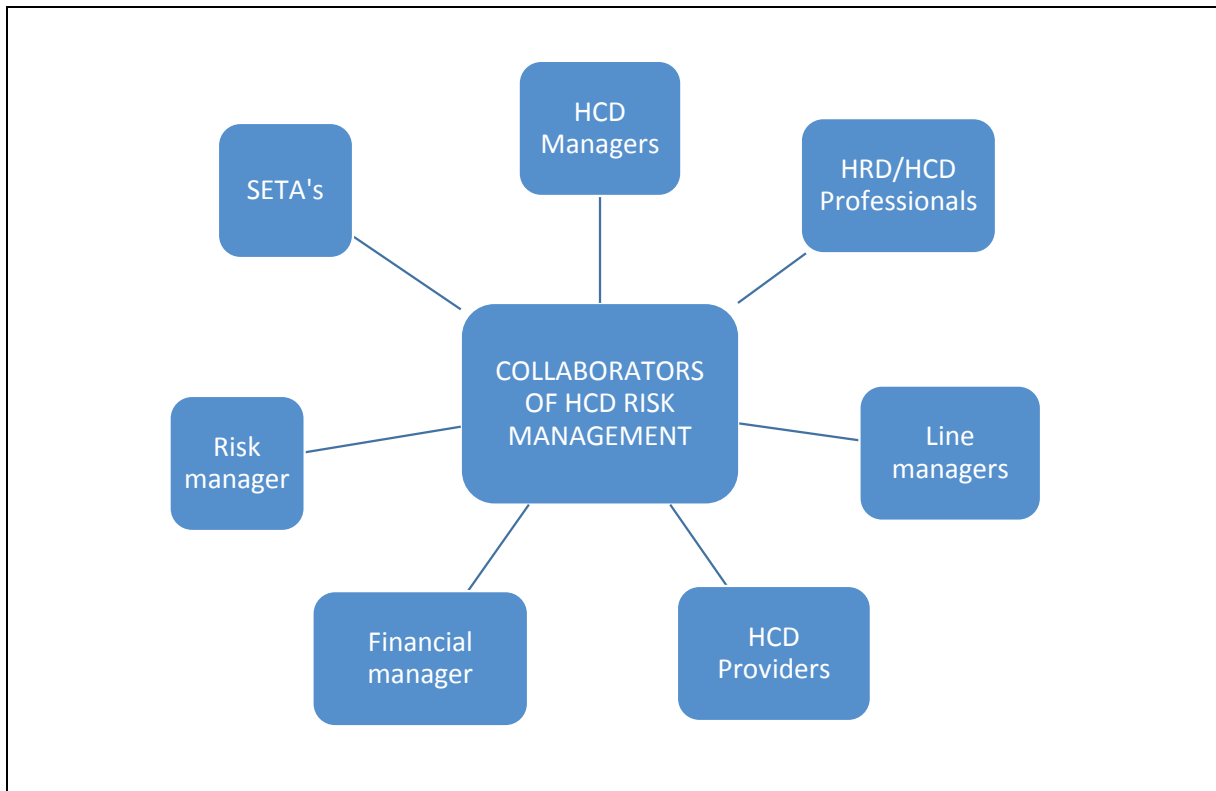


Figure 1: Collaborators of HCD risk management (Source: authors)

## 5. Discussion

The findings are corroborated by Cinnirella and Streb (2017), which increased employee engagement improves organisational performance; that challenging work and development opportunities enhance feelings of loyalty and commitment among millennials. Deloitte (2017) support the study findings that performance is improved, inefficiencies and waste is reduced and profitability is enhanced through HCD risk management. These findings are supported in that HCD benefits far outweigh HC costs and that managing HCD ROI and risk is a collaborative responsibility (Kong, 2015; Roberts, 2017).

Tourism managers are accountable for ensuring that money spent on training and HCD interventions sufficiently transfers into excellent performance in product and service. Capabilities learned through training, on the job engagement, mentoring and coaching must become operational efficiencies creating competitive capabilities that meet high demands. The implications are that benefits arise from a collaborative effort to measure, manage and report on the risk and ROI of HCD including: motivated employees, reducing inefficiencies, improving performance and operations, and allowing for a measured approach to retention, promotion, skills transfer, organisational learning, ROI and training risks management.

## 6. Conclusion

While many managers do not measure the benefits, even fewer are aware of operational risks resulting from unmet objectives, unengaged millennials and loss of key employees. Empirical research conducted among South African tourism managers reveal that HCD benefits far exceed the cost of HCD; and that managing the risks that are inevitable in HCD is a collaborative responsibility. Further research should measure how HCD risks impact operational performance, engagement and skills transfer.

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## The food service industry's efforts towards combating obesity

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### Abstract

The food service industry in South Africa and worldwide is faced with a two-edged trend. On one hand, the trend reflects a positive and consistent growth of the industry due to increase in out-of-home meal consumption while, on the other hand, the industry is faced with an increasing need for healthy meal alternatives. At a global level, the food service industry faces challenges due the perceived nature of poor diet quality of meals they serve, said to be contributing to the prevalence of non-communicable diseases that are related to diet, particularly overweight and obesity. The purpose of this paper was to understand the challenges faced by the foodservice industry, regarding the disapproval of the diet quality of the meals they serve and the consequent need for healthier meal alternatives. Therefore, the objective of the study was to examine the food service industry's efforts with regards to implementing healthier meal alternatives as means to combating obesity. A quantitative, descriptive, survey-based research approach was adopted for this study, wherein self-administered questionnaires were distributed to waitrons and to their supervisors/managers across 11 restaurants in Johannesburg. The main findings revealed that respondents agreed with the notion that restaurant menus offer meals that are healthy and contain minimum fat. It was found that there is an association between how the food service industry has adapted to consumer eating habits (demand for healthy meals) and availability of healthy meal options on the menu. This may be viewed as an effort towards alleviating obesity, because of the availability of healthy items on menus. The findings of this research can assist the food service industry to be mindful of the need and demand for healthier meals, and the importance of incorporating such meals in menu offerings. It can be recommended that healthier meals be incorporated in restaurant menus.

### Keywords

obesity, food service, Out-of-Home eating, healthy meals, menus

#### 1. Introduction

Tourism is known to be one of the fastest growing industries in the world. WTTC (2014:4) reports that in 2013 the tourism industry accounted for 9.5% to the world's economy. According to SSA (2013:7), despite the challenging global economic circumstances, the South African tourism industry managed to reach a record 9.6 million international tourist arrivals in 2013. Consequently, the total income generated by the food and beverages industry increased by 2,1% in November 2017 compared with November 2016 and the highest annual growth rates were recorded for 'other' income (17,9%) and bar sales (6,7%) in 2017 (SSA, 2017 Online). The sector's contribution to the gross domestic product (GDP) in South Africa has increased progressively from 8.1% in 2007 to 10.3% in 2013 and was expected to reach 12% in 2014 (WTTC, 2014:4). As such, it was publicised that the direct contribution of Travel and Tourism to GDP was ZAR127.9 billion, in 2016 and was forecasted to rise by 2.7% in 2017 (WTTC 2016:1). Bevis (2012: online) states that there has been a general global trend over the past decades towards less meals prepared from home, this resulting from factors such as busier lifestyles, unconventional working hours and an increase in the number of working women in households. Saelens, Glanz, Sallis and Frank (2007:273) suggest that the significant reliance on restaurants may potentially have negative nutritional and health consequences because individuals eating at restaurants usually have above average caloric and fat intake, and less fresh fruit, vegetable and fibre consumption. Also, food and eating environments possibly contribute to the increasing obesity epidemic and other non-communicable diseases (NCDs) that are associated with diet (NEMS, 2015: online; Story, Kaphingst, Robinson-O'Brien & Glanz, 2008:253).

#### 2. Literature

To simplify what is understood by the term "food service", it is vital to note that the term can be spelt differently, "food service" in the United Kingdom (UK) and "foodservice" in the United States of America (USA) (Edwards, 2013:223). It is acceptable for these terms to be used interchangeably with only a difference in spelling, however, the context in which the terms are used are the

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same. In the context of this paper, food service specifically focuses on food purchased and consumed out-of-home (OH), as the research seeks to describe elements related to onsite consumption of meals and proper service thereof. The food service industry is documented as one of the fastest growing industries in South Africa and the cumulative income generated by the industry increased by 5.4% in September 2014 versus September 2013 (SSA, 2014:3). Over the past decades OH eating has gained significant importance in diets worldwide (Lachat *et al.*, 2012:331). However, Fitzgerald *et al.* (2004:429) and Kant, Whitley and Graubard (2015:820), argue that food that is consumed OH is known to be of poorer diet quality as meals are higher in total fats (saturated), and sodium. Glanz *et al.* (2007:383) state that OH eating is associated with increased consumption of calories, fat, saturated fat, added sugars and sodium and contains less calcium, fibre and vitamins. Newson *et al.* (2015:63) opine that foods consumed in restaurants have a substantial effect on caloric ingestion and ultimately on weight gain, therefore an additional meal consumed OH may contribute an average of 134 calories that day compared to the same meal prepared at home. Due to excessive portion sizes of energy-dense meals served in restaurants, it is hypothesised that OH eating may lead to increased excess weight and therefore may be contributing to the current obesity crisis (Bes-Rastrollo *et al.*, 2010:1356).

Lachat *et al.* (2012:332) state that environmental transitions and change in personal lifestyle are dominant contributing factors in the global increase of overweight and obesity. Muzigaba, Puoane and Sanders (2016:36) believe that South Africa, like many other countries worldwide, has also been affected by globalisation and the associated changes in food systems. South Africans are gradually altering their eating patterns from the old-fashioned high fibre, carbohydrate consumption to diet categorised by high consumption of saturated fats, sugars and refined carbohydrates (Steyn *et al.*, 2001:141). According to Schönfeldt, Pretorius and Hall (2017: online) the changes in South Africans' eating patterns include an increased consumption of foods that are high fats, less plant based fats and proteins as well as vegetables, and more energy-dense, micronutrient-poor snack foods, convenience foods, vegetable oils, and sweetened products and beverages. Bronkhorst (2015: online) states that in the WHO Global Burden of Disease (GBD) report on 188 countries, South Africa ranks as one of the most obese nations and the most obese in sub-Saharan Africa. The GBD report shows that 38.8% of South African men over the age of 20 were considered overweight or obese, of which 13.5% were obese.

Murray (2017: online) records that a trend observed in South Africa in the food service industry during the past decade is the increased importance of healthy options in all types of restaurants. According to Murray (2017: online), in South Africa, as in many other developed nations, the current food consumer is said to becoming nutrition-aware and knowledgeable, and a lot of thought goes into the dietary content of the food they buy and how it will impact upon their health. The demand for healthier meals puts significant pressure on the food service industry, as preparing and serving healthier meals requires some changes in labour and training/education, equipment and the nature of food goods purchased (Condrasky, Hegler, Sharp, Carter & Komar, 2015:289). The drive towards healthier eating and nutritional awareness has become greatly promoted by the South African government through initiatives such as the National Nutrition Week (Murray, 2017: online). The food service/restaurant industry and various health policy boards in the United States jointly yielded a positive response to the trend for healthier balanced meal options for individuals who desire these meals while dining out (Harnack & French, 2008:2). However, it is crucial for restaurants to offer these meals and actively promote them as the restaurant industry has contributed to the increase of obesity and other NCDs related to diet.



### 3. Methodology

The study adopted a quantitative research method that was guided by specific research questions that measured the food service industry's efforts to offering healthier meal items. The data was collected through closed-ended, self-administered questionnaires completed by waitrons, their supervisors and managers. The rationale for this was that questionnaires issued to the food service employees measured their knowledge and awareness pertaining to healthy meals, low kilojoule meals, and generally the correlation between the emerging obesity epidemic and OH eating. The questionnaire issued to management measured what efforts management was making towards combating the obesity epidemic and how employees are trained with regards to specified special dietary requirements related to low kilojoule and healthy meals. The data was collected from 11 restaurants including restaurants within hotels in the Johannesburg area. The restaurants that were selected/included had to be restaurants that serve full meals during breakfast, lunch and dinner. Fast-food outlets were not considered.

The study therefore employed a descriptive research design to aid in analysis of the data. The findings below are expressed in percentage (%), mean (M) and standard deviation (SD) regarding the availability of healthy menu items. Cross-tabulations and Chi-square tests demonstrate the association of responses between associations between the availability of healthy menu items and how well the industry has yielded to trends related to healthy eating preferences, was measured. The section below details the discussion of the findings.

### 4. Findings and Analysis

To start with, findings revealed that managers (64.3%; M=3.77) and waitrons (66.4%; M=3.72) alike agreed that menus at their establishments offer a variety of meal options that have lean meats, vegetables and fruits prepared with minimal fat. This indicates that the respondents agreed with the notion that their menus offer meals that are healthy and prepared with minimal fat. However, the results differ from the findings of Fitzgerald *et al.* (2004:429) who argued that food that consumed OH was known to be of a poorer diet quality as it is higher in calories, fats (saturated) and sodium. A possible reason for the difference might be that their study was conducted in community restaurants (regarded as informal communal restaurants) as opposed to the current study which was conducted in more established restaurants.

In relation to the food service industry's adapting to consumer eating habits and the degree of availability of healthy meal options on the menu among managers, findings confirm the association between the two elements. The statistically significant p-value was backed up by a moderate association obtained from the Cramer's V of 0.316. Indicating that there is a moderate association between "how has the food service industry adapted to consumer eating habits" and "how the food service industry adapted to consumer eating habits". These findings may be attributed to the fact that an increase in the demand of healthy meal options in restaurants has been documented. Hwang and Cranage (2010:69) report on a trend found in their research towards an increased preference of meals that are healthier, lower in kilojoules/fats, added sugars and refined carbohydrates. Also, Lee *et al.* (2011: online) indicate that restaurant managers should consider what their consumers want, and one of the fastest growing trends is to provide healthier food choices.

Regarding measuring the association between how the food service industry adapted to consumer eating habits and whether the menu catered for guests who are health conscious/prefer low-kilojoule meals/on diet, the findings showed a statistically significant Chi-square value of ( $p=.305$ ) was achieved.

Table 1: Chi square tests for independence

Chi-square tests			
	Value	df	Asymptotic significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-square	13.940 <sup>a</sup>	12	.305
Likelihood ratio	15.295	12	.226
Linear-by-linear association	3.174	1	.075
N of valid cases	70		

a. 15 cells (75.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .39.

Source: Researcher's own construct

As seen above, the table asserts that there is indeed an association between “how has the food service industry adapted to consumer eating habits” and “the menu caters for guests who are health conscious/prefer low-kilojoule meals/on diet”. As previously mentioned, this may be attributed to the fact that an increase in the demand for healthy meal options in restaurants has been documented. According to Gregory *et al.* (2006:43), a drastic change in consumer eating out habits has been documented, showing that consumers are moving from consumption of fatty fast foods to healthy, low fat preferences.

Finally, table 2 below illustrates the willingness of restaurant managers to incorporating healthier meal items on the menu.

Table 2: Responses regarding the incorporation of healthy or low fat/kilojoule meal items

During the menu planning process, do you consider incorporating healthy or low fat/kilojoule meal items?		
Responses	Frequency (n)	Percentage (%)
No	21	30.0
Yes	49	70.0
Total	70	100

Source: Researcher's own construct

Table 2 above reveals that managers showed a significant willingness to incorporate healthy alternatives in restaurant menus. This is shown in that 70% (n=49) of the managers stated that they had considered the incorporation of healthy meal items to their menus. These findings are in line with Lee *et al.* (2011) who state that restaurant managers should consider what their consumers want and one of the biggest growing trends is to provide healthier food choices on restaurant menus. According to Condasky *et al.* (2015:289), the demand for and inclusion of healthier meals puts significant pressure on the food service industry, as preparing and serving healthier meals requires some changes in labour and training/education, equipment and purchasing food goods.

## 5. Implications of the Findings

The findings of this research can assist the food service industry to be mindful of the need and demand for healthier meals, and the importance of incorporating such meals in menu offerings. There are also policy implications of relevant policies and laws that can encourage or incentivise the food service industry to ensure that public health concerns (prevalence of obesity) are considered by all restaurants. The researcher further recommends that the National Department of Health should play a role in attempting to alleviate the prevalence of obesity in South Africa by forming partnerships with the food service sector as there are healthcare costs and financial implications on national government regarding the health burden of South Africans, particularly on diet-related NCDs. Finally, the study recommends that more effort be made to serve healthier meal items in restaurants.

## 6. Conclusion

The study aimed to explore the food service industry's efforts towards combating obesity. As mentioned, that the increased consumption of OH eating, which was associated with poor diet quality (increased fats, added sugars, refined carbohydrates), would lead to an increased BMI. Therefore, it was recommended that healthier meals be incorporated in restaurant menus. It is believed that the findings of this study will be useful to the food service industry. However, the researcher acknowledges that the food service industry is not solely responsible for the prevalence of obesity, although some literature may condemn the industry

for it. Considering the aforesaid, the researcher recommends that restaurants should incorporate healthy balanced meals into their menus because that these would add value to the restaurant's image, attract a new market, as well as retain current patronage. It would therefore seem rational that the Department of Health mobilise initiatives that support the food service industry as they make attempts to offer healthier balanced meals on their menus and perhaps incentivise these restaurants. The National Department of Health could also offer substantial support to existing initiatives such as the one that this research was part of, as an example. The researcher recommends further research to unpack the prevalence of obesity and its associations with the food service industry. The conclusion of this study does not represent closure on this topic, it simply paves the way for ongoing studies in this particular area that earnestly must be explored.

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# A Cross-sectional study of the Culinary Creative Process in the Food and Beverage Operations

## Students

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## Abstract

This study set out to explore the culinary creative process of the Food and Beverage Operations students at the School of Tourism and Hospitality. Creativity is becoming increasingly important in the hospitality industry, as it leads to financial success and a competitive advantage. There is a perceived gap between the level of skills the hospitality industry requires and what tertiary culinary qualifications are delivering. The purpose of tertiary education providers is to provide competent graduates to the industry and workforce. The purpose of this study was to measure the culinary creative process of the students and to explore the perceived gap between qualification delivery versus hospitality industry needs and expectations. The study made use of a questionnaire developed by Horng, Hu and Lin which empirically establishes the culinary creative process. The results revealed that the second years performed better than the first years, and indicated the significance of external industry experience on the creative process itself. It identified gaps that were present in current curricula, which can be used to plan and create a creative module in the future that will improve a student's creativity and their creative process.

## Keywords

Creativity, Creative Process, Culinary, Education

### 1. Introduction

The external environment of any business or industry is a highly competitive environment (Cohendet & Simon, 2015), with rapid advances in both technology and science, products are having an increasingly short lifespan (Jessen, 2011). The goal of any business is to try and achieve a long term competitive advantage

The hospitality industry, are finding themselves engulfed by this "era of innovation" (Jessen, 2011: 23). Where creativity and innovation are becoming a highly valued commodity and an integral part of success (Jessen, 2011; Bro Pedersen, 2012). The hospitality industry has its own unique innovations, which are seen to be of a high standard and sophistication (Napitupulu *et al.*, 2016). These types of innovations lead to a competitive advantage.

Restaurants are finding themselves at the forefront of this innovation movement and the responsibility of success is falling on to the shoulders of the food and beverage managers and chefs, who are having to deal with the challenge of innovations being copied or imitated shortly after they make an appearance on the market (Ottenbacher & Harrington, 2007). This creates a demand for continuous innovation.

### 2. Literature Review

#### 2.1 Creativity

The definition of creativity that has been constructed for the purposes of this study is that of a dynamic, non-exclusive, psychological and cognitive process that involves a higher level of thinking which results in the production of novel ideas and products that are deemed useful by industry, critics and society.

Everybody has the ability to be creative (Bro Pedersen, 2012; Roberts & Armitage, 2015; Simon, 2015) as it is a "natural human ability" (Gnezda, 2011: 48). Creativity is the capacity to bring into being novel ideas and products and involves both psychological and cognitive processes (Horng & Hu, 2008, 2009a; Gnezda, 2011; Stierand & Dörfler, 2015). Stierand and Dörfler (2015) and Horng and Hu (2009) argue that creativity shares many of the same cognitive processes as problem solving as it is

apparent that creative thinking is driven by a problem and the need to solve it (Horng & Hu, 2009b). Creativity can generate both tangible and intangible products (Bro Pedersen, 2012) which need acceptance and approval by others in order to be considered creative (Bro Pedersen, 2012; Stierand & Dörfler, 2015).

### 2.2 The Creative Process

The creative process is the steps that a person follows in order to create something: a product, experience or emotion. It can be defined as the sequence of thoughts and actions, processes and sub processes that go on in the mind of an individual just before they actually begin to create the artwork (Horng & Hu, 2009a). Based on this definition it becomes crucial to differentiate between the generation of an idea (Creative Process) and the generation of a product (Creative Performance). The creative performance is outside the scope of this study.

The creative process that will be utilised for this study is Horng, Hu and Lin’s Culinary Creative Process. It has four phases: Idea Preparation, Idea Incubation, Idea Development and Verification of Artwork.

### 2.3 Creativity and Education

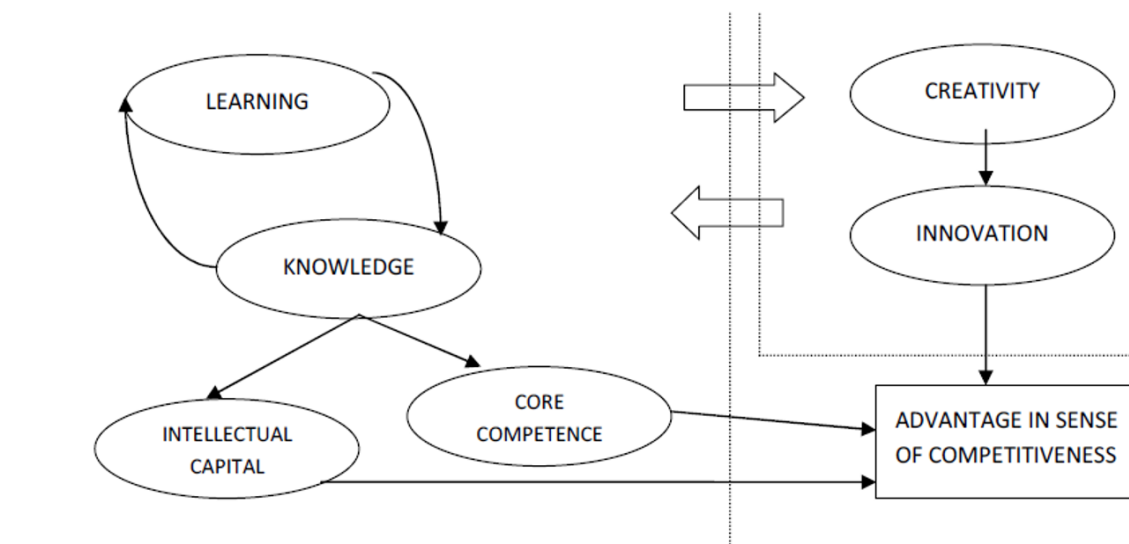


Figure 1 - Factors that lead to a competitive advantage (Napitupulu et al., 2016)

As seen in figure 1, the figure shows that both creativity and innovation as well as learning and knowledge all influence a business’s competitive advantage. Whilst creativity and innovation lead to a competitive advantage, it is important to note that intellectual capital as well as a core competence are other aspects that lead to a competitive advantage. The two separate processes are interlinked and interchangeable meaning that they work together to produce a competitive advantage. We can acknowledge that innovation success relies on knowledge (Albors-Garrigos et al., 2013) and that knowledge and creativity are tightly linked together (Napitupulu et al., 2016). The fact that knowledge and creativity are closely linked means that creativity can be enhanced by increased levels of knowledge, thus becoming something that can be developed (Suárez & Caparrini, 2013), cultivated and learned (Bro Pedersen, 2012)

### 3. Methods

This study is a quantitative study and is an example of a non-experimental study, making use of descriptive and correlational research. Nonprobability sampling was used choosing the 39 first years and 21 second years. The data was collected through an online survey posted onto the student platform known as Blackboard. The data was analysed through IBM SPSS version 24.

It made use of the research instrument that was developed by Horng, Hu and Lin, which provides empirical analysis of the culinary creative process by focussing on the students perceptions of their culinary creative process. It is comprised of 30 questions (excluding biographical questions), made up of 5 sections of which 4 are directly related to the culinary creative process phases. The final section is a self-evaluation section with 3 questions that state “Overall, how would you rate your creativity?”, “Overall, how would you rate the quantity of your creative works?” and “Overall, how would you rate the quality of your creative works?”. A 6-point Likert scale was used and the last three questions were rated on a scale of 1 to 10.

### 4. Findings

A total of 60 participants answered the online questionnaire, 39 first year students and 21 second year students, who are all studying Food and Beverage Operations at STH. Of the 60 participants there was a total of 41 females and 19 males. 17 out of the total 60 participants had work experience outside the confines of STH.

#### 4.1 Year of Study

*Table 1 - Table of results regarding year of study*

Phase of Culinary Creative Process	First Year		Second Year	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Idea Preparation	19.97	2.57	19.90	2.43
Idea Incubation	35.43	4.44	36.38	4.22
Idea Development	31.87	4.93	33.90	4.75
Verification of Artwork	40.10	5.27	41.57	3.89
Evaluation of own creativity	20.04	4.32	21.07	3.85
Total	147.40	17.57	152.74	11.30

The results of table 1 indicate that the second years measured higher than the first years. The second years surpassed the first years on each phase except the idea preparation phase where there is a 0.07 difference.

## 4.2 Significance of external workplace experience

Table 2- Table of results showing the significance of external workplace experience

Phase of the Culinary Creative Process	External Workplace Experience	First Year		Second Year		All	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Idea Preparation	Yes	21.00	2.74	19.83	2.37	20.18	2.45
	No	19.82	2.55	20.00	2.64	19.86	2.54
Idea Incubation	Yes	38.40	3.58	35.75	4.33	36.53	4.20
	No	35.00	4.43	37.22	4.18	35.46	4.42
Idea Development	Yes	33.80	5.40	34.58	3.96	34.35	4.27
	No	31.59	4.88	33.00	5.77	31.88	5.04
Verification of Artwork	Yes	41.40	3.58	41.58	4.29	41.53	3.99
	No	39.91	5.49	41.55	3.54	40.25	5.15
Evaluation of own creativity	Yes	23.70	3.73	21.71	4.81	22.94	4.50
	No	19.50	4.18	20.22	1.99	19.65	3.82
Total	Yes	158.90	19.38	153.21	10.24	154.88	13.16
	No	145.70	16.93	152.11	13.19	147.05	16.29

Table 2 above indicates that by having external workplace experience, it resulted in scoring higher than those who did not. An independent t –test yielded  $t(58) = 2.295$ ,  $p = 0.025$ , which meant that by having external workplace experience outside of STH had an impact on the students evaluation of their own creativity.

## 4.3 Gaps in the Curriculum

When identifying the gaps in the curriculum, this was done by analysing the lowest means in each separate phase of the culinary creative process. The first and second years were analysed separately in order to make a comparison.

### 4.3.1 Idea Preparation

The question with the lowest mean for both the first and second years was the question related to the recording of ones unsuccessful dishes.

### 4.3.2 Idea Incubation

The first and second years differed. The first years lowest mean was regarding the application and use of everyday items in their creative works, whilst the second years lowest mean was about sourcing relevant ideas.

### 4.3.3 Idea Development

The first and second years were unanimous, this was the question related to being able to draw a concept or idea on a piece of paper.

### 4.3.4 Verification of Artwork

The first and second years differed. The first years lowest mean was linked to the question about knowing what to do when encountering constraints. The second years lowest mean was regarding how a successful dish needs to be assessed and improved upon repeatedly.

## 5. Implications

### 5.1 Year of Study

The second years measured higher than the first years. This is to be expected as the more one experiences the process of developing a dish the better they will be (Jessen, 2011). We are also aware that knowledge and creativity are tightly interlinked (Napitupulu *et al.*, 2016) therefore the more knowledge you have the more creative you will be. The second years surpassed the first years on each phase except for the 0.07 difference on the idea preparation phase, this could lead to the conclusion that imagination plays a more crucial role than pre-existing knowledge (Horng & Hu, 2008).

### 5.2 Significance of external workplace experience

It was discovered that by having external workplace experience it increased ones score of creativity. Bro Pederson (2012) states that “creativity requires both formal and informal training” (Bro Pedersen, 2012: 34). Thus it can be concluded that by having external workplace experience it increased ones creativity.

### 5.3 Gaps in the curriculum

In the first phase the first and second years lowest mean was for the question regarding the recording of ones unsuccessful dishes. Chossat and Gergaud (2003) tell us that creativity comes from the act of experimenting and Svenjova *et al.* (2007) reminds us that ideas are preserved through record keeping. A creative outcome is produced by trying and failing, meaning that it is important to acknowledge and keep record of both ones successes and failures in order to learn and improve.

In the second phase the first and second years differed. The first years results could be linked to experience but is more likely connected to knowledge and access to ideas. The second years lowest mean was about being able to source relevant ideas. By not being able to do this the students are not reaching their creative potential, as an idea has to be useful and relevant in order to be considered creative (Jessen, 2011).

In the third phase the first and second years were unanimous, regarding being able to draw a concept or idea. In order for an idea to be acknowledged and assessed it needs to be translated into an observable form so that it can be validated. The validation of and idea is integral to creativity.

In the final phase, the first and second years differed. The first years lowest mean was knowing what to do when encountering constraints. This is related to both their problem solving skills and their creativity as well as intuition. Stierand and Dörfler (2015) accurately state that intuition is integral to producing novel solutions quickly. The second years lowest mean was regarding how a successful dish must be assessed and improved upon repeatedly. An innovator refuses to accept the situation as it is (Garel, 2015), and will always look for improvements or alternatives. Therefore students should not be disagreeing with this statement.

From the above analysis four areas of concern can be identified. They are access to ideas and context, judgement, drawing a concept or idea and problem solving, which can be taken into consideration when constructing a creative module.

## 6. Conclusion

The study concluded that the second years measured higher than the first year. The reason for this explored the relationship between knowledge and creativity. External workplace experience did have an effect on the score of the creative process. The gaps were identified by analysing the lowest means of each phase, from this 4 areas of concern where extrapolated which can be utilised in the construction of a creative module.

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# The progression and authentication of a Tourism Employee Talent Management Framework in the Tourism Industry

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## Abstract

This paper explores if talent management (TM), can be measured through a Tourism Employee Talent Management Framework (TETMF) at a tourism business destination. The objective is to explore whether the integration between the four TETMF viewpoints can be measured reliably and validly. The research approach is quantitative while factor analytical techniques are applied for analysis of data. A cross-sectional field survey, yielded a sample of 443 respondents in 10 provinces of Zimbabwe's tourism industry. Findings suggest that integration between the TETMF viewpoints and their dimensions can be applied in the measurement of TM at a business tourism destination. This paper proposes the application of the TETMF for the business tourism industries operating in Zimbabwe allowing for managers to improve on effectiveness and efficiency levels when dealing with talent.

## Keywords

Talent management, strategic implementation, customer service delivery, performance management.

### 1. Introduction

This study proposes the development and empirical testing of a comprehensive model, namely a talent management framework, for predicting employee retention within the Zimbabwean tourism industry. Relationships of the four viewpoints, with a view to predict a retention model of employees within hotels, will be discussed herein. The theoretical framework guiding the study is outlined below in the reviewed literature and supported on the current status of research as applied to the Zimbabwean tourism industry. Thereafter research design and method of the study follow, concluding with the results and implications and recommendations of the study.

### 2. Literature review

In the study of tourism, there is an increasing tendency towards the concept of talent and TM (Baum, 2007; Dienhart & Gregoire, 2004; Guszczka & Lucker, 2012). The domain for TM is regarded to be HR, however TM within this study is examined in the realm of hospitality/tourism mainly because the service provider (waiter) is inseparable from the service delivered to the guest (Middleton, Fyall, Morgan, Morgan, & Ranchhod, 2009). As far as can be determined, no cohesive model for hospitality/tourism businesses on employee training and retention strategies for the prediction of tourism employee retention is available.

In developing the proposed TETMF, selection of various viewpoints in a hospitality setup, and their interrelationship within the management of talent (Wilkins, 2012), still entails validation by more research. The proposed TETMF is the broad overview of a variety of employee functions - recruiting, learning/training, employee performance management and succession planning - which support a particular approach to a specific objective. These serve as guidelines that can be modified as required by adding or deleting items (Silzer, & Dowell 2010).

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In order to explore the theoretical research objectives of this study, the following TETMF has been proposed. It is therefore prudent to develop such a model which can be used as a management tool by the Zimbabwean tourism and hospitality fraternity so that leaders therein, can better inform their strategies for *guest and tourism employee* retention. Studies that have used the same or some of the named constructs in various fields depicted within this study such as Hayes, (2013) and Middleton *et al.* (2009), have used service delivery standards and guest retention and deduced that poor service delivery is associated with various workplace problems.

Wilkins (2012) makes suggestions of the development of a TM framework for the tourism industry. The entire framework in this study, is made up of four viewpoints (perspectives): (i) strategic implications; (ii) customer service delivery satisfaction; (iii) management and (iv) performance management. Each of these empirical viewpoints with the proposed key performance indicators (KPIs) are discussed below:

The *strategic implication viewpoint* assesses how hotels are shaped by assessing the following four KPIs, *globalisation* (Turkman, 2010); *technological changes* (Deery, 2008; Wilkins, 2012); *workforce diversity* (Sledge, Miles, & van Sambeek 2011) and *changing skill requirements* (Silzer, & Dowell 2010), as well as their effects on TM models.

According to Gallup's State of the Global Workplace report (2014) cited in Reilly (2014) only 13% of employees worldwide are engaged at work and the management of the businesses can bring redress to this scenario. Therefore, the *management viewpoint* is poised to address how talent can be managed/developed by assessing the following four KPIs; *organisational commitment* (Kuslivan, Kuslivan, Ilhan, & Buyruk, 2010); *the contingent workforce* (Burgess, & Connell, 2006); *employee involvement* (Campbell, 2010) and *employee needs* (Torres, Singh, Robertson-Ring, 2015).

*Customer service delivery satisfaction viewpoint* focuses on measuring how customer delight is achieved in hotels in terms of the following five KPIs; *guest value* (Turkman, 2010), *perceived service quality* (Parasuraman, Zeithaml, & Berry 1988), *employee job satisfaction* (Yoo & Park, 2007), and hotel employee *attitudes* (Cobb, 2012; Fishbein, & Ajzen, 1975).

The guiding question for the discussion of this final dimension is “how can talent be managed and be developed?” Ninemeier and Perdue (2011), postulate that performance improvement and the role of performance management is an increasingly popular topic. *Performance management* addresses the following KPIs, *hotel employee value* (Behzad & Abbas, 2010), *goal setting* (Sledge *et al.* 2011), *pay for performance* (Scarlett, 2011) and *work performance* (Wilkins, 2012).

Based on the afore-mentioned theoretical explication, this research therefore aims to empirically test the TETMF for the measurement of Talent Management in the business tourism industry, through the following hypothesis:

*H<sub>1</sub>*: TETMF can be reliably and validly measured.

### 3. Research design

Hesse –Biber, & Leavy (2011:65) explain the function of a research design as ensuring that evidence obtained “enables us to answer the initial question as unambiguously as possible”. This is discussed as follows:

Approach to the study is empirical in nature as researcher tested the subjective variables of hotel employees against the objective truth of Zimbabwe’s TM environment through a 7 –point Likert scale designed questionnaire.

Quantitative research approach, was followed with the intention of capturing vital facets of the constructs mentioned within this study. Consequently, responses obtained from this method have been subjected to quantitative analysis whereby a cross-sectional survey was used to generate primary data. A factor analytical approach was followed in the data analysis of this study solely to reaching the research objectives in the *ex post factor* mode.

## 4. Research method

### 4.1 Sampling and respondents

Non-probability sampling was used to assist in selecting the 443 respondents. Sample comprised of hotel employees - junior management (first line staff and supervisors) and senior management (HODs/GMs and hotel executives) from November 2016 till February 2017.

### 4.2 Measuring instruments

Viewpoints discussed in the literature review were included in modelling the TETMF of the research instrument as well as underlying theoretical dimensions as indicators for each viewpoint:

Firstly, **strategic implication's viewpoint** with KPIs - *globalisation, technology changes, workforce diversity and changing skill requirements* - was realised (Deery 2008; Sledge *et al.* 2011, Silzer, & Dowell 2010, Wilkins, 2012)

Then the **management viewpoint** with KPIs *organisational commitment, contingent workforce, hotel employee involvement and employee needs* (Burgess, & Connell 2006; Kusluvan, *et al.* 2010; Torres, *et al.*, 2015; Turkman, 2010).

Thirdly, the following KPIs were yielded by the **customer service delivery satisfaction viewpoint** - *guest value, perceived service quality, hotel employee job satisfaction and hotel employee attitudes* (Cobb, 2012; Fishbein, & Ajzen, 1975; Parasuraman, *et al.* 1988; Yoo & Park 2007).

Finally, the **performance management viewpoint** measured 4 KPIs namely *hotel employee value, goal setting, pay for performance and work performance* (Behzad, & Abbas, 2010; Scarlett, 2011; Sledge *et al.* 2011; Wilkins, 2012).

### 4.3 Research procedure

Pre-testing of the questionnaire was undertaken on a population of 15 industrial experts, so as to allow a high degree of response rate. Thereafter trained field workers distributed and collected filled-in questionnaires over 3 weeks. Void scripts were disqualified and completed scripts were taken for data preparation.

### 4.4 Statistical analysis

Factor analytical techniques were applied for data analyses. In descriptive analysis, the frequency distribution, percentages, mean, and standard deviation were calculated. Frequency distribution was utilized to determine participants' current socio-demographic information by providing frequency, percentage, valid percentage, and cumulative data. Mean and standard deviations were used to describe data collected with regard to each item or measurement or question rating. Exploratory factor analysis as well as confirmatory factor analysis were used to investigate theoretical constructs.

In this study, Cronbach's Coefficient alpha ( $\alpha$ ) was calculated in order to examine internal consistency of the scales. Cronbach's alpha coefficient can range from 0.0 to 1.0. A Cronbach's Coefficient alpha close to 1.0 indicates that the item is considered to have a high internal consistency reliability, above 0.8 is considered good, 0.6 is considered acceptable and less than 0.6 is considered to be poor (Sekaran, 2003). IBM SPSS version 23 was used for data analysis calculations.

## 5. Results

Study results indicated that the TETMF can be used to reliably measure TM quality in the tourism industry. Initial step in conducting Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was to regulate the appropriateness of data for PCA by investigating the KMO-MSA and Bartlett's test of sphericity results. The data's suitability for PCA was confirmed by Bartlett's test of sphericity yielding  $X^2 = 2278.93$ ,  $df = 91$ , and  $p \leq .001$ .

Eigenvalues (values larger than unity) resulted in the following factor solutions for each perspective:

Firstly, **strategic implication's viewpoint** retained 7 items, where the rotated factor matrix explained 56.10% of the variance in the factor space.

Secondly, retained **management viewpoint** 6 items with a factor loading explaining 60.24% of the variance in the factor space.

Thirdly, 10 items were extracted explaining 66.87% of the variance in the factor space for **customer service delivery satisfaction viewpoint**.

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Finally, *performance management viewpoint* retained 9 items where rotated factor matrix explained 56% of the variance in the factor space.

The results from the normality test results, indicated that difference between the mean values and the 5% trimmed mean values were minor. Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was conducted on the four Viewpoints C1\_SUM; C2\_SUM; C3\_SUM and C4\_SUM<sup>2</sup> (previously C1, C2, C3 and C4 respectively), to determine level of significance from normal distribution as purported by Hair, Ringle and Sarstedt (2011). It can be inferred that there were no extreme scores as referred to by Pallant (2007). Data were negatively skewed and distribution curve of the data was relatively flat hence  $H_0$  is therefore not supported. However, the sample size was relatively big (> 200) and KMO MSA test is sensitive to larger samples. It is infrequent for a value of zero to be reflected for normal distribution in social sciences (Swart, 2013).

The four perspectives of the TETMF had an overall Cronbach alpha coefficient of less than 0.70 (Hair *et al.* 2011) specifically *C1* - 0.60; *C2* - 0.60; *C3*- 0.63 and *C4* - 0.70. These viewpoints were collapsed as one factor - TEMTF dimension, with an overall reliability of 0.65. The data supports hypotheses  $H_1$  which states that the TETMF can be reliably and validly measured.

The Bartlett's test of sphericity yielded chi-square values in respect of C1, C2, C3 and C4 that were all statistically significant ( $p \leq .01$ ), however Bartlett's test of sphericity and KMO MSA for C (TETM) "C factors" were loaded as one factor as the % of variance which was above 50% (52.122%). The Reliability was rounded to 70%.

## 6. Implications and recommendations

The TETMF lacks international research in terms of tourism employee retention. However, this can be useful for hospitality policy makers by bringing insight to TM debates. It also begins to examine critical challenges faced by hospitality HR professionals and academics with respect to managing talent such as incorporating concerns about the need for hotels and other businesses to implement TM activities related to employee reductions as applied to the hospitality industry of Zimbabwe.

Although this framework has been tested on the hospitality section of the tourism industry, it is suggested that this model be tested amongst other tourism businesses and intermediates for an overall assessment of the entire business tourism network.

## 7. Conclusion

The intention of this study was to create a TETMF for the hospitality industry. Resultant data was obtained from 443 tourism employees in the 10 provinces of Zimbabwe. The objective was achieved with the development of the TETMF with an overall reliability of 0.70 and also fairly acceptable reliabilities for each of the four viewpoints as discussed. The hypothesis outlined previously, that the TETMF with its proposed dimensions and associated sub-dimensions can be reliably and validly measured, has been realised herein. This paper looked at the progression and authenticating of the TETMF in the tourism and hospitality industry and it was presented under the following topics: the introduction to the paper was given and the reviewed literature spelt out some key theoretical concepts. Thereafter the research design and method were given leading to the results of the study. Implications and recommendations of the results were given.

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## Branding a tourist destination: the case of Johannesburg, South Africa

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### Abstract

City branding through cultural heritage and music festivals has become a popular marketing strategy used by cities throughout the world in pursuit of a competitive advantage over competitors. The aim of this working paper is to propose a framework for branding Johannesburg as a cultural heritage and music festival destination. The study highlights the role of cultural heritage tourism and music festivals as both a strategic branding concept and as an operational communication tool in the city brand building process. Through the employment of structural equation modelling (SEM), the study will propose a strong basic framework for city branding.

### Keywords

Destination branding, city branding, cultural heritage tourism, and music festivals

#### 1. Introduction

South Africa has successfully cemented its position as a tourist destination with 10 million foreign tourists arriving in 2016, which was an increase of 13% compared to the previous year (Department of Tourism, 2017). However, globally tourism resorts, cities, regions, and countries are competing fiercely for tourists' money and time (Eghbali, Kharazmi & Rahnama, 2015; Van Zyl, 2011), which compels cities to focus on developing a distinction profile to attract travelling tourists through the branding of cities as experience destinations (Lee, Lee & Choi, 2011; Webster & McKay, 2016). Branding of cities as experience destinations can be achieved through the employment of cultural heritage tourism (Ivanovic, 2014) and music festivals (Johansson & Kociatkiewicz, 2011) as catalysts. Many cities across the world are now employing cultural heritage tourism and festivals with the aim of creating a competitive advantage above the other cities (Webster & McKay, 2016). This is so because cultural heritage plays a vital role in the development of cities as experience destinations and promotes a sense of place identity (Ashworth & Page, 2011). It also provides a sense of authentic tourist experience (Ivanovic, 2014), and assumes an important role in reaffirming cultural and national identity (Yu Park, 2010; Wang, 2011), as well as new identities as in South Africa (Marschall, 2009). South Africa plays hosts to a variety of cultural heritage attractions, many of which are located in Johannesburg (Rogerson, 2014).

According to literature limited research was conducted in South Africa in the field of city branding using cultural heritage tourism and music festivals as variables (Bickford-Smith, 2009:1763-1785). Cape Town and Johannesburg are the first points of entry since they have international airports which in turn provide first impressions of South Africa. Since only a few studies in South Africa focused on Cape Town, there is a clear need for a Johannesburg study. This supports the idea that there is limited academic research in the field of city branding using cultural heritage tourism and music festivals as constructs in the tourism context. Thus, to improve South Africa's position on the global stage as an international destination of choice for visitors, it is suggested that Johannesburg's brand profile can improve the image of the country. South Africa's economic hub is Gauteng Province, which is also the gateway to South Africa and Africa as a whole. Johannesburg is located in Gauteng Province and is home to OR Tambo International Airport (a major African airport), has world class hotels and infrastructure, offers event and festival venues, as well as cultural heritage attractions.

The number of events and festivals has increased significantly in the world (Lee *et al.*, 2011) and in South Africa where more than 600 are held annually (Kruger & Saayman, 2012). According to Webster and McKay (2016) festivals improve a city's image,

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create place distinctiveness and draw visitors and tourists, thereby generating economic benefits. Above all, festivals compensate for the seasonality of tourism and minimises negative impacts (Connell, Page & Meyer, 2015). In view of the above discussion, cities can employ cultural heritage tourism and music festivals so as to be competitive and be able to attract new visitors and enjoy repeat visits. There are various ways to ensure success as a tourist destination and branding a city as a cultural heritage and music festival destination is another strategy that destinations can employ which is the purpose of this study (Eghbali *et al.*, 2015).

## 2. City Branding and City Tourism

Destination branding includes any activity and intervention that patently influences and forms a brand (Kavaratzis, 2009). It is therefore the art of generating and maintaining a brand by creating a unique identity image of a destination that can quickly be identified by potential visitors. The identity carries a 'promise' in the marketplace that a destination has certain qualities or characteristics which make it special or unique. Thus destination branding is about communicating a sense of community uniqueness and place distinctiveness (Bothma, 2013). Gnoth (2007) defines destination branding as the process of building the reputation of a destination from the perspective of visitors. However, it should be noted that the same argument that is applied to a brand should also be applied on destination branding. This refers to the fact that destination branding not only equals promotion but brand management cannot be limited to promotional activities based on supply-side only. Instead, destination branding should be viewed as a complete and continuous process interlinked with all marketing efforts (Kavaratzis, 2009) and demand-side issues. From the above definitions it is clear that destination branding is a way of trying to manipulate a destination positively in order to attract visitors. The next section discusses cultural heritage attractions and music festivals located and hosted in Johannesburg respectively.

### 2.1 *Cultural heritage attractions in Johannesburg*

Johannesburg is increasingly becoming a popular cultural heritage destination (Rogerson & Visser, 2007; Rogerson & Rogerson, 2014). Its characteristics as a modern city together with the mixture of different cultures and its hosting of liberation icons proves beyond doubt that it is truly a cultural heritage city (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2014). Cultural heritage tourism is defined by Throsby (2007) as the movement of persons essentially for cultural motivation such as study tours, performing arts and cultural tours, travel to festivals and other events, visits to sites and monuments, travel to study nature, folklore or art, and pilgrimages. The liberation struggle against apartheid took place in and around Johannesburg which enables its potential to enrich the urban travel experience (Rogerson & Visser, 2007). Besides the variety of cultural heritage attractions available in Johannesburg, the Hector Peterson Memorial and Museum in Soweto (Marschall, 2009), and the Constitutional Hill national heritage site are two renowned cultural heritage attractions in Johannesburg which are popular among cultural heritage tourists (Van der Merwe, 2013) and are the study sites for this research owing to their contributions to the economy of Johannesburg and South Africa as a whole. Johannesburg also plays hosts to a variety of international music festivals.

### 2.2 *Music festivals hosted in Johannesburg*

Special events and festivals are becoming established as an integral part of tourism development and marketing strategies (Getz, 2012). In South Africa, more than 600 festivals are held annually (Kruger & Saayman, 2012). Special events and festivals are managed for destination image building, brand development and positioning objectives through government support and promotion (Getz, 2012). In Johannesburg, a variety of special events and festivals are held annually, especially music festivals. Renowned music festivals such as the Standard Bank Joy of Jazz, DStv Delicious International Food and Music Festival (study sites for the research), Vodacom in the City, Back to the City and Arts Alive, take place annually (SA-Venues, 2018). The



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festivals receive more than 30 000 attendees which show how they contribute to the socio-economic prosperity of Johannesburg and South Africa at large. Cities are therefore encouraged to brand themselves in order to position and differentiate themselves in the market so as to attract and retain their visitors (Eghbali *et al.*, 2015). Branding was mostly used to promote products and companies (Mossberg & Getz, 2006). However, it is increasingly being applied to services (Gnoth, 2007), and even cities (Khoo & Badarulzaman, 2014). When cities are effectively branded, the following benefits result: a means of identifying and differentiating, greater city awareness, an indication of the expected quality or experience, a means for building relationships and city loyalty, and creating a competitive edge for the cities (Popescu & Corbos, 2012).

City image should be the ultimate goal for cities (Eghbali *et al.*, 2015). When visitors are more aware and loyal to the city, they tend to visit more frequently and stay longer, thus, spending more money in the city (Khoo & Badarulzaman, 2014). To benefit from increased visitation, cities need to identify those elements that motivate visitors to travel to their cities. Previous studies have identified cultural heritage and music festivals as the driving forces behind the promotion of cities nowadays (Popescu & Corbos, 2012). An understanding of these constructs and especially what cultural heritage tourists and music festival attendees expect from the hosting cities is crucial to building an effective and sustainable brand in order to remain competitive in the fiercely contested world market (Khoo & Badarulzaman, 2014).

### 3. Methods

Quantitative survey techniques will be used where a broad overview of city branding will be established by opinions that will be gathered from samples of visitors to the Constitution Hill national heritage site, Hector Petersen Memorial and Museum (in August 2019), and attendees to the Standard Bank Joy of Jazz and the DStv Delicious International Food and Music festivals (in September 2019). Survey research will be used for this study through self-administered questionnaires with the aim of understanding what motivates visitors to cultural heritage attractions and music festivals in Johannesburg. Descriptive research will be used in order to describe the visitors' demographic profile. Exploratory research will be used to determine the importance of visiting the cultural heritage attractions and attending music festivals in Johannesburg as perceived by the visitors, while causal research will be conducted to determine whether one or more variables cause or affect one or more outcome variables. The quantitative data will be analysed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 21 software program. Descriptive statistics will be used to describe the respondents' demographic profile and behaviour towards visiting cultural heritage attractions and music festivals in Johannesburg. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) will be conducted within each of the sets of variables in order to explore the structure of the data and construct new representative variables. The variables that will be constructed in this way will be entered into a structural equation modelling in order to explore the relationships between and among the variables. The framework will be progressively refined by removing pathways that will not contribute significantly to the framework.

### 4. Implications

From the literature it is clear that there is a paucity of empirical research on city branding in the Johannesburg context. Hence, one of the aims of this study is to contribute to the ever-growing body of academic knowledge (BOK) through the development of a framework for branding Johannesburg as a cultural heritage and music festival destination, the use of tourist views, and the discussion of the concept of city branding in South Africa which has not yet been thoroughly explored. In practice, the study should enable Johannesburg to differentiate itself from other competing world-class cities in terms of its offerings. The study should also promote awareness and recognition among potential visitors, and create a positive image for Johannesburg as well as

to create a strong brand and brand identity for the city. Lastly, the study should help to improve and increase (indirectly) the positive image of the whole country through the promotion of tourism.

## 5. Conclusion

Johannesburg is currently a famous tourist destination although the situation has changed somewhat in the past few years. Although the city's reputation has been negatively affected by country-wide corruption, ineffective political and economic policies and crime; political changes have seen the introduction of fresh and progressive political and economic policies to revive the country. In order to rejuvenate the city, Johannesburg's reputation needs to be changed so that it can build on qualities that are positive, attractive, unique, sustainable and suitable for aspiring visitors. Johannesburg, like any other destination faces the challenge of finding ways to improve its image in the eyes of the tourists, investors, and great talent. In order to achieve this, it is suggested that Johannesburg's brand profile can address this problem. Based on the above facts, this paper proposes the development of a brand profile for Johannesburg as a cultural heritage and music festival destination which could revive the image of South Africa as a whole.

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# Management of cost and benefit sharing in protected areas: a case of Phinda private game reserve, Umkhanyakude District, Kwazulu-Natal

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## Abstract

Some communities recognise and appreciate the benefits of protected area management while others do not, due to the costs they have incurred over time. “Benefit-sharing” refers to the idea that benefits arising from protected area management, and therefore tourism, should be distributed across a wide range of stakeholders (Heslinga *et al.*, 2017). Many protected areas fall short of delivering tangible benefits that would sufficiently contribute community well-being. This paper aims to elucidate community perceptions on its participation in the management of cost and benefit sharing processes in private game reserves. It is a case study of Phinda Private Game Reserve and its surrounding communities in the Big Five False bay Municipality of KwaZulu-Natal. In-depth, semi-structured interviews, documentary analysis and direct observation were the principal methods applied. Data collected provided substantial insights into the perceptions of local communities on their involvement in decision-making processes of benefit and cost sharing. While Phinda has made remarkable positive impact in community development, issues of skewed power relations, employment opportunities and equity, poor communication strategies and poor governance emerged as the main challenges. The study then offered recommendations for further exploration of critical issues.

## Keywords

Benefit-sharing, community participation, governance, collaboration, protected area management, conflict, communication strategies

### 1. Introduction

A large portion of land in Southern Africa is under protection (IUCN, 2010). Ballantyne and Packer (2013) claim that if ecotourism is defined as benefits for local communities rather than as an activity, impacts to well-being can be expressed as protection or respect for local cultures, heightened visitor awareness, local participation and ownership of business ventures, enhanced local pride and sense of empowerment. Serenani *et al.* (2017) highlighted some of the stakeholders’ (especially local communities) expectations, which included the following: job opportunities, provision of new options for income generation, skills development, and educational benefits for under-privileged youth. Hottola (2009) noted that shared ownership of tourism development process (and hence conservation), both in terms of planning and benefits, would reduce the conflicts and lay the foundation for improved management of natural resources. Colbry *et al.* (2014) defines collaboration as any on-going interpersonal interaction not characterised by a significant power imbalance, with express purpose of achieving common goals. Emphasis is on sustained dialogue and the development of synergetic interactions between stakeholders to resolve differences and advance a shared vision of the future (Selin and Chavez, 1995; Heslinga *et al.*, 2017).

In the context of protected areas, benefit-sharing can be defined as being “the process of making informed and fair trade-offs between social, economic and ecological costs and benefits within stakeholder groups, and between stakeholders and the natural environment, in a way that is satisfactory to most parties (Swemmer *et al.*, 2015, p7). Many protected areas fail to render tangible benefits that would positively impact on livelihood security and sustainable livelihoods. Heslinga *et al.* (2017) demonstrated that inclusion of stakeholders in decision-making process is an important condition for benefit-sharing in tourism enterprises.

Burgoyne and Mearns (2017) argue that mistrust among stakeholders creates divisions in which people tend to align themselves to groups of similar interests and this hinders progress for collaborative work. This study seeks to get a deeper insight into the perceptions and attitudes of the local communities and stakeholders in and around protected areas, on their participation in the management of costs and benefit sharing process in wildlife conservation and tourism. It explores community facilitation and

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communication processes in order to establish a balance in power relations with respect to cost and benefit sharing management processes in private protected areas.

## 2. Literature review

Eagles (2013) suggests that potential benefits of sustainable tourism (and conservation) in protected areas should also include improvement of economic opportunities, protection of natural and cultural heritage and improvement of the quality of life of local communities. Bramwell and Lane (2012) explain that the local communities were (and still are) regarded as completely incompatible with nature conservation, yet they used to co-exist with nature before the introduction of Western conservation methods.

Jusoh (2012) and Bello *et al.* (2017) emphasise that ignoring local community interests and excluding them from planning, management and decision-making processes in protected areas are the main sources of future conflicts between local residents, and conservation and tourism development authorities. Some conservation and tourism initiatives still maintain the marginalisation of Black South Africans from wildlife and tourism economy (Hottola, 2009; Nash, 2014). Some of the challenges identified by SADC, as stated in IUCN (2010) and other literature (Carr *et al.*, 2016), include: lack of full participation and self-representation of local communities in the management of protected areas; lack of sufficient local benefit generation; inequitable sharing of benefits and costs, and poor governance.

Burgoyne and Mearns (2017) argue that mistrust among stakeholders creates divisions in which people tend to align themselves to groups of similar interests. Literature on tourism illustrates that residents directly involved in the tourism business (and conservation) may have more positive attitudes towards tourism development and conservation than those who are completely devoid of tourism benefits (Andereck and Nyaupane, 2011; Imran *et al.*, 2014). Research has also established direct correlation between community attitudes towards conservation and tourism, and the perceived community benefits in terms of both tangible and less tangible assets (Simpson, 2009). Bello *et al.* (2017) express the need for advocacy for community participation and the need to incorporate specific strategies that can facilitate community engagement, tailored for developing countries.

Hottola (2009) expressed the importance of shared ownership and responsibility of conservation and tourism development processes. In Ruhanen *et al.* (2010), the definition of governance emphasises the interactions among structures, processes and traditions that determine how power and responsibilities are exercised, how decisions are taken and how citizens or other stakeholders have a say. Heslinga *et al.* (2017) emphasised that benefit-sharing should be a process of making informed and fair trade-offs between social, economic and ecological costs and benefits within and between stakeholder groups, and between stakeholders and the natural environment, in the context of protected areas.

Collaboration therefore helps avoid conflict (Bramwell & Lane, 2011). In collaboration, a joint decision-making approach is applied to problem resolution, where power is shared and stakeholders have collective responsibility for their actions and the subsequent outcomes thereafter (Selin & Chavez, 1995). Through iterative process, collaboration partners develop a shared sense of purpose and a shared theory of action for achieving that purpose (Emmerson *et al.*, 2012).

The findings of Snyman (2017) confirm that the private sector has an important role to play in local socio-economic development, and therefore suggests that capacity development could be one of the key interventions of private sector to effect positive change in their areas of operation, for long term sustainability. Black and Cobbinnah (2018) noted the importance of improving the

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quality of life of local communities to encourage positive local attitudes towards conservation. This confirms the importance of considering the needs and aspirations of the local residents (Horisch *et al.*, 2014).

### 3. Methods

According to Creswell's (1994) qualitative typology, this project is a Case Study involving Phinda Private Game Reserve and its surrounding communities in Umkhanyakude District of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. In this study, principles of the Social-Ecological Systems Theory (SES Theory) (Brondizio *et al.*, 2009) were considered. Stakeholder analysis was used to identify stakeholders, interrogate their views, and perceptions to determine the nature of their interrelationships (Heslinga *et al.*, 2017). Data was collected using a practical qualitative, multi-method approach, including semi-structured interviews (both individual and focus groups), documentary analysis and direct observations as the main ones. Purposive sampling was applied to identify and involve "information rich" participants, with relevant qualities, detailed knowledge or direct experience to the phenomenon in context.

Semi-structured interviews explored stakeholder perceptions, views and attitudes on community participation in the management of cost and benefit sharing processes, in the context of wildlife conservation and tourism (DiCicco-Bloom & Crabtree, 2006). This research study applied a combination of triangulation, thick description and clarification of bias, negative and/or discrepant information through probing, and frequent visits to and staying in the study area, to ensure both reliability and validity.

### 4. Findings

Activities of Phinda directly impact on the surrounding communities, and those of the community affect the wildlife and ecotourism operator (Snyman 2014). All in all, a total of 100 people from Makhasa, Mngqobokazi and Phinda were interviewed.

#### 4.1 Perceptions and attitudes of local residents on their participation in benefit-sharing

Community interviewees categorically stated that they were not involved in management and decision-making processes and that they just saw things happening. They felt that there were some community members who were benefiting at the expense of others.

*"Some are benefitting but others are not".*

*"There are some people who receive benefits but I don't".*

*"We are getting very little whilst Phinda is benefitting from our land".*

Participants appreciated the non-financial benefits that have emerged from their relationship with Phinda Private Game Reserve. The community is benefiting from the education, healthcare projects (e.g. Mduku Clinic) and small business development (e.g. Mbedula Craft Market at Mduku). Employment was the most salient benefit. Sixty-nine of the 100 participants mentioned employment in one way or another. Twenty-nine of the 69 participants, who commented on employment, appreciated that they or their families and friends have been employed either by the lodge section or the game reserve, hence the following positive responses:

*"We are thankful to Phinda for offering jobs to our children".*

*"Without Phinda, I would not be able to send my children to school".*

*"Phinda opened job opportunities for us people of Makhasa and Mngqobokazi".*

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The other group (40 out of the 69) raised concerns on the number and nature of the jobs, as well as the manner in which the opportunities were handled. There was an overwhelming agreement among interviewees that Phinda was not doing enough to harness the potential of the local youth and train them into management positions.

*“We expected Phinda to open job opportunities for our children”.*

*“There is no one or if any, very few people from our communities who are in management positions or who are currently being trained for these”.*

#### 4.2 *The perceptions and attitudes of local residents on their participation in social development*

The community was expecting to be actively involved in the planning and implementation of projects that directly affected their livelihoods. Some participants expressed their dissatisfaction on the nature and level of community participation, lack of transparency and poor governance. However, there is a general appreciation of the efforts by Phinda on community development, e.g. the successes scored in the areas of health and education, as summarised by one interviewee:

*“Phinda (through Africa Foundation) brought about infrastructural development, e.g. our clinic at Mduku, classroom blocks and school renovations in most schools in our area”.*

Whilst the community was grateful for the development efforts, most of the participants felt that the community involvement in management of these projects was minimal. For example:

*“We are not involved in decision-making processes”.*

*“Phinda does not respond to our priorities”.*

Participants agreed that the management of community projects was inconsistent with their expectations.

### 5. Analysis of finding and implications

The voice of the local communities occupies a critical space, among other stakeholders for the sustainability of conservation and tourism initiatives. Restrictions on participation of local communities to projects implementation, exclusion from management and decision-making, and the inequitable sharing of benefits were also identified by literature as factors which negatively affect conservation and tourism (Kamphorst *et al.*, 1997; Mutandwa *et al.*, 2007). Interviewees from management also confirmed the views of the community members, that the community was not directly involved in the management of cost and benefit sharing processes at the game reserve. The older community participants advocated for non-involvement in Phinda business, as long as they were getting a constant flow of their benefits. Yet, the voice of the younger generation is urging for much more active participation in conservation and tourism endeavours (Denzin & Lincoln, 2008).

In line with Strickland-Munro and Moore (2014), governance issues related to power differences and conflict over resources, such as reserve access, benefit-sharing and natural resources management, were some of the concerns also raised by participants in this study. Snyman (2014; 2017) observed that individual perceptions of the net benefit from an exchange are likely to make them view it positively and those perceiving net costs are likely to view it negatively. Nielsen (2011) argues that provision of opportunities to participate in management and decision-making on issues affecting the community, reduces the conflict potential. Without greater participation by the local residents in the management of their natural resources, the potential for further conflicts is inevitable, a view also shared by a number of authors in research literature (Songorwa *et al.*, 2000; Hottola, 2009; Somarriba-Chang & Gunnarsdotter, 2012). Bello *et al.* (2017) summarises it all by emphasising that ignoring local people's interests and

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excluding them from planning, management and decision-making around protected areas, are the main sources of conflicts between local communities and designated areas, like game reserves.

The findings showed skewed power relations, lack of participation in decision-making processes, lack of job opportunities, lack of conservation education and lack of protection from wild animals (Snyman, 2014). Strictland-Munro and Moore (2014) associated access difficulties to community perceptions of disconnectedness from the parks and tourism. The interviewees felt that the community was excluded from both management and decision-making processes affecting the tourism sector and conservation (Campbell-Vainio & Mattila, 2010).

Communication breakdown between Phinda management and the community grassroots was associated with poor local governance. The interviewees expressed dissatisfaction on the level of their involvement in the management of social development projects. An open-door policy, together with provision of education, skills and business opportunities, and opportunities for active involvement may be an instrumental strategy in developing trust among stakeholders (Emptaz-Colomb, 2009).

## 6. Conclusion

This study contributes to the raising of awareness among local communities on their rights and responsibilities with regards to nature conservation, tourism management and social development. Data provided substantial insights into the perceptions of the local residents on their participation in decision-making and management of conservation, tourism cost and benefit sharing processes. This study recommends for an alignment and management of community expectations, especially those of the youth, through robust engagement processes among stakeholders. The results of the study affirms that lack of good communication strategies, transparency and good governance compromise community perceptions of, and relationships with, conservation and tourism authorities.

By the very nature of being a case study, this research study is limited in both space and scope. The sample was small and not necessarily representative. However, the project provides in-depth insights into community perceptions on its participation in decision-making processes within conservation and tourism framework. This paper therefore serves as an important baseline study for in-depth research on the practical intervention strategies for enhancing community participation in the interest of sustainable conservation, tourism and social development. The findings of this study may be a valuable tool to be used by both policy-makers and private game reserve authorities for their community engagement planning programmes, in order to avoid unnecessary and costly conflicts.

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# Maritime Clusters and the Ocean Economy: An Integrated Approach to Managing Coastal and Marine Space

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## Abstract

The ocean is an interconnected global ecosystem supporting a wide range of uses. Maintaining a healthy ocean requires responsible stewardship by all users. The ocean supports a growing range and level of commercial and other activities. User conflicts are on the rise, as are impacts from increasing use. Concerns about impacts may limit access to marine areas and resources. Ocean users, including those who simply rely on shipping to move goods, are increasingly being held accountable by governments and NGOs for the state of ocean health. Continued use will increasingly require a social license to operate above and beyond simple regulatory compliance. Many companies are trying to reduce their marine ecosystem footprint. However, the best efforts by a single company or an entire industry will not be enough to address cumulative impacts in the inter-connected marine ecosystem. Companies dependent on the ocean will benefit from collaboration with others in the ocean business community to address marine environmental issues. Numerous surveys conducted amongst firms located in maritime clusters have indicated that the cluster structure is beneficial for improving maritime performance and competitiveness. The author concludes with recommendations that strongly support marine spatial planning as a necessary step to ensure that marine tourism and coastal recreation are integrated into a responsible ocean governance framework. The framework will incorporate an integrated maritime strategy and policy that will ultimately create a more desirable state for tourists and a more desirable state for the marine environment in each and every local maritime domain.

## Keywords

maritime clusters, ocean governance, marine spatial planning, blue economy, integrated approach

### 1. Introduction

Growing industrialization threatens the deep ocean's ecosystems, considered key to the health of the planet. The deep ocean, the largest domain for life on earth, is also its least explored environment. Humans are now encroaching more vigorously than ever into the ocean's deep regions, exploiting the deep's resources and placing its wealth of vibrant habitats and natural services for the planet at risk. The vital functions provided by the deep sea, from carbon sequestration to nurturing fish stocks, are key to the health of the planet. As humans ramp up exploitation of deep-sea fish, energy, minerals, and genetic resources, a new "stewardship mentality" across countries, economic sectors, and disciplines is required for the future health and integrity of the deep ocean.

As the human population has more than doubled in the past 50 years, demand for food, energy, and raw materials from the sea, has risen with it. At the same time, human society has undergone tremendous changes and rarely, if ever, do humans think about these changes affecting the ocean, *let alone* the deep ocean. The types of industrialization that reigned in the last century on land are now becoming a reality in the deep ocean. As humans exhaust many coastal stocks, commercial fishers have turned towards deeper waters.

Beyond marine life depletion, the deep sea also is being threatened by the search for new sources for energy and precious materials. Oil and gas exploration now routinely targets sea beds in more than a thousand meters of water depth. Demand for modern technology devices, from cell phones to hybrid car batteries, has propelled a push by the mining sector to deep waters in search of new sources of metals and other materials. Vast tracts of deep seabed are now being leased in order to mine nodules, crusts, sulphides, and phosphates rich in elements demanded by our advanced economy.

The need to preserve deep-sea ecosystems in the face of growing industrialization of the deep ocean requires a new "precautionary" mode of thinking about the deep sea that promotes sustainable, ecosystem-based management across industrial

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sectors and governance realms. This requires international cooperation and an entity that can develop and oversee deep-ocean stewardship. There is also need for multiple sources of research funding that can help provide the scientific information that is required to manage the deep sea. All of this will require efforts that bridge several disciplines and engage stakeholders in these discussions.

It is imperative to work with industry and governance bodies to put progressive environmental regulations in place before industry becomes established, instead of after the fact. From a legal perspective, the deep ocean is filled with contradictions. Deep sea mineral resources located beyond national boundaries are part of the 'Common Heritage of Mankind' under international law, but the fish and octopi that swim just above the seafloor are not. To prevent harm we can never hope to repair, precautionary rules need to be in place to guide all human uses of the deep ocean across boundaries and across sectors."

The ocean is an interconnected global ecosystem supporting a wide range of uses. Maintaining a healthy ocean requires responsible stewardship by all users. The ocean supports a growing range and level of commercial and other activities. User conflicts are on the rise, as are impacts from increasing use. Concerns about impacts may limit access to marine areas and resources. Ocean users, including those who simply rely on shipping to move goods, are increasingly being held accountable by governments and NGOs for the state of ocean health. Continued use will increasingly require a social license to operate above and beyond simple regulatory compliance. Many companies are trying to reduce their marine ecosystem footprint. However, the best efforts by a single company or an entire industry will not be enough to address cumulative impacts in the inter-connected marine ecosystem. Companies dependent on the ocean will benefit from collaboration with others in the ocean business community to address marine environmental issues.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 *Maritime Clusters*

The author spent three years reviewing research studies and reports on maritime clusters that bring together the diverse ocean business community (shipping, fisheries, oil and gas, aquaculture, offshore renewable energy, tourism, marine technology, manufacturers, retailers, insurers, finance, etc.) to achieve the business benefits of collaboration in addressing shared marine environmental issues. The results of the research are included in his book *Maritime Clusters and the Ocean Economy: An Integrated Approach to Managing Coastal and Marine Space*. Working groups such as the World Ocean Council (WOC) are developing practical solutions to a number of important marine issues, e.g. marine spatial planning, marine invasive species, marine debris, ocean noise, marine mammal impacts, water pollution, improved ocean science, ocean policy and governance. The UN Conference on Sustainable Development in June 2012 (Rio+20) perhaps more than any previous conference on sustainable development, highlighted support for the sustainable use and conservation of oceans to achieve a 'blue economy'.

### 2.2 *Blue Economy*

A blue economy is one in which ocean ecosystems bring economic and social benefits that are efficient, equitable and sustainable. Used wisely, ocean resources can help address poverty, food security, sustainable livelihoods and conservation. The world's oceans are increasingly under pressure from rising sea temperatures, ocean acidification, overfishing, biodiversity loss, habitat loss and pollution. Key ecosystems such as coral reefs may soon reach critical thresholds, disproportionately impacting on the people and communities that are most vulnerable, such as small island states and coastal developing countries. Furthermore, the world's population is continuing to increase, and with it the demand for food from the oceans and elsewhere will increase. The solution lies in finding ways to move beyond the usual trade-off between economy and the environment.

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Coastal and ocean stakeholders need to ensure that the ways in which they value, manage and use the oceans sustain the habitats and ecosystems that provide food and livelihoods. People-centred approaches to marine biodiversity conservation illustrate how this can be achieved. Coastal and ocean stakeholders recognise that sustainable incomes and livelihoods require healthy marine ecosystems; and equally, that healthy ecosystems can only be achieved if people and communities have sustainable incomes and livelihoods. Such ‘win-wins’ can be achieved when marine ecosystem considerations are an integral part of social and economic decision-making, rather than separate and sometimes competing matters.

There are no one-size-fits all actions that can deliver a blue economy. Some are global in scale (such as governance of the high seas), but many are needed at local, national and regional levels. Managing the multiple uses of the ocean is therefore vital. Successful management of any activity, however, requires adequate understanding both of the activity and of the context in which it takes place. Such an understanding is needed even more when the management tasks are divided among many players: unless each knows how the part they have to play fits into the overall pattern, there are risks of confusion, contradictory actions and failures to act. Managing human uses of the ocean has inevitably to be divided among many players.

### 2.3 Last Frontier

Manoj Gupta author of *Indian Ocean Region: Maritime Regimes for Regional Cooperation*, pointed out that oceans, regarded as the “last frontier” on earth, shall decisively influence world geopolitics, globalisation, socio-economic balance and life on earth. Today, 82% of all nations border the world’s oceans or seas.

Over the past few decades, coastal tourism has come to include creating opportunities for the public to enjoy the local wildlife. This has generated a large number of businesses serving tourists. However successful management of sustainable tourism requires a complex balancing exercise involving a wide range of authorities, residents and commercial interests. At the same time, within any specific resort, there will be conflicting demands for marine space: among others, sun-bathing *versus* beach volley-ball, swimming *versus* jet-skis and similar devices, wildlife watchers *versus* water-skiers. All this will require management alongside the many other demands on coastal marine space from fishing (both commercial and recreational), shipping, ports, sand and gravel dredging and all the other human activities that affect the coastal zone.

### 2.4 Integrated Approach

There is an urgent need for a more integrated approach, at the global level as well as at the regional and sub-regional levels. Based on his research the author believes that maritime clusters can contribute significantly to responsible ocean governance and the blue economy. However clusters do not happen naturally they have to be constructed. Over the last decade, the concept of clustering has become a central concept for analyzing the competitiveness of nations, industries and firms. The cluster concept can be usefully applied to study clustering of maritime activities. Maritime activities, such as shipping, shipbuilding and port and maritime services, are clearly geographically concentrated in a number of maritime clusters. Due to ongoing internationalization in these industries, the concentration of maritime activities in clusters is likely to increase. Based on empirical data from numerous surveys conducted amongst firms located in maritime clusters, studies have shown that the cluster structure is beneficial for improving maritime performance and competitiveness.

## 3. Methodology

The methodology was based on a desktop research study reviewing best practice examples of maritime clusters from around the world. South Africa has only four maritime clusters and Africa has very few maritime clusters. Hence the best practice examples

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and case studies came mainly from 18 countries which are members of the European Network of Maritime Clusters (ENMC). The ocean represents an estimated \$1.5 trillion in global value added, yearly. Regional and global economies depend on healthy oceans; from large-scale fisheries to subsistence fishers; from international luxury hotel chains to the 3 billion people dependent on seafood as their primary source of protein. In addition to those economic contributions, the intrinsic value of the ocean is deeply rooted in the cultural, spiritual, and scientific benefits of the ocean.

The desktop study confirmed that business leaders and decision-makers are increasingly recognizing the value-added advantages of collectively engaging companies and industries through clusters and adapting the cluster business model towards sustainable development. This comes both from a competitiveness point of view and from concern about sustainability. The case studies reviewed by the author highlighted Ocean/Maritime Cluster best practices, which demonstrated success factors rooted in collaborative action, key partnerships with government support, and value-adding through innovation.

#### 4. Findings

Numerous surveys conducted amongst firms located in maritime clusters have indicated that the cluster structure is beneficial for improving maritime performance and competitiveness. Over the last decade the concept of clustering has become a central idea for analyzing the competitiveness of nations, industries and firms. The cluster concept can be usefully applied to the study of maritime activities. Such activities, including shipping, shipbuilding and port and maritime services, are clearly geographically concentrated in a number of maritime clusters. However, these activities are often competing with other uses of the coasts and oceans including capture fisheries, marine aquaculture, offshore energy and tourism. Sound governance and planning is therefore required to manage the competing claims for ocean space. Competing industries and other stakeholders can cooperate and benefit from an integrated approach to the development of maritime clusters. Such approaches include integrated coastal zone management and innovations such as ocean business councils, as well as coordinated networks of maritime clusters.

#### 5. Implications

Understanding the relationships between human activities and their various impacts on marine ecosystems are extremely relevant especially when taking into consideration the impact of climate change on the blue economy. The protection and conservation of marine ecosystems, together with the sustainable use of the services they provide, are of fundamental importance to the maintenance of global ocean health.

With each activity competing for the same space, a typical conflict of interest exists among different economic user groups. The range of international agreements dealing with different aspects in the ocean realm has contributed to international norm-setting for ocean governance, but implementation at the national and regional levels continues to be a challenge. Many of the marine scientific research and maritime safety and maritime security issues are beyond the capacity of individual states to tackle alone. Growing dependency on ocean use for food security has the potential for conflict among and within nation-states. In addition, growth in the intensity of ocean use is impinging on the carrying capacity of the marine environment.

#### 6. Conclusions

There is growing recognition of the importance of an integrated ecosystem approach to the management of the ocean. Because not all of the outputs from marine areas, especially natural services such as wildlife habitat and nutrient cycling, can be expressed in monetary terms, markets cannot perform the allocation tasks.

Some public process must be used to decide what mix of outputs from the marine area will be produced over time and space. That process is marine spatial planning. Marine spatial planning (MSP) is a public process of analyzing and allocating the spatial and temporal distribution of human activities in marine areas to achieve ecological, economic, and social objectives that usually have been specified through a political process. Characteristics of marine spatial planning include ecosystem-based, area-based, integrated, adaptive, strategic and participatory. MSP is not an end in itself, but a practical way to create and establish a more rational use of marine space and the interactions between its uses, to balance demands for development with the need to protect the environment, and to deliver social and economic outcomes in an open and planned way.

The marine spatial planning process results in a comprehensive plan or vision for a marine area. MSP is one element of ocean or sea use management; zoning plans and regulations are one of a set of management actions for implementing marine spatial planning. Zoning plans can then guide the granting or denial of individual permits for the use of marine space. Planning is only one element of the MSP process. This process includes additional elements of implementation, enforcement, monitoring, evaluation, research, public participation, and financing all of which must be present to carry out effective management over time. Certainly conflicts of interest within a local maritime domain can be substantially reduced if all coastal and ocean stakeholders residing and working within that domain arrange a consultative workshop to map their domain according to appropriate development criteria on shore, near shore and off shore within a local marine spatial plan framework. Thereafter, coastal and ocean developments confined to coastal and ocean development zones, should be evaluated after undergoing a thorough risk assessment and cost benefit analysis to ensure that the proposed development does not impact negatively on existing developments of much higher value. Maritime clusters can contribute substantially to this process.

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## Benefits and Challenges of Agritourism Development: The Case of Mauritius

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### Abstract

This study assesses the benefits and challenges of farmers in developing agritourism in the Small Island State of Mauritius (SIDS) amongst small and medium businesses. Given that the goal of this research was to develop in-depth insights into the topic of agritourism, a qualitative approach to inquiry was used. Semi-structured interviews were conducted amongst agribusinesses and farmers in Mauritius since little is known about the phenomenon. Purposeful sampling was used in this study and data were collected during the period of November 2016 to November 2017 and data collection stopped at 20 interviewees once saturation was reached. The findings revealed that there was no established business which had diversified into agritourism. The study identified that the main possible benefits of engaging into this form of tourism venture would be a possible increase in additional revenue, creation of jobs, environmental awareness, increased knowledge, and improvement of quality of life. The main challenges faced by entrepreneurs to diversify in agritourism was financial support, small land plots, threats associated with climate change, lack of training in service delivery and marketing. Since agritourism has been barely developed in Mauritius, this research provides an indication of how entrepreneurs from the agricultural sector can benefit from this form of diversification and provides solutions to some of the challenges which they might face. Agritourism can assist in protecting the agricultural activities and people engaged in agriculture in the face of other sectors competing for the limited land resources exceptionally in case of land scarcity associated with a small island context. It is advocated that close interaction between tourists, farmers and agricultural industries can help to inject new life in the sector and provide diversified offerings to tourists. Moreover, agritourism can also enhance destination competitiveness and provide the destination with added value in terms of the development of new forms of tourism.

### Keywords

Agritourism, prospects, challenges, diversification, tourism development, Mauritius

#### 1. Introduction

Although agritourism appears to be a growing sector in many parts of the world, its current status in Small Island Developing States (SIDS) is not well understood and confusion about this concept, its benefits and challenges may limit its potential to flourish and the ability to fully capture this sector's economic importance and to support its development over time. In other regions of the world such as the US, consumer demand for agritourism in terms of local food and experiences on farms has led to rapid increases in this form of tourism (Chase *et al.*, 2018). In the search for alternative sources of income to compensate for the decline in purely agricultural incomes, agri-businesses in the developed world have increasingly diversified into tourism since the latter is considered as an activity with high potential. However, such entrepreneurship ventures are scarce in especially in the context of Mauritius.

Moreover, there is neither a standard definition of agritourism, nor agreement on the types of activities that constitute it (Schilling *et al.*, 2012). Since agritourism is in its infancy in Mauritius, research must be undertaken to understand how the declining agricultural sector can benefit from this form of diversification. Additionally, agritourism can also enhance destination competitiveness and provide the destination with added value in terms of the development of new forms of tourism. The argument is not to replace the existing "Sun, Sand and Sea Tourism" for which Mauritius is known but to extend the portfolio of tourism activities to cater for the diverse needs of the tourism industry while engaging the SMEs from other sectors. The research can also assist in achieving broader Sustainable Development Goals 2030 (SDGs) such as reducing poverty and enhancing quality of life of individuals. Tourism is seen as "an improvement of opportunity and quality of life through the encouragement of tourism" (Dieke, 2003: 287). Therefore, it is important to encourage initiatives from other sectors to engage in tourism so that the benefits of the industry can reach more members of the community. Not only is tourism regarded as an economic generator but



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also as a vehicle for social advancement, especially in developing countries as it can provide opportunities for reducing the marginalization of communities, thus supporting sustainable development. This research can therefore assist decision-makers in understanding the motivations and challenges faced by entrepreneurs in the agricultural sector to engage in agritourism.

The objectives of this research is therefore to identify the benefits and challenges of small and medium enterprises in the agricultural sector to engage in agritourism. Moreover, since tourism is highly contextual in nature, a local study would be beneficial to understand the specific challenges faced by the Mauritian entrepreneurs to engage in agritourism.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 *Benefits of Agritourism development*

A comprehensive examination of the literature reveals numerous definitions for agritourism. It has often been used synonymously with farm-based tourism (Barbieri & Mshenga, 2008). More recently, it has also been defined as all forms of visiting and experiencing the agricultural sector of the destination, embracing site stays and tours, the consumption of food and purchase of products arising directly from the contact with the sector (Naidoo & Pearce, 2016).

Studies have reported that the main benefits for agritourism development are economic (Weaver & Fennell, 1997; Busby & Rendle, 1999; Nickerson *et al.*, 2001; McGehee, 2007; Choo & Jamal, 2009; Barbieri, 2013; Flanigan *et al.*, 2015; Sgroi *et al.*, 2018). For many farmers agritourism serves as a form of farm diversification that generates additional income, allows for expanded operations, creates opportunities for family employees to remain in the business, meets social, educational or ethical goals of the business, and maximizes farm production by utilizing the farm as an amenity (Tew & Barbieri 2011). In addition, tourism is becoming increasingly known as an effective means of regional development and reducing poverty (Hara & Naipaul, 2008). It creates the generation of cash flow throughout the year (Ventura & Milone, 2000) and produces significant financial support to maintain traditional agricultural activities and lifestyles (Fleischer & Pizam 1997; Busby & Rendle 2000). Diversification allows farmers to reduce farm losses and continue to practice farming (Oredegebe & Fadeyibi, 2009).

Agritourism provides the creation of jobs for family members or serve as a plan for farm succession (Fleischer & Tchetchik, 2005; Ollenburg & Buckley, 2007; Veeck *et al.*, 2006) including the creation of employment opportunities for family members, especially farmers' wives (Oppermann, 1996). In addition, agritourism has the capacity to create large scale of employment opportunities for skilled and unskilled local communities (Yang *et al.*, 2010; Akpınar *et al.*, 2003). Agritourism can transform the socio-cultural dimension of the local community as well as includes sharing the rural experience with outsiders, educating the public about agriculture, having the opportunity to socialize and meet new people, and gaining personal satisfaction (Nickerson *et al.* 2001; Ollenburg & Buckley 2007; Weaver & Fennell 1997). Agritourism programmes help capitalize on the natural, historical, and cultural resources of communities and can also help to build community pride and improve the quality of life for local community (Karabati *et al.*, 2009).

In addition, agritourism has the potential to create environmental awareness among the community (Anthopolou, 2000). Agritourism activities maintain green and picturesque spaces, guarantees authenticity of the tourist sites, conserves natural resources and promotes environmental-friendly farming practices (Barbieri, 2013; Veeck, & Veeck, 2006).

### 2.2 *Challenges of agritourism development*

Zhang *et al.* (2009) identified four major challenges associated with rural tourism development, as follows: urbanization of rural destinations, lack of financial and human resources, and high commoditization which are very relevant to diversification into agritourism. Many small businesses have also failed because of poor or insufficient marketing strategies (Friesen, 1995; Embacher, 1994). Since many agricultural products are controlled and marketed by provincial marketing boards, farm operators

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are often uncertain as to how to market their tourism products (Antwi & Seahlodi, 2011). Additionally, government agencies impose very strict conditions which agritourism operators need to respect in order to obtain operational permits, licenses and clearances (Black & Nickerson 1997). These restrictions represent real challenges which are obstacles for farmers in the implementation of agritourism development (Keith *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, studies have showed that entrepreneurial orientation characterised by innovation, risk-taking and pro-activeness may significantly influence the performance of an SME (Lee & Petterson, 2000). Another constraint is the possibility that visitors bring diseases to the farm (Hilchey, 1993). Farm activities, such as intensive dairy, swine and poultry operations are prone to certain animal diseases that can be introduced by tourists.

The literature has also shown that it is difficult to diversify into agritourism due to poor location, financial resources and layout of the plot. Location is a key factor that contributes to the success of agritourism (Bernardo *et. al*, 2004) and agritourism development tends to be associated with larger farms (Anosike & Coughenour, 1990). Another critical factor is access to finance for SMEs which determines the success of agritourism (Schilling, 2006).

### 3. Methodology

Given that the goal of this research was to develop in-depth insights into perceptions of farmers regarding the topic of agritourism, a qualitative approach to inquiry was used. Semi-structured interviews and focus groups were conducted since little is known about the phenomenon and more detailed insights were required from entrepreneurs. Interview questions were centred on agritourism but for those who were unaware of the concept, pictures were shown to them through photo-elicitation (Joyne *et al.*, 2018; Heisley & Levy, 1991). The pictures were selected by the research team prior to the interview to aid the participants in visualizing agritourism in case they were not familiar with the concept. The pictures showed examples of agritourism adopted in other countries and facilitated understanding of tourist activities on the farm for example through a visual depiction of picking fruits and interacting with animals on the farm. Photographs as a visual tool in social research is valuable as it has been shown to improve the quality of the interviews by reducing misunderstandings. Images can aid the interview process by improving shared understanding of concepts. Information was collected on the characteristics of the farm, entrepreneurial motivations and potential challenges to engage in agritourism.

Purposeful sampling was used in this study and a variety of agricultural SMEs were selected such as growers of fruits, decorative plants, producers of honey, farming and dairy. This study used a list of semi-structured questions as a basis for investigation to achieve the objectives of the study: (1) What are the advantages for you to develop agritourism? (2) What are the major challenges that can arise from diversifying into agritourism? (3) What are other support needed that will encourage you to develop agritourism? The interviews lasted from 20 minutes to 90 minutes. Data collection stopped once saturation was reached (Miles & Huberman, 1994) resulting into a sample of 20 respondents for interviews and 2 focus groups of 5 individuals each. Data were collected during the period of November 2016 to November 2017.

### 4. Findings

At this stage, agritourism amongst SMEs is still in its infancy in Mauritius. Similar to the study of Thomas *et al.* (2018) conducted in the Bahamas, the limited agritourism in Mauritius is perceived as being more elite characterised by larger enterprises and very large plot of lands. Agritourism has not been developed in Mauritius by SMEs apart for a few exceptions, where SMEs have started to develop agritourism activities in an informal way. It is noted that forms of agritourism exists such as road-side stands next to small farms where fruits, flowers or vegetables are sold to members of the public or tourists passing by. Agritourism also exists in the form of fairs or markets where farmers sometimes regroup through fairs or markets to sell their produce directly to customers including tourists.

The study revealed that some farmers are clearly interested in the concept and a group of SMEs has implemented an agritourism model farm which is currently being developed and is already receiving a few customers. A few other farmers have expressed that they occasionally welcome tourists on their farms but lack the time and the facilities to develop into an establish agritourism enterprise. Based on the findings, it has been noted there is a lot to do in order to develop agritourism products and services at an acceptable level for the tourists.

The results show that agritourism diversification is a favourable option for the SMEs as it can have several benefits for farmers and agri-businesses. The main benefits were in the form of additional revenues and jobs creation. Various studies have revealed that agritourism has the potential to generate additional revenues for SMEs (Barbieri & Mahoney, 2009; Phillip *et al.*, 2010; Schilling *et al.*, 2014). This is also the main reason why they would implement agritourism in their business if they have the opportunity to do so. Agritourism is also perceived to be an educational tool for tourists and locals. These findings are similar to for example the work of Petroman *et al.* (2014) who illustrated how educational agritourism is a type of strategy to be used by farmers in order to attract tourists and students for educative purposes, either for fun or for active involvement in the farm activities.

Agritourism also establishes direct contact between local people and visitors to create memorable social experience (Figure 1). In this study, the respondents have expressed their difficulties and major challenges which they need to face for the development of agritourism such as lack of financial support, lack of skilled and trained staff, limitation of space due to small plot of land, climate change, high cost of equipment, poor product and marketing knowledge, fierce competition including those from larger established properties, lack of appropriate infrastructure and limited time to diversify into agritourism. Figure 1 depicts the key benefits and challenges which emerged from the study.

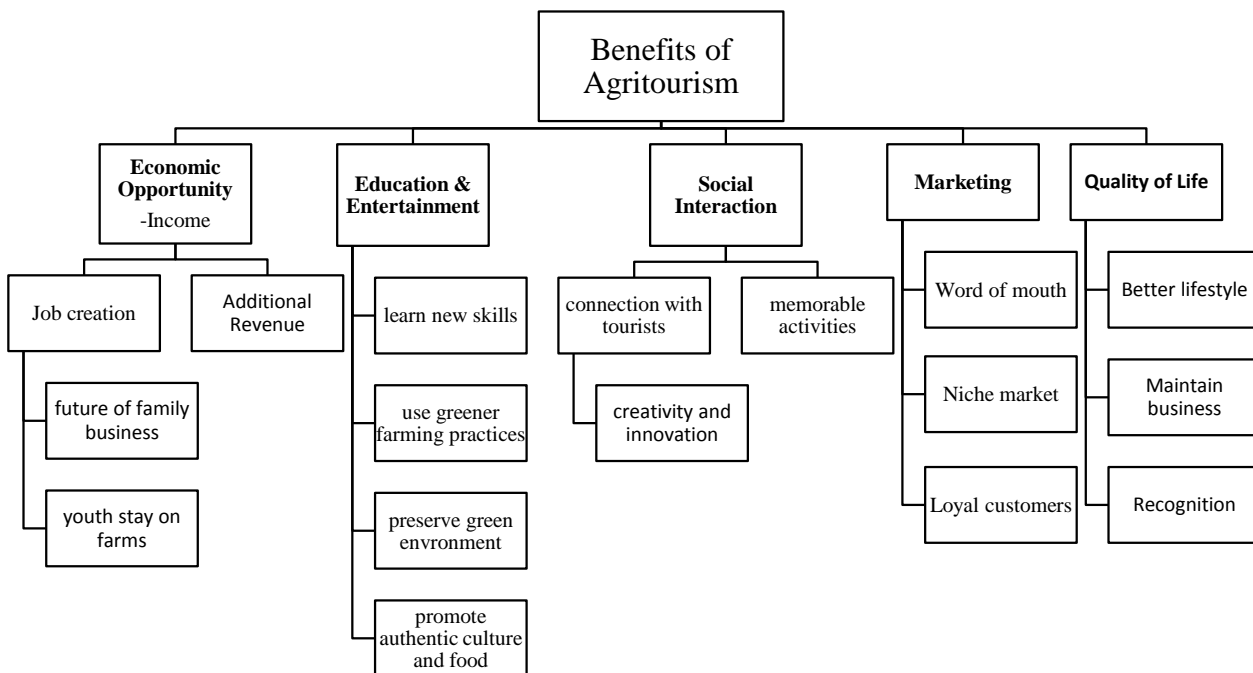


Figure 1: Potentials Benefits of Agritourism in Mauritius

## 5. Implications

The results of this study provides the basis for proposed recommendations for meeting the needs of the Mauritian SMEs involved in agritourism. In several countries, the success of diversification into agritourism is based on a longer history and inclusion within governmental policy (Chase *et al.*, 2018; Sharpley & Vass, 2006). Similarly, to be properly developed in Mauritius and offer SMEs the required level of support, a policy on agritourism would help the SIDS integrate the latter within its tourism strategy and further support intersectoral linkages. The aim is not to overthrow the focus on Sun, Sea and Sand marketing strategy adopted by the SIDS but to extend the scope of its tourism activities. Moreover, evidence is increasingly showing that customers tend to support brands with an environmental and social concern (Nieto, 2017) which may include place or regional branding.

It can also be concluded that SMEs wishing to implement agritourism on their sites must prepare and upgrade them to be fit for use by tourists as the latter will appreciate to visit a place with attractive facilities and natural appeal. In the current context of the SIDS, small and medium farms in general require facilities to welcome tourists such as reception, food preparation areas, toilets, restaurants and souvenir area for customers to buy some memorable items. This will also allow SMEs to be in a better position to compete with other service providers offering tourism activities. Agritourism customers prefer mostly natural sites and it is important for SMEs and authorities delivering permits to understand this aspect and thus specific criteria should be considered to ensure that their authenticity and naturalness of sites are maintained.

This study also revealed that there is an urgent need to provide adequate training and upgrading of skills due to the acute scarcity of trained employees for the development of agritourism. There is a lack of knowledge on service delivery, communication skills and sustainable agricultural practices. This study demonstrated that there is a need for SMEs to learn more about product appearance and product quality. The SMEs need to design a quality product in terms of innovation, content, labeling, and packaging which is of a high standard and appealing to tourists. Moreover, innovation, risk-taking and proactiveness has been identified as a critical factor in developing new products and processes to respond to market demands and offerings of competitors (Barbieri & Mshenga, 2008). In the current situation, to obtain loans to diversify into agritourism, it is important that the SMEs show more innovation in order to develop agritourism. Moreover, some farmers may have the difficulty to conceptualise agritourism into a business idea to obtain the required financial support. Studies have shown that this may be a reason for the failure of agritourism entrepreneurship as farmers may lack business competencies and do not readily embrace new business opportunities (Phelan & Sharpley, 2011).

## 6. Conclusions

Agritourism can be developed in a region with the collaboration of different SMEs from a specific region where they can all merge their strengths to promote the place and enhance revenues. The aim is to create a network for SMEs to increase visibility and for visitors to be aware of the different activities offered by these SMEs. Collaboration and cooperation with other Tourism Service Providers such as the Destination Management Organisation is also important to allow the local products and services of farmers to be advertised at local and international levels. This can be created by developing marketing around local resources such as the region, food and agriculture which have been shown to foster local identity and reinforce place branding (Reid, 2017).

The importance of social networks in agritourism development and extension has also been highlighted by researchers (Barbieri & Mshenga, 2008). Information technology is likely to play an important role in attracting customers of agritourism such as a website and use of social media like Facebook, Twitter, Whatsapp and others mobile applications for the marketing of their products and services as these methods can improve their visibility and sales particularly amongst independent travelers.

Although, the SMEs will likely never all have attractive landscapes to develop agritourism, taken as a collective, the SMEs can offer attractive agritourism services if included in a circuit with collaboration amongst several SMEs. i.e. Lychee route. This will help them reduce the limitations associated with small plots of lands, limited investments, choices and facilities available on one site. Additionally, although the SMEs are unlikely to alone significantly contribute to reduce the reliance of food imports associated with SIDS, united they can make significant contributions to increase food security, stimulate the local economy, increase quality of food and nutritional value for both locals and tourists. Similar findings were also found by Thomas *et al.* (2018) and they also argued that the produce of agritourism ventures are likely to make such incentives more desirable for more islanders and encourage agritourism development in SIDS. Moreover, it can reinforce the destination brand reinforce the identity of SIDS.

This study addressed the supply side by examining potential service providers' perceptions of developing agritourism in Mauritius. Future studies could address the demand perspective and investigate how to design memorable experiences for agritourists.

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## Governance and coordination of marine and coastal tourism in South Africa: challenges and opportunities

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### Abstract

The oceans economy offers significant development opportunities for sectors such as sustainable fisheries and aquaculture, renewable. The examination of the relevant literature assisted in identifying international best practices, national and sector specific (cruise tourism, beach tourism and events, adventure tourism, accommodation and facilities, etc.) trends in coastal and marine tourism. The secondary information derived from the literature and policy review as well as primary data collection was analysed thematically according to key themes, notably the level of accessibility, transparency, effectiveness and opportunities and challenges of coastal and marine tourism. The study used semi-structured interviews on key informants who held positions in the community (3), government (23) and administered 34 structured questionnaires to tourism businesses along the 4 coastal provinces. The findings show that the challenge of marine and coastal tourism governance is to develop a synergy between different stakeholders. There was agreement among respondents that local government structures in tourism are effective, however, there is need for effective coordination between national, regional, and local tourism structures. Other challenges include inadequate capacity and budgeting for tourism functions, lack of tourism prioritisation and lack of private sector involvement. The results show that the fragmented policy-making process across different spatial scales and policy domains has resulted in an elusive governance approach. The study concludes that the current legislation needs to reflect local roles and responsibilities of stakeholders and ensure that certain regulations do not hold back coastal and marine tourism development.

### Keywords

Governance, coordination, tourism, sustainability, stakeholders

#### 1. Introduction

The oceans economy offers significant development opportunities for sectors such as sustainable fisheries and aquaculture, renewable marine energy, marine bio-prospecting, maritime transport and marine and coastal tourism. Marine and coastal tourism has a great potential to unlock sustainable socio-economic development, generate multifarious benefits for local communities and the nation, and simultaneously contribute to protecting and conserving biodiversity of marine and coastal environments in South Africa. However, effective coordination and collaboration is hindered due to ineffective structures and limited understanding of tourism within municipalities. Of particular importance is how national tourism policies and governance processes are reflected and implemented at the local level, which may be influenced by decentralisation and devolution of tourism policies and actions as well as local governance capacity and community engagement structures.

#### 2. Literature review and theoretical framework

The theoretical framework for this study is on the New Public Governance theory, premised on the acknowledgement that apart from the government, various public and private institutions can be centres of power on different levels, as long as the public recognizes their authority of power. To explore such multiple centres of power, the study used the stakeholder and the common property resource theories. The common property resource theory is premised on the maxim "everybody's property is nobody's property" (Hardin, 1968; Crowe, 1969). If resources are accessible by more than one user, the result is said to be a free-for-all, with users competing with one another for a greater share of the resource to the detriment of themselves, the resource, and society as a whole (Hussen, 2004). Collective action theorists have argued that people placed in a situation in which they could all benefit

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from co-operation will be unlikely co-operate in the absence of an external enforcer of agreements. Since tourism is a complex phenomenon, different role players can be viewed as stakeholders with varying interests. There are three basic steps in identifying stakeholders: 1) The identification of each group and its perceived interest; 2) The necessary processes to manage the relations produced by the interested parts; and, 3) The joint management of the transactions and agreements among the groups interested (Queiroz, 2009). Tourism is increasingly receiving the recognition it deserves as a driver for economic development by those shaping the path to the sustained development and recovery of the economy (Binns and Nel, 2002; Rogerson, 2007). In many countries, coastal areas provide the main tourism resources, with the greatest concentration of tourism investment and facilities. Governance is a comprehensive term that is broader than the term government and implies a focus on 'systems of governing' and the ways in which societies are ruled or steered, including by non-state actors. Tourism governance can lead to significant conflict as different groups are trying to influence decision making (Bramwell & Lane 2011:411/2). Jentoft & Chuenpagdee (2009:555) maintain that governance in marine and coastal tourism is broader and more complex than management. The challenges and issues can relate to physical destruction and loss of facilities, loss of habitat and biodiversity, pollution, resource consumption and competition, climate change, limited community engagement and benefit, property development patterns and motives, and seasonality and sensitivity of demand (e.g. Jennings, 2004). Sustainable management of resources is becoming accepted internationally as a logical way to match needs of conservation and tourism development (Pigram 1990; Fish & Walton, 2012; Jennings 2004), although implementation comes with many challenges and involves coordination of many stakeholders (Waligo, Clarke & Hawkins, 2013). Partnership between local people and marine management should be encouraged where there are common interests and mutual benefits (Fuentes, 2008).

### 3. Methods

The study used both the qualitative and quantitative research designs. The examination of the relevant literature assisted in identifying international best practices, national and sector specific (cruise tourism, beach tourism and events, adventure tourism, accommodation and facilities, etc.) trends in coastal and marine tourism. The secondary information derived from the literature and policy review as well as primary data collection was analysed thematically according to key themes, notably the level of accessibility, transparency, effectiveness and opportunities and challenges of coastal and marine tourism. The study used semi-structured interviews on key informants who held positions in the community (3), government (23) and administered 34 structured questionnaires to tourism businesses along the 4 coastal provinces.

### 4. Findings

The results show that governance includes the formal and informal arrangements through which information is shared, interests are negotiated, policy decisions are made, and actions are implemented. Furthermore, fragmented governance is a major challenge in managing coastal and marine tourism. There is a complex institutional arrangement, where policy-making is fragmented across different spatial scales and policy domains, which mean that holistic and integrated approaches to governance are elusive. Datzira-Masip (1997:45) claims that the countries which have difficulties in implementing their tourism policies [are those with] decentralised structures with many interested organisations and little coordination or central direction of tourism. Hence, tourism business owners felt that the law is not applied uniformly. In Tugela Mouth (KZN), for instance, white tourism business owners were put in the same ward in the nearby village [Mandeni Municipality], but pay higher rates than their black counterparts because they own home stay apartments. Findings from the survey with business owners established a number of other challenges that can prevent the development of a successful coastal, marine tourism and leisure sector.



#### 4.1 Challenges for coastal and marine tourism governance

The results show that there is lack of governance mechanisms that ensure full utilization of coastal and marine resources. As a result, effective coordination and collaboration is hindered due to ineffective structures and limited understanding of tourism within municipalities. No hot spot products inland that will pull people away from the coast and thereby reduce overcrowding. In some cases, the potential for tourism growth is hindered by lack of prioritization of tourism growth initiatives in some of the Municipalities. High unemployment levels and unskilled human resources in the rural areas and around marine assets has exacerbated the problem. In some cases, there is lack of funding prospects for tourism projects among investors. In some Municipalities, there is a serious lack of viability of coastal and marine tourism businesses. For instance, there is lack of institutional arrangements and uncoordinated marine policies whereby there is insufficient infrastructural support for coastal and marine tourism development. In some cases, there is duplication of roles and responsibilities (role ambiguity) as a result of fragmented structures for coastal and marine tourism governance. Lack of tourism knowledge for Municipality officials has resulted in inadequate capacity and budgeting to fully realize the tourism functions. As a result, there is a lack of trust amongst stakeholders. Conflicts between the Municipality and tourism businesses interests are evident (i.e. Tugela Mouth - Mandeni municipality). Some argue that the challenges are a result of a lack of a clear national strategy on coastal and marine tourism. Amongst the government officials, it was found that there is a lack of synergy within and amongst government departments. This was evident from our request for a list of registered tourism enterprises that there was no updated database of registered coastal and marine tourism businesses. Although commercial actors can integrate coastal and marine tourism in partnership with provincial governments, lack of complementarity of products and the reactionary approach to coastal tourism management has affected sustainable development of the sector. There is an attempt to produce integrated policies, but lack of monitoring and evaluation of strategies and instruments has affected the coordination of policy domains across governance levels. Most government officials and commercial actors have a narrow view of sustainability. In their definition, sustainability relates to environmental protection. Hence pollution on the beaches (noise, litter and other ills) and deforestation is rife, environmental education does not take a holistic approach to sustainability. The research findings point to illegal sand mining, poor and dilapidated infrastructure, lack of life guards and safety issues as some of the challenges in coastal and marine tourism. The above-mentioned challenges are in sync with the opinions of respondents who said, *it is problematic when you split responsibilities between two departments; at the end no one does anything. That is the tragedy of the commons* [13]. It was observed that the provinces are involved with National Department of Tourism (NDT), which has assisted in providing vital information regarding tourism governance. However, there is a need for balancing of relationships and the two sectors to work together.

#### 4.2 Opportunities for coastal and marine tourism governance

Taking into account that governance is not an "end point" to be achieved but a dynamic process to be supported by a multi-level, multi-institutional governance structures, there is a need to determine how to optimise governance relations, structures and processes to improve the development and stewardship of coastal and marine tourism. Considering the size of the coast, developing coastal and marine tourism policies could assist different stakeholders to collaboratively drive and govern marine and coastal tourism development. The coordinated pursuit of coastal and marine tourism can encourage government to prioritize the monitoring and enforcement of policies, plans and strategies. This will allow local municipalities to measure the strengths and weaknesses of plans in order to address regional differences in marine and coastal tourism governance. Effective governance of coastal tourism could provide a coordinated effort, through policies that define and articulate all stakeholders' interests to avoid resistance while supporting international protocols that validate local circumstances and needs. Furthermore, it will limit over-development along the coast. It will further strengthen the relationship between government, private sector, conservationists and

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other stakeholders in identifying areas of common interest whilst addressing conflicting views on coastal and marine business. As has been noted, coastal/marine tourism could create opportunities for employment and the development of other businesses, leading to direct, indirect and induced economic effects, increase the multiplier effect and stimulate economic growth and improved governance structures can lead to increased revenue for government through taxes and other charges. This can be achieved by ensuring greater coordination and collaboration among central, provincial, district and local governments in terms of legislation, policy objectives, strategies and promotion can lead to an increase in the return on investment for coastal tourism businesses and promote stakeholder buy-in. Furthermore, promoting clear, coherent and achievable objectives in terms of tourism policy, can assist businesses to plan their operations cohesively. This can lead to competitive and comparative advantage for different provinces by focusing on distinct targets to save money needed to improve the sector. Stimulating better public and private sector relationship could assist in the alignment of policies and regulation for easy enforcement. Moreover, public-private sector relationship will foster a balance of interests, sharing and discussion of problems in order to improve the tourism industry performance and wealth despite opposing views. Consequently, creating greater awareness on the policy implementation can lead to social inclusion and cohesion for the whole society thereby creating a synergy between government and other stakeholders. Developing a more proactive governmental approach that will ensure that roles and responsibilities of each sector/department are clarified. Thus, the tourism industry will be able to reduce red tape and bureaucracy, minimise the negative impacts of tourism. Creating greater awareness of the role of coastal and marine tourism in economic development will improve accountability for both conservation and tourism, thereby increasing knowledge about the preservation of the environment, culture and historic sites for the benefit of the community. By ensuring a more pro-active governmental approach could encourage the development of a learning organisation that would reduce dependency on tourism economic activities, maintain and refurbish existing facilities and increase capacity to develop skills for seafarers. Creating greater awareness on the importance of tourism could help to unlock investment in new and existing port facilities; assist in identifying strategic priority projects, logistics and infrastructure developments and ensure that tourism governance leads to the creation of mini retail facilities (food, beverages) within the beach precinct, provision of visitor information services, ablution facilities, parking and braai areas.

## 5. Implications

The findings show that the challenge of marine and coastal tourism governance is to develop a synergy between different stakeholders. There was agreement among respondents that local government structures in tourism are effective, however, there is need for effective coordination between national, regional, and local tourism structures. The results showed that there is insufficient skills, which could limit the understanding of tourism within municipalities, thereby hindering effective collaboration. Other challenges include inadequate capacity and budgeting for tourism functions, lack of tourism prioritisation and lack of private sector involvement. Although there are separate governmental delivery agencies for tourism with an inclusive structure, their roles are unclear on how they can support coastal and marine tourism. The results show that the fragmented policy-making process across different spatial scales and policy domains has resulted in an elusive governance approach. The results are similar to Ćetkovic, (n.d) who says intra-governmental (vertical) and inter-sectoral (horizontal) coordination, together with the mechanisms of the institutional integration, should represent the base for understanding the role and relation between different participants integrated in the of managing processes of the coastal areas. The study concludes that the current legislation needs to reflect local roles and responsibilities of stakeholders and ensure that certain regulations do not hold back coastal and marine tourism development. The central problem in maintaining under-resourced command and control systems is that central governments have undermined their own capacities to deal with complex, dynamic and diverse sets of governance problems. In order for the tourism sector to prosper, the Government needs to make direct interventions regarding the establishment of effective governance structures that will guide the coordination of tourism at different levels. For instance, Scott and Marzano (2015) note

that tourism policy governance across multiple levels of government requires competent local actors. Functioning coordination structures can assist in the implementation of Provincial strategies. To be able to realise the strategies, goals and plans, Municipalities need to create linkages with the private sector (PPP) within their structures. In their study entitled, Local tourism governance: a comparison of three network approaches, Beaumont and Dredge (2010) found that these governance arrangements were underpinned by four key trade-offs and that these tended to shape the effectiveness of local tourism governance. So, lack of integrated communication systems, poor information dissemination and lack of stakeholder involvement in governance can negatively affect effective implementation of programmes, thereby increasing impacts on other resources. Furthermore, Municipality officials need to be capacitated to understand tourism as an integral part of economic development. Amore and Hall (2016) concluded that the examination of how governance is itself governed enables a better understanding of the practices of planning and policy making affecting tourism and destinations. Thus, Municipalities need to develop mechanisms to address inadequate budgets for tourism and ensure that adequate resources are set aside for tourism to function properly. Hannah Arendt's political theory indicates that the governance of tourism and sustainability in destinations should involve multiple participants and not just lie in the hands of a few (Bramwell and Lane, 2011). Transformed governance systems, which will enable stakeholder interactions, need to be encouraged, balancing power relations among different role players for the benefits to trickle down to local people. At a local level, members of staff themselves do not feel the size of the market, how big it should be. A policy on 'one stop shop' was developed but to date it has not been implemented due to lack of skills and knowledge. Sadly, tourism is all too often viewed as a dishonourable career.

## 6. Conclusion

Despite its limited scope and generalizability, the results of this study have the potential to contribute meaningfully to the improvement of governance in marine and coastal tourism in the four coastal provinces in South Africa. Important lessons might have been learnt on the significance of the coastline, especially for those countries in the developing world. Within South Africa, the benefits of this study reach beyond the tourism sector. As has been noted in the study, South Africa is internationally respected for its well-conceptualized, progressive policies in all aspects of life, policy implementation is often lacking or hampered by various challenges. The results of this study further identified key blockages and challenges in the current policy implementation processes and governance structures. The findings of the study identify certain key blockages and challenges in the current policy implementation processes and governance structures. They include issues of coordination, communication, and consultation. Although there is tourism legislation that reflects local roles and responsibilities of stakeholders, the current legislation needs to be enhanced to ensure that certain regulations do not hold back coastal and marine tourism development.

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# The Importance of Effective Cultural Diversity Training Programmes for Hotels

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## Abstract

This paper aims to establish the importance of implementing cultural diversity training programmes in South African hotels in order to assist both manager and general staff better deal with culturally associated dilemmas faced in the working environment. The paper reports on the extent of cultural diversity within South African hotels by exploring the various dimensions of cultural diversity found within the hotel workforce, the organisational stance on cultural diversity as well as cultural diversity challenges faced by both managers and general employees. There have been many studies conducted in continents such as North America and Europe on the importance of cultural diversity, but few studies have been conducted on the importance of management participation within these studies (Reynold, Raham, & Bradetich, 2013: 430). Managers participation in cultural diversity training is then vital in order to be sensitive to cultural differences so that they can review their own perceptions and behaviours making it easier to manage their diverse employees more efficiently, otherwise these cultural barriers may cause discomfort and stress for the judged party involved (Baum, Devine & Hearn, 2007). A descriptive analysis of the data was displayed in customs tables that present the mean, standard deviations as well as the frequency and percentages of the constructs within the questionnaire. Results pertaining to the study showed that South African hotels possessed a culturally diverse workforce, with various cultures being present in the working environment. When investigating the barriers to diversity it was seen that communication was not a factor but rather discrimination was a component that was relatively present within the sampled hotels. The organisational stance of the hotels gave an indication that hotels generally endorsed a culturally diverse workforce albeit not having adequate training in place to deal with cultural diversity related dilemmas.

## Keywords

Cultural diversity training, South African hotels, training programmes, socio-cultural context

### 1. Introduction

Cultural workforce diversity is a term that has become of great importance in South Africa since policies such as Black Economic Empowerment and affirmative action which are artificial interventions aimed at giving management a chance to correct an imbalance, an injustice, mistake or outright discrimination by giving previously disadvantaged racial groups economic privileges. The forced integration has resulted in conflict due to the lack of skilled leadership within companies in the discipline of diversity management. With the increasingly changing demographics of the South African population, managers and employees are then finding it harder to deal with workforce diversity issues such as, misunderstandings which arise from stereotyping where one tends to reduce his or her own uncertainty when it comes to understanding different cultures, language barriers which hinder communication caused by the vast amount of official languages found in South Africa, not forgetting the discomfort that can occur during interracial interactions (Avery, Richeson, Hebl & Ambady 2009:1382-193; Shelton, Dovidio, Hebl & Richeson, 2010:21-38).

Previous research has indicated managers' attitudes to be the reason why diversity management fails in the hospitality workplace (Furunes & Mykletun, 2007), as managers perceive diversity training as a tool to assist employees better interact with guests rather than a tool meant to assist manage cultural diversity dilemmas in the work environment. Therefore the main purpose of this study was to investigate the necessity of implementing an effective cultural diversity training programme within South African hotels that is tailored to assist both management and general employees with cultural diversity issues. In order to achieve the study purpose, the objectives of the study aimed at identifying the challenges hotel managers and employees face when dealing with a culturally diverse workforce while also identifying components that influence the effectiveness of cultural diversity training programmes. Ultimately allowing the researcher to propose recommendations to management concerning the various training models that can be implemented which will better equip both managers and employees handle diversity issues.

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## 2. Literature review

Literature and past studies have indicated that organizations ability to compete or be successful depends on their ability to effectively manage cultural diversity in a workplace and communicate effectively across cultures (Okoro & Washington, 2012:58). Initial efforts to address cultural diversity have focused mainly on gender and race (Morrison, Lumby & Sood, 2006:227-295). However as a response to social, political, educational and economic changes in both the local and global environment, the term “cultural diversity” has markedly expanded to include gender, race, religion, ethnicity, income, work experience, educational background, family status and other differences that may affect the workplace (Heuberger, Gerber & Anderson, 2010:107-113).

To establish a need for cultural diversity training programmes, literature pertaining to the challenges faced within the working environment depicts cultural diversity as a trigger to stereotyping; gathering individuals into groups according to their culture, age, gender, colour, race, etc and opens the way to build incorrect expectations and prejudice (Block, Koch, Liberman, Merriweather & Roberson, 2011:570-600). While in any workplace it also increases the possibility of miscommunication, misunderstanding, perception problems and wrong interpretations, lack of trust, and different account of time urgency, particularly when making decisions (Luthans & Doh, 2011). In the perspective of leadership Offermann & Phan (2008:187-214) stated that the obstacle facing leaders has been that they are often oblivious to their own cultural prism through which they perceive others Offermann & Phan (2008:187-214). Which is why Caldwell (2015:55-59) argues that the rapid influx of cultures is fast increasing the need for competent and capable leaders with attributes that allow them to lead globally.

The presence of diversity leaders and the support of higher management simplify the process of embracing diversity related training (Reynold, Rahman & Bradetich, 2014:426-446). An organization’s success and competitiveness depends upon its ability to embrace cultural diversity and realize its benefits. When organizations actively assess their handling of workplace diversity issues and develop and implement diversity plans, there are multiple benefits for the organization. In essence, cultural diversity creates cultural competence for the organization. While It can also be assumed that diversity reinforces organization’s productivity, social facilitating and synergy between analogous groups to obtain collective goals (Luthans & Doh, 2011; Robbins & Judge,2013). To further stress the importance of cultural diversity training, Wood (2004:93-109) states that diversity training can play a major role in breaking down employee ignorance, creating a more culturally enriched environment, while also improving employees’ organizational attitudes and their individual organizational performances (Madera, 2013:124-135).

Scholars such as George and Jones (2012:143) described the results of an effective cultural diversity training programmes as being able to:

- Break down stereotypes, inaccurate perceptions and attributes about individuals.
- Raising awareness concerning the different backgrounds, experiences and values of individuals.
- Managing conflict within the workplace.
- Raising mutual understanding about one’s cultural orientation

Therefore the end result of cultural diversity training is to simply prepare individuals in becoming competent intercultural communicators with cultural awareness and sensitivity workplace (Baum, Devine & Hearn, 2007: 350-363). In order for such an end results to be met cultural diversity training programmes need to be designed in a manner that will educate individuals who are managing and supervising a diverse workforce on how to obtain skills such as cultural awareness and sensitivity (Lim & Noriega, 2007:65-74).

### 3. Methods

The research study utilized a quantitative research approach which posed specific questions and measured the variables needed in order to facilitate the finding of answers (Creswell, 2007:4). A combination of stratified sampling and convenience sampling was used in order to select hotels that would have a greater chance of having cultural diversity training in their establishments. A discussion on the statistical analysis and interpretation would be made through the distribution of a 5 point likert – scale questionnaire completed by both managers and employees which ranked the respondents answers from the negative to the positive, respondents were able to select an option of strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree and strongly agree. The analysis of the data collected as well as the finding are discussed through the interpretation of the inputs made from SPSS version 22. The interpretation of data is made through the different sections of the questionnaire which was completed by 151 participants, the sections being as follows:

- Demographic Information
- Cultural Diversity Management
- Barriers of Cultural Diversity
- Organizational Stance on Cultural Diversity

For the purpose of determining the reliability of a scale, internal consistency reliability can be utilized (Malhotra, 2010:319). In this case Cronbach Alpha was utilized, which segments items in a construct by calculating the correlation coefficient of each item, then computing the mean of all possible coefficients (Zikmund&Babin, 2013:257; Malhotra, 2010:319; McDaniel & Gates, 2010b:253).

### 4. Findings

The paper explored the importance of having effective cultural diversity training programs for hotels by outlining the extent of diversity found in South African hotels as well as the challenges that come with having a culturally diverse workforce. Through the findings an overview of the managers and employees perspectives is given, providing an understanding of the working conditions of participants with regards to the impact of cultural diversity in the workplace.

*Table 1: Positional Perspective on Cultural Diversity*

Variables		N	Mean	SD	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Neutral	Strongly Agree/ Agree
In my department we have people who have different cultures, religions and social backgrounds.	Manager	70	4.09	0.959	6 (8.5%)	8 (11.4%)	56 (80%)
	Employee	81	4.09	0.938	5 (6.2%)	11 (13.6%)	65 (80.2%)
Having different cultures working together in the workplace is not needed.	Manager	70	2.06	1.128	49 (70%)	13 (18.6%)	8 (11.4%)
	Employee	81	1.78	1.061	68 (84%)	2 (2.5%)	11 (13.5%)
Cultural diversity training is a needed tool in my organization?	Manager	70	3.94	0.931	4 (5.8%)	14 (20%)	52 (74.3%)
	Employee	81	4.04	0.813	4 (4.9%)	13 (16%)	64 (79%)
I consider my colleagues cultural, religious or social values when relating tasks or communicating with them.	Manager	70	3.80	1.044	7 (10%)	16 (22.9%)	47 (67.1%)
	Employee	81	4.05	0.850	4 (4.9%)	12 (14.8%)	65 (80.3%)
I consider the views of my colleagues even though they are different to my own.	Manager	70	4.33	0.793	2 (2.9%)	2 (2.9%)	66 (94.3%)
	Employee	81	4.40	0.71	2 (2.5%)	4 (4.9%)	75 (92.6%)
I do everything possible to understand my colleague's cultural backgrounds.	Manager	70	3.87	1.128	9 (12.8%)	10 (14.3%)	51 (72.9%)
	Employee	81	4.11	0.908	6 (7.4%)	8 (9.9%)	67 (82.7%)
I am able to identify culturally biased assumptions in my workplace.	Manager	70	3.80	1.016	8 (11.4%)	11 (15.7%)	51 (72.9%)
	Employee	81	3.95	0.999	7 (8.7%)	15 (18.5)	59 (72.8%)
Management tries to solve cultural diversity issues personally in the workplace.	Manager	70	3.26	1.200	18 (25.7%)	20 (28.6%)	32 (45.7%)
	Employee	81	3.21	1.320	22 (27.1%)	22 (27.2%)	37 (45.7%)
My cultural, social or religious backgrounds influences the way in which I perform my duties.	Manager	70	2.99	1.409	30 (42.9%)	8 (11.4%)	32 (45.7%)
	Employee	81	2.98	1.449	35 (43.2%)	12 (14.8%)	34 (42%)

*Source: Researchers Own Construct*

Regarding the mean scores of the managers from table 1 the range is between M=2.06 and M=4.33, with a total average mean of M=4.00, the standard deviation ranged between SD=0.793 and 1.409 with an average SD= 0.77397, which indicates that the managers predominately agree with the questions posed in the construct. In reference to the employees construct regarding their perception of cultural diversity the mean score ranged between M=1.78 and M=4.40, with the standard deviation score between SD=0.71 and SD=1.449. The average mean and standard deviation for general employees were M=4.1852 and SD=0.62138, the overall mean score of the employees show a high agreement level in conjunction to the statements posed.

Table 2: Positional Perspective on Cultural Diversity Barriers

Variables		N	Mean	SD	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Neutral	Strongly Agree/ Agree
Working with people of different cultures, religions, race, gender and social backgrounds help me perform my duties better.	Manager	70	3.14	1.081	19 (27.1%)	24 (34.3%)	27 (38.6%)
	Employee	81	3.63	0.901	6 (7.4%)	29 (35.8%)	46 (56.7%)
I can communicate well with my colleagues even when they come from different cultural backgrounds.	Manager	70	4.21	0.797	3 (4.3%)	4 (5.7%)	63 (90%)
	Employee	81	4.37	0.782	2 (2.5%)	3 (3.7%)	76 (93.8%)
I experience forms of culturally based discrimination in my work environment.	Manager	70	2.66	1.295	37 (52.8%)	12 (17.1%)	21 (30%)
	Employee	81	3.11	1.351	33 (40.8%)	9 (11.1%)	39 (48.2%)
Cultural discrimination in my workplace affects my ability to do my job.	Manager	70	2.49	1.248	40 (57.1%)	13 (18.6%)	17 (24.2%)
	Employee	81	2.99	1.299	33 (40.7%)	15 (18.5%)	33 (40.8%)
Conflict due to cultural, social or religious differences arises in my work environment.	Manager	70	2.59	1.280	35 (50%)	17 (24.3%)	18 (25.7%)
	Employee	81	2.72	1.164	39 (48.1%)	20 (24.7%)	22 (27.2%)
Within my department there have been incidents of ethnic, social, religious or cultural stereotyping.	Manager	70	2.34	1.178	46 (65.7%)	10 (14.3%)	14 (20%)
	Employee	81	2.73	1.285	41 (50.6%)	15 (18.5%)	25 (30.9%)

Source: Researcher's Own Construct

When assessing table 2 the overall mean and standard deviation for the construct in relation to the managers was M=2.5179 and SD=1.02179 indicating a general disagreement to majority of the questions posed in the construct. With regards to the general employee the same sentiment can be shared with the overall mean and standard deviation for the construct being M=2.8858 and SD=.97872. With only a few of the questions showing a high agreement level. The data found that from the 151 responses, 139 (92%) experienced no issues when it came to communicating with people from different cultural backgrounds with only a small percentage 5 (3.3%) facing communication challenges, with the statement scoring an overall mean of M=4.30 which indicated a high agreement level from the participants . When relaying the data from table 2 it can be noted that both managers and employees share similar views with 90% of the managers and 93.8% of the employees agreeing to the statement, with means of M=4.21 and M=4.37 respectively.

It can also be seen that the amount of employees that experience discrimination are slightly higher than those who said they have not. Those who were faced with discrimination amounting to 48.2%, as compared to the 40.8% that have not, the statement obtaining a mean score of M=3.11. In terms of the managers it can be seen that a larger section of the managers 52.8% have not experienced any culturally based discrimination while 30% had said that they have, the statement yielding a low mean of M=2.66 indicating that managers faced less discrimination as compared to employees. Respondents were further asked open – ended questions that gave clarity on the discrimination experienced. Table 3 displays some of the responses.



Table 3: Incidents Pertaining to Discrimination in the Workplace

“Because I am a white man, I am told now and then by my employees that I am being racist when I try and reprimand them for something. They think just because of my skin colour I have right to call them to order”.
“Being a foreigner makes it hard to fit in at work because you are told you are a kwerekwere and treated funny”.
“Being called umlungo for being white or having "rich white people"because of my interests/hobbies”.
“Being Indian brings some form of discrimination especially when it comes to my appearance, they think its inappropriate and unprofessional”.
“Black people are unethical in their job, never able to finish their task on their own”.
“It is difficult as an afrikaaner in this country to do your job without being called a racist, when you try discipline staff as their manager they think you are doing so because they are black and you are white”.
“Like saying someone if he or she does something wrong it is because they are pedi or shangan”.
“When you are a sangoma it is hard for people to understand your life so they judge you saying you are witchcrafting them”.

Table 4 Positional Perspective on the Organisational Stance on Cultural diversity

Variables		N	Mean	SD	Strongly Disagree/ Disagree	Neutral	Strongly Agree/ Agree
My organization promotes having a multicultural workforce.	Manager	70	3.74	1.073	9 (12.9%)	15 (21.4%)	46 (65.7)
	Employee	81	3.65	1.120	12 (14.8%)	18 (22.2%)	51 (63%)
My organization has cultural diversity training programs or innovations in place to help me better work in a multicultural workforce.	Manager	70	2.46	1.259	39 (55.7%)	15 (21.4%)	16 (22.8%)
	Employee	81	2.81	1.295	35 (43.2%)	16 (19.8%)	30 (37%)
The cultural diversity training or innovations provided effectively assist me in better handling any cultural diversity related dilemmas within my work environment.	Manager	70	2.83	1.351	29 (41.5%)	17 (24.3%)	24 (34.3%)
	Employee	81	3.19	1.205	23 (28.3%)	19 (23.5%)	39 (48.1%)
My organization acknowledges the different cultural, religious and social beliefs of its employees.	Manager	70	3.74	1.163	13 (18.6%)	10 (14.3%)	47 (67.1%)
	Employee	81	3.67	1.118	14 (17.3%)	11 (13.6%)	56 (69.1%)
As a person with different social, religious, ethnic and cultural backgrounds, I have to follow the organizations cultural practices even if it is different to my own.	Manager	70	3.67	1.059	10 (14.3%)	18 (25.7%)	42 (60%)
	Employee	81	3.49	1.276	17 (20.9%)	15 (18.5%)	49 (60.5%)
I receive support from management when faced with diversity related issues	Manager	70	3.54	1.188	15 (21.4%)	15 (21.4%)	40 (57.2%)
	Employee	81	3.30	1.219	19 (23.4%)	24 (29.6%)	38(46.9%)
I am given an opportunity to grow and progress within my organization regardless of my cultural, ethnic, social and religious backgrounds.	Manager	70	3.80	1.175	10 (14.2%)	11 (15.7%)	49 (70%)
	Employee	81	3.56	1.265	16 (19.7%)	15 (18.5%)	50 (61.7%)

Source: Researcher's Own Construct

Top management’s commitment and involvement have been seen as key ingredients in the success of diversity related initiatives. To have a clear understanding of the organisational stance of the hotels. The overall mean and standard deviation for the construct pertaining to the managers was M=3.5314 and SD=.89176 indicating a general agreement to the questions posed in the construct. With regards to the general employee the overall mean and standard deviation for the construct being M=3.4716 and SD=.93825, indicating a lower agreement rate to the statements opposed in the construct. From table 4 the findings indicated that although the sampled hotels did not have a definitive cultural diversity training program, celebrating heritage day in the work place was just one of the tools used to promote cultural diversity education, which was seen as sufficient according to the participants in assisting managers and employees with cultural diversity associated interactions.

## 5. Implications

The results gained from the study have shone a light on the implications of discrimination within the hotel working environment and the extent of the challenge it poses in terms of culturally diverse interactions. Racial and Ethnic discrimination have long been issues that appeared apparent in a country that battled with racial oppression that came with Apartheid. Although companies have implemented policies such as BEE and affirmative action as a way of eliminating discrimination, this study has shown that it has only succeeded in providing opportunities for the disadvantaged demographic groups rather than an understanding of the cultural

differences within the workforce. Therefore raising a need for literature that would better assist in educating individuals on coping mechanisms when faced with diversity related dilemmas within the South African context

## 6. Conclusions

South Africa has a diverse institutional and socio-cultural context, therefore this paper aimed at establishing the need for effective cultural diversity training programmes. Findings of the study showed that the South African hotel industry is a culturally diverse one with various cultural demographics being represented in the working environment. Although there may be 11 official languages in South Africa, communication was not a factor as the larger demographics of the study possessed the ability to speak more than one language. This revelation questioned the need for the implementation of cultural diversity training programmes, however the utilisation of informal cultural diversity training methods in order to educate employees on the various cultures in the working environment only dealt with certain dimensions of cultural diversity and failed to cover all aspects, hence discrimination and stereotyping were challenges faced by the participants.

The study itself was however faced with certain limitations, the literature review gathered was predominantly of European and North American origins, meaning the relativity of literature explored did not necessarily correlate with the cultural diversity composition of South Africa, as well as literature on cultural diversity training programmes within South Africa being limited therefore referencing on the topic had to be derived from human resource related research rather than hospitality based research. The distribution of the questionnaires was also problematic as some hotels feared the topic would result in their hotel being viewed less favourably due to the sensitivity of the research topic. Based on the findings of the study however, the researcher proposes that future cultural diversity training programmes to be developed be more topic specific, instead of generalizable. With cultural diversity consisting of numerous categories, each training programme needs to focus on educating both managers and employees about that specific subject matter. E.g having a race and ethnic sensitivity training which will assist both parties in understanding each other's racial and ethnic background and behaviour.

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# Tourism development as a poverty alleviation strategy in community-owned conservation areas: a case study of a protected area in KwaZulu-Natal

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## Abstract

Protected areas and tourism have a longstanding and mutually beneficial relationship. Such areas offer a unique, desirable setting for the tourism product, whilst tourism offers park managers a revenue source that can assist ongoing conservation efforts. Beyond this mutual association, tourism development in protected areas can have considerable benefits for surrounding communities, as well as social costs (e.g. increased competition for resources and facilities). Whether the opportunities provided by tourism benefit communities or not is debatable and contingent on a number of interacting factors. This paper analyses tourism development in the Somkhanda Game Reserve in South Africa using a mixed-method approach, a community-owned conservation area in northern KwaZulu-Natal owned by the Somkhanda community sometimes referred to as Gumbi community. With inspiration from the Political Ecology (PE) and Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) theories, it examines the potential of tourism development as a poverty alleviation strategy in the Gumbi community. The Somkhanda Game Reserve is emerging as a tourism destinations owned by the community in KwaZulu-Natal. One hundred and fifty households from a total of three hundred and twelve households that comprise the Gumbi community were interviewed using the simple random sampling approach. The results from the study indicate that the Gumbi community do benefits from tourism development in the SGR. Furthermore, the results also indicates that tourism in the SGR plays a limited role in alleviating poverty in the surrounding communities. Key tourism related benefits includes homestays by tourists when they visit SGR, limited job opportunities, cattle dip tank projects and tree-preneurship opportunities. However, there is still a need to improve community benefits given the high poverty and unemployment rates in Gumbi community.

## Keywords

Poverty, tourism, community participation, development and sustainability

### 1. Introduction

Tourism has become an important strategy for local development in many underdeveloped regions. Studies show that tourism development has significant impacts on impoverished rural communities where the option for development is limited (Naidoo and Sharpley, 2016). Although the positive economic and social impacts of tourism development have contributed to local livelihoods in some communities, to other communities, the negative impacts associated with tourism development such as displacement, environmental and cultural degradation has indeed led to the deterioration of residents' quality of life (Dyer *et al.*, 2014). Despite the tremendous opportunity tourism offers for poverty reduction in such regions, this is yet to be exploited to its fullest (Bramwell, 2011).

Tourism has been adopted by the South African government as a remedy for struggling economies, especially in impoverished rural, remote areas where majority people live. Despite the increasing research on tourism and poverty, there are few mixed method studies that investigate the role of tourism in alleviating poverty in rural communities especially the communities that own conservation areas which were restituted as a result of land claim and socio-economic regeneration (Andrade & Rhodes, 2012). Therefore, there is a need to understand the tourism impact on rural communities as a poverty alleviation approach and the associated issues in development. The main purpose of this study is to examine the impacts of tourism in community owned conservation areas in the South African context and discuss the role of ecotourism activities for the livelihoods of surrounding communities to protected areas. A case study was conducted in two rural communities adjacent to the Somkhanda Game Reserve in northern KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

The article provides, firstly, a brief literature review that highlights key issues pertaining to tourism development and poverty alleviation with a specific focus on South Africa. The next section provides a methodology and background of the case study used

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in this research and the questionnaire survey approach adopted to collect primary data. The results from the questionnaire are then discussed. Finally, a conclusion is provided

## 2. Literature review

There is increasing attention on community involvement in relation to nature conservation and ecotourism in developing contexts, this is especially the case in South Africa where historical racially discriminatory policies resulted in rural communities being dispossessed from their areas to make way for conservation areas (Nsukwini and Bob, 2016). It is clear that sustainable African conservation has to include local populations (Hutton *et al.*, 2017). Many have argued that if communities receive benefits from protected areas (PAs) and ecotourism they will tend to hold positive attitudes towards conservation as a land use and to care for the natural resources in their area (Martin *et al.*, 2018; Ngonidzashe Mutanga, 2015; Parker, 2017; Røskoft, 2018 and Stone and Nyaupane, 2018). Ecotourism allows local communities to receive benefits from conservation, both directly, through wages and salaries, and indirectly, as suppliers of goods and services. Numerous authors have argued that community support is critical to the long-term success of ecotourism operations and their associated PAs (Das and Chatterjee, 2015; Lamelin *et al.*, 2015; Makindi 2016 and Snyman, 2014). An analysis of community attitudes towards PAs across southern African would highlight the determinants of community support. Such information may encourage governments and ecotourism operators to focus on these factors in policy decisions. Although PAs and ecotourism are interlinked, community attitudes towards them may be sensitive to the direct costs and benefits of ecotourism, particularly employment and human–wildlife conflict.

Managing community expectations of ecotourism requires an understanding of the factors driving their attitudes. Education and awareness-raising programmes also benefit from an understanding of community attitudes (Snyman, 2014). As Emerton (1999) pointed out, benefit distribution is a necessary, but not sufficient, condition for communities to engage in wildlife conservation (Cooney *et al.*, 2017). The understanding of local residents' attitudes, by the managers of PAs and eco-lodges, will naturally affect their interactions with the community and it is hoped that this understanding will allow more focused planning in PAs and associated ecotourism operations.

Residents' perceptions of social and cultural impacts of tourism has been researched extensively (Snyman, 2014). However, tourism development generates crucial consequences that may affect the respectful area. Besides delivering positive impacts such as enhancing local economies, being a source of new employment opportunities, additional tax receipts, foreign exchange earnings and income, tourism development have the potential towards negative outcomes (Mowforth and Munt, 2015). Some residents expected to perceive tourism as having negative social and cultural impacts and some inclined to see tourism as having positive economic, social and cultural impacts. This notion then reinforced by (Sher, Bagul and Din, 2015). on the role of personal benefit that local community obtained from tourism development may commute adverse and positive perception on tourism development.

Carneiro (2018) argues that research on tourism in developing countries has mostly focused on the positive economic, environmental and socio-cultural impact of the industry. His views are based on the fact that although the tourism industry has a potentially beneficial impact, in practice this impact has been frequently negated by negative consequences for the local populations. John Brohman, in support of Cattarinich argues that “tourism has contributed to the mal-development of many developing countries (Inayatullah, 2011: 9). Supporting John Brohman's argument, Croes and Rivera (2017) argues that demonstrating the benefits of tourism in addressing poverty is a challenge because there is little data that demonstrates the impact

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of tourism on poverty “the industry has been managed for foreign exchange benefits rather than as a pro-poor development strategy” (Njoya and Seetaram, 2018).

Tourism is very important for poverty reduction strategy especially in a country like South Africa with a high percentage of the population living in poverty (Rogerson, 2018). Spenceley & Seif (2003) conducted a study into the strategies, impact and costs of pro-poor tourism approaches. In this study they used case studies of a range of five small and large-scale tourism initiatives and enterprises such as coral divers, KwaZulu-Natal (diving operation), Jackalberry Lodge, in Limpopo (safari operation), Phinda Resources Reserve in KwaZulu-Natal (safari operation), Sabi Sabi private game reserve in Mpumalanga (safari operation) and Sun City, North West Province (casino and golf resort). The activities of these five commercial tourism enterprises were geared towards benefitting the local poor in their own communities. The study found that the most significant benefits of tourism to the poor clearly arose from direct employment within the tourism industry. This research also highlighted the positive ripple down effect of tourism in a rural community. For example, the wage earned by one staff member frequently support seven to eight family members who relied on the worker’s salary to pay for food, clothing, shelter and schooling (Snyman, 2017). Tourism therefore constitutes one of the leading driving forces of socio-economic expansion in community-owned conservation areas. Furthermore, the study on ecotourism as a development tool in rural areas conducted by (Nsukwini and Bob, 2016) in communities adjacent the Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park indicates that communities benefits from tourism but not to the level of their satisfaction. This proves that tourism does play a role in alleviating poverty in rural communities.

### 3. Methods

The study employed a mixed-method approach as a data collection tool. The study is based on field research undertaken in the Somkhanda Game Reserve (SGR) in 2016 and 2017. Interviews focusing on tourism development in the Somkhanda Game Reserve were carried out with the management of the SGR and committee members of the ECT. One hundred and fifty household surveys were carried out with the members of the Somkhanda community using a questionnaire and one focus group meeting focusing on conservation and tourism conflicts were conducted with the local informants. The focus group meeting was held in the Hlambanyathi village and it was attended by 12 participants which represented all gender, age group and class in the community. All interviews, household surveys and focus group meetings were carried out in strict confidentiality and the names of the respondents were withheld in confidentiality by mutual agreements. Furthermore, the ethical clearance to conduct research in the community was obtained from the University of KwaZulu-Natal where the researcher is registered for a PhD in geography. In order to improve the reliability of the results, most of the findings were verified by triangulation between different types of sources (Introduction, methodology and discussion).

### 4. Findings

The findings were guided by the objectives and key research questions of the study which covered the following areas: community participation in tourism development in the study site; community’s development of tourism product; challenges that hinder tourism development in the SGR. The findings are presented and discussed below.

Respondents were asked if adequate opportunities have been created for them to participate in tourism activities in the Somkhanda Game Reserve. They were further asked if they have any relations with the management of the Somkhanda Game Reserve. Table 1 below indicates that the majority of respondents (97.3%) have weak relations with the SGR, they also have also indicated that inadequate opportunities created in SGR. Only 1.7% indicated strong working relations with the management of the SGR. This

could be attributed to the fact that SGR is privately managed and those who represent the Gumbi community in the SGR do not give feedback to the community. Tourism development generates crucial consequences that may affect the respectful area (Nzama, 2010). Besides delivering positive impacts such as enhancing local economies, being a source of new employment opportunities, additional tax receipts, foreign exchange earnings and income, tourism development have the potential towards negative outcomes (Cobbinah, 2015). Some residents expected to perceive tourism as having negative social and cultural impacts and some inclined to see tourism as having positive economic, social and cultural impacts. This notion then reinforced by Sinclair-Maragh, (2015) on the role of personal benefit that local community obtained from tourism development may commute adverse and positive perception on tourism development.

*Table 1: Respondents' rating of relations between community and conservation area (in %)*

<b>Relations between community and conservation area</b>	<b>SGR (n=150)</b>
Very weak	0.7
Weak	97.3
Strong	1.7
Very strong	0.3
Total	100

Respondents were further asked to rate their involvement in tourism related livelihood activities. This was going to help to consolidate the notion of the importance of tourism development in the Somkhanda Game Reserve especially for the Gumbi community, the respondents were asked to rate their level of involvement in tourism activities in the area. The majority of respondents (51.6%) indicated passive involvement, information giving (45.2%) and only (3.2%) indicated functional (Table 2). This is in line with what was discovered by (Musavengane & Simatele, 2016) in the study that focused on the significance of social capital in the Gumbi community.

*Table 2: Respondents' rating of community involvement in conservation-related livelihood activities in their area (in %)*

<b>Rating of community involvement in conservation-related livelihood activities</b>	<b>SGR (n=150)</b>
Passive (told what's going to happen)	51.6
Information giving (answer questions from extractive researchers)	45.2
Functional (meet predetermined objectives)	3.2
Interactive (joint analysis and action)	-
Self-mobilisation (take decisions independent of external institutions)	-
Total	100

The Gumbi community is characterised by high poverty rate as the majority of the people in the area are illiterate (Smidt, 2013). This is due to the fact that the area has only one high school and only three primary schools. The area lack infrastructure that is crucial for the community. There are many challenges that are related to tourism development in rural areas in general which require action by different stakeholders at different levels. Respondents from the Somkhanda were asked to about their household poverty level and the majority of respondents (Table 3) indicated moderate poverty levels (36%), high poverty levels (29%) and very high poverty (18%). This was supported by a community conservation officer in the Somkhanda Game Reserve who indicated that there is a very high unemployment rate and very few job opportunities within the area, which is a clear indication that SGR cannot meet the job demands of the local communities.

*Table 3: Household poverty level (in %)*

<b>Household poverty level</b>	<b>SGR (n=150)</b>
No poverty	3.3
Low	13.7
Moderate	36.0
High	29.0
Very high	18.0
Total	100

There is a need to build relationships between staff, community and management since no Parks or reserves can exist without viable and constructive community participation. Furthermore, Moreto *et al.*, (2016) argue that improving relations between Parks and the neighbouring communities has been underscored as one of the highest priorities on the conservation agenda in South Africa. This is attributed to the fact that since economic costs incurred by some of the local residents bordering protected areas far exceed the benefits, there is a need to provide incentives for local people to support, rather than oppose protected area conservation ventures.

## 5. Conclusion

The study has highlighted the significance of active involvement by local communities who are the custodians of the resources that can be used for tourism development. The range of natural, cultural and heritage tourism products found in the Somkhanda Game Reserve is very wide; therefore, it is important to select a procedure to be followed in the process of product planning and development. It is also necessary to link the resources available with the skills that are required by the local communities in order for them to participate effectively in sustainable rural tourism development. Overall it is observed that tourism development initiatives can be used as a tool to alleviate poverty in communities that own conservation areas. The study found that SGR has contributed to the socio-economic improvement in the living standards (contribution to livelihood increased income, enhanced health and food status), through employment creation, improved education/healthcare, empowerment through training and skill development.

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# Public-Private-Partnership (PPP): A probable panacea for ecotourism development in Anambra State, Nigeria

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## Abstract

Anambra state has numerous ecotourist attractions that are still undeveloped. Whilst there are scholarly works focused on the development and promotion these natural attractions, none of these studies has explored the use of Public-Private-Partnership (PPP) in developing these attractions. PPP has been reputed to aid in the development of ecotourism attractions across the globe. Thus, there is need to discuss its application in the study area. Mixed method was used for data collection through survey design and in-depth interview. Interview was conducted with key stakeholders, while questionnaires were distributed randomly across the selected communities and tourism and environment ministries with a population sample of 520 participants. The primary data was supported with secondary data. Responses from the sampled communities tallied with those in the ministries used. Respondents noted that PPP is ideal for development of ecotourism attractions in Anambra state because of poor government attention, paucity of funds, lack of tourism professionals, and community members quest for economic gains and identification of roles of government and community members in the proposed PPP model.

## Keywords

Public-private partnership, ecotourism development, community perception

### 1. Introduction

The need for collaboration in the development of tourism through PPP seems to be in vogue in tourism. PPP is used to enhance tourism development across the globe especially where there is paucity of government funds to develop tourism potentials (International Monetary Fund, 2004), infrastructure and ancillary services. Anambra state has many ecotourism attractions such as forests, caves, lakes and streams, but none of these natural attractions is developed because of poor funding, and failure of concerned authorities to engage tourism professionals to manage the State's ecotourism attractions (Odum, 2018). There is also dearth of literature exploring PPP as an option that can be explored to develop ecotourism attractions in Anambra State.

The paper is anchored on the following objectives: to list some ecotourism attractions in Anambra State and their status and to evaluate the option of using PPP as a strategy for developing ecotourism resources in the State. This study is important because exploring opportunities for developing these attractions can help in tourism development. Evaluating the perception of community members and government staff on using PPP to develop these attractions is also necessary as the study will be relevant to policy makers, government, the local people and tourism researchers interested in the study area.

### 2. Literature Review

#### 2.1 Studies on ecotourism attractions in Southeastern Nigeria

Ecotourist attractions studied in southeastern Nigeria includes: Ewelum (2015) carried out an assessment of ecotourism attractions in Enugu State. In Anambra: Okeke & Nwokolo (2008) Odum (2017) discussed Agulu Lake, Odum (2017) studied Amaokpala Lake and Ogbunike cave, while Itanyi, Okonkwo and Eyisi (2013) studied Owerrezukalla cave. Oguamanam and Nwankwo (2015) studied Ajalli cave, Onwudufor and Odum (2015) focused on Ufuma cave. Odum (2014) studied Akpaka forest reserve. Odum (2017) studied Agu-aba forest reserve and Mamu forest. These studies echoed the inherent benefits of developing ecotourism attractions, the challenges and prospects, none of these studies explored the possibility of using PPP.

## 2.2 Public Private Partnership and tourist attractions

Goloran, Beeton and Scott (2015) discussed how PPP was used in promoting a World Heritage Site in Philippines and drew extra resources for training of locals and building infrastructure in Puerto Princesa Subterranean River National Park. Mbaiwa (2015) explored how the approach was used in training tourist guides and protection of invaluable cultural heritage in Botswana, the Tsodilo Hills World Heritage Site. PPP has been helpful in tourism related projects in Tanzania, India, and Niger Delta area of Nigeria (Menon & Edward, 2014; Kumar, Tiwari & Mishara 2015; Ekpenyong & Mmom, 2015).

## 3. Method

A mixed method of research was used. The qualitative aspect involved in-depth interviews with key stakeholders. The attractions were selected because earlier studies were carried out without attention to PPP. Long-standing history of these attractions and one of the attractions (Ogbunike Cave) has drawn the attention of UNESCO. The quantitative aspect entailed the distribution of 520 questionnaires randomly in selected communities and ministries. Secondary data was used to support the primary data. Articles relating to PPP were also consulted. The study is limited to selected attractions in the following communities: Agulu Lake in Agulu, Iyi-Ocha in Amaokpala, Ogba Ogbunike in Ogbunike, Ufuma Cave in Ufuma, Ogba-ukwu in Owerre-Ezukalla, Mamu Forest Reserve within Ndiukwuenu and Okpeze, Agu-Aba Forest Reserve in Awka.

## 4. Findings

There are many ecotourism attractions in Anambra State and some of these attractions are listed in Table 1.

Majority of the ecotourism attractions are managed by community members except for the gazetted forests under the management of Ministry of Environment in the State. None of the streams, lakes, rivers and caves in the state has been developed for tourism related activities.

Table 1: List of some eco-tourist attractions in Anambra State

S/no.	Tourist Attraction	Type of Attraction	Location	Ownership	Remarks
<b>Caves</b>					
1	*Ogba Ogbunike	Natural	Ogbunike	Community	Attracted UNESCO attention and state government attention. Eg. State government has built a road leading to it.
2	Ogba Ajalli	Natural	Ajalli	Community	Managed by community; not developed.
3	*Ogba Ukwu	Natural	Owerrezukalla	Community	Managed by the community; state government has shown interest in its development but no physical proof yet.
<b>Lakes and rivers</b>					
4	*Aglu Lake	Natural	Aglu	Community	Managed by community; deified; Government has built a hotel close the Lake. Very popular
5	Iyi-Ocha	Natural	Amaokpala	Community	Managed by community; deified; not developed. Popular.
<b>Forests</b>					
6	Achalla Forest Reserve	Natural	Achalla	Government	Gazetted. Poorly managed. Not popular.
7	*Mamu Forest Reserve	Natural	Okpeze/ Ndiukwuenu	Government	Gazetted. Poorly managed. Very popular due to its proximity with Mamu river.
8	Akpaka Forest Reserve	Natural	Onitsha	Government	Gazetted. Poorly managed. Almost decimated. Very popular.
9	Ogbakuba Forest Reserve	Natural	Ogbakuba	Government	Gazetted. Poorly managed. Not popular.
10	*Agu-aba Forest Reserve	Natural	Awka	Government	Gazetted. Poorly managed. Threatened by urbanization. Not popular.
11	Nkachu-Ituku Reserve	Natural		Government	Gazetted. Poorly managed. Not popular.
12	Forest in Ukwulu	Natural	Ukwulu	Community	Un-gazetted.

Source: Authors' fieldwork (2014-2017). NB: \*selected attractions



Plate 1: Agulu Lake  
Source: Odum (2017)



Plate 2: Owerrezukalla cave and waterfall  
Source: Odum (2017)

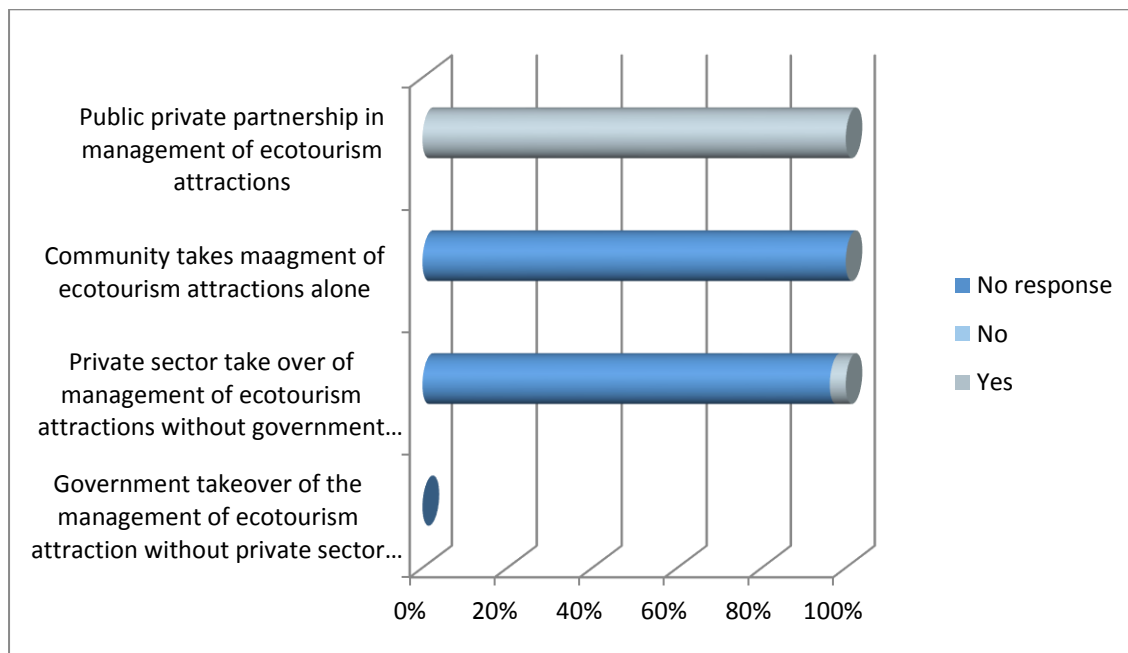


Figure 1: Categorization of development options from staff of Department of Tourism and Forestry of the Ministries used in the study  
Source: Authors fieldwork, 2017

The result of assessing the acceptability of PPP as a means of developing these eco-tourist attractions by staff of the ministries used for the study showed that PPP is an acceptable (96.2%) option for the management of eco-tourist attractions in the study area. Respondents were of the view that poor government funding and lack of tourism professionals can be augmented through PPP. The result tallied with findings from the interactions with community members where the result showed hundred percent (100%) support for PPP. Members were of the view that PPP offered them a lot of opportunity to benefit from what nature has bequeathed to their communities. The result also tallied with some studies across the globe. PPP can be applied in the management of Caves (Onwudufor and Odum, 2015), forests and lakes (Odum, 2017). The current economic recession in Nigeria even makes it imperative for Anambra State to explore PPP as an option in developing her ecotourism resources.

PPP cannot succeed without appropriate regulatory framework, and the need for political commitment and good governance is imperative. This will be followed by a working and efficient legal system in the state in order to assure private investors that agreement with government will be honored. Figure 2 reveals the responsibility of government in developing ecotourism attractions in the state.

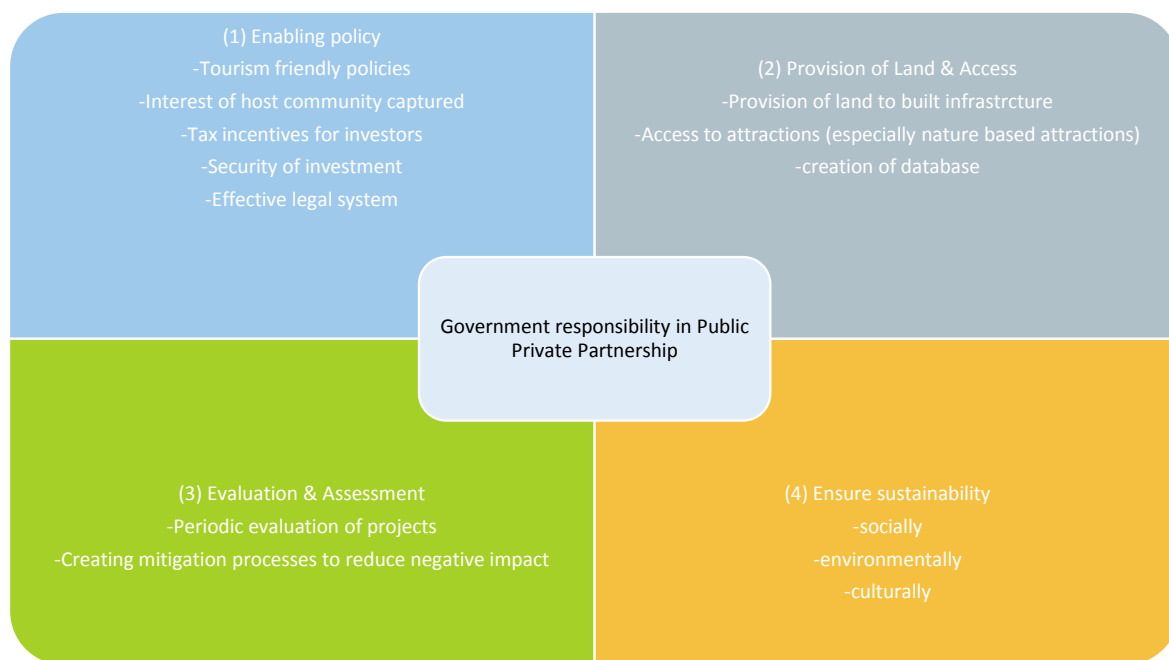


Figure 2: Government role in public private partnership in Anambra State

The first responsibility of government is to express willingness in developing tourism by making tourism a priority, **creating policies** that will encourage private investors to participate in developing tourist attractions. Such policies must cover the host community's interest early in the planning process to avoid conflicts. The government should also provide tax rebate for tourism investors. Government policies should ensure that investors are assured that their money is guaranteed in case government defaults in any agreement. This is followed by provision of land for building infrastructure. Government is usually the sole owner of land in Nigeria (see Nigeria Land Use Act Decree No. 6 of 1978); therefore, the need for government to give pieces of land to investors or lease it out is necessary.

These pieces of lands are where support facilities will be built. Compensation of communities will be the responsibility of either government or the investors depending on what the agreement between both parties says. Furthermore, creation of access routes to tourist attractions should also be made available so that investors can come in. Creating database for tourist attractions in the State will help the private sector to know what type of attraction they are interested in and the locations. What is the profile of tourists/visitors coming to the state? Such database helps in planning and will give the private sector a clue of the profit margin they are expecting

**Evaluation and assessment-** Periodic evaluation of management of destinations given to private investors to ensure compliance with stipulated agreement. Here also, the interest of government workers should not be undermined by the private investors. The government should ensure that negative impact of developing tourist attractions such as environmental pollution (noise pollution, over-crowding), socio-cultural issues (commodification of culture, denying local people access to tourism facilities) and economic issues (increase in prices of commodities) etc. are controlled and mitigated.

**Sustainability practice-** PPP must ensure that developing ecotourists' attractions is environmentally compatible; the development is not polluting the ecosystem, is socially acceptable and economically beneficial to all key stakeholders.

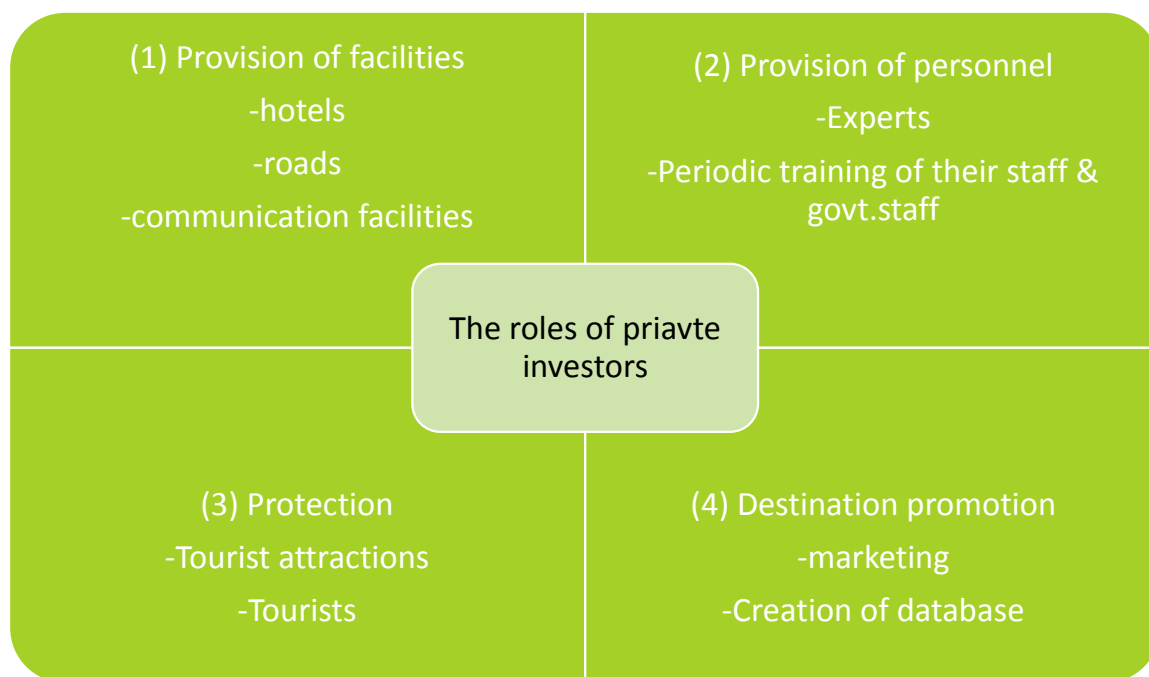


Figure 3 The role of private investors in public private partnership Anambra State

The private sector in the PPP agreement should provide the following: infrastructure and roads (because the roads) leading to these attractions are un-tarred, provide adequate man-power, sponsor trainings for staff and tourism stakeholders, safeguard tourist attractions against misuse by host communities and tourists. The private sector should manage the advertisement of tourist attractions in the State.

Table 2: Variants of Public Private Partnership

S/No.	Schemes	Modalities
1.	Build-own-operate (BOO) Build-develop-operate (BDO) Design-construct-manage-finance (DCMF)	The private sector design, builds, owns, develops, operates and manages an asset with no obligation to transfer ownership to the government. These are variants of design-build-finance-operate (DBFO) schemes.
2.	Buy-build-operate (BBO) Lease-develop-operate (LDO) Wrap-around addition (WAA)	The private sector buys or leases an existing asset from the government, renovates, modernizes, and/or expands it, and then operates the assets, again with no obligation to transfer ownership back to the government.
3.	Build-operate-transfer (BOT) Build-own-operate-transfer (BOOT) Build-rent-own-transfer (BROT) Build-lease-operate-transfer (BLOT) Build-transfer-operate (BTO)	The private sector designs and builds an asset, operates it, and then transfers it to the government when the operating contract ends, or at some other pre-specified time. The private partner may subsequently rent or lease the asset from the government.

Source: International Monetary Fund (2004).

Build-Operate-Own (BOO) seems to be a better option for developing ecotourism in Anambra for the following reasons: (i) tenured nature of government (four years) (ii) build-operate-own will give the managers opportunity to employ best hands instead of government employment that is usually marred with bias and corrupt practices.

## 5. Implication

The study fills a gap on dearth of scholarly work on PPP and ecotourism development in Anambra State. The study highlights the roles of government and private investors in employing PPP to develop eco-tourism attractions and serve as a model for policymakers, government, relevant stakeholders and neighboring States and researchers.

## 6. Conclusion

Given the afore-written status of these natural attractions, due to government attitude in the form of neglect and poor funding, the authors argue that PPP is a potential strategy for developing ecotourism attractions in Anambra State.

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# Collaboration and sensitisation as strategies for community involvement in Nigeria's event tourism development: The Abia State Example

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## Abstract

The purpose of the paper is to discuss the importance of collaboration and sensitisation as strategies for community involvement in Nigeria's event tourism development, using Abia State as a case study. These strategies are important because event tourism is still nascent in Nigeria. Ekpe Masquerade Festival was used as the event that could be used for tourism development. This paper takes a qualitative research approach, adopting an ethnographic standpoint. Two communities were selected - Umunkpeyi and Isingwu in Abia State of South-eastern Nigeria as areas for in-depth discussion. Interviews and focus group techniques were used to elicit information from the organisers of the Festival and the State tourism board. The study identified challenges facing event tourism development in Abia State. These include poor administrative framework, poor planning, lack of skills, poor security network, weak partnership communication among stakeholders, lack of tourism facilities and infrastructure, poor access road and poor funding. Most of these issues are not peculiar to the study areas but are also applicable at the national level. These findings lend credence to the need for collaboration and sensitisation as strategies for stimulating community involvement in developing event tourism. This is an original paper which is of great importance because event tourism in Nigeria is a new area of study. The findings discussed in the paper are original reports from a fieldwork conducted during a PhD research by the first author. This paper is invaluable to future researchers who may wish to work on event tourism. The study will also be beneficial to government agencies at the national level, Abia State Tourism Board, policy makers and the local people.

## Keywords

event tourism, collaboration, sensitisation, community involvement, sustainability, Abia State

### 1. Introduction

In the last ten years, there has been an increased interest in event tourism (Getz, 1997; Whitford & Ruhanen, 2013). Reasons for such interest include an understanding of events as tools for promoting tourism, marketing destinations, enhancing destination image, strengthening cultural identity, and building communal relationships. Events are special kind of social activities used in giving deeper meanings and contributing to local economy. Having noted this, event tourism studies is more developed in the Western world more than emerging economies. This is because event tourism as a field of study in the Western world has a longer history of development than the emerging economies.

Event tourism, just as tourism itself is a new branch of tourism in Nigeria. This point has been highlighted by Ekechukwu (2012) who noted that whilst tourism has been practiced in one form or the other in Nigeria, tourism as an academic field of study is a nascent phenomenon. Mahachi-Chatibura & Nare (2017) also supported the argument when they quipped that tourism as an academic or field of study is a new phenomenon. Thus, there is a concern over how the industry can be developed and sustained in Nigeria. It is important that the event tourism in Nigeria be developed to attract and enjoy the benefits that accrue from it. However, such may not be achieved if there is a wide gap between actions and intentions towards the development process. This realisation therefore underscores the need for collaboration and sensitisation in the development process.

As used in the study, collaboration is the process whereby stakeholders agree to work together in achieving a set goal (Jamal & Getz, 1995). Sensitisation refers to an awareness campaign to educate people to embrace innovative or creative ways of thinking or doing things (Zulu, n.d). These two concepts have important roles to play in the event tourism development process because they contribute to empowerment of the local people. Tosun (2000) has argued that community participation is a means of empowering and educating the local people in the tourism development process. Such consciousness and empowerment will



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position the local people better for making informed decision about event tourism development, especially in an emerging economy such as Nigeria.

Using Abia State as a case study, this empirical case study examines the importance of collaboration and sensitisation as viable strategies to secure local peoples' involvement in event tourism development. The paper argues that collaboration does not come automatically but requires sensitisation which will educate the local people about event tourism. Whilst these strategies are not an assurance of sustainable event tourism in Abia State, they will offer a platform for meaningful discussion amongst the stakeholders. In Abia State, there are challenges facing event tourism development. These challenges are multiplied because of lack of government support in event planning and the local people's understanding about tourism. Thus, there are nuanced views between the State Tourism Board (STB), local people and other stakeholders who supposed to serve as active players in the development process.

## 2. Literature Review

### 2.1 *Collaboration and sensitisation in tourism development*

Authors have asserted that whilst stakeholder collaboration is complex because of factors such as time consuming, power limitation and mistrust, which can hinder the implementation process (Getz & Jamal, 1995; McComb, Boyd & Boluk, 2016; Saito & Ruhanen, 2017), it aids in sharing of ideas in a tourism destination (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005). As a tourism destination begins to mature, dialogue among stakeholders with the intent of generating a collective vision, decision-making, reaching a consensus about planning and achieving goals become a necessary process (Richins, 2009; Waayers, Lee & Newsome, 2012). Additionally, the success of stakeholder collaboration is dependent on voice coordination of various stakeholders and equally understanding their salience in a collaborative manner (Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005). Such collaboration helps in sensitising the stakeholders. Although literature on how or whether collaboration has worked in the past are almost non-existent in Nigeria, cases abound on where there are chaos because of lack of collaboration and community involvement in tourism and event planning.

### 2.2 *Community involvement and sensitisation in event tourism*

Lade & Jackson (2004) in their study of Australian festivals observed that early community involvement and support in the event planning process impacted its success. Thus, the more events featured local people early in the planning process they become sensitised and motivated. Community volunteers taking key roles during event planning minimises cost that would have been paid to organisers and other workers (Molloy, 2002). This is because the event is taking place within their environment; hence, it stands a better chance of succeeding because they know what exist in their community to assist and support event planning. Involvement of the local people creates a positive attitude because of the potential outcomes that accrue from event (Boo, Wang, & Yu, 2011). Such will enable event organisers, and local administrations develop efficient strategies for events development and resident participation (Getz, 2005; Letitia, et.al., 2016; Raj *et al.*, 2012).

Community involvement and participation in tourism has received lots of attention. This is because of the contribution to the economic life of the local people, the conservation of their environment and the revitalization of their culture (Cole, 2006; Getz, 1997; Kinyashi, 2006; Moscardo, 2011). Several studies evaluate the reasons and importance of community involvement and participation in event tourism development; and, the need to involve the local people in its planning process (Breugel, 2013; Tosun, 2006; Moscardo, 2007). That said, many studies on community participation in event tourism planning and development

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focused on Western countries, probably because the concepts are westernised. Only few scholars have considered the application of these concepts in the developing countries (Tosun, 2000).

### 3. Methods

This study takes a qualitative research approach through ethnography. Ethnography which is grounded in anthropology is one of the oldest methods of conducting a qualitative research (Holloway, Brown & Shipway, 2010) and gives “voice” to respondents. Its usefulness and approach to events research can lead to a better understanding of events (Holloway, Brown, & Shipway, 2010). The approach entails visiting the research subjects to establish the required rapport needed by the researcher to collect relevant data. The people’s perspectives of using Ekpe Masquerade Festival for event tourism development was purposively selected. The questions covered the planning, community involvement, challenges, opportunities and contributions of stakeholders in event planning.

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with the stakeholders in Umunkpeyi and Isingwu communities of Abia State to elicit first-hand information. Interview is vital because it provides what a qualitative researcher seeks to understand which include an understanding of what people are thinking, doing and why (Roller & Lavrakas, 2015). Categories of stakeholders interviewed during the four-month fieldwork include the local people (organizers of the festival), staff of STB, traditional rulers and village heads. These participants were selected because they can influence and are influenced by the *Ekpe* Masquerade Festival.

For the analysis, the study adopted content analysis (CA). CA helps in identifying patterns, themes, prejudice, biases and meaning using systematic approach to compare and summarise a given data (Camprubi & Coromina, 2016). This analytical approach helped in understanding who said what and why during data collection process

### 4. Findings

The study identified some challenges facing event tourism development in Abia State. These challenges include poor administrative framework, poor planning, lack of event tourism skills, poor security network, lack of partnership/weak communication among stakeholders, lack of tourism facilities and infrastructure, poor access road and poor funding. Most of these issues are not peculiar to the study area but transcend to the national level. These findings highlight the need for collaboration and sensitisation of the stakeholders as viable strategies for genuine community involvement in developing event tourism. Collaboration will ensure that the local people are part of the planning process, and take up roles such as event tour guide, management of facilities at the destinations and security personnel. Such involvement will also give the people a ‘voice’ in the development process. Most stakeholders interviewed, including the local people believed that collaboration in Abia State is needed for event tourism development.

As regards the role of the STB in the planning of the Festival, respondents observed that they have not been active because of lack of trust between the government and the local people. The lack of trust could be a consequence of the government not recognising the local people in other tourism development projects in the community. Trust is one of the basic components of collaboration among stakeholders in tourism planning (Bramwell & Lane, 2000). Where trust is absent, there will be no cooperation for collective action plan. Respondents believed that awareness should be created to help inform stakeholders through sensitisation programmes. They also argued for collaboration, motivation, restructuring, and making funds available to help tourism thrive in the State. The people noted that it is important that more sensitisation be organised on how to share the benefits from tourism

between the government and the local people. It was gathered from respondents that this method was how collaboration once worked in the past. The idea is to ensure that the local people enjoy the benefits that accrue from tourism since most of them occur in their domain.

## 5. Implications

The findings of this study contribute to existing knowledge. Findings suggest that the sustainability as well as success of event tourism in Abia State is connected to the ability of the stakeholders to work together. This is because the stakeholders can affect and are affected by event tourism development in the State. Event tourism can only develop when stakeholders are adequately sensitised, and their varied ideas and views benefit the industry. As one of the key players, when the community members are overlooked, such neglect affects the growth and sustainability of event tourism. Findings of the study serve as potential reference points to both policy makers, future tourism students and the public.

## 6. Conclusions

This study has examined the contributions of collaboration and sensitisation in event tourism development in Abia State of Nigeria. They are strategies that can help address the many challenges affecting event tourism development. The findings showed how absence of collaboration and lack of skills have affected event tourism growth in Abia State. The mistrust among the local people, STB and the government could be addressed if the stakeholders are sensitised. It was observed that with collaboration and sensitisation, each stakeholder will have an opportunity to present their concerns and have a collective vision. Such strategies are essential in ensuring events tourism sustainability.

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## Communication, custodianship and coming in: Three novel intangible C's to engender community support for conservation at Dinokeng Game Reserve

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### Abstract

A deeper understanding of how to engender community support for conservation is required. Numerous studies have been done on the importance of benefits accruing to local communities, but less on losses and costs incurred by these communities, and the role of intangible benefits and how these may influence attitudes towards conservation. This paper draws from research done at Dinokeng Game Reserve in Gauteng, South Africa, into what engenders support for conservation in the Kekana Gardens community, which borders the reserve. Three key themes are highlighted which cast light on the research gaps. These intangible benefits of communication, custodianship and coming in (access to reserve) could contribute to current knowledge on improving pro-conservation attitudes amongst communities bordering conservation areas, while simultaneously improving human wellbeing in these communities.

### Keywords

Access, communication, community, conservation, custodianship, intangible benefits, losses

#### 1. Introduction

“A deeper understanding of what drives positive conservation behaviour and what hampers it, is needed” (Ferse, Máñez Costa, Máñez, Adhuri, & Glaser, 2010:7). Many studies have been done on the importance of benefits accruing to local community members due to the presence of tourism and conservation initiatives (Tran & Walter, 2014), yet there are gaps in scholarly knowledge on what makes local communities conserve (Imran, Alam, & Beaumont, 2014). Two of these gaps are less studies on losses/costs (Reimer & Walter, 2013); and a greater focus on tangible benefits as opposed to intangibles (Stronza & Gordillo, 2008). This paper draws from research done at Dinokeng Game Reserve (DGR), Gauteng, into what engenders support for conservation in the Kekana Gardens community bordering the reserve. It pulls out three key themes that cast light on the abovementioned research gaps, namely communication, custodianship and coming into the reserve as tourists.

#### 2. Literature review

To engender local support for conservation, the provision of benefits and minimising losses/costs to local people living alongside conservation areas is proposed (Burgoyne & Mearns, 2017). It is therefore necessary to know what communities perceive as being benefits and losses.

*Tangible benefits* seem to provide communities with vested interest in conserving the land (Mbaiwa, 2005) and include employment (Shibia, 2010) and multiple livelihood strategies (Gurung & Seeland, 2011). The ideal is to improve living standards so locals are not entirely dependent on proximate natural resources for survival (Snyman, 2014). However, use of natural resources is often an important tangible benefit (Waylen, Fischer, McGowan, Thirgood & Milner-Gulland, 2010).

*Intangible benefits* are also significant in engendering support for conservation. These include unity and learning as a community (Campbell, Haalboom & Trow, 2007); ideas exchange, training and empowerment (Gadd, 2005); and social improvement benefits' such as clinics (Burgoyne & Mearns, 2017). Matarrita-Cascante, Brennan & Luloff (2010) refer to relationships,

interaction and communication as vital intangibles. To concur, Moswete, Thapa and Child (2012) found that limited communication regarding what was going on in the park negatively affected attitudes towards conservation. Educating the community on tourism, resource use and environmental impacts also appears to be important (Imran *et al.*, 2014).

In terms of *losses/costs*, these include human-wildlife conflict (Karanth & Nepal, 2012); restricted/denied access to natural resources (Bennett & Dearden, 2014); increased prices of goods/services due to tourism (Lee, 2013); and conflict between visitors and locals (Lee, 2013) and park management and locals (Gurung & Seeland, 2011). Other costs relate to loss of cultural identity and values (Stronza & Gordillo, 2008).

### 3. Research design and methodology

The research design was qualitative, borrowing from interpretivism and pragmatism and using multiple methods. While quantitative research in this field is common, qualitative was chosen to explore participants opinions underlying and influencing attitudes towards the natural environment (Roulston, 2014).

DGR is a public-private partnership between provincial government and private landowners. Participants lived in Kekana Gardens, the community closest to DGR and one which the reserve has worked closest with. Via a community leader, participants were chosen (aged 18 or over and a mix of age and gender), leading to a non-probability purposive sample of thirteen participants. A local translator was used to reduce researcher bias and set participants at ease.

The methods utilised were focus group interviews (FGI) and adapted nominal grouping technique (NGT). For FGI, the larger group self-divided into two groups, who had separate interviews, providing more opportunity for patterns to emerge. NGT was conducted with the two groups together. It is a consensus method helpful when synthesising individual opinions and seeking multiple answers, in this case benefits and losses. Participants received several sticky notes, and could generate as many answers/opinions as they wished as individuals. They stuck the notes on a large paper and together organised them into categories, followed by voting on which categories were most significant. The research instrument was developed by the primary researcher, and is provided in Table 1, along with the data gathering method for each question.

*Table 1. Research instrument and data gathering method*

Q	Question	Data gathering method
1	What do you know about this nature reserve? What is inside this nature reserve? What can you do in there?	FGI
2	Tell me about the relationship between you and the nature reserve. How do you feel about living near the nature reserve?	FGI
3	How has the nature reserve changed the way you live (positive and negative)? How have things changed?	FGI
4	Some people like this nature reserve and the animals. Some people think there are better ways to use this land. What would make you more positive towards the nature reserve being here over the next 100 years, that is, down to the time of your great grandchildren?	FGI
5	What do your friends and family think about this nature reserve?	FGI
6	Who of you have been into the reserve? How many times a year? What do you go in for? What did you think of your experience?	FGI
7	Do you have any responsibilities for this nature reserve? If you do, how do you feel about these?	FGI
8	What are the benefits of having this nature reserve near to your home? Which of those benefits are most important to you? Which are least important?	NGT
9	What are the losses/costs of having this nature reserve near to your home? Which of those costs impact the most on you? Which ones impact the least?	NGT
10	For you, living near this nature reserve, what is your ideal future for your community? What is your dream situation?	FGI

*Key: FGI = Focus group interview; NGT = Nominal grouping technique; Q = Question*

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A Computer Assisted Data Analysis System (CAQDAS) package, ATLAS.ti (Version 7.0) was used to manage data and organise analysis. Within ATLAS.ti the FGI recordings were transcribed; and for NGT, each note formed a single document. Open and inductive coding was done, resulting in a code set for each question.

During analysis, the overriding prevalent themes that cut across data and across different questions were identified. These are supported by quotes - the data in qualitative studies. Three of these are drawn on for this paper, based on the research gaps and novelty of the findings.

## 4. Findings

### 4.1 Communication

The importance of communication between DGR and the community emerged as a key intangible benefit that participants felt they lacked. This emerged in Q1, 2, 3, 4 and 5, and was voted as the most significant loss in Q9, with notes stating *“Living near Dinokeng with no information about the reserve”*; *“We want to know the boss of Dinokeng”*, etc. Under Q1, it was the most mentioned theme, with participants lamenting lack of communication regarding animals, learning opportunities and lodges inside, e.g.:

*“We don’t know which kind of animals are there. Some don’t even know there are animals in there...”*

*“We’ve got school kids who are not exposed to the game reserve.... Those kids or any community member should have full information about the game reserve, how do they get access to see those animals, because this is going to help kids ...to advance education-wise”*.

In Q3, participants touched on a sense of exclusion, with others having access and information, but not them: *“...it has changed negatively because the game reserve doesn’t provide us with information, more especially ourselves, the surrounding residents. They should let us know when are the special events. ...give us special [deals] ...People from far away know the exact time of coming to view. They know - this month we’ll be able to see the birds .this month we can go to do this ...but we’ll not get information on that, ...and we are residing just around the game reserve. So I don’t think it’s a good thing”*. Negativity is again linked to lack of communication in Q5, e.g.: *“People are not going to love something they don’t know about, but they might go for it if they have information”*. Under Q4, community members ask again for information, e.g.:

*“If you give me information, it will help. I understand that you protect animals and me - not only animals. I know you value me”*.

*“Information is the bottom line. Education is essential and this will explode from village to village”*.

While the importance of communication has been found in other studies such as Moswete *et al.* (2012), what is novel about this ‘C’ for managers of conservation areas is that, unlike other benefits such as employment, it is not expensive to implement, but could significantly engender more support for conservation.

### 4.2 Custodianship

Custodianship refers to communities feeling a sense of concern and responsibility for the conservation area they border. While only emerging in Q7, this data is significant because it is a novel finding. While Nsabimana and Spencer (2013) and Rodríguez-Izquierdo, Gavin and Macedo-Bravo (2010) found that being responsible for park management was important for the success of

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community conservation initiatives, no reference could be found to the importance of communities feeling a sense of responsibility towards a protected area.

The data shows that the community clearly feel a sense of responsibility and want to know who to report to should there be a problem that endangers the reserve or community. Participants feel responsible for the boundary wall, with the majority of quotes demonstrating the desire to protect the reserve. This is positive, especially considering that this sense of custodianship is self-imposed and not expected by DGR, as revealed in discussions with the reserve manager and landowners. Two examples follow:

*“I live just next to the wall. If someone messes with my wall .I must confront and act. I have a responsibility for that line”.*

*“No one told me to do it [protect the wall], but since I’m one of the community leaders, I feel that it is the right thing to do (for myself and others)”.*

Participants also revealed uncertainty regarding who to call if there is a problem. An escaped animal can potentially be a life-threatening situation for locals. It is essential for a good relationship that they feel safe and empowered regarding what to do. This could be fairly easily addressed by distributing information cards to those living near the wall and covering this in educational initiatives. With this information, residents may feel more empowered (encouraging custodianship) and less at risk, resulting in less animals being harmed.

#### 4.3 Coming in

Coming in refers to locals visiting and enjoying DGR as tourists. In this research, it surfaced as a real desire, with only four of 13 participants having entered. This ‘C’ is a novel finding because the authors could only find one other reference – Lee (2013) – who mentions increased opportunities for leisure and tourism for community members as an intangible benefit.

The theme of locals wanting to enter DGR emerged in Q1, 3, 5, 6, 8 and 10. Under Q1, quotes relate to not understanding the logistics of entering and the desire to see animals and learn, e.g.: *“...though we are closer to the lodge, we never see [the animals]. To my sight it’s actually a crisis, because we should know about those things [because] we are the people who are surrounded by those things...”*. In Q3, quotes relate to no longer being able to walk through DGR (due to Big Five), feeling excluded (while others enter) and cost implications (as most community members would not own a car), e.g.: *“Because time before I would have a chance just to travel here and back without being restricted. I was .doing that. So I think it’s a negative thing because [now] I can see only people are coming from far away”*. Q5 echoes this: *“...It will be good if the local people can go and watch the animals”*. The desire to enter Dinokeng resurges again under Q10, with a participant wishing children could enter for free and another desiring lower fees for locals: *“I was just thinking of ourselves living around the game reserve -we should be charged a lesser amount compared to people coming from far, in terms of fees to get inside...”*.

Q6 covered the few who had been into the reserve and their experiences. They were very positive, expressing enjoyment of functions attended and activities undertaken, and positive feelings regarding being treated well, peacefulness and sense of security. Visiting DGR was highly valued, e.g.:

*“You are free to have good parties. It works well. You learn more when you are inside. You can go on a game drive and you learn. You can do team building, cook for yourselves. You learn things”.*

*“It’s quite nice. There’s no noise there as we experience noise. Yes, no noise. We hear the birds and then a bit of singing”.*



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In Q3 and 8, accessing DGR emerged as a positive change and benefit respectively. NGT notes alluded to relaxing and seeing animals, e.g.: “Taking our kids to see the Big Five”; and “We are going to have access to go inside and have fun and see animals”.

## 5. Implications and conclusions

A deeper understanding of what engenders community support for conservation is required. Part of this is determining which benefits and losses matter most to communities bordering conservation areas. The research gaps showed that attention to losses and intangible benefits is required. In the ‘three C’ themes focused on, the losses of ‘Lack of communication’ and ‘Lack of access as a tourist’ were evident, yet not mentioned in literature as losses. In addition, communication and access (as well as custodianship) can be viewed as valuable intangible benefits, showing the importance of protected area managers focusing on intangibles and not merely the obvious tangible of employment.

The clear request by the community for *communication* from DGR suggests that having this can improve attitudes towards the reserve and reduce the sense of exclusion. The community desire this, because with more communication, they will understand the importance of the reserve/animals, and findings indicate that they really want to understand. This is significant because it is a need that can be fairly easily met – ongoing communication regarding what is going on inside, how locals can be involved and imparting knowledge on animals and conservation. While employment is important, for a reserve with budget constraints, more communication could do much to encourage positivity towards DGR.

A self-imposed sense of *custodianship* towards DGR appears to increase a sense of involvement, resulting in direct positive behaviour. For the sake of the community and reserve, this responsibility should be encouraged in educational initiatives. This may encourage a sense of ownership and having a part to play, which could impact on support for conservation.

Regarding the final ‘C’, *coming into/accessing* DGR (particularly seeing animals and going to lodges for functions) appears to be an important benefit for locals, creating positive attitudes towards the conservation area. Simultaneously, the lack of access experienced by participants cause negativity. This finding has implications for managers, who should consider how to increase access for locals. DGR already brings in school children on game drives, but could this programme be extended and shared out amongst landowners? Could special deals (e.g. dinner and game drive) be offered to locals or dual pricing implemented?

Engendering community support for conservation is vital for the survival of these areas in future and to ensure win-win solutions whereby wellbeing in local communities is also improved. While these three novel intangible C’s have provided some illumination, more research is needed to build a comprehensive picture of how to encourage community support for biodiversity conservation.

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# Co-creation in the Kruger National Park: Customer-driven improvement and satisfaction of the Lower Sabie safari tented accommodation

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## Abstract

As an exploratory study, this paper aimed to investigate if, and to what extent collecting customer inputs, in addition to existing data from periodic customer satisfaction surveys, provide ancillary support to management decision-making in the design of innovative products in the context of wildlife tourism. By using two different data sets, the researcher compares the customer satisfaction performance of the newly refurbished safari tented accommodation in the Lower Sabie rest camp in the Kruger National Park against those of the old units. Results from both the standard guest feedback survey and a customised survey indicate satisfaction with accommodation-related aspects among guests staying in the refurbished units were significantly different from those who stayed in the old units, which indicate the two sources of data were in communion with regards to improvement of the quality of the product. Data from the standard guest feedback data however had several limitations for interpretation by management. Few studies have sought to evaluate different methods of incorporating customer inputs for product improvement in the context of wildlife tourism. The findings in this paper strengthens the case for customer driven improvement in wildlife tourism products and calls for a better understanding of the constructs influencing customer satisfaction in wildlife tourism.

## Keywords

customer-driven improvement; customer satisfaction; co-creation; product improvement; wildlife tourism;

### 1. Introduction

Customer participation in the creation of new products and services is a strategy commonly employed by companies to encourage innovation, increase the potential performance of products and develop a competitive advantage for the organisation (Song, Song & Benedetto, 2011). While periodically gathering customer feedback through formal customer satisfaction measurement tools is a widely adopted practice in tourism (Ritchie & Ritchie, 2002), the systems and processes of collecting customer inputs during the development of new innovative products and improving existing products are less well developed (Grissemann, Pikkemaat & Weger, 2013). The use of such co-creation methods, and its accompanying tools and measures needs further investigation both from a theoretical and managerial perspective. Whether performed through traditional market research or new innovative tools, customers' perspectives and opinions should be honoured as a valid contributor to innovative products and services in tourism (Grissemann *et al.*, 2013).

A slow degradation over many years of the condition of the safari tents in the Lower Sabie rest camp in the south of Kruger National Park (KNP) and accompanying customer complaints received by South African National Parks (SANParks) compelled management to expedite the upgrading of the tourism infrastructure.



Figure 1: Old (left) and new (right) safari tents in the Lower Sabie rest camp, Kruger National Park  
Source: SANParks

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Apart from upgrading, the intention was to improve the architectural design of the product and prolong the durability of the tents through innovative features. Improving the product, while at the same time still offering a quality, “close to nature” experience, was the main objective. The process of redesigning and refurbishment of the infrastructure was initiated and informed mainly by management perspectives. However, after the rebuilding of the first five units, management requested the Visitor Services unit of SANParks to gather customer inputs on various aspects of the new accommodation infrastructure. This paper is a comparative analysis between the results emanating from a customised survey measuring satisfaction with the Lower Sabie safari tents, and data received from the SANParks standard guest feedback system.

## 2. Literature review

### 2.1 *Customer satisfaction and service quality in national parks*

Providing satisfactory nature-based recreational tourist experiences, which influences tourists’ decisions to return, play an important role in gathering societal support for protected areas (Weaver & Lawton, 2011; Žabkar, Brenčič & Dmitrović, 2010). Satisfaction with experiences in parks and other protected areas has been strongly linked to the supply of facilities and services (Taplin, Roger & Moore, 2016). Data on tourists’ characteristics and expectations is crucial to inform management decisions regarding facilities and services that help shape such visitor experiences (Tonge, Moore & Taplin, 2011).

Customer loyalty in nature-based tourism and its driving forces, of which customer satisfaction is a major contributor, is receiving increased academic attention. An array of methods, theories and techniques have been used to measure customer satisfaction with leisure experiences, however surveys are the most commonly applied method globally for national parks (Tonge *et al.*, 2011) and provides a way for management to determine whether desired conditions and objectives are being met (Moore, Roger & Taplin, 2015).

The concepts of satisfaction and service quality are often used interchangeably, but most researchers view satisfaction as an outcome of service quality (Žabkar *et al.*, 2010). While satisfaction is considered the emotive reactions from visitors following the experience with a destination, service quality is seen as the perceived level of quality of the services and facilities available (Baker & Crompton, 2000; Žabkar *et al.*, 2010).

### 2.2 *User-driven innovation in tourism*

The art of consulting with and learning from customers in the process of service delivery in hospitality and tourism could be highly influential, however few organisations have formal and systematic processes in place to gather inputs from customers (Hjalager & Nordon, 2011). Recent studies in the travel industry have confirmed a positive and significant relationship between customer co-creation and new product performance (Tseng & Chiung, 2016) and customer co-creation and customer satisfaction (Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauerhaver, 2012).

Collaboration with customers can increase the capabilities of organisations (Tseng & Chiung, 2016). Better understanding and responding to customers’ needs with regards to new product development is necessary for a competitive advantage (Song *et al.*, 2011), especially in protected area planning where management and visitor perceptions of facilities, designs and locations can differ substantially (Graham *et al.*, 1988). By taking part in an organisation’s innovation process, customers can influence its

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innovative performance and profitability through the supply of information that improve its products, services and processes (Hjalager & Nordon, 2011).

Hjalager and Nordon (2011) evaluated literature concerning user-driven innovation in tourism and concluded the concept is rather new with little academic coverage, especially on the topic of systematic approaches that include customers in product development strategies. The authors describe sixteen different methods for user-driven innovation, however point out little is known regarding the efficacy of these methods. More research and guidance would also be needed to inform protected area managers on the resources required (skills, budgets) to implement each of the sixteen methods proposed by the authors.

### 3. Methods

#### 3.1 Primary data

As part of a customised survey, guests who stayed in both the refurbished and old safari tents during the period 1 November 2016 to 31 January 2017 were asked to evaluate various aspects related to their experience with the accommodation. A total of 142 fully completed questionnaires were received of which 93 respondents stayed in the old tents and 49 in the refurbished tents.

Using the Net Promotor Score (NPS) (Reichheld, 2006), respondents indicated their likelihood of them recommending the Safari Tented accommodation to a friend, family member or colleague. Next, satisfaction with fifteen items related to the physical attributes of the accommodation was measured on a 5 point Likert scale (1 =“Completely disagree”; 5=“Completely agree”). Lastly, respondents were asked to mention anything that would make their stay more in the new safari tents.

#### 3.2 Secondary data

Feedback from guests staying in safari tents in the Lower Sabie rest camp from the 1st of August 2016 up until the 30th of April 2017 was obtained from the SANParks guest feedback system.

On a scale of “poor”, “fair”, “good” or “excellent” (recoded 1 to 4 with 1 representing poor and 4 excellent), guests rated their level of satisfaction with various items relating to their stay in the Park. Guests were also provided opportunity to comment on any aspects in nine open ended questions. This subset of data produced 241 records deemed usable for comparison, of which 207 represented stays in the old tents and 34 in the refurbished tents.

#### 3.3 Data analysis

The two data sets were compared to ascertain whether similar conclusions could be drawn regarding the differences in performance of the two products. For the majority of items measured, independent sample *t*-tests were performed to test for significant differences between the means of the two samples. To test for differences in proportions of two samples, in the case of two of items, the z-test was performed (data from the ‘unit well maintained’ and ‘will make use of the facilities again’ contained categorical (yes/no) data).

Feedback obtained from open ended answers of guests staying in the refurbished tents from both datasets were systemically analysed and grouped into four categories (see Table 3). The percentage of comments in each category were compared between the two data sets.

#### 4. Findings

The results from the customised survey, displayed in Table 1 indicate sentiments regarding the refurbished units differed significantly from those associated with the old units. The majority of respondents who stayed in the refurbished units were satisfied with all fifteen elements measured and strongly indicated an intention to recommend the accommodation to family and friends (Net Promotor score averaged 9.02 out of 10).

Only one item did not display a significant difference between the two samples - the unit's perceived readiness on arrival. Even in the case of the cleanliness and tidiness of units, the refurbished units scored significantly different from the old units which could point to a perception of cleanliness when infrastructure feels and looks new and fresh, rather than any actual difference in the quality of cleaning services.

*Table 1: Results of independent sample t-test of customised survey data*

Item	Old units Mean	Refurbished units Mean	<i>t</i> -statistic	<i>p</i> -value (two tailed)
<b>Net Promotor Score (NPS)</b>	<b>6.17</b>	<b>9.02</b>	<b>-6.4780</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
Unit available and ready on arrival	4.53	4.69	-1.0825	0.2817
<b>Unit clean and tidy</b>	<b>4.05</b>	<b>4.61</b>	<b>-3.6124</b>	<b>0.0004***</b>
<b>Linen was of good quality</b>	<b>3.73</b>	<b>4.67</b>	<b>-7.3993</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Quality furniture and fittings</b>	<b>2.92</b>	<b>4.45</b>	<b>-9.4109</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Unit is good value for money</b>	<b>3.27</b>	<b>4.42</b>	<b>-6.961</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Unit well maintained</b>	<b>2.51</b>	<b>4.42</b>	<b>-10.451</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Space for unpacking foodstuffs</b>	<b>3.24</b>	<b>4.43</b>	<b>-8.721</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Enough counter space in kitchen</b>	<b>3.44</b>	<b>4.27</b>	<b>-5.0564</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Variety and amount of utensils provided in kitchen are adequate</b>	<b>3.54</b>	<b>4.10</b>	<b>-3.2697</b>	<b>0.0014***</b>
<b>Layout of kitchen functional</b>	<b>3.45</b>	<b>4.58</b>	<b>-8.1013</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Layout of bedroom is functional</b>	<b>3.77</b>	<b>4.57</b>	<b>-5.8309</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Space for unpacking other belongings is adequate</b>	<b>3.5</b>	<b>4.40</b>	<b>-5.8025</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Space for unpacking clothes is adequate</b>	<b>3.51</b>	<b>4.43</b>	<b>-5.8289</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Layout of the bathroom is functional</b>	<b>3.84</b>	<b>4.59</b>	<b>-6.0028</b>	<b>0.0000***</b>
<b>Space for unpacking toiletries is adequate</b>	<b>3.65</b>	<b>4.00</b>	<b>-1.8825</b>	<b>0.0629*</b>
	<i>n</i> =93	<i>n</i> =49		

*Notes: \*\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level; \* Significant at the 0.1 level*

A similar picture emerged from the official guest feedback data (Table 2), even though less items were present in the data collection instrument to measure satisfaction with the product design, layout and quality. Satisfaction with the quality of the linen, the furniture and fittings as well as respondents' perception of whether the unit was good value for money were significantly different between the two samples. This was also the case in the perception of whether the unit was well maintained.

Table 2: Results of independent sample t-test of official guest feedback data

Item	Old units Mean	Refurbished units Mean	t-statistic	p-value (two-tail)
Overall experience	3.36	3.36	-0.0064	0.9949
Overall nature experience	3.63	3.67	-0.4335	0.6663
Unit ready on arrival	3.52	3.71	-1.5556	0.1265
Unit clean and tidy	3.25	3.47	-1.3469	0.1848
<b>Linen (bed and bath) of good quality</b>	<b>3.08</b>	<b>3.50</b>	<b>-2.7695</b>	<b>0.0079***</b>
<b>Furniture and fittings of good quality</b>	<b>2.51</b>	<b>3.24</b>	<b>-3.8597</b>	<b>0.0004***</b>
<b>Accommodation good value for money</b>	<b>2.64</b>	<b>3.24</b>	<b>-3.274</b>	<b>0.002***</b>
	Proportion of guests who agree	Proportion of guests who agree	z-statistic	p-value (two-tail)
<b>Unit well maintained</b>	<b>65%</b>	<b>81%</b>	<b>-1.9464</b>	<b>0.0516*</b>
Will make use of the facilities again	94%	95%	-0.0890	0.9291
	n=207	n=34		

Notes: \*\*\* Significant at the 0.01 level; \* Significant at the 0.1 level

In both data sets, satisfaction among guests staying in the new units were significantly different from those staying in the old units, which indicate the two sources of data were in communion with regards to improvement of the quality of the product.

A simple comparison of the proportion of qualitative comments per category (Table 3), indicates, as expected, few of the guest comments from the official guest feedback involved suggestions for the improvement of the product. In fact, the 'Other' category was the single largest category of comments originating from the guest feedback.

Table 3: Analysis of qualitative feedback received from guests staying in refurbished tents - % of comments per category

	Official guest feedback	Custom survey
Helpful in understanding guest sentiments towards accommodation	26%	31%
Helpful towards product improvement	18%	44%
Comments about maintenance or cleanliness	15%	18%
Other	41%	7%
Total number of comments	116	127

This was to be expected given that the purpose of the custom survey was conveyed to respondents and questions tailored specifically towards prompting for suggestions toward product improvement.

## 5. Implications

The results above indicate both the data from standard guest feedback survey and the custom survey revealed significant differences in satisfaction of guests staying in the refurbished and old units. Thus both informed managers of an improvement in the performance of the product category post refurbishment. If however, no major improvement in accommodation items' satisfaction levels were realised, the data from the guest feedback survey would have offered limited value in determining specific areas of dissatisfaction, limiting the ability of management to interpret the results effectively.

The qualitative data obtained from the customised survey was considered more helpful in describing guest sentiments regarding the new units and in providing recommendations for further product improvements.

An interesting finding from the results obtained from the guest feedback system was that, although satisfaction with the accommodation differed significantly between the two types of accommodation, no significant differences were found between the two samples with respect to satisfaction with the nature experience and overall satisfaction with the experience of visiting the

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Park. For both guests staying in the old and refurbished tents, the overall visitor satisfaction and satisfaction with their nature experience was, on average considered *good* and *excellent* respectively. A potential explanation for this could be that the influence of non-accommodation related quality aspects of the experience (for example the nature experience or consumption emotions) on customer satisfaction levels was large enough to have a mediating effect on the negative experience of staying in the dilapidated tents.

## 6. Conclusion

While a range of methods are available for incorporating customer inputs into the development of wildlife tourism products, managers of national parks need additional guidance and resources to implement many of them. Standard guest feedback surveys provide limited insights on the performance of the new product and are reactive in nature. Planning ahead by incorporating user-driven innovation services into the product's architectural design phase could be one way of obtaining the financial resources necessary for implementation of alternative methods.

Future studies involving structural equation modelling could be conducted to uncover the individual variables and the contribution of each to customer satisfaction in a wildlife tourism context, better informing the SANParks' customer satisfaction measurement instrument.

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# Evaluating the effectiveness of rock art interpretation as a sustainable tourism resource at Bushmans Kloof, South Africa

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## Abstract

Environmental interpretation is seen as a vehicle for implementing sustainable development. Heritage sites such as Bushmans Kloof have no significance without the people who created them in the past or people who value them today. The sustainability of rock art tourism is vulnerable to miss use and degradation through poor interpretation and is therefore dependant on the way guides interpret rock art sites. The lack of research on the role of environmental interpretation especially in rock art tourism in South Africa can have a negative impact on the management of this resource in the future. This case study will measure the effectiveness of interpretation of Rock Art sites at Bushmans Kloof to show if effective interpretation aids in the sustainability of rock art as a tourism resource.

## Keywords

Rock art, interpretation, Bushmanskloof

### 1. Introduction

The growing tourism industry in South Africa places additional stress on resources. It is therefore important for environmental and tourism managers to conserve resources in the long-term. Public interest in rock art tourism has risen over the years. Rock art research has focussed primarily on the preservation and management and has been addressed mainly by heritage managers whilst research on generating profit has come from those developing rock art tourism products (Deacon, 2006). Bushmanskloof Wilderness Reserve is situated in the Cederberg Mountains in the Western Cape Province of South Africa. It is the proud custodian of 130 rock art sites and offers daily guided rock art excursions for its guests, making it one of the best areas to visit a variety of rock art sites in the country. The rock art sites are used by the lodge as a valuable resource to attract visitors. These sites are vulnerable to erosion and are often vandalized if left unprotected. Rock art in general are often misinterpreted by viewers from different cultural backgrounds. Because of the sensitive nature of this resource, monitoring of institutions that currently use rock art as a resource will prove to be vitally important to ensure the sustainable use of rock art sites in the future.

Environmental interpretation is considered a vehicle for sustainable development as it minimizes the adverse environmental and social impacts of tourism by creating pro-environmental attitudes and behaviour within tourists (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013). The role of interpretation in ecotourism as well as heritage tourism plays a major role in sustainable tourism. Interpretation can be used as a tool which may influence visitor attitudes and behaviour towards environmental issues. The role of interpretation in tourism has been studied extensively and unfortunately the majority of the studies have shown mixed results (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013). In South Africa, ecotourism as well as heritage tourism is seen as the way forward to ensure sustainable tourism. The role of the guide as environmental interpreter and motivator for environmental responsible behaviour has been emphasized in previous studies (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013; Randall & Rollins, 2009). The need to preserve heritage and a change in the current management system of using rock art sites as a tourism resource has also been emphasized (Duval & Smith, 2012). Guided excursions in naturally sensitive and fragile areas are a favoured method of minimizing tourism impact on the environment. Guided interpretation has been identified as a core activity to achieve the goals of sustainable tourism (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013). Bushmans Kloof Wilderness Reserve and Wellness Retreat conduct interpretive morning rock art excursions on a daily basis. Little is known about the views of the tourists who visit the sites and what they think of the guide's interpretation of these sites. Rock art is an important and fragile tourism resource in South Africa. Visitors who visit rock art sites who are uneducated

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may have a negative impact on this fragile resource. An evaluation of the guided rock art excursions at Bushmans Kloof may provide answers on preserving fragile rock art sites and allowing maximum visitation, and creating environmental awareness, thus achieving the goals of sustainable tourism. The aim of this study is to evaluate the role interpretation has played during rock art excursions at Bushmans Kloof. Analysing visitor's perceptions on rock art interpretation before and after the visit will also assist with resource management of rock art and the natural environment.

## 2. Literature Review

Tourism is progressively being used by national parks and conservation areas to generate revenue and help ensure their long-term economic sustainability (Weaver 2000). Tourism impacts can now be seen as similar to other impacts of development. Concern for the environmental consequences of tourism due to a growing world population has grown over the years. Tourists often rely on interpretation from others to understand and contextualise what they experience. Understanding these experiences will give a greater understanding on tourism behaviour as well as the sustainability of these activities.

One way to reduce environmental impacts is through the use of tour guides. Tour guides have the potential to contribute to the conservation of natural areas as well as educate visitors through environmental interpretation and modelling environmentally appropriate behaviour (Randall & Rollins, 2009). Interpretive guided experiences can be used as an important tool for delivering messages about minimal impact, heritage values, conservation and protected areas management. From the visitor's perspective, environmental messages were received but messages can be more clear. Conservation messages and messages of value did go through but messages about minimising visitor's impacts in protected areas were low and should be of some concern to area managers (Armstrong & Weiler, 2003).

Environmental interpretation is considered a vehicle for sustainable tourism. It minimizes the adverse environmental and social impacts of tourism by creating pro-environmental attitudes and behaviours (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013). Previous studies on the effectiveness of various forms of interpretation in transforming attitudes and behaviours of tourists have produced mixed results. Although a large number of studies have been conducted on the effectiveness of interpretation, research examining the influence of interpretive tour guiding in sustainable tourism is virtually non-existent (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013). Guided tourists were more aware of environmental and social impact. No significant difference was found between attitudes regarding learning about nature and local culture (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013).

Roberts, Mearns and Edwards (2014) considered the effectiveness of interpretive provision in mitigating the harmful effects of tourism on the environment. The four key goals of interpretation was used namely visitor satisfaction, knowledge gain, attitude change and modification of behaviour intent, in the assessment of the relevant effectiveness of guided and non-guided interpretation in the Kruger National Park, South Africa (Roberts *et al.*, 2014). The study revealed that although visitor satisfaction levels were higher in guided interpretation, the other three goals of interpretation, namely knowledge gain, attitude change and intent to change behaviour were only marginally different (Roberts *et al.*, 2014). The study has shown that the effectiveness of interpretation can be measured through ascertaining visitor perception in relation to the four main goals of interpretation (Roberts *et al.*, 2014).

Tourists are key stakeholders in sustainable tourism development, and can therefore be used in research to answer important questions regarding sustainable tourism. The role of interpretation in ecotourism as well as heritage tourism plays a major role in sustainable tourism. Interpretation can be used as a tool which may influence visitor attitudes and behaviour towards

environmental issues. The role of the guide as environmental interpreter and motivator for environmental responsible behaviour has been emphasized in previous studies (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013; Randall & Rollins, 2009). The need to preserve heritage and a change in the current management system of using rock art sites as a tourism resource has been emphasized (Duval & Smith, 2012). Roberts *et al.* (2014) showed that effectiveness of interpretation can be measured through ascertaining visitor perception in relation to the four main goals of interpretation. The need to know more about visitor's perceptions about the interpretation of the natural environment as well as heritage sites is used as motivation for this study.

### 3. Methods

The research utilised a pre and a post-visit survey questionnaire to identify visitors perceptions of interpretation, assessed against the four main goals of interpretation, in order to evaluate the effectiveness of guided rock art excursions at Bushmans Kloof. Questionnaires were answered by guests staying at Bushmans Kloof and who went on at least one Rock Art excursion.

### 4. Findings

The discussion of the results follows the four goals of interpretation, namely, (1) visitor satisfaction, (2) knowledge gain, (3) attitude change and (4) intent to modify behaviour.

#### 4.1 Visitor satisfaction

Visitor satisfaction is one of the most common topics examined in the tourism industry. It plays a major role in the survival and future of any tourism product or service (Gursoy, McCleary and Lespito, 2007). Tourism, like any service-orientated industry, must continually strive to meet the demands and expectations of visitors. Higher levels of visitor satisfaction of guests visiting rock art sites at Bushmans Kloof; will influence the likelihood of a repeat visit, visitors may prolong their stay or would refer their experience to a potential visitor.

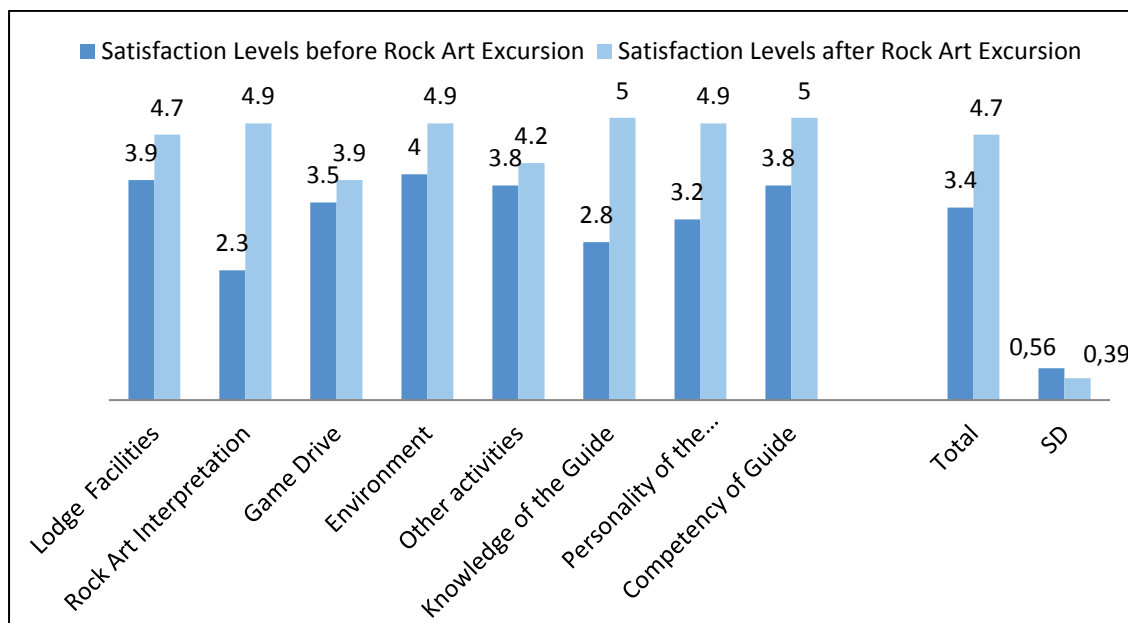


Figure 1. Levels of satisfaction

According to the survey Rock Art interpretation at Bushmans Kloof is more enjoyable than game drives, another interpretive excursion. The Standard Deviation decreased from 0,56 to 0,39 after the Rock Art excursion. The high and relatively similar scores after the Rock Art excursion show a definite increase in satisfaction levels. Other questions were also asked regarding the

lodge facilities and environment to try and see if satisfaction has changed behaviour as well as compare it with other activities. Results show that visitors do enjoy their surrounding environment and lodge facilities slightly more after Rock Art Excursions. Expectation and satisfaction of the guide's knowledge went up from 3.8 to 5 after the Rock Art Excursion. This clearly shows the guests satisfaction with the guide. When the field guides were asked to comment on this they said that it was probably because the guests and the guides grow a close relationship during the guests stay at Bushmans Kloof. Overall, satisfaction levels went up from 3,4 to 4,7 after the guided Rock Art Excursion.

#### 4.2 Knowledge gain

Previous research has shown that ecotourists are sympathetic to environmental issues and are eager to learn (e.g. Wight, 2001). Besides their eagerness to learn, they become more satisfied with their tourism experiences when it is infused with educational messages (Orams, 1997). Rock art interpretation might therefore inspire and nurture interest in ecology or natural history and ultimately stir a sense of pro-environmentalism.

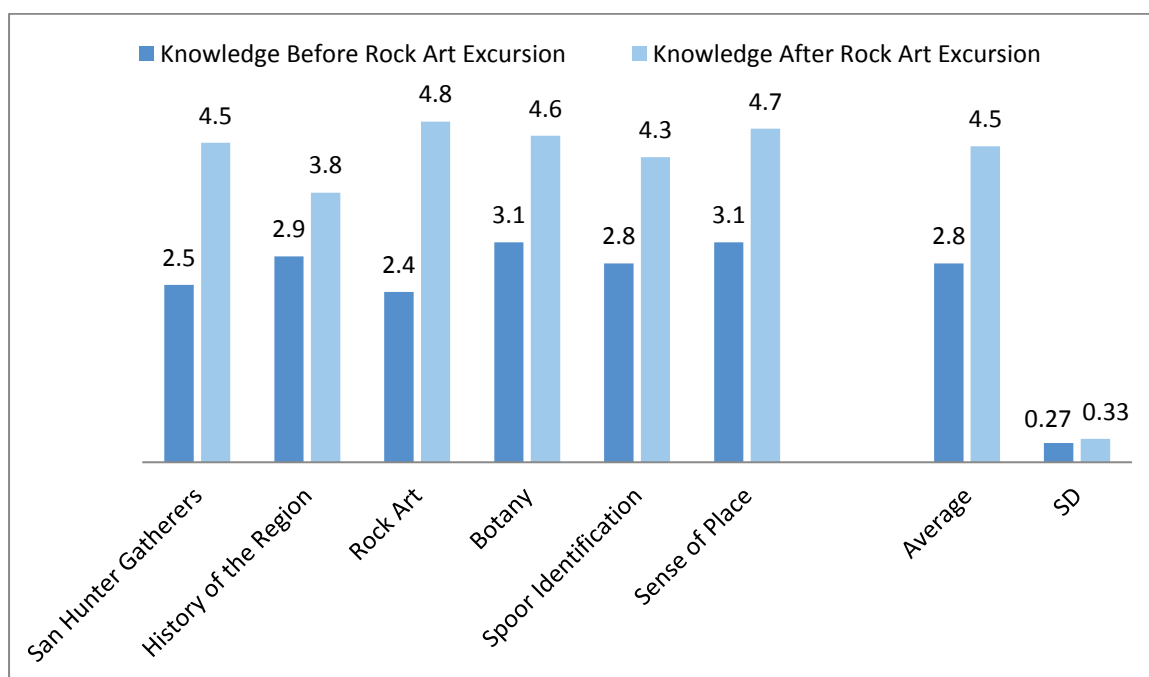


Figure 2. Knowledge gain

According to the survey, knowledge gain by far outscored the other three goals of interpretation. The Rock Art interpretation succeeded to add visitor's knowledge in all the questionnaires. Guests who answered the question what they learned about the excursion commented that the knowledge they gained was much more than what was expected before they went on the excursion. Knowledge of San Hunter-Gatherers as well as the Rock Art showed the greatest increase from (2,5 to 4,5 and 2,4 to 4,8 respectfully). Overall Knowledge Gain went up from 2,8 to 4,5 after the Rock Art Excursion.

#### 4.3 Attitude change

Apart from gaining knowledge, changing ones attitude towards environmental issues is also key to adopt pro-environmental behaviour. Guests were asked about their attitudes towards rock art preservation, conservation and heritage before and after the excursion. Responses made by the visitors before the excursion were higher for "Attitude Change" than "Knowledge Gain" and "Satisfaction". This shows that the visitors already had strong attitudes towards the preservation of rock art sites, conserving the environment and preserving heritage. Scores after the excursion were very high with only two visitors not giving the maximum

score of five. This shows that rock art excursions can improve visitor's attitudes even if they are already environmentally conscious tourists.

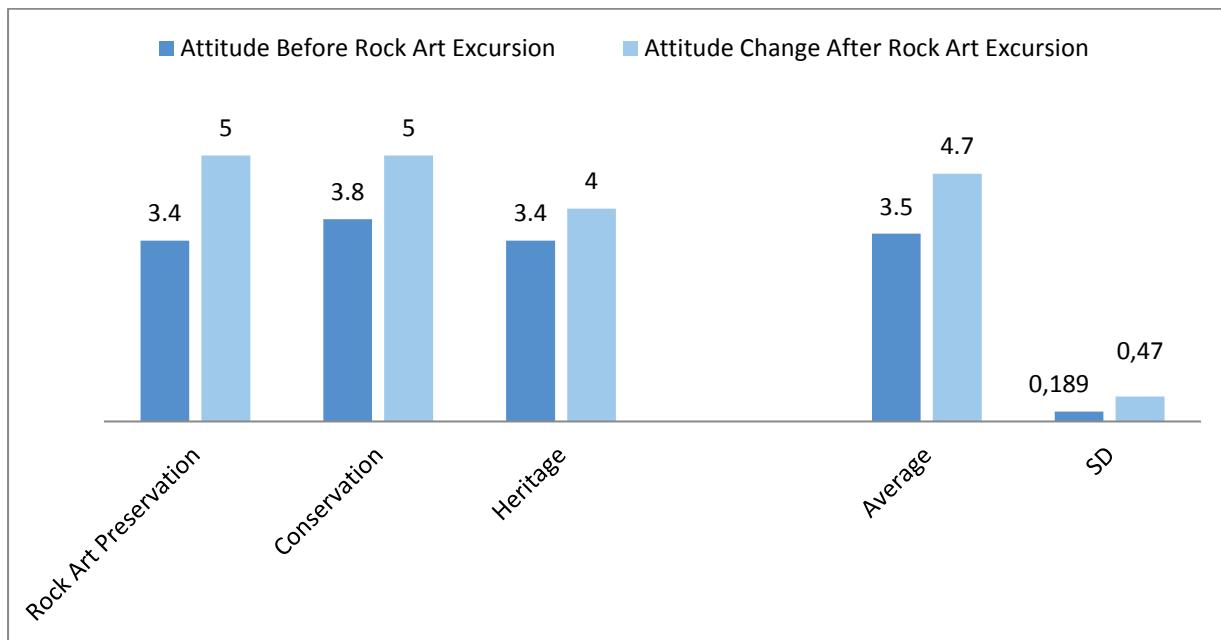


Figure 3. Attitude change

Rock Art preservation was found to be the highest change in attitude from an average Linkert score of 3.4 before the interpretation to 5 after the interpretation. Attitude Change towards Conservation (3,8 to 5) and Heritage (3,5 to 4,7) also increased. This shows that Rock Art Excursions can influence people's attitude towards their surrounding environment. Overall Attitude Change went up from 3,5 to 4,7. The Standard deviation decreased from 0,189 before to 0,47 after the excursion.

#### 4.4 Behaviour Change

Ecotourism have shown that the environmental behaviour of some visitors can change (Ballantyne & Packer, 2011). Nature based interpretations have also resulted in visitors serving as "opinion leaders" on environmental issues when they go home to their respective communities (Crompton & Lamb, 1986). Environmental awareness and responsibility was used in this questionnaire to determine the visitor's behaviour before and after the rock art excursion.

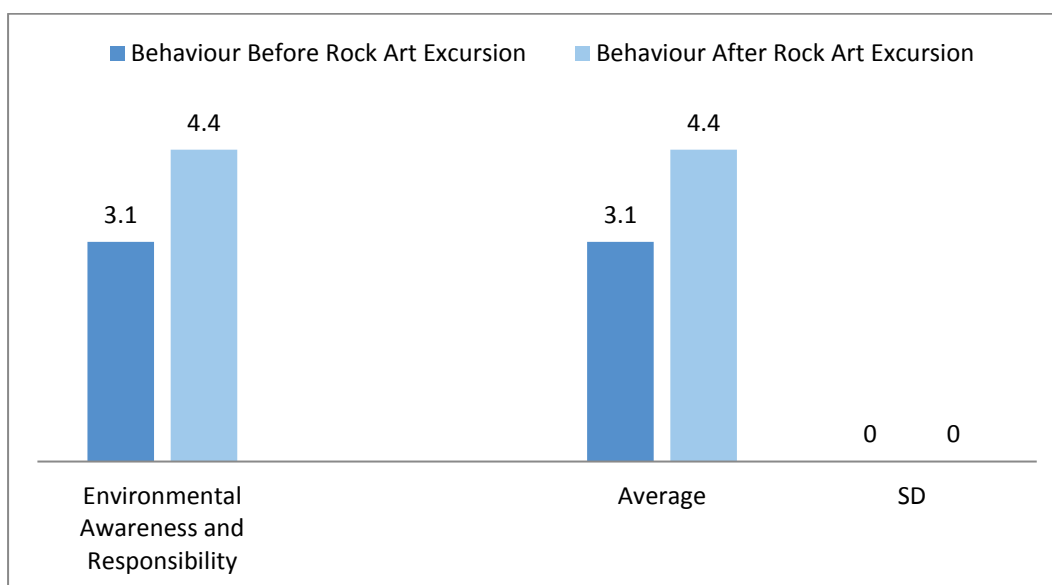


Figure 4. Behaviour change

Intent to modify behaviour increased from 3,1 to 4,4. Visitors staying at Bushmans Kloof are mostly well educated, foreign guests with an average age of between 50 and 60 years old. A large majority of guests are also conservation orientated before the rock art excursion. The Field Guides mentioned that many visitors are unaware that physical touching of the canvas will cause damage to rock art therefore it is very import to give a briefing regarding etiquette when visiting rock art sites.

## 5. Conclusion

The management of tourists visiting sensitive sites and areas are of paramount importance to achieve sustainable tourism. Guided excursions in naturally sensitive and fragile areas are a favoured method of minimizing tourism impact on the environment. Guided interpretation has been identified as a core activity to achieve the goals of sustainable tourism (Poudel & Nyaupane, 2013). Visitors who visit rock art sites who are uneducated may have a negative impact on this fragile resource. The different interpretive experiences of rock art in terms of satisfaction, knowledge gain and attitude change were assessed by comparing data before and after interpretation of rock art sites. The results showed overall increases in satisfaction, knowledge gain, attitude change and behavioural change. Visitor's views regarding rock art preservation and conservation towards the national environment where somewhat effected and increased their views to be more environmentally conscious.

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## Exploring how Stokvels can enable tourism SMME development: a Limpopo Province case study

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### Abstract

The proposed study intends to investigate stokvels as an alternative tourism investment stimulus for previous disadvantaged communities, and an African solution in the transformation of the tourism sector. A number of tourism scholars, Sebele (2010) and van Niekerk (2014), noted the potential role of tourism development and its role in the empowerment and social-upliftment of communities. Entrepreneurship in tourism offers a social dimension where community engagement plays a key role to integrated and sustainable tourism development. Stokvels are social drivers who generate social capital for the economy of South Africa (Klug, Shulgin, Mate & Trajkovic, 2014) and promote local empowerment (Matuku & Kaseke, 2014). There is a growing need for financial independence through the development of creative and innovative ways for entrepreneurs to source funding or financial support (Mohapeloa, 2017) to build sustainable tourism businesses. This research seeks to explore how stokvels can be utilised as an alternative form of investment for tourism businesses. Three research constructs are proposed namely tourism stokvel investment, tourism stokvel social entrepreneurship and tourism social transformation. Multivariate data analyses techniques using structural equation modelling (SEM) are proposed for the analyses of the primary data of this quantitative study. The paper introduces stokvels as an alternative investment model in the tourism sector, which is socially driven in an informal business environment of the Limpopo Province.

### Keywords

stokvels, tourism, investment, SMME, social entrepreneurship, social transformation, tourism growth.

#### 1. Introduction

Tourism is one of the world's fastest growing industries (Mazimhaka, 2006) and a desirable development opportunity for poor communities in rural destinations. Tourism is often described as a 'driver for economic growth' (Moscardo, Konovalov, Murphy, McGehee & Schurmann, 2017). In South Africa, the National Government is frequently the only investor in tourism businesses through a number of investment programmes or incentives (Kirsten & Rogerson, 2002) such as the Tourism Incentive Programme (TIP), the Tourism Transformation Fund (TTF), the Small Enterprise Funding Agency (SEFA), and the Small Enterprise Development Agency (SEDA) to name a few. However, access to these government funds may be difficult as they are not at local level (Department of Tourism, 2018). The elevated significance of tourism continues to attract attention of various governments and other industries such as hotels, airlines, and ground transport (Sifilo, Rugimbana & Hoque, 2017). Growth of the global tourism industry results in the emergence of a number of small and medium sized enterprises (SMMEs) (Jaafar, Abudul-Aziz, Maideen & Mohd, 2011; Mazimhaka, 2006). The nature and location of the tourism project, the size and source of investment, the policy intentions accompanying the investment and the level of support available to entrepreneur's (Kirsten & Rogerson, 2002) are important factors which can be associated with tourism SMMEs. The Department of Tourism (2017) together with the Culture, Arts, Tourism, Hospitality and Sports Sector Education and Training Authority (CATHSSETA) note that SMMEs constitutes 90% of the tourism economy in South Africa. This affords the tourism industry with an opportunity to explore stokvels as a vehicle of to benefit the socio-economic state of a region.

The proposed study will therefore take the form of a management perspective in the development of stokvels as an alternative investment model for tourism. Stokvels are complex in nature which require a holistic understanding before the concept can be applied as an investment alternative (Klug *et al.*, 2014) for the tourism industry. This paper investigates how tourism stokvel investment, tourism stokvel social entrepreneurship and tourism social transformation can be applied as a tourism investment model and is discussed in the remainder of the paper.



## 2. Literature review

Over the past 20 years, the tourism industry continues to expand and is one of the highest growth industries in the world (Liu & Chou, 2016). Stokvels are self-help initiatives designed to respond to problems of poverty and income insecurity in black communities, with the purpose to improve the financial well-being of their members by enabling them to meet their basic needs. It is defined as “An association formed upon a core of participants who agree to make regular contributions to a fund which is given, in whole or in part, to each contributor in rotation” (Ardener, 1964:201). Different names are used across the African continent and beyond to explain ‘stokvels’ namely ‘Tontine’ is used in Cameroon and Senegal, ‘Susu’ in Ghana, ‘Esusu’ in Nigeria, ‘Bishi’ in India while South African calls it ‘Stokvels’ (Bouman, 1995, p.371). More specifically stokvels have different names when translated to some of the 11 official South African languages (van Niekerk, 2014), such as ‘*gooi-goois*’ (an Afrikaans word meaning ‘to throw’), ‘*kuholisana*’ (an Isi-Zulu word that means to draw wages), ‘*mohodisane*’ (meaning ‘pay back to each other’ in Sesotho) and ‘*umgalelo*’ (an Isi-Xhosa word meaning ‘to throw’) (Irving, 2005: 10). Recently stokvels are known as ‘social clubs’, due to the social event associated with the monthly gatherings (Calvin & Coetzee, 2010). It is evident that stokvels create an opportunity for members to save, invest and ultimately accumulate assets through informal savings or an informal savings group (Matuku & Kaseke, 2014). The estimated 11.5 million individuals belonging to 811 000 stokvels in South Africa, save in the local communities and invest in their homes. Furthermore, approximately 16% of stokvels are for grocery purposes, 22% for burial and 43% for savings stokvels (Klug *et al.* 2014).

Since the 1980’s, tourism literature has called upon the inclusion and involvement of local communities in the tourism sector (Sebele, 2010). South Africa is often used as an example on how communities get an opportunity to participate in integrated tourism development planning (van Niekerk, 2014). However, one of the biggest challenges is the implementation of tourism programmes on provincial level where practical barriers, such as the inability of local stakeholders to capitalise and optimise the true tourism potential of their respective destinations (Heath, 2016), exist. SMMEs have been earmarked to alleviate poverty and stimulate job creation in the tourism sector (Department of Tourism, 2017a). Hence, stokvels, as self-help initiatives, have the potential to aid communities in the development of business (Matuku & Kaseke, 2014), especially in the tourism sector.

The typologies of stokvels focuses on aspects associated with savings stokvel, burial society, grocery stokvels, birthday stokvels, entertainment stokvels, the rotating stokvel, the khulanaye stokvel, high- budget stokvels, investment stokvels and more recently travel stokvels (Irving, 2005). Based on these stokvel typologies it is evident that a ‘tourism stokvel’ is not known yet. Therefore, the researchers investigate the viability of a tourism stokvel and how this can stimulate tourism entrepreneurship, by evaluating the three constructs, tourism stokvel investment, tourism stokvel social entrepreneurship and tourism social transformation.

### 2.1 Tourism Stokvel Investment

Due to ‘large enterprise domination’ and ‘small firm marginalization’ in most tourism destinations, the greatest support for tourism SMME development is stimulated by national government with the focus on the transformation of the sector. People from previously disadvantaged communities are empowered to start and own a tourism business through these programmes. The attraction of investment remains and challenge in the developing world, which is best achieved through the promotion of small tourism firms (Rogerson, 2015). Therefore, stokvels, as a known economic concept amongst black communities for many years, have the potential to alleviate poverty for the majority of black South Africans (Matuku & Kaseke, 2014).

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It is against this background on tourism, stokvels and its potential investment value that *tourism stokvel investment* will be investigated. As stokvels provide an opportunity for individuals to invest in tourism businesses and stimulate tourism business development, especially in the rural areas of the Limpopo Province.

Against this background, *trust* (Moloi, 2011; Matuku & Kasela, 2014), *social advancement* (Visser, 2016), *financial security* (Christian, 2016), *sense of belonging* (Lukhele, 2018, Matuku & Kaseka, 2014) and *community building* (Klug *et al.* 2014) will be investigated as dimensions of *tourism stokvel investment*.

## 2.2 Tourism Stokvel Social Entrepreneurship

The majority of regional tourism plans and policies are based on the assumption that tourism is a desirable development option for communities and their well-being (Mohapeloa, 2017). One of the best cures for poverty alleviation, is entrepreneurship, as it provides a basis for economic change (Hussain, Bhuiyan, Bakar, 2014). Social entrepreneurship refers to entrepreneurs who attempt to respond to social issues (Mohapeloa, 2017) as it generates social value, creates jobs and wealth in a community. Stokvels are also aimed at poverty alleviation as it focuses on social consciousness and unity among community members (Moloi, 2011), making it ideal to investigate tourism and stokvels in a social entrepreneurship model. Furthermore, the relationship between tourism and social entrepreneurship is known (Laeis & Lemke, 2016) but the application on tourism is limited.

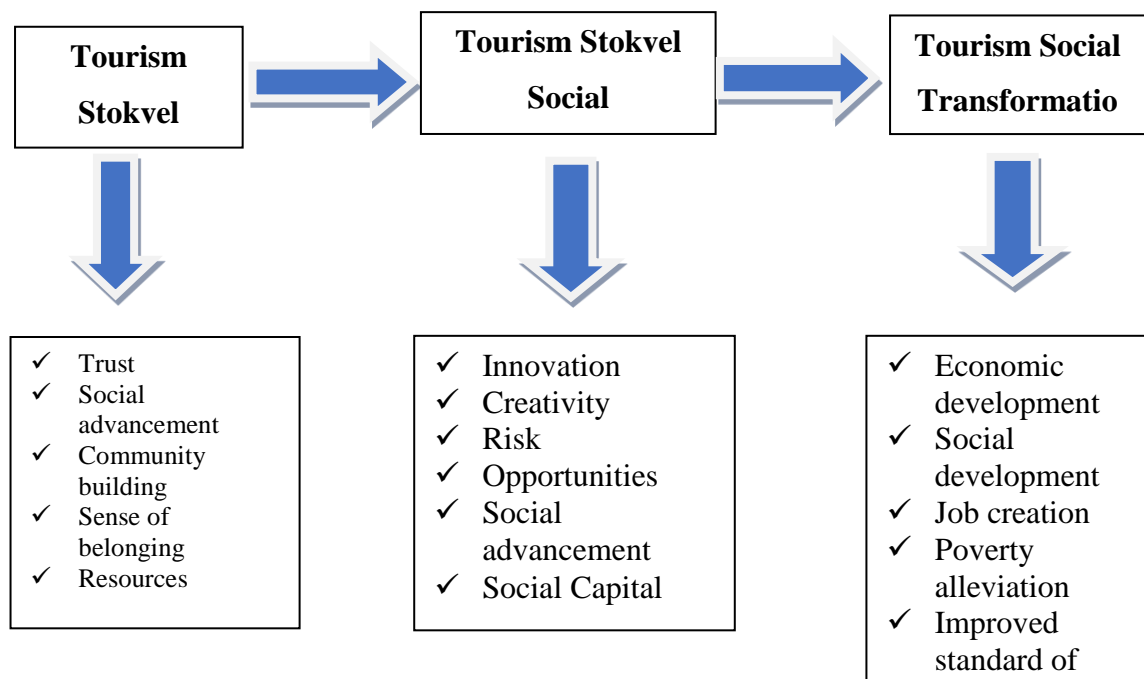
In post-apartheid South Africa, tourism has emerged as a significant development option for economic and community development to relief poverty (Binns & Nel, 2002). Local tourism business development presents a premise for social entrepreneurship. Six dimensions namely *innovation* (Jafaar *et al.* 2011), *creativity* (Hussain *et al.* 2014), *risk* (Jafaar *et al.* 2011), *opportunities* (Bottazzi, De Rin & Hellmann, 2012), *social advancement* (Bikse, Rivza & Riemere, 2015) and *social capital* (Lukhele, 2018) will be used to investigate *tourism stokvel social entrepreneurship*.

## 2.3 Tourism Social Transformation

Given South Africa's political past, responsible transformation of tourism is a critical success factor in achieving the country's vision (Heath, 2016). Empowerment and transformation facilitate the involvement of, and collaboration with local communities as key stakeholders and beneficiaries of social and economic goals of the tourism social enterprise (Altinay, Sigala, Waligo, 2016). Social entrepreneurs have the desire to change or socially transform, which is supported by good relationships with the local community (Altinay *et al.* 2016). Higgins-Desbiolles (2004) regards community participation as one of the most essential tools for local tourism development. Community empowerment supports transformation and aims to have positive long-term economic impacts (Altinay *et al.* 2016).

Most models on social transformation relate to theories of social change, or the transformation theory and social value creation through tourism enterprises (Altinay *et al.* 2016). However, none of these models investigate how stokvels can contribute social transformation in the tourism sector. Five dimensions, namely *economic development* (Liu & Chou, 2016), *social development* (Binns & Nel, 2002), *poverty alleviation* (Kirsten & Rogerson, 2002), *job creation* (Heath, 2016), and *empowerment* (Moloi, 2011) will be investigated as contributors of *tourism social transformation*.

Based on the literature discussion the theoretical model on Tourism Social Transformation (see figure1) can be result of Tourism Stokvel Investment and Tourism Stokvel Social Entrepreneurship.



*Fig. 1: Theoretical framework depicting Tourism Stokvel Entrepreneurship*  
 Sources: Altinay et al. 2016; Laeis & Lemke, 2016; Matuku and Kaseke, 2014

### 3. Research design and approach

The research approach will be a positivist epistemology in a quantitative research tradition. The subjective beliefs of stokvel participants will be measured against the proposed theoretical model (see figure 1). NASASA will be approached to invite their members to participate in the survey who lives in the Limpopo Province. The Limpopo Province was selected as case study as this province is represented by more one ethnic group and is amongst the poorest in South Africa (Binns & Nel, 2002). A cross sectional questionnaire based survey approach will be used to collect data. The questionnaire design process is informed by Veal (2011). Questionnaires will be shared with members electronically or distributed at NASASA events. Collected data will be analysed through the use of IBMs Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25 to measure nominal, ordinal and scale data (Veal, 2011). Multivariate data analyses techniques using structural equation modelling (SEM) will be used to analyse the primary data for insight on stokvel member's behaviours and attitudes (Veal, 2011) and whether they will join a tourism investment stokvel.

### 4. Conclusion

The paper offers a synopsis of the proposed research with the aim to explore the integration of tourism, stokvels and social entrepreneurship as agents for tourism development and transformation in rural areas. The theoretical model (see figure1) suggest how stokvel tourism transformation can occur through the development of a stokvel tourism investment model in support of social entrepreneurship for the tourism industry. Discussions on stokvels, the typologies of stokvels, and how socio-economic development in tourism can be stimulated through stokvel investment (Mohapeloa, 2017) are explored. Different dimensions associated with social transformation in relation to tourism and stokvels are investigated. Limited data is available on stokvels businesses and is mainly available from ROSCAs and ASCAs (Bouman, 1995, Irving, 2005, Calvin & Coetzee, 2010), with no specific reference to the tourism sector. Furthermore, the SMME economy in South Africa is diverse and requires different kinds of support interventions (Rogerson, 2015) of which stokvels can be solution. Therefore, the researchers will determine how

innovation contributes to tourism stokvel social entrepreneurship and how it can be applied in the Limpopo Province to unlock economic growth and social transformation.

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# A preliminary investigation into the inclusion of local communities into the Last Mile Logistics Distribution Systems of Luxury Wildlife Tourism Destination

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## Abstract

There will always be a demand for local craft and fresh produce from the tourists visiting the lodges close to local communities. The fundamental question is – *How can the gap between supply and demand be overcome?* If a local community can realise the potential of prosperity lying dormant within a supply chain (SC), in the long-run the financial and social benefits will be well worth it for the local community and a luxury wildlife tourism destination (LWTD). The purpose of the research is to determine if local communities can be included into the last mile logistic distribution system of fast moving consumer goods (FMCG) for LWTD. A detailed literature review will be undertaken, accessing both local and international research on the subject of re-designing a SC of FMCG for a LWTD and the last mile logistic distribution systems for FMCG's. To assess the depth of research that has been done on successful or failed implementation of re-designing a tourism supply chain (TSC) for FMCG. Although this research is still at the conceptual phase it is noted that the research focus area is to determine the possibility of including a local community into the last mile distribution processes of LWTD's. No framework towards maximising local community contribution into the last mile logistic distribution system of the supply chains of LWTD has been found. The relevance to this research, the methodology adopted, aims at managing the paradox that exist between research and the tourism environment. The intention of this research is to inform the tourism environment of the benefits that exists when a local community align with a tourism destination.

## Keywords

Purchasing, Procurement, Logistics, Supply chain, Fast moving consumer goods, Strategy, Local community, Community-based tourism, Tourism destinations.

### 1. Introduction

The development of tourism supply chains is a relatively new concept and the noticeable problems and difficulties concerned within the tourism supply chain (TSC) are surfacing (Michailidou, Vlachokostas, Achillas, Maleka, Moussiopoulos & Feleki, 2016). In a supply chain milieu there is no standard model that will work for all types of companies, even if those companies are operating in the same business surroundings (Aubry & Kebir, 2013). Supply organisations do not perceive the involvement of communities in the logistics and supply chain-related processes of luxury tourism destinations as important even though it is estimated that the supply chain produces up to 75% of a company's carbon footprint (van den Berg, Labuschagne & van den Berg, 2013). The involvement of communities create an important opportunity to reduce the carbon footprint related to the logistics and supply chain related emissions. According to Lukhele and Mearns (2013) changes in the tourism industry are unavoidable because tourism destinations are functioning in a vigorous and ever-changing environment.

Tourism is regarded as one of the essential economic contributing factors for many counties in the world (Sanches-Pereira, Onguglo, Pacini, Gómez, Coelho, & Muwang 2017). According to Brophy (2016), the South African economy was complemented with a contribution of R380 billion which came directly from the tourism industry. Limited information exists regarding the conditions for successful collaboration between local communities and Luxury Wildlife Tourism Destinations (LWTD's) in terms of local food availability and supply. However, Dodds, Ali and Galaski (2016) states that adequate research exists which focuses on local communities and their needs, and how tourism is elevated as a conservation and community development instrument. In addition, in regions where tourism development has affected the day-to-day way in which people live, tourism establishments can be viewed as a possible source of auxiliary income. According to Dodds *et al.* (2016), when a local community is involved with tourism, the endeavour is known as community-based tourism (CBT). Because of tourism the livelihood of a local community can be influenced and changed. CBT is a technique that can assist a local community to develop

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opportunities that will contribute to the improvement of the living conditions within the local community over the long-term. The goal of CBT is sustainable community development, as a result, it can be regarded as an alternative form of tourism.

## 2. Literature review

The main focus of this conceptual research is to determine whether a supply chain (SC) factor, *the inclusion of a local community into the last mile supply logistics distribution systems of LWTD's*, will be able to influence the outcome of the current supply chain factor of the LWTD. Through a luxury tourism destination, a local community can benefit through the employment of community members as well as providing the opportunity for communities to providing fresh produce for the tourism destination. Through locally produced fresh produce tourists are able to taste and consume a variety of different local products (King & Dinkoksung, 2014). The taste experience relates to the personal, social and cultural background of the tourists visiting a tourism destination. (Anderson, Mossberg & Therkelsen, 2017). Anderson *et al.* (2017), also states that various authors have conducted a lot of research on food production and hospitality. However, tourism and food production research, 'food tourism', have only recently started to become a matter of importance. Food tourism, must be careful not to expose local communities as '*tourism of the poor*', whereby tourists are informed of the humanitarian obligations towards the local communities. Through tourism, the focus must be '*tourism for the poor*' and the benefits of a working relationship between the luxury tourism destinations and the local communities must be directed towards the members of the local community (King & Dinkoksung, 2014).

### 2.1 Local Community

Community can be defined as a social group of any size whose members reside in a specific locality, share government and may have a common cultural and historic heritage/s. It can also refer to a group of individuals who interact within their immediate surroundings. Within a local community, certain potential exists that have the capability of contributing to the social and economic well-being of members of the local community (Sgroi, Di Trapani, Testa & Tudisca, 2014). For CBT to be successful, basic important business principles, such as business skills, communication and finance are vital important considerations for success in CBT. However, the success will be determined through the commitment shown by members within the local community as well as the level of education and training provided to the members within the local community (Dodds *et al.*, 2016). People living in a local community, develop and transform the environment, creating landscapes such as cornfields, vegetable gardens and fruit orchards, to satisfy their needs. These activities carried out by certain individuals in a local community have the potential to create value, employment and income, through the production of agricultural products (Sgroi *et al.*, 2014).

### 2.2 Link between a local community and a luxury wildlife tourism destination

The money spent by tourists on accommodation, shopping, food and drink, transportation and excursions, are sometimes spent directly within a local community. When members of a local community are able to produce products and services for tourists visiting a LWTD, the money spent by the tourists can be viewed as an additional source of income (Rylance & Spenceley, 2017). Within a local community, there are unique cultures, traditions and food substances. When these factors are incorporated into the tourism environment they have the ability to; (i) create an exceptional tourist experience; (ii) assist with sustainable development in the local community; (iii) contribute towards agricultural diversification within the country; (iv) facilitate in maintaining regional identities (Rylance & Spenceley, 2017; Saarinen & Rogerson, 2015). This alliance between the local community and the LWTD's have the ability of becoming a critical link where both parties can benefit economically (Thomas-Francois, Von Massow & Joppe (2017). *Agro-trade* – according to Thomas-Francois *et al.* (2017) is a connection between a tourism destination and a

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local community that promotes the supply of local products to the tourism destination. Luxury tourism destinations will create job opportunities for people living in the local community.

Research has determined that food sources produced within local communities and made available to tourists visiting the tourism destinations, are seen as unique tourism attractiveness factors. The intended purpose of including local suppliers into the SC of LWTD's is to create value for the customers of the LWTD's as well as economic benefits for local communities (Boesen, Sundbo and Sundbo. 2017).

### 3. Methods and potential findings

This research is at the conceptual phase is envisaged to be a multiple exploratory and descriptive case studies. Case studies will be the primary research design for this study. According to Yin (2014) a case study tries to illuminate a decision or set of decisions: why they were taken, how they were implemented, and with what result. Research questions in case studies leads to multiple exploratory and descriptive case studies. Mouton argues (2008) that case study research is more appropriate when the study has a more exploratory and descriptive nature rather than an explanatory and evaluative nature.

The Delphi technique will be used to obtain answers from industry experts, working in and for a LWTD as well as experts from SC organisations. The questions will be focused on determining the possibilities and challenges of including a local community into the last mile logistics distribution systems of FMCG. If the possibilities do exist, other questions relating to the environmental aspects and the reduction of the carbon footprint in the supply chain will then have to be determined. After each round of questions the respondents will be contacted again, this will continue until a mutual trend has been identified and a consensus has been reached.

The findings from the literature review as well as the supply chain industry expert interviews will be used to compile a questionnaire. This questionnaire will be sent to selected luxury wildlife tourism destinations and supply chain organisations. The questionnaire will utilise a mixed method of data collection, and will contain qualitative and quantitative questions.

### 4. Implications

The tourism industry's perceptions of a supply chain of FMCG for LWTD's and the last mile logistic distribution systems for FMCG will be tested. This will be achieved through conducting and documenting a series of structured interviews with a selected group of luxury wildlife tourism and supply chain management experts. LWTD's has not been a sector associated with supply chain problems in the same way as the transport sector, energy sector and the manufacture industries. According to Morali and Searcy (2013), organisations are dependent upon other parties to harness critical resources and therefore the organisations must continuously manage this dependency, which is critical for an organisations survival and growth.

### 5. Conclusion

In conclusion, inter-organizational collaboration on the inclusion of local community suppliers into the last mile logistic distribution system of the FMCG for LWTD's should assist the researcher with opportunities to extract internal knowledge. The boundaries of luxury wildlife tourism destinations must be expanded to include external resources as well (Liu, 2013). The last mile logistic distribution system of the FMCG for LWTD's must be transparent. LWTD's must understand the importance of sharing expertise and experience.



It is inevitable that the researchers will be challenged with ethnic as well as topographical differences such as the physical location of the LWTD's. The success of the last mile logistic distribution system of the FMCG for LWTD's process therefore depends on the sharing and communicating of relevant information, which is crucial in the design phases of the last mile logistic distribution system process.

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## **A three-way partnership model of tourism graduate employability**

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### **Abstract**

The aim of this paper presentation is to show the employability of tourism graduates, using a three-way perspective. The concept of employability differs depending on the context, as well as the views of the people making employment decisions and those seeking employment. Graduates are not always employable, because they lack certain knowledge, skills, employability attributes, and practical work experience. Therefore, it has become imperative to ensure an adequate level of preparedness of tourism graduates, including their employability attributes, to enhance their chances of securing and sustaining employment in the tourism industry. The researcher adopted a sequential explanatory mixed method, which entailed combining quantitative and qualitative methods. The researcher conducted a quantitative survey on a purposive sample of 561 managers, supervisors and owners within the tourism industry and tourism graduates working in the tourism industry. The researcher used means, standard deviations, exploratory factor analysis and independent t-test. The qualitative research approach was applied to investigate graduate employability more in-depth. A total of twelve interviews were conducted with three academics within higher education institutions (HEIs) that offer a tourism qualification, three graduates working within the industry and three experts within the tourism industry. The researcher found a significant relationship between the professional skills, personality traits, knowledge skills and operation skill within the tourism industry. The researcher constructed a model to enhance graduate employability through a three-way perspective within the tourism industry. The model links all three partners (the tourism graduate, tourism industry and Higher education institutions) that play a key role in the industry regarding the transfer of knowledge, skills and other employability attributes. The originality of this paper is that it constructed a model for the tourism industry to enhance graduate employability that links three partners, and creates further constructive debate.

### **Keywords**

employability, tourism industry, higher education, tourism graduates

#### **1. Introduction**

The aim of this paper is to show the employability of tourism graduates, using a three-way perspective, that is based on existing research findings in employability and on the various individual elements that make up the framework. The concept of employability differs depending on the context, as well as the views of the people making employment decisions and those seeking employment. Graduates are not always employable, because they lack certain knowledge, skills, employability attributes, and practical work experience. Therefore, it has become imperative to ensure an adequate level of preparedness of tourism graduates, including their employability attributes, to enhance their chances of securing and sustaining employment in the tourism industry. The tourism industry seeks graduates who possess job-specific skills (Wakelin-Theron, 2015). In addition, the tourism industry prefers candidates with the right knowledge and attributes, as well as additional work- and any form of travel experience, and who have undertaken relevant extra-curricular activities while studying. To have a competitive edge when seeking employment, graduates need to have developed their employability skills and abilities while studying at higher education institutions (HEIs). Various research has been conducted on employability, namely factors affecting (Tomlinson, 2007; Finch, Hamilton, Riley & Zehrer, 2013; Tymon, 2013); industry perception (Sheriff, Kayat & Abidin, 2014) employability in Higher Education (Sheldon, Fesenmaier, Woeber, Cooper & Antonioli, 2007; Solnet, Robinson & Cooper, 2007); Academics Views, (Morrison, 2013). Yet, limited studies have been conducted on partnerships to advance employability.

## 2. Literature review

The tourism industry is characterised by low remuneration levels, long working hours, seasonal work, high numbers of female employees, and high staff turnover (Wang, Ayers & Huyton, 2008; NDT, 2017). Tourism industry employers have consistently voiced their concerns regarding graduates' lack of ability and the right knowledge, skills, and employability attributes that would make them better employees (Wicramshinghe & Perera, 2010, Wakelin-Theron, 2015). There has been much debate about graduate employability and the misconception that a tourism qualification secures employment (Cranmer, 2006; Rigby, Wood, Clark-Murphy, Daly, Dixon, Kavanagh, Leveson, Petocz, Thomas & Vu, 2010, Wang, Ayres & Huyton, 2010; Wakelin-Theron, 2015). The tourism industry seeks graduates who possess job-specific skills (Wakelin-Theron, 2015). In addition, the tourism industry prefers candidates with the right knowledge and attributes, as well as additional work- and any form of travel experience, and who have undertaken relevant extra-curricular activities while studying. To have a competitive edge when seeking employment, graduates need to have developed their employability skills and abilities while studying at HEIs.

## 3. Methods

The researcher adopted a sequential explanatory mixed method, which entailed combining quantitative and qualitative methods. During phase 1, 561 respondents completed and returned their questionnaires. The questionnaire contained 33 different dimensions. The respondents rated the various types of knowledge and skills in order of importance on a five-point Likert scale: *Not at all important*, *Low importance*, *Neutral*, *Very important*, and *Extremely important*. Two data sets were merged and the t-test was used, together with the factor analysis, to group a set of observed variables into relationships. To verify that the dataset was appropriate for the application of the factor analysis to the employability items of both the graduates and the tourism industry, internal reliability was tested using the Cronbach coefficient, as the most appropriate method to secure the reliability of the survey research (Maree & Pieterse, 2007). The Cronbach value for Professional skills was 0.828; Operational skills 0.760; Personality traits 0.784 and Knowledge and skills 0.716. The high Alpha value indicated good internal consistency among the number of items. During phase 2, 12 participants were selected from the tourism industry, tourism graduates who are working in the industry as well as tourism academics who are all experts within the tourism industry. The rationale behind this question was to obtain more information about the current practices and perspectives of academics from HEIs, tourism industry participants, and tourism graduates about the knowledge, skills, and employability attributes required of graduates by the tourism industry.

## 4. Findings

In South Africa, higher education academics, tourism industry employers, and graduates have identified various tourism-related practices, perspectives, and gaps. Research conducted in different geographical regions and industry specific sectors regarding important knowledge and skills clearly shows marked differences between the three parties' perceptions of the particular attributes required (CBI, 2012). The current research corroborates this finding.

The findings of the current study confirmed that, generally, tourism graduates lack work-readiness and experience, as some HEIs do not offer work integrated learning in their tourism qualifications or limited exposure. The findings also corroborated that the tourism industry is well-known for its limited levels of training and lack of the required structure to support HEIs by providing supervisors and mentors to guide students doing practical work. This has led to what some researchers refer to as an 'expectation gap' between tourism graduates and the tourism industry (Wang *et al.*, 2009).

Most HEIs seem to be lagging behind in terms of equipping graduates with the right set of professional and operational knowledge and skills. Some constraints were identified by tourism academics, namely, students' backgrounds, graduates' lack of

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or limited exposure to the world of work, students' overall knowledge of the lack of interest in tourism as a discipline, a tourism qualification being a second choice, students' misperceptions regarding tourism careers. Some academics mentioned the difficulty of finding tourism academics with practical industry experience, and traditional teaching methods not developing employability skills sufficiently. In the current time of rapid technological change and advancements, disruptive technology are taking over or as it is better known as one academic mentioned "disruptology" and with this, additional skills sets are necessary. Some HEIs find it difficult to adjust their curricula every time IT advances occur. In other words, it is difficult for HEIs to keep up with the fast pace of change within the tourism industry. Yet, to become more competitive and to build greater reputation HEI need to adjust module content, assessment practices, pedagogy and align with industry demand.

Tourism industry experts indicated that they seek graduates with differentiating qualities and a variety of soft skills. The absence of these prioritised skills results in a mismatch that could limit graduates' opportunities. Clearly, the growth path in the tourism sector is dominated by privately owned enterprises. Government has established various policies and initiatives to support the tourism industry (DEAT, 2008). However, these policies and initiatives do not seem to have been well executed or operationalised. The tourism industry is generally affected by negative perceptions about its recruitment methods, employment practices, and working conditions and atypical employment. Hence, work in the tourism industry is often referred to as 'atypical employment.' This is perceived negatively, and it significantly influences job quality. However, part-time work or seasonal work, which is a form of atypical employment that tends to receive a mixed response, could also contribute to an individual's knowledge and skills acquisition. Therefore, students should consider appropriate and relevant part-time work while studying, to enhance their chances of securing employment after graduation.

Tourism graduates perceive themselves as readily employable. They expect to travel the world; yet, they have not participated in tourism and have a limited experience of tourism products and services. The study also revealed that graduates lack tourism-specific IT skills, and have insufficient knowledge of the tourism industry and what is expected of them. They are also concerned about their limited exposure to the real world of work. The general view is that the majority of black tourism graduates have not travelled outside their familiar areas, as their families do not have a culture of participating in tourism. This is due to various reasons, such as the lack of finances, knowledge, as well as travel documentation constraints, to mention a few. Graduates realise that they require professional, operational, and practical skills, and, in some instances, appropriate personality traits. Pool and Sewell (2007) emphasise that employability is a lifelong issue; nobody is ever perfectly employable. However, the issue of employability attributes in terms of knowledge and skills continues to reflect a gap with regard to the perceptions of tourism graduates, academics and the tourism industry. This state of affairs has adversely affected the employability of tourism graduates who aspire to work in the tourism industry.

A concerted effort was made to conceptualise the phenomenon of employability and to analyse it within the tourism industry using data gathered from tourism academics, tourism industry representatives and tourism graduates. The objective was to construct a model to enhance graduate employability to enhance graduates' career prospects.

The researcher suggests the adoption of a three-way partnership employability model (see Figure1). This model was developed to support tourism graduates, the tourism industry, and HEIs in their endeavour to enhance graduate employability. The model identifies important knowledge and skills required in the tourism industry and grouped these employability skills under four distinct categories. Additionally, the three-way model provides for collective input, and links approaches and strategic goals geared towards the enhancement of graduate employability.

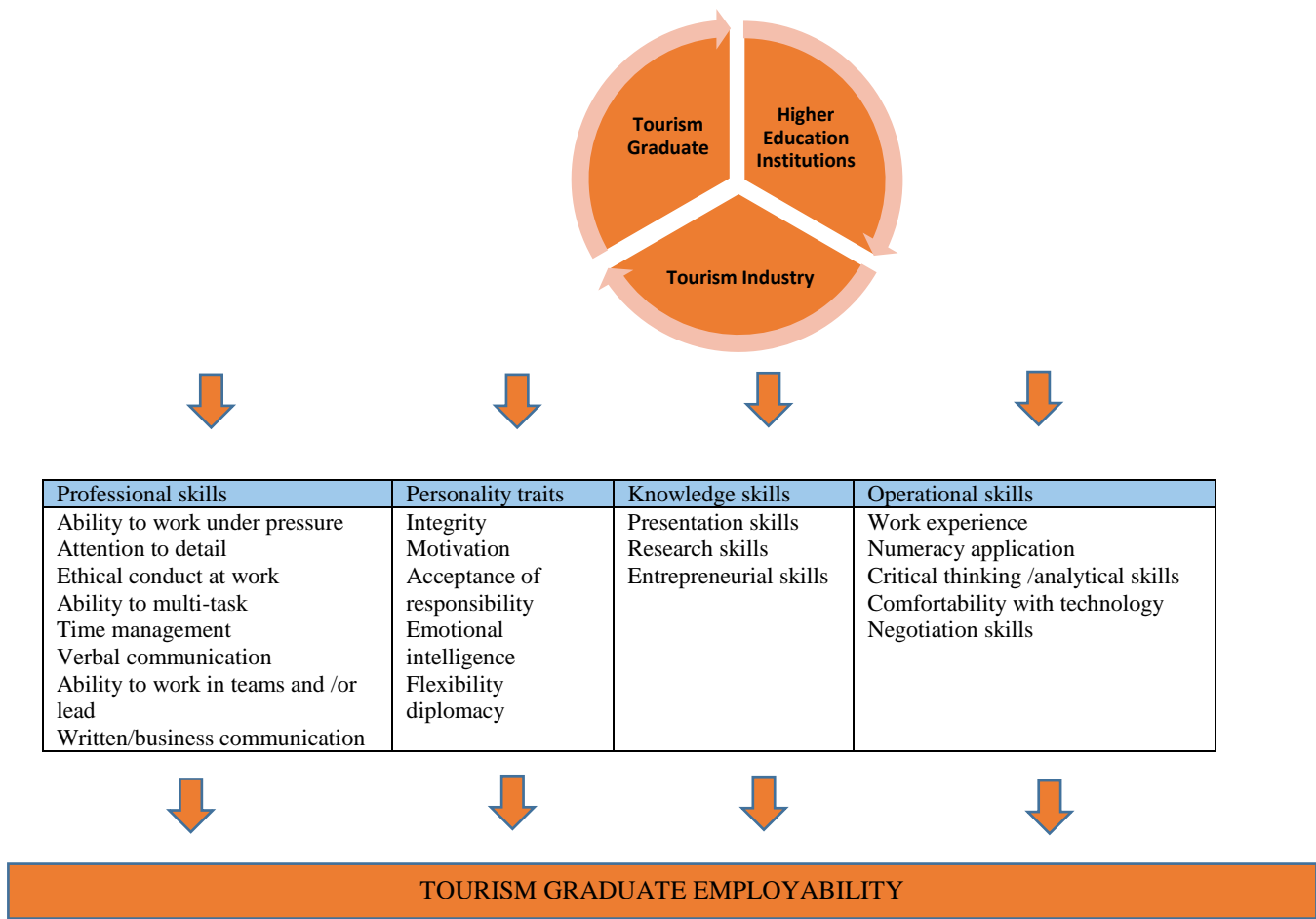


Figure 1. Employability of tourism graduates: A three-way partnership Source: Compiled by researcher

Figure 1 depicts the relationship between the partners. HEIs, the tourism industry, and tourism graduates cannot function effectively in isolation. The three partners must work collaboratively to ensure that graduate employability in the tourism industry is achieved and sustained. The main factors that influence tourism graduate employability are grouped into four categories, namely Professional skills, Personality traits, Knowledge skills, and Operational skills, which enhance tourism graduate employability.

## 5. Implications

Prior to this research, there was a lack of literature illustrating the skills-based requirements for new graduates into the South Africa's tourism industry. The researcher proposes the above model as a means to enhance graduate employability through a three-way partnership. The model links all three partners (the tourism graduate, HEIs, and the tourism industry) that play a fundamental role in the tourism industry regarding the transfer of knowledge, skills, and other employability attributes. The three-way perspective will help to facilitate the identification of the right set of knowledge, skills, and other employability attributes needed by graduates to secure a job within the tourism industry. It is important that graduates and HEIs are aware of the employability attributes regarded as required by the tourism industry.

## 6. Conclusions

This paper makes a substantial contribution to understanding tourism graduates' employability challenges by reflecting on the employability attributes, important knowledge, and skills. Graduate employability should become a central concern for government and communities, as South Africa has a large number of graduate youths who are unemployed.

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