TOWARDS THE RESPONSIBLE MANAGEMENT
OF THE SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACT
OF TOWNSHIP TOURISM

by

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Philosophiae Doctor

in the Faculty of Economic and Manageme nt Sciences,

University of Pretoria

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April 2004

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SUMMARY

Prior to the 1994 democratic elections, urban tourism in South Africa was strictly confined to so-called 'white' areas. Black townships, prevented from constituting an integral part of 'white' cities, were developed as dormitory towns, far removed from central business districts and white urban areas. Today post-apartheid Soweto, a conurbation of two million inhabitants with a rich political history, has come to symbolise the political freedom of the new South Africa. Since South Africa's first democratic elections in 1994 township tourism has been growing rapidly, with international tourists eager to see how the country has progressed. Motivated by an interest in the ethnic diversity and rich cultural heritage manifested in the daily lives and practices of township residents, tourists are visiting Soweto in increasing numbers.

Because cultural tourists are motivated by local cultures in choosing to visit a particular attraction, they have been identified as both a blessing and blight, as communities living in townships are affected both positively and negatively by township tourism. The socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in South Africa, however, are not well documented. The purpose of the research undertaken was therefore to investigate the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism, as perceived by the host population, using Soweto as a case study. The purpose of this thesis is thus to present the findings of research conducted using a multiple-item Likert scale, in-depth interviews and participant observation as means for investigating host perceptions of socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in Soweto.

This study reveals that respondents were divided in their perceptions of the impacts of tourism on the host community. Those who received economic or employment benefits from tourism generally viewed its socio-cultural impacts positively. Conversely, others who did not receive these benefits claimed that the inequitable distribution of benefits from tourism has led to community friction, growing antipathy towards tourists and commodification of traditional culture. Blame is laid partially at the door of government who, it is claimed, has neither afforded residents the opportunity for participation in

decision-making relating to tourism planning and development in the township, nor offered the requisite funding or skills development support. A systematic analysis of tourism impacts can therefore help government planners, local decision-makers, tourism promoters and managers identify real concerns and issues in order for appropriate policies and action to be introduced.

The challenge of managing sustainable township tourism in South Africa, using a community approach, is discussed. Results from the study have the potential to provide the foundation on which to formulate principles or guidelines and recommend approaches to be applied in the development and management of sustainable township tourism in South Africa, so as to create the basis necessary for good practice for any community cultural tourism project.

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CHAPTER 1
GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1   INTRODUCTION

Weaver and Lawton (2002) contend that the basic aim of tourism management at a destination-wide scale is to maximise the sector's economic, socio-cultural and environmental benefits, while minimising the associated costs. Over the years critics such as Mathieson and Wall (1982), Cohen (1988), Smith (1989), Ap and Crompton (1993) Lankford (1994), Swarbrooke (1999), Shackley (2000), Keyser (2002) and Weaver and Lawton (2002) have argued that in order to meet this objective, destination managers must understand the potential positive and negative impacts of tourism as perceived by the host community.

The aspect of tourism that has arguably generated most attention in recent times is that of its impact for good or ill, with most commentators stating that even the economic benefits of tourism are not always of the magnitude that tourism's supporters like to believe (Brown, 2000; Hall, 2000; Krippendorf, 2001). Most of the early studies of the effects of tourism focused on economic aspects. However, with the realisation that tourism development will inevitably lead to changes in host communities, researchers over the past decade have paid increasing attention to the social effects of tourism (Du Cros, 2001). Critiques and debates on this issue are particularly relevant to post-apartheid South Africa. As the country struggles to come to terms with the tasks of both social and economic reconstruction there is an obvious temptation to embrace an industry which promises extensive financial reward (Goudie *et al.,* 1999). However, the caution already expressed must be heeded, as tourism development may have negative impacts that outweigh actual economic benefits.

Researchers have over the past two decades focused with increasing intensity on the perceived impacts of tourism (Brown, 2000), primarily because residents' perceptions of and attitudes toward the impacts of tourism are likely to be an important planning and policy consideration in the successful development, marketing and operation of existing

and future tourism programmes and projects (Allen *et al.*, 1993; King *et al.*, 1993; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). If a host community perceives the overall tourism effects to be negative, the level of support from the host community is likely to diminish (Ap & Crompton, 1993; Jurowski, 1997), which makes positive resident perceptions of tourism development critical to sustaining the growth of community tourism businesses. If the level of residents' loyalty to tourism development is high, potential conflict between residents and tourism establishments will in all likelihood be avoided. For tourism in a destination area to thrive, its adverse impacts must be minimised and it must be viewed favourably by the host population, as they are integral to the tourist economy (Ap, 1992).

Research in this domain would be particularly enriched by the debates concerning the way in which the culture and lifestyle of people in townships are marketed and commodified through cultural tourism in post-apartheid South Africa. There is a clear need to look beyond the obvious economic networks associated with the tourism industry to a deeper understanding of the issues of power, access, empowerment, and participation. Focusing on residents' perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism, the researcher in this study assesses some of the challenges associated with the development of more responsible and socially sensitive township tourism in South Africa. Using Soweto as a case study the researcher examines the opportunities for and constraints on tourism development and the influences of these factors on township residents, questioning how tourism can be practised in these areas in a way that ensures that benefits reach locals without being detrimental to their social and cultural heritage.

Participation by the community (in the persons of residents, civic leaders and entrepreneurs) in developing and attracting tourism to their area is generally driven by the desire by some members of the community to improve the economic and social conditions of the area (Rojek & Urry, 1997; Selin, 2000). Others in the community find that tourism is thrust upon them by certain individual or group advocates. Irrespective of how tourism is introduced and developed in a community, residents are vital players who can influence the success or failure of the local tourism industry. Pearce, Moscardo and Ross (1996) asserts that residents may contribute to the well-being of the community

through their participation in the planning, development and operation of tourist attractions, and by extending their hospitality to tourists in exchange for the benefits obtained from tourism. Sharpley (1994), by contrast, points out that residents may be instrumental in discouraging tourism by opposing it or exhibiting hostile behaviour toward tourism advocates or tourists. By satisfying the needs of visitors through the provision of quality experiences the host community will increase the desire for further interaction between hosts and guests, yet the encounter between these two parties may also have negative consequences. Knox (1982:77) encapsulates this very reciprocity in commenting that "[t]he tourist may have his vacation spoiled or enhanced by the resident. The resident may have his daily life enriched or degraded by the unending flow of tourists".

The growing interest in tourism as one of the major socio-economic development tools of the twentieth century presents those concerned with its planning and management with a variety of challenges and questions. A number of tourism studies agree that while the basic aim of tourism development and growth is to maximise the economic, social and environmental benefits in a country, it can also lead to negative social impacts and can have serious adverse impacts on local and indigenous cultural values (Smith & Krannich, 1998; Asplet & Cooper, 2000). It has become crucial, therefore, that tourism managers and planners bear in mind that, in the quest for development, tourism should not destroy the values people seek in the community. It has also become very important that destination planners and decision-makers understand both the positive and negative impacts of tourism on host communities and the circumstances under which they occur in order to plan effectively.

1.2   SOCIAL AND CULTURAL IMPACT OF TOURISM ON THE HOST COMMUNITY

The socio-cultural impacts of tourism have been extensively studied and discussed, and were put before a wide audience in Mathieson and Wall's 1982 publication entitled *Tourism: The economic, physical and social impacts.* In general, the focus has been on the negative impacts of tourism on host societies and cultures. However, it is important

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to recognise that the effects can also be positive. Research on the social and cultural impacts of tourism has focused on three areas, namely the tourist, the host, and the tourist-host interrelationship.

Sofield (1991:56) describes the socio-cultural impacts of tourism as "the sum-total of all the social and cultural influences that come to bear upon the host society as a result of tourist contact". Sharpley (1994) describes tourism as a socio-cultural event for both the traveller and the host. It is a social process that, in the context of both domestic and international tourism, brings together people from different regions and different countries in a form of social interaction. The resulting tourist-host relationship may impact on both the local community and visitors. Tourism is also, from the point of view of destination areas, a means of improving and modernising the economic and social condition of the host community and, therefore, tourism may be described as an agent of socio-cultural change (Johnson *et al.*, 1994; Sharpley, 2000).

In the past, few black South Africans were allowed access to the tourism industry, either as tourists, operators or managers. At worst, black cultures were ignored or repressed; at best they became stereotyped and trivialised commodities (Beavon, 1982; Goudie *et al.*, 1999; Ian, 1999). An analysis of the township tourism market should therefore necessarily be extended to include the perceptions of the host community towards this new form of tourism that has engulfed their communities. As already mentioned, tourism research reveals increased attention to the social impacts of tourism on local communities, particularly marginalised indigenous groups. Urry (2002) contends that the process of creating a commercial tourism product from local cultures involves the careful selection, as well as screening, of cultural elements; these products are never simple mirror images of reality. A constant struggle, he argues, has emerged between market viability and authentic representations of local cultures, frequently resulting in a commercial (and political) screening and packaging of reality. Urry suggests that what tourists are guided through are more often than not profitable 'pseudo-events' that are reflective of neither past nor present realities.

This raises important questions in South Africa about the social and cultural representation of township residents, and makes an examination of township tourism in South Africa particularly relevant. Black alienation and exclusion from mainstream tourism in the past has meant that most black South Africans have lacked control over the way in which their diverse cultures have been portrayed (Wolf, 2002). Yet the extent to which South Africa, like other developing countries, is benefiting by showcasing indigenous or marginalised communities as part of a cultural tourism strategy must be interrogated. Are the desired side effects of cultural tourism, such as job creation, the upliftment of communities and the preservation of cultural lifestyles and expressions truly being realised, or have cultural expressions in fact changed and adapted to suit the demand and needs of the consumer tourist? Further subjects for debate are whether the ownership of cultural products should lie in the hands of the community or the developer, and whether the township community is exploited in the practice of cultural tourism as a result of its need for consumer goods and financial gain.

1.3   SOUTH AFRICA'S CULTURAL RESOURCES POST 1994

Traditionally, in terms of tourism, South Africa's unique selling points have been scenic beauty, wildlife and climate. Before the first democratic elections of 1994, 30% of visitors came to South Africa for its scenic beauty, while 26% were drawn by its wildlife (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2002; Lubbe, 2003). Yet, in the words of Goudie *et al*. (1999:24), with the demise of apartheid, "increasing emphasis has been placed on the role of township tourism as a catalyst for social change and healing in South Africa by the state, the private sector, and community organisations". In similar vein, Lubbe (2003:96) notes that "[a]fter 1994, 27% came to see the 'new South Africa', while 21% came to view our cultural attractions that is, 48% of tourists coming to South Africa with a cultural motivation.". In a more recent survey, the number of tourists whose motivation for visiting South Africa is cultural or socio-cultural has risen to 46% (Lubbe, 2003).

South Africa consists of a remarkable mix of cultures, with African, European and Asian influences intermingled to create a unique South African multi-cultural society. The many-faceted heritage bequeathed by this mixture of exotic and indigenous culture is

inextricably bound up with the social and political history of the country (Parker, 1997). Although cultural tourism in South Africa is still in its infancy, the political changes of 1994 have stimulated increased interest in the fascinating mix of cultures found in townships. In this melting pot, some things have remained unchanged, while other new and unique cultural expressions have evolved. Many forms of dance, music, song, theatre and cuisine, both traditional and modern, from every cultural group may be encountered. Festivals, concerts and performances reflecting lifestyles and regional interests are numerous. History and heritage are preserved in existing and newly developing museums and monuments in townships, living cultural villages and places where the freedom struggle took place (Damer, 1997). Finally, there is the wealth of art and crafts produced by talented South Africans for sale in craft centres and open-air markets in townships (Gold Reef Guides, 2003; Soweto Tours 2003a).

1.4   TOWNSHIP TOURISM

The urban black townships in South Africa differ from other deprived areas in the world largely as a result of the circumstances which prevailed under the ruling white minority during apartheid (Ramchander, 2003). To achieve social segregation, the National Party implemented a broad range of Acts and ordinances ensuring that different races could not come into contact with each other, even in their free time (Soweto Tours, 2003a; Soweto SA, 2003). The segregation of housing, education, and health and leisure facilities such as beaches, hotels, restaurants, libraries, cinemas, camping sites and national parks was an elaborate and humiliating system often entrenched with force, and which extended to the development of the townships as dormitory towns as a means of segregating black labour. Townships were established far away from the central business districts, and from the white urban areas; and were not allowed to develop as an integral part of the white city (Mabogane & Callaghan, 2002; Ramchander, 2003). Many black townships, in particular, have suffered as a result of the perception that they are places of violence and squalor.

Tourists over the past decade have exercised a preference for travel that involves broadening the mind and learning, as opposed to the mass tourism culture of relaxation in

the sun. The 1990s saw the emergence of various types of popular tourism, such as green, alternative, sustainable, cultural, adventure, health and eco-tourism, with each destination marketing its own unique offering (Poon, 1993). In South Africa cultural tourism, which is a component of special-interest tourism, has primarily taken the form of township tourism and cultural village tourism (Dondolo, 2001; Ramchander, 2004). Township tours present themselves primarily as offering insights into post-apartheid progress and development, and cite attractions such as beer makers, traditional healers, traditional dancing, arts and craft centres, taverns, bed and breakfast establishments, crèches, political landmarks and shanty towns (Wolf, 2002; Chapman, 2003; Ramchander, 2003). Township tourism is growing rapidly as international tourists are eager to see how South Africa has progressed since its first democratic elections in 1994 (Sithole, 2003; Ramchander, 2004). Tourists are interested in townships that reflect past and present human experiences; they want to see the 'real' people and witness their daily life, their present developments and their cultural heritage (South Africa Online Travel Guide, 2002). Seeing that the township tourism involves tourists motivated by interests in other people's cultures and a search for the different, it falls incontrovertibly within the body of cultural tourism.

Township tourism is a new and unique tourism product existing only in South Africa. As a result there is little or no research on township tourism development and planning, or its impact on the community. The researcher has to date found no documented research on the growth or size of this tourism offering, the market segment that it serves, or its resulting impacts. In light of the absence of any research on township tourism development, the present study was conducted with a view to correcting this lack, and thus making a contribution to tourism development in South Africa.

Township tourism involves travelling for the purpose of observing the cultural expression and lifestyles of black South Africans, and offers first-hand experience of the practices of another culture (Mabogane & Callaghan, 2002; Ramchander, 2004). Tourists are typically transported in a microbus accommodating no more than fifteen people at a time. Many tourists visit South Africa's most famous townships because they symbolise

political freedom and because visits to the sprawling townships fit in perfectly with the new paradigm of special-interest tourism. Political violence may have made black townships no-go areas for foreign tourists in the days of apartheid, but 1976 and the political strife of the 1980s subsequently made townships such as Soweto world-famous (Mabogane & Callaghan, 2002; Ramchander, 2004), and it is not surprising that township tourism has increased significantly since the first democratic elections in South Africa in 1994. Their legacy of violence and pain has made townships unlikely tourist destinations, yet busloads of visitors arrive every day to sample the renewed vitality of township life (Joburg Gateway to Africa, 2001; Sithole, 2003). Most leave with a very different impression from the one with which they arrived, having gained new insights following tours led by local entrepreneurs, and discovering that townships are not depraved areas of violent crime, but vibrant centres populated by friendly people with inspirational stories to tell (Chapman, 2003; City of Johannesburg, 2003).

 Tourists are given a glimpse of local residents' daily lives and living conditions. There is the mandatory visit to a few carefully selected people in their homes, which range from a small tin and wood house to a room in a hostel and a new RDP home (Ian, 1999; Latherwick, 1999). A day-care centre is chosen to put on a daily performance for the tourists. A short walk through a series of designated streets, under the watchful eye of the guide, is intended to impart the 'feel' of the townships (Ramchander, 2004). At a craft centre tourists are able to satisfy their expectation of encountering work and development, and at the same time feel they have made a contribution by purchasing what appears to be a hand-made memento of Africa. Finally there is the social experience, set up in a 'safe' shebeen, where the tourists will be able to partake of township life without being harassed by drunken and disorderly clientele (Chapman, 2003).

Despite urbanisation, displacement and modernisation, people in the townships hold their customs and traditions dear (CNN-TravelGuide, 2003), and township tours also include visits to traditional healers. Traditional healers are a source of health care to which

Africans have turned throughout the ages, and even with the expansion of modern medicine, healers are still popular (Wolf, 2002).

Like other forms of community tourism development in the rest of the world, township tourism is increasingly being seen as an important economic activity with the potential to enhance the local economy. The term 'tourism impact' has become increasingly prominent in the tourism literature (Allen *et al.*, 1988; Pearce, 1989; Ap, 1990; Brunt & Courtney, 1999; Brown, 2000; Ratz, 2003), as the literature has demonstrated, at least to some, that tourism development has both negative and positive outcomes at the local level. Tourism development is usually justified on the basis of economic benefit, and challenged on the grounds of social, cultural, or environmental destruction.

The actual contribution made by tourism in a development programme has come increasing into question because of an alleged meagreness of actual benefits, an inequality of benefit distribution, and the high social costs exacted by tourism (Ashley & Roe, 1998).   Further, economic benefits traditionally associated with tourism development are now being measured against its potential for social disruption. Some governments are now starting to realise that the welfare of the public should be considered along with the needs of tourists and investors.

Whilst the South African White Paper on Responsible Tourism (DEAT, 1996), addresses the development, management and promotion style of tourism development in the country, there is nevertheless a lack of information on the potential socio-cultural impacts that township tourism may have on the host destination. This very lack opens the way to the research problem to which this study will attempt to provide a solution.

This study is a first attempt in South Africa to contribute to the body of knowledge concerning the perceptions of residents (hosts) towards township tourism. In it, the researcher examines host perceptions of socio-cultural impacts arising from township tourism in Soweto against the backdrop of contemporary literature.

1.5   FORMULATION OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

Because cultural tourists are motivated by an interest in local cultures in choosing to visit a particular location, they have been identified as both a blessing and blight as far as their social and cultural impact is concerned. Some authors have suggested that culturally motivated tourists are desirable because they tend to be relatively few in number and are more sympathetic in their approach to the local population and their culture than other tourists (Smith, 1989; Boniface, 1995; Asplet & Cooper, 2000). Others have suggested that it is precisely this cultural motivation that makes cultural tourists less desirable in some areas. Butler (1990) has suggested that 'alternative' tourists seeking authentic cultural experiences can open up culturally fragile areas, paving the way for potentially more damaging mass tourism.

Wheeller (1994) has gone further, arguing that cultural tourists who seek authentic experiences of local culture can inflict severe damage on local communities in spite of their low numbers. Those in search of active contact with the local population are likely to cause far more disturbance by seeking out 'local' places, which may cause increased rather than diminished friction between the local population and the tourists.

Many authors stress that cultural tourism brings about the gradual demise of traditional forms of art, craft and design, or its replacement with reproductions (Nash & Smith 1991; Fladmark, 1994; Pearce, 1995). The deterioration and commercialisation of non-material forms of culture has been a matter of major research concern, and the marketing of culture appears to be most prevalent in developing countries. The staging of contrived experience to compensate for the lack of real cultural experiences is another development that has become an accepted outgrowth of contemporary tourism (MacCannell 1973; Pearce & Moscardo 1986; Robinson & Boniface, 1998). Communities living in and around townships and cultural villages fall within the category of host populations, and so are included among those affected by cultural tourism. Socio-cultural impacts in these areas, however, are less well documented.

Township tours are meant to be more authentic and non-performative, and to give access to 'real' history, 'real' people and the 'real' South Africa, and are presented as an alternative to cultural village performances. The cultures of local residents are seen not as fixed or frozen, but as dynamic and changing with the times. Township tours have thus caused a shift in the representation of 'authenticity', as the township has now become synonymous with that quality. Townships through township tours thus seem to be a contact zone, as they are spaces of interaction between the local people of the visited areas and the visitors.

1.5.1 Problem statement

Political violence may have made townships no-go areas for foreign tourists in the days of apartheid, but since South Africa's first democratic elections in 1994, township tourism has been growing rapidly as international tourists are eager to see how the country has progressed. Communities living in and around townships are thus affected by township tourism, either positively or negatively. Township tourism is a new and unique tourism product that is rapidly gaining currency in South Africa, with little or no research on its development, planning and impacts.

An important variable in community tourism development such as township tourism is the host community's perception of the impacts of tourism. These perceptions may influence the project or community itself favourably or unfavourably. There is increasing evidence that the appropriate level for analysing tourism impacts is the community, since the greatest impacts of the industry are felt within the host system (Tyrrell & Toepper, 1991; Pearce *et al.*, 1996). If they are to plan effectively, destination planners and decision-makers must understand the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism on host communities and the circumstances under which they occur. A systematic analysis of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in South Africa can help government planners, community decision-makers and tourism promoters identify real concerns and issues as a precursor to introducing appropriate policies and action.

1.6   REASONS FOR SELECTING SOWETO AS THE STUDY AREA

Townships throughout South Africa are in many ways similar in terms of their historical, geographical and socio-economic arrangement. Having originally been established as dormitory towns as a means of enforcing segregation, townships in South Africa are perceived as being inhabited by poor and crime-ridden communities in which high levels of political strife are prevalent. Consequently, there has been a deep-rooted perception among many South Africans and foreigners that townships are not a place to visit because of the threat they pose to personal safety.

There are townships located on the outskirts of all major cities in all nine provinces of the country, and in selecting a study area the researcher recognised that an investigation of the socio-cultural impacts of cultural tourism spanning all townships in South Africa would have proved excessive in scope. Since the researcher is situated in Johannesburg, Soweto constituted the most practical and accessible choice of site for a study of this kind. The researche r was further led to select Soweto as the site for the present study because it is representative of South African black townships, while simultaneously being an icon: "Soweto has developed from a mere geographical concept into an international symbol of victory over oppression.

Throughout the world there are monuments condemning fascism, tyranny and abuse of human rights, with the implicit message: let this never happen again. Soweto like townships around South Africa represents living proof that, wit h determination, spirit and a just cause, an ordinary community can make a difference" (City of Johannesburg, 2003). This sentiment was reiterated by Mrs M.J. Woods, Director of City of Johannesburg's Tourism & Marketing during an interview conducted on 21 August 2003; in her view, Soweto is internationally known and is South Africa's most famous township because it symbolises political freedom to people around the world. As a result, with little or no marketing, and despite a great deal of adverse publicity, it has established itself as a major destination for foreign tourists in South Africa. Thus, because of both Soweto's representativeness and what it represents, the researcher considered that

findings and conclusions reached from this study could be applicable to other townships in South Africa.

Woods (2003) describes Soweto as an unusual tourist destination because the events for which it is famous took place within recent living memory and the people responsible for these events are ordinary Sowetans. In this sense, Soweto is not an artefact or a museum, but a living place. It is not just another tourist destination; it is in part a memorial to those who died for freedom and in part a celebration of what human beings can achieve (Soweto SA, 2003, Woods, 2003). Soweto boasts special attractions as it is home to people who resisted the apartheid system. Tourists therefore visit sites that were the frontiers of anti-apartheid battles and today hold memories of that struggle (Mabogane & Callaghan, 2002). Cultural tourism is therefore an integral element of all tourism in Soweto.

A final compelling reason for selecting Soweto as the site for this study is its very popularity as a tourist destination. Soweto has drawn innumerable visitors because international tourism trends for South Africa have also moved to cultural tourism patterns, and the sprawling township satisfies the new paradigm. Despite a scarcity of precise data on tourism markets and marketing relating to Soweto, evidence suggests that the majority of tourists originate from Europe. The perception is that they want to make contact with local people and experience the Sowetan way of life. National tourism statistics suggest that 8% of all visitors who visit South Africa's main attractions visit Soweto. Soweto holds joint fourteenth position on the list of the most popular attractions in South Africa, and is one of only eight attractions to have drawn an increased number of tourists over the past year (SA Tourism, 2003a).

According to a report from the Gauteng Tourism Authority (2002), the number of visitors who pay to enter the Hector Peterson Memorial site is an indication that an average of 1 498 tourists visit Soweto each month. However, as not all tours visit the memorial square, this figure is likely to be conservative. Mr W. Radebe, tour guide employed by Jimmy's Face to Face Tours, the largest tour operator in Soweto, explained in an

interview on 12 June 2003 that the enterprise takes approximately 3 000 tourists to Soweto per month. Three smaller operators take in the region of 1 000 visitors to Soweto per month between them (Radebe, 2003).

In an interview conducted on 15 September 2003 Mr K. Sithole, research manager of the Gauteng Tourism Authority estimated the total number of foreign and domestic tourists entering Soweto daily at 800. This figure does not take into account those not participating in official tours.

1.7   AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The purpose and scope of this study is to investigate the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in Soweto as perceived by the host population and to examine the extent to which these coincide with the classifications in the literature. The study aims specifically to examine local residents' perceptions of and attitudes towards tourism, without measuring the actual social effects of tourism development on the area. Results from the study may provide the basis for formulating responsible tourism guidelines that will shape appropriate policies and measures intended to prevent negative tourism impacts and reinforce positive ones.

The realisation of the following objectives will give effect to the stated aim of the study:

? To profile the history, people, lifestyle, culture, religion and tourism potential of Soweto (Chapter 2)

? To provide a theoretical basis and framework for assessing the host community's perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism (Chapter 3)

? To review suitable tourism development strategies and approaches for tourism planners, managers and communities in managing the effects of township tourism on destination communities (Chapter 4)

? To use key socio-cultural impact variables and concepts identified in the literature review to develop appropriate research methodology and instruments that will direct and inform the research process (Chapters 3 and 5)

? To develop a multiple-item attitudinal scale for measuring resident perceptions of the impacts of township tourism, and to assess the effects of selected independent variables identified from the literature on resident perceptions of township tourism development (Chapter 5)

? To evaluate and interpret main trends or patterns within the perceived socio-cultural impacts (results) found in the literature and the study itself (Chapters 3 and 6)

? To profile the intricate relationship of residents' perceptions and tourism impacts by measuring the stage of tourism development in a host community, i.e. relating resident perception research to a corresponding stage of township tourism development in Soweto (Chapters 6 and 7)

? To formulate responsible tourism guidelines and to recommend approaches that can be applied to the development of sustainable township tourism in South Africa, so as to create the basis necessary for good practice for any community cultural tourism project (Chapter 7)

1.8   VALUE OF THE RESEARCH

The only literature the researcher has found on township tourism consisted of descriptions of township tours, their tour operators, and visitors to the area. There therefore appears to be no available research in South Africa on the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism. The results of the study will make a significant contribution to the body of knowledge on township tourism development in South Africa and to the cultural tourism discipline.

In South Africa, socio-cultural impacts have received relatively modest attention, partly because most social and cultural beliefs or practices are much less amenable to direct observation and the conventional forms of measurement through survey-based enquiry of the kind that is so popular in the analysis of tourism. For similar reasons, social concerns arising from tourism are often poorly accommodated in planning processes, where primary interests centre upon controlling physical development, encouraging economic growth, and, more recently, promoting sustainable environments.

Host communities seek to attract tourists to their area because of the industry's potential for improving existing economic and social conditions (i.e., the host's quality of life). However, previous studies have shown that tourism also has the potential to degrade residents' perceptions of their quality of life if too many visitors are attracted. If this is allowed to occur, opposition to tourism is likely to emerge in the community. The development of an assessment instrument to measure perceived impacts is intended to facilitate a monitoring process that will assist communities in sustaining tourism at a level at which both visitors and residents perceive net benefits to accrue.

Understanding residents' perceptions of tourism impacts is fundamental to tourism planning and development. An important variable in tourism planning is residents' perceptions of new developments. This aspect is crucial for tourism planning and development, as residents' perceptions of the impacts of tourism may impact positively or negatively on new projects. This study is an attempt to contribute to the body of knowledge concerning the perceptions of township residents of a specific type of tourism.

It is conceivable that the study may produce warning indicators that can be used to identify those areas needing intervention as a result of tourism impacts. Guidelines and principles will be offered as a means of informing decision-makers in government at national, provincial and local levels, in the private sector, in the tourism industry and within the cultural sector of the potential and importance of sustainable township tourism. We will need to understand these matters if we are to create sustainable cultural tourism products that will boost our economy and bring real benefits to local communities. The development of research on township tourism impacts should contribute to the sustainability of the tourism business and promise a better quality of life to the host community.

Principles and recommendations concerning intervention derived from this study could be usefully applied to other townships in South Africa where township tours are being undertaken. Evaluating the growing significance of township tourism in South Africa will

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help to increase the effectiveness with which cultural tourism and products are managed and promoted in a sustainable way.

1.9 ASSUMPTIONS

? It is anticipated that social exchange theory, which explains residents' attitudes to tourism, will support the results of this study. In terms of social exchange theory, assessments of community support can be made by understanding the characteristic of host residents (such as age, acquired educational levels, previous employment in the tourism industry, levels of income and whether they earn income deriving from tourism-related jobs) and by linking these to negative or positive attitudes towards tourism.

? It is assumed that residents who have a direct business relationship with tourism would have more positive perceptions toward tourism than those with no direct business relationship with the industry, that self-employed residents would have more positive attitudes toward tourism than employees, and that residents with immediate family members working in tourism-related businesses would have more positive attitudes towards tourism than those who did not.

? Heavy tourism concentration in a destination area leads to negative attitudes towards tourists and tourism in general.

1.10 DELIMITATIONS

? The purpose of this study is to investigate the perceptions of socio-cultural impacts and consequences of cultural tourism in the case of township tours. The social and cultural impacts of tourism are often difficult to measure, as they are to a large extent indirect. Consequently, the study concentrates on residents' perceptions of the effects of tourism on their region rather than being an attempt to measure the actual effects.

? The study focuses on only one major cultural tourism product in South Africa, namely township tourism, using only one township (Soweto) as a study destination.

? The host community consists of residents, tourism professionals, employees, planners and tourism entrepreneurs exclusively in the community of Soweto.

1.11 RESEARCH PHILOSOPHY

Tourism management is only just emerging as a discipline. Despite recognition of its status as an independent discipline, it nevertheless draws on other disciplines such as geography, sociology, social psychology, economics, marketing and history to inform its research processes and theoretical frameworks. Tourism is becoming an increasingly widespread and complex activity that requires sophisticated management to realise its full potential as a positive economic, environmental, social and cultural force, a fact acknowledged by Weaver and Lawton (2002:2), who state that "The implication of this is that sustainable tourist destinations and businesses, more than ever, require highly educated and adaptable managers who understand and can respond to the dualistic behaviour of the sector — that is, its relentless growth over the long term and its increased vulnerability to sudden downward interruptions".

Because of the enormous diversity of the many elements that make up tourism management, problems in this field will not be resolved by the adoption of only a single research method. The breadth and complexity of tourism make the use of many methods necessary, depending on the topic (Gunn, 1994). The nature of the information needed should be emphasised, and then every relevant and appropriate principle, technique and method must be brought into service. Graburn (1993, 2002) argues that no single discipline alone can accommodate, treat, or understand tourism; it can be studied only if disciplinary boundaries are crossed and if multidisciplinary perspectives are sought and formed.

In summary: tourism management is a complex phenomenon, and, therefore, tourism research must utilise all the disciplinary approaches that will be most useful in managing and solving problems. Because tourism management is multidisciplinary, solutions to problems will increasingly require the cooperation and collaboration of researchers from several disciplines (Weaver & Opperman, 2000; Weaver & Lawton, 2002).

1.11.1 Dimensions of tourism management

Tourism is the product of a number of source disciplines. Figure 1.1 shows sixteen disciplines from which the study of tourism has evolved, and indicates the content that each discipline has contributed. The individual disciplines tend to create their own perspectives, ideas and concepts of tourism.

Adapted from (Keyser, 2002:29)

Figure 1.1   A MULTIDISCIPLINARY PERSPECTIVE OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT

For the purposes of this study, the tourism management research design is informed by an interdisciplinary approach involving social and cultural phenomena. Social phenomena, comprising the social interaction between tourists and residents, and between tourists and the tourism industry, are influenced by social factors such as fashion and status. The patterns and influence of social interaction on residents and tourists and the social factors affecting tourism demand are among the topics studied in the sociology of tourism (Cohen, 1979; Burns, 1999; Graburn, 2002; Keyser, 2002). Cultural phenomena bring about contact between cultures, or cultural exchange. The anthropology of tourism deals with cross-cultural communication in tourism, cultural conservation, cultural change, arts, and artefacts (Cohen, 1979; Burns, 1999; Graburn, 2002; Keyser, 2002).

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The theoretical background for this study is social exchange theory. Ap (1992) incorporated social exchange theory into a conceptual framework to form the social exchange-processing model as a theoretical basis to assist scholars in understanding why residents have positive and negative perceptions of tourism. Social exchange theory articulates that residents will be inclined to exchange their resources with tourists if this allows them to acquire benefits without incurring unacceptable costs (Ap, 1992). People who perceive the benefits of tourism to be greater than the costs may be more amenable to participating in the exchange and giving full-fledged support for tourism development (Allen *et al.*, 1993; Getz, 1992). In other words, if residents perceive that more benefits will be accrued through the exchange process, they will tend to support their community tourism business more loyally.

1.11.2 Philosophy of research methodology

The current research does not fall within a single domain, i.e. either a phenomenological or positivistic paradigm. These two main paradigms represent two extremes of a continuum, and this study represents a blend of assumptions and methodologies. The benefits and shortcomings of the various methodologies were considered, and an integrated approach was selected that combines elements of both qualitative as well as quantitative data, making triangulation possible.

1.12   METHODOLOGY

An approach described by Easterby-Smith *et al*., (1991), referred to as methodological triangulation and involving both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection is used. The research methodology therefore allows for a combination of techniques, making a convergence of results possible, since no single research method will ever capture all the changing features of the social world under study (Massey, 2003).

Qualitative interpretative research helps the researcher organise and describe subjective data in a systematic way (Bowen, 2003), whereas the quantitative, positivist mode guides the researcher on a quest for certainty and absolute truth, and insists on objectivity (Blaikie, 1991). Combining methods was therefore considered advantageous for a

number of reasons. Gathering together a number of separate impressions was accepted as means of providing a fuller and richer picture of the way respondents experience and perceive township tourism. Respondents were interviewed and asked to complete a questionnaire informed by the literature review as a way of eliciting their perceptions and opinions of township tourism development in Soweto.

Multiple-method research offers two complementary approaches to different research problems or different aspects of the same problem, and offers the advantages of triangulation. The original formulation of triangulation was advanced in 1970 by Denzin, who argued in favour of combining research strategies as a means of examining the same research problem and hence enhancing claims about the reliability of the conclusions that could be reached (and the methods used to reach them) and minimising the risk of generating erroneous findings. In other words, triangulation is about exposing potentially conflicting perspectives to analysis and showing that data findings can be integrated and cross-referenced to highlight consistency (Blaikie, 1991; Bowen, 2003; Massey, 2003).

A full description of the research instruments used for data collection and techniques of data analysis is contained in chapter 5.

1.13   RESEARCH DESIGN

As Vogt (1993:196) explains, research design is the "science (and art) of planning procedures for conducting studies so as to get the most valid findings". The research design contains the work plan or blueprint of the study to be undertaken, and provides a chronological explanation of the steps or phases to be followed in the research process (Neuman, 1994; Mouton, 2001). Aside from providing a detailed plan to guide and focus research, it also provides a framework to assist with the organisation of the researcher's time and resources. The research design for this study was developed so as to comply with the aim and objectives of the study, and was thus divided into distinct phases culminating in the achievement of specific goals. Table 1.1 illustrates the phases and associated goals (activities) of the research design, as well as an indication of how the content translates into the various chapters into which this report is divided.

PHASE	DESIGN GOALS	CHAPTER
Phase 1	• Introduction and Orientation to the research theme, socio-cultural impacts • Determine feasibility and value of the study • Problem Analysis • Formulation of research problem • Aim of the study (Purpose of Study) • Objectives of the study • Research philosophy and approach	**Chapter 1** General orientation of study
Phase 2	• Construction of conceptual framework • Definitions of Key Concepts • Literature study on Soweto – the study Area • Soweto Society Today • Population Profile • The township trail and Soweto's tourists	**Chapter 1** **Chapter 2** Background to Soweto
Phase 3	• Literature study on perceptions of socio-cultural impacts • Reflection on theories and models • Review applicable research instruments used for socio-cultural impact analysis	**Chapter 3** Literature Review on Perceptions of Socio-Cultural Impacts and Theoretical Framework
Phase 4	• Review socio-cultural impact variables for use in research instrument • Construction of theoretical framework	**Chapter 3**
Phase 5	• Literature study on planning and management of tourism in destination communities • The scope and dimension of sustainable development and sustainable tourism • Towards a community tourism approach	**Chapter 4** Appropriate Planning for Tourism Destination Communities
Phase 6	• Development of Instrumentation – Five Point Likert Scale • Pretest of Instrument	**Chapter 5** Research Strategy and Methodology
Phase 7	• Methodological triangulation, where both quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection are used - Quantitative Methods: Likerts Scale Household Questionnaire - Qualitative Methods: In-depth personal Interviews, Participant Observation, Semi–structured interviews • Respondents and Sampling • Collect Data, process and store data	**Chapter 5**
Phase 8	• Analyse and synthesize Data • Descriptive Statistics to present findings	**Chapter 6** Analysis and Findings
Phase 9	• Synthesis, Formulate conclusions and recommendations	**Chapter 7** Conclusions and Recommendations

Table 1.1   RESEARCH DESIGN: SOCIO-CULTURL IMPACT OF TOWNSHIP TOURISM

1.14   DEFINITION OF KEY CONCEPTS

Concepts provide the general representations of the phenomena to be studied and are the 'building blocks' that determine the whole course of the study (Veal, 1997). The researcher identified the key concepts in figure 1.2 as being pertinent to this study. For a complete list of definitions for these concepts refer to Appendix B.
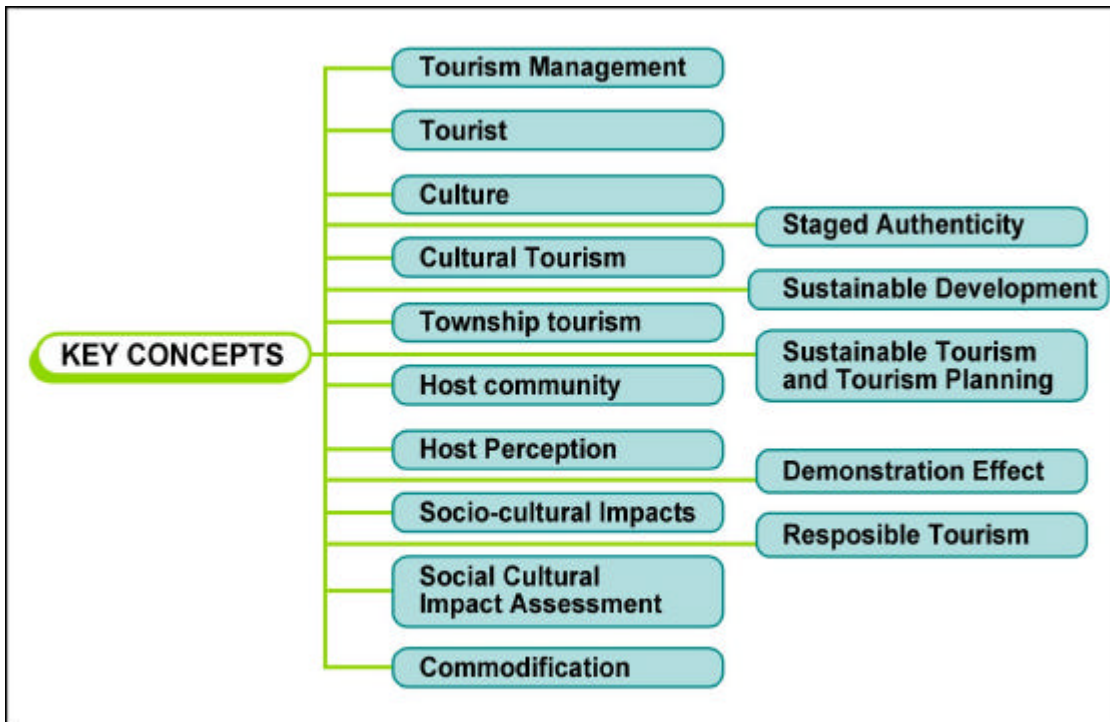
Figure 1.2   KEY CONCEPTS PERTINENT TO SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS

1.15   ORGANISATION OF CHAPTERS

This study is organised into seven chapters, which are preceded by an introductory chapter (chapter 1), which provides an outline of the study and articulates the significance of the study, the research problem, the formulation of the aims and objectives, research design, the assumptions and delimitations of the study, the research design and key concepts that will determine the course of the study. Chapter 1 contextualises the study and states the overall aims and goals of the study as they crystallised during the researcher's preliminary reading and consideration of the problem.

Chapter 2 addresses objective 1 of the study, which is to profile the background and historical development of Soweto (its people, lfestyle, culture, religion and township tourism potential and visitors).

Chapter 3 reviews the literature covered and shows how the researcher demarcated the scholarship to be included in the review of literature. It provides a theoretical basis and framework for assessing host communitys' perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism. Important themes addressed include: host-guest interrelationship, socio-cultural impacts in the academic literature; the role of tourism in host communities; residents' perceptions of socio-cultural impacts; the socio-cultural impacts of tourism on community life; changing perceptions and uncertainty about tourism development in community settings. Chapter 3 assists in informing the type and design of methodological instruments to be adopted for data collection in this study.

Chapter 4 provides an overview of the main conclusions that have been reached in the literature regarding tourism development planning strategies, viz. sustainable tourism development and community tourism approaches used in destination communities. A review is carried out of the suitability of these strategies for tourism planners, managers and communities in managing the effects of tourism on host communities. These conclusions are important, as they will inform and influence the empirical part of the study.

Chapter 5 outlines the research design and methodology procedures used to achieve the stated aim and objectives of the study. The combination of quantitative and qualitative data collection methods applied in the fieldwork is discussed. The development of the Likert scale instrument used to measure the key impact variables of the study is explained. Included are details of the sample design, data collection techniques and methods of analysis used.

In chapter 6, analysis, interpretation and a full description of the main results relating to the socio-cultural impacts perceived by Soweto residents are presented and discussed.

Chapter 6 provides a full discussion of the main trends and patterns in the data with reference to the stated aim and objectives of the research.

Chapter 7, the concluding chapter, addresses the final objective of the study, i.e. to formulate principles and guidelines and recommend approaches that can be applied to the development of sustainable township tourism in South Africa so as to create the basis necessary for good practice for any community cultural tourism project. The main findings that have been obtained in the study are discussed by drawing together the results from the previous chapters. The researcher indicates the larger relevance and value of the study, also specifying where there are still gaps and uncertainties that may require further scholarship and research.   The chapter concludes by recommending planning approaches and principles for sustainable township tourism in destination communities such as townships, and by highlighting policy implications.

1.16 SUMMARY

The purpose of chapter one is to provide a broad orientation of the study, introducing township tourism as a form of special interest tourism within the field of cultural tourism in South Africa. The chapter contextualises the main research problem providing clear reasons for selecting Soweto as a study area, followed by discussing the main research aim and objectives of the study. The contribution of the research towards responsible township tourism development and planning within the tourism management field of South Africa, is emphasised.   The research philosophy encompassing a tourism management research design, informed by interdisciplinary approaches of social and cultural phenomena is fully motivated for. Chapter one concludes with an outline of the forthcoming chapters in the study, presenting a brief discussion on the relevance and purpose of each chapter.

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CHAPTER 2

BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY AREA: SOWETO

2.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter is intended to give effect to the first objective of this study, namely to furnish brief background details of the historical development, people, lifestyle, culture, religion and tourism potential of Soweto, thus lending a context to the stated aim of the study. The descriptions and profile of Soweto in particular the "Development of Soweto Society", presented in this chapter could apply equally well to many other townships in South Africa in which cultural tourism, and township tourism specifically, is conducted. Discussion of key political events and services such as housing, education and health as well as important facts, figures and statistics provide the reader with an informed perspective of Soweto. The chapter further contains some details of the tourism sector emerging in Soweto.

2.2   DEVELOPMENT OF SOWETO SOCIETY

Despite *its* pain-filled past, the very mention of the name Soweto elicits warm responses from many quarters.   Soweto Tours (2003a) describes it thus: "Shrouded in myth and controversy, vibrant Soweto is a city of surprise and contrast, of startling enterprise and of vigorous cultural interaction". On an intensely personal note, former President Nelson Mandela said of it: "Soweto — the only home I ever knew — and Alexandra Township — both will always have a treasured place in my heart. In a way, both were a heaven" (Gold Reef Guides, 2003).

The name Soweto is a derivation of the name South Western Township. The name was chosen following a competition instituted by the erstwhile Non-European Affairs Department of the Johannesburg City Council. As the name indicates, Soweto lies south-west of the city of Johannesburg, and it is the largest black residential area in South Africa. There are four entrances to Soweto, which extends for 120 km (Damer, 1997; Larry, 2001). Soweto consists of 34 suburbs and covers an area estimated at 9 640 ha (Farrow, 1999).
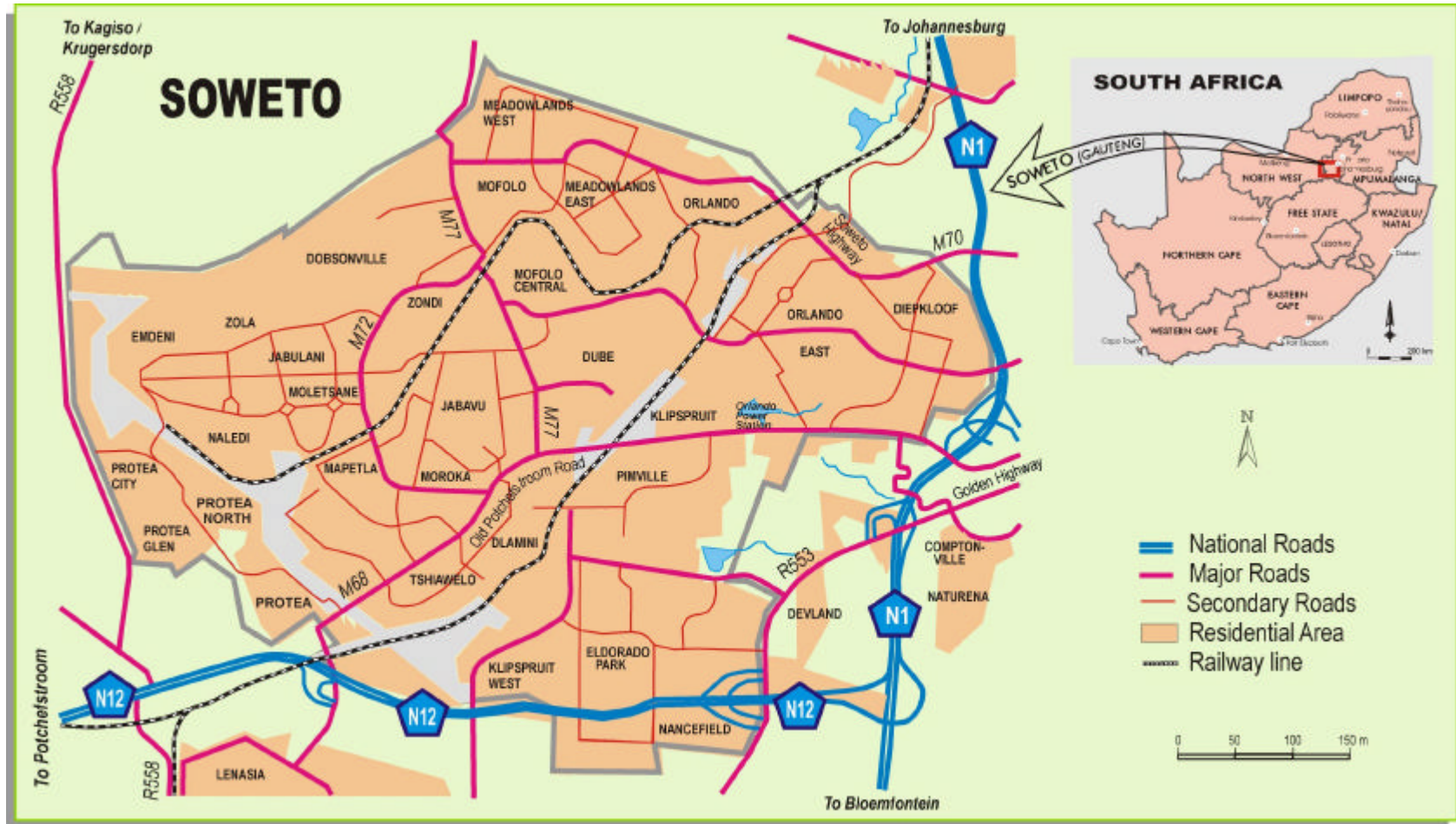
Figure 2.1   SOWETO MAP

With the coming to power of the Nationalist Party Government in 1948, the policy of apartheid was forcibly applied. The Group Areas Act, passed in 1950, in effect prohibited any racial integration (Langschmidt, 1968; Wilson & Hattingh, 1988). The Act further gave the government the power to expropriate property, establish special reserves for black people and carry out forced removals. Black people in South Africa were obliged to carry passes, which authorised their presence in 'white' areas (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002). In 1959, the residents of Sophiatown, on the outskirts of Johannesburg city, were forcibly removed to Soweto, in keeping with the government's policy of separate development (Mabogane & Callaghan, 2002). Mass housing for black people mushroomed in the area that was to become the Soweto of today.

2.2.1   Soweto and the 1976 uprising

During the 1960s and early 1970s the opposition of the youth of Soweto to the government's education policies, which to a large extent enforced Afrikaans as medium of instruction, grew.   Attempts were made by concerned civic bodies, church organisations and leading white businesses to secure a repeal of the Bantu Education Act promulgated in 1953 (Beavon, 1982; Briscoe, 2002). However, all these efforts ended in failure, and popular resentment reached an explosive level. The widespread discontent culminated in a march on 16 June 1976 in which participants protested against the government's new stipulation that the medium of instruction should be Afrikaans (Creighton, 2003). The organisers of the protest had agreed earlier that all marchers were to converge in Vilakazi Street (near Phefeni Junior Secondary School) on that day for a grand march to the Orlando Stadium (Ian, 1999; Briscoe, 2002).

The protest elicited strong police action and after several unsuccessful attempts to break up the demonstrations the police opened fire on unarmed students in Vilakazi Street, killing several, the first of whom was Hector Peterson, and wounding others (Larry, 2001).   Soweto soon resembled a war zone, and became a new flash point for the international media (Damer, 1997; Soweto March to Freedom, 2002).

2.2.2   The road to democracy

The uprising of 16 June had far-reaching repercussions, as violence became an everyday occurrence in black townships throughout the country. Many black South African youth left the country to seek education overseas and join the liberation movements in exile. The world-wide flood of sympathy strengthened the anti-apartheid campaign. Afrikaans as a medium of instruction at schools was dropped (Dawie, 2001; Larry, 2001).

Many white people in South Africa became aware for the first time of African grievances and aspirations, and the attitude of employers changed. Various bodies were created to improve the standard of living of Africans in the cities and to shape a more just society.

Government attempts to stamp its authority over the next decade by way of further banning orders, declarations of states of emergency and detention without trial were met with increasing resistance from all sectors of society. Soweto Day, as 16 June came to be called, redefined the relationship between Africans and the state (Ian, 1999). Hopelessness was replaced by determination and increased political initiatives. Although it took more than a decade to reach fruition, a new democratic South Africa was built on the foundation laid in Soweto on 16 June 1976 (Damer, 1997; Ian, 1999). The end of the freedom struggle was heralded by the release of Nelson Mandela and other political detainees in 1990, South Africa's first democratic elections and the inauguration of Nelson Mandela as the country's first black president in 1994 (Briscoe, 2002).

2.2.3   Population profile and culture

The people of Soweto are black South Africans belonging to virtually all the indigenous groups found in South Africa, although Zulus, Xhosas and Sothos predominate. The population is estimated at 3,5 million, although the precise figure is difficult to determine due to the ebb and flow of the population, with large numbers of illegal immigrants from neighbouring states and other parts of Africa easily finding access to Soweto's informal settlements (Briscoe, 2002; Creighton, 2003). Women are in the majority, and account for approximately 57% of the total population. More than 45% of the population of Soweto is below the age of 25 (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002).

Nine African languages are spoken in Soweto: isiZulu, isiXhosa, siSwati, Tshivenda, Setswana, Sepedi, Sesotho, isiNdebele and Shangaan (Mabogane & Callaghan, 2002; Soweto SA, 2003).   Of these, isiZulu, isiXhosa, Sesotho and Setswana predominate. Many Sowetans speak between three and five languages, with Soweto's city slickers speaking a brand of streetwise Afrikaans commonly referred to as *tsotsi taal* (South Africa Online Travel Guide, 2002). More than 80% of the population in Soweto speaks English. Indeed, the daily newspaper with the fastest growing readership in South Africa is *The Sowetan*, which is published in English (Briscoe, 2002). Established in 1982, it has an estimated readership of 1,8 million.

Black South Africans originally arriving in Johannesburg were regarded as temporary contract workers, seeking employment on the mines and in service industries; hence Soweto was always referred to as a 'dormitory city' (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002). It was not until much later that the authorities finally accepted that a large black population in and around Johannesburg was a permanent feature of the city.

The modern-day Sowetan is 'upwardly mobile', with a culture that is a mix of Western and ethnic influences (Mabogane & Callaghan, 2002). Family size tends to be smaller, with the younger urbanised class favouring smaller families of only one or two children. Nevertheless, there are many instances of families of up to six children. At present, there are no white families living in Soweto, although many mixed-marriage couples live in the suburbs of Johannesburg (Soweto SA, 2003; Creighton, 2003).

A large proportion of the population remains deeply rooted in African culture and tradition, and in consequence adolescents of both sexes are required to attend initiation ceremonies and circumcision schools, where they are taught the customs and traditions of their ethnic group of origin (Township Crawling, 2002). Initiation ceremonies are conducted 'in the wilds' and in recent times have attracted considerable criticism and sparked debate due to fatalities (Briscoe, 2002; Soweto March to Freedom, 2002); circumcision rites have shown a decline in Soweto during the past decade.

Urbanised Sowetans to a great extent uphold marriage traditions. Briscoe (2002) notes that various types of marriages are celebrated, approximately 90% being customary marriages involving a combination of civil and Christian traditions. In all types of marriages, *lobola* (dowry) is paid. Traditionally *lobola* was paid in the form of cattle; today it is paid in cash.

Soweto is a community of extremes. Shanty dwellers and squatter communities embody abject poverty, while extraordinary wealth is encountered in the upper class suburbs such as Diepkloof Extension, where homes have been valued in excess of R1 million (Gold Reef Guides, 2003). The suburb was built in three phases in the mid 1980s and is the suburb of choice for businesspeople, academics, musicians and other professionals (iafrica.com, 2002; CNN-Travel Guide, 2003). However, there is a broad middle class into which the majority of Soweto residents fall. Middle class areas include Protea, Protea Glen, Protea North and South, Dhlamini/Moroka, Chiawelo and Naledi Extension (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002; Soweto SA, 2003).

Informal settlements have increased dramatically in many parts of Soweto in recent years. Under the apartheid regime, influx control was strictly applied in order to minimise the number of black people living in industrialised white South Africa (Wilson & Hattingh, 1988). It was only in April 1986 that the despised pass laws, which had previously restricted the free movement of black people within South Africa, were repealed (Ian, 1999). This resulted in a wave of rural people streaming into Soweto in search of a better life. Any vacant piece of land was occupied, shacks were erected, and new communities of shack dwellers came into being. A well-known informal settlement is Mandela Village, established in 1990, and now home to an estimated 6 000 people living in some 1 200 shacks. Most of these residents are migrants from the rural areas (Farrow, 1999; Soweto March to Freedom, 2002).

By 2021, 70% of the South African population is likely to be urbanised; at present in South Africa more than 7 million people countrywide live in informal settlements (Dawie, 2001). Masland *et al.*, (2002) describe informal settlement areas as lacking

water-borne sewage, with sanitation taking the form of chemically-treated toilets. Water is obtained from centres within the informal settlements where fresh water taps are located. Electrification has been introduced, but coal and paraffin as sources of fuel are still used extensively. Illegal immigrants have moved into Mandela Village in large numbers, with exchange of dwelling ownership resting entirely on a verbal agreement and payment in cash (Briscoe, 2002; Creighton, 2003). Many Sowetans born and bred live in informal settlements, including Mandela Village.

Near the Jabulani business district, 871 high-density residential blocks can be found. These infamous hostels are a historical feature of Johannesburg's gold mining history (Damer, 1997; Soweto SA, 2003). The mines adopted the mine compound system to house their African workforce. However, male migrant workers sought accommodation near their work in Johannesburg and during the 1950s hostels were built in Soweto to house the migrant workers (Damer, 1997; Soweto March to Freedom, 2002).   Eight hostels were built for men and one for women, housing a total of 45 000 people (Farrow, 1999).   In 1991, the South African government initiated a hostel redevelopment programme and converted many of the hostels into family units (Farrow, 1999).

It is estimated that 40% of the population of Soweto is unemployed, giving rise to a high incidence of crime (Soweto SA, 2003). Many try to find work as hawkers, painters, fruit and vegetable sellers, sellers of second-hand clothes, builders, and motor mechanics. The average monthly income per household is R1 500, with middle-class Sowetans earning an estimated R3 000 per month (Briscoe, 2002). Registered vehicles number in excess of 60 000, with the number of minibus taxis exceeding 41 000. In addition, there are a large number of stolen vehicles.

There are three ultra-modern shopping complexes, located in Protea North, Dobsonville and Meadowlands. There is a major shopping centre in Dobsonville, with a cinema complex. In 1980 the Blackchain Shopping Centre, situated near the Chris Hani Baragwanath Hospital, was built using share capital of R500 000 raised by Africans (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002). However, poor management saw its demise. Before

that, Soweto had several small shopping complexes near Baragwanath taxi rank, at Dube and Pimville Square, and in Jabavu.

Beer drinking is a favoured recreational pursuit and forms an important part of wedding celebrations and other functions such as funerals (Masland, 2002). Shebeens (previously illegal drinking halls) are extremely popular and differ greatly today from the dingy establishments of the apartheid era, when they were frequently raided by the police (Township Crawling, 2002). Taverns are somewhat superior to shebeens and some, such as Wandi's Place in Dube, have achieved international fame. There are an estimated 2 500 shebeens and 220 taverns in Soweto and up to R50 million is spent on beer each month (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002; Township Crawling, 2002; Creighton, 2003).

2.3   RELIGION

Creighton (2003) reports that there are 260 Christian churches, 39 crèches and 12 community halls in Soweto. About 40% of Sowetans are Christians. According to Briscoe (2002), established Christian denominations include Methodism, Anglicanism, Roman Catholicism and the Dutch Reformed Church. Regina Mundi is Soweto's largest Roman Catholic church (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002; Creighton, 2003), and was frequently used as a venue for political gatherings during the days of apartheid and to commemorate political events.

According to Briscoe (2002), more than 20% of the population is affiliated to independent black churches or religious groups, of which the Zionist Church is the largest. Once a year, more than two million members come together for special services. There are up to 800 small religious groups commonly referred to as *Amazioni* or Zion sects. Most of the churches respect the traditional belief in ancestral worship, and roughly 46% of Sowetans follow ancestral beliefs (Farrow, 1999). Approximately 1% of the population of Soweto is Muslim, and there is one mosque in Soweto (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002). Church leaders are highly respected and their statements play an important part in the formation of political opinions amongst congregations (Creighton, 2003).

Impressive funeral services are a feature of Soweto; it is customary to hold funerals over the weekend period, and an average of 200 occur every weekend (Soweto SA, 2003), with cortèges often stretching for several kilometres. Causes of death among the population range from AIDS, crime, unsanitary living conditions and back-street abortions to old age.

Because of the traditional belief in the ancestors, cremation is not popular amongst Sowetans and African people in general, and it is very rare that a family will permit a deceased family member to be cremated. Soweto has three burial grounds: Avalon, Doornkop and Nancefield. A number of those who were prominent in the liberation struggle, such as Joe Slovo, Helen Joseph and Lillian Ngoyi, are buried in Avalon Cemetery (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002; Creighton, 2003; Soweto SA, 2003). Ian (1999) reports that many ethnic groups resident in Soweto believe that spirits and ghosts roam Soweto, and it is to their presence that the disappearance of so many children is attributed.

2.4   SPAZA SHOPS

A feature of Soweto is the proliferation of spaza shops (Masland *et al.*, 2002; Soweto SA, 2003). Spaza means "imitation" or "not real" in isiXhosa (Farrow, 1999). The spaza shop is a kind of convenience shop selling what the community residents require, from basics such as milk and bread, to items of clothing. These shops are established in garages, spare rooms or in makeshift shanties near a bus terminus or railway station. The spaza shop is no longer illegal, but a licence must be obtained.

2.5   TRANSPORT

The majority of the residents use minibus taxis, trains and buses as a means of transport to commute from their homes to their places of work. The minibus taxis are cheap, but fast and dangerous. The buses are slower and expensive, and trains are the cheapest but the slowest form of transport. According to Briscoe (2002) and Creighton (2003), the Putco Bus Company makes more than 7 800 trips per week through greater Soweto and carries approximately 18 million passengers each year over more than 17 million

kilometres. Buses operate from 04:30 through to 19:30 daily through the suburbs and around greater Soweto.

There are more than 41 000 registered minibus taxis operating within the municipal area of Johannesburg and serving the needs of Soweto residents (City of Johannesburg, 2003). The South African Black Taxi Association has over 55 000 members and is constantly endeavouring to exercise control over the industry (City of Johannesburg, 2003). Rivalry between taxi operators is a constant feature of the industry and violence is frequent.

The South African Rail and Commuter Corporation serves more than 2,5 million Gauteng commuters each day through 430 stations. More than 1 613 trains run each day and many serve the needs of Soweto residents (City of Johannesburg, 2003). Most of the 12 railway stations in Soweto have been upgraded. It is estimated that more than 1,5 million people commute to Johannesburg from Soweto daily (City of Johannesburg, 2003).

2.6   SPORT

The most popular sport in Soweto is soccer. There are 120 soccer fields and four stadiums in greater Soweto. The First National Bank Stadium can accommodate up to 130 000 spectators and is claimed to be the biggest stadium in Africa (Damer, 1997). According to Briscoe (2002), in greater Soweto there are six swimming pools, twelve basketball fields, two bowling greens, a hundred and forty netball fields, two rugby fields, one cycling track, six tennis courts and three boxing gymnasiums. In 1995, members of the Soweto cricket club, with a membership of 140, constituted the first cricket side from the township to tour overseas (Creighton, 2003).
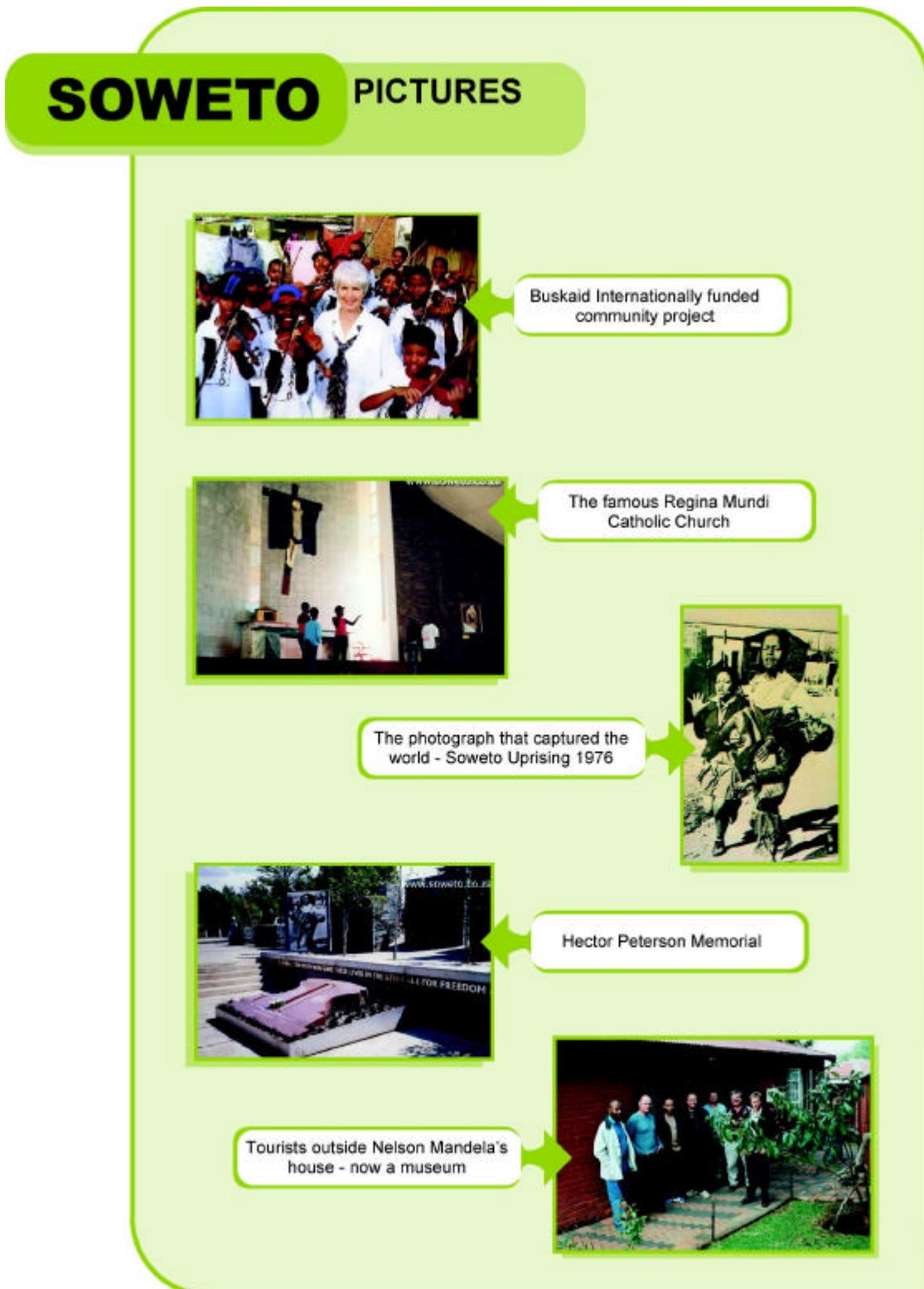
Figure 2.2   SOWETO PICTURES OF EVERYDAY LIFE AND HISTORICAL LANDMARKS
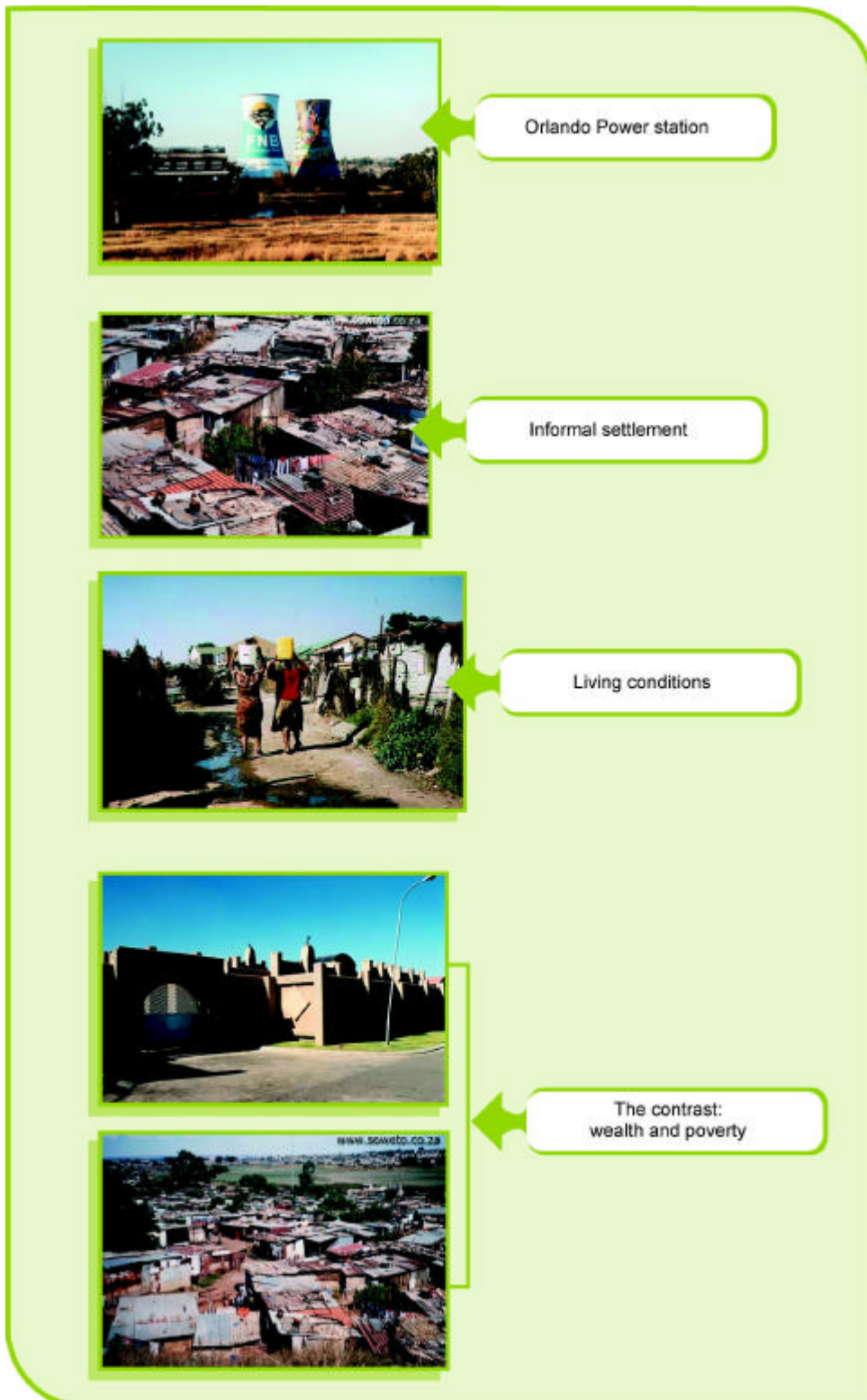
Figure 2.2 **SOWETO PICTURES OF EVERYDAY LIFE AND HISTORICAL LANDMARKS**

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Tourist stop at a traditional healer

Famous Wandies Tavern in Soweto

Soweto's busy Taxi rank

Tourist visiting an open air market

Tourist visiting a shebeen in Soweto

Figure 2.2   SOWETO PICTURES OF EVERYDAY LIFE AND HISTORICAL LANDMARKS

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Figure 2.2   SOWETO PICTURES OF EVERYDAY LIFE AND HISTORICAL LANDMARKS

Figure 2.2   SOWETO PICTURES OF EVERYDAY LIFE AND HISTORICAL LANDMARKS

2.7   POLITICAL PARTIES

Soweto has always been characterised by political activity. In the days of apartheid underground liberation groups were formed and resistance to the policies of apartheid was exported to various black residential areas throughout South Africa (Masland *et al*., 2002).

The Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) and the African National Congress (ANC) are well represented in Soweto and there is considerable rivalry between these two political parties (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002). In Soweto the ethnically based IFP is supported predominantly by hostel dwellers. The most poorly supported political parties are the Pan Africanist Congress and the Azanian People's Organisation, the latter being more of a black consciousness movement than a political party (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002).

2.8   INDUSTRIAL ACTIVITY

Industrial activity in Soweto is wide ranging, with much emphasis on the informal sector. The Small Business Development Corporation has developed approximately 80 business sites for factories, ranging from tent manufacturers to upholsterers, from welders to panel beaters, and leather workers to candle makers (Creighton, 2003).

In recent years the government made a grant of R40 million to the Small Business Development Corporation to create jobs by promoting entrepreneurial ventures throughout Gauteng. Industrial sites have been established at Naledi and Orlando East. There are more than 1 200 licensed traders in greater Soweto (Briscoe, 2002; Soweto SA, 2003).

2.9   A BRIEF HISTORY OF BLACK EDUCATION

Until 1948, when the Nationalist Party under Prime Minister Daniel Malan came to power, education for black South Africans fell under the jurisdiction of the various provincial administrations (Beavon, 1982). Many schools were affiliated to churches, notably the Roman Catholic and Anglican Churches.

The Nationalist government established a commission to make a clear distinction between the education offered to white South Africans and that offered to black South Africans (Beavon, 1982). The commission concluded that church school education, for example, had achieved nothing, but had instead merely destroyed African culture (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002). A new system of education was therefore recommended that would, inter alia, seek to teach black South Africans to know and accept their 'proper place' in South African society (Ian, 1999).

Hendrik Verwoerd was appointed Minister of Native Affairs and implemented the new government's apartheid laws, including legislation ensuring racial segregation within education, with great zeal. In 1953, the Bantu Education Act was passed (Ian, 1999; Masland *et al*., 2002). It provided for the separate provision of educational resources for each population group.

Resentment towards the government's black education policies grew, reaching a climax in 1975 when a government directive was issued to the effect that Afrikaans was to be used as a medium of instruction on an equal basis with English in Transvaal schools (Ian, 1999; Dawie, 2001; Masland *et al*., 2002).

Soweto authorities began to defy the regulation when schools opened in 1976 (Ian, 1999; Dawie, 2001). As a result, teachers were sacked and others resigned in protest. Pupils began to rise up against school authorities and initiated school boycotts. Widespread riots resulted, police were stoned, and schools were burnt down.

In the 1980s the government began a reform process and today, with the establishment of a new democratic government in South Africa headed by the African National Congress, the entire education system in South Africa has been reviewed (Soweto SA, 2003). A single, equal education system is now in force in the Gauteng region and all schools are open to pupils of all races (Masland *et al.*, 2002; Soweto March to Freedom, 2002).

Soweto SA (2003) reports that there are approximately 40 authorised pre-school institutions in Soweto. There are in addition 178 primary schools and 70 secondary schools in Soweto, and education is offered up to matriculation standard (the present grade 12). There is one teacher training college. Of the schools in Soweto, 124 are government schools (Briscoe, 2002; Soweto SA, 2003). There are in addition special schools for pupils with disabilities, and 18 centres for adult education. The total student population including adult learners is in excess of 300 000, and the private and business sectors have become involved in the provision of in-service educational training.

Vista University, which is a multi-campus university serving 2 500 students and offering degrees in most major disciplines, has one campus in Soweto. The distance education arm of the university has recently merged with Unisa and Technikon SA in accordance with the new requirements for South African tertiary institutions (Creighton, 2003).

There are six libraries and sixteen public halls in Soweto. The newspaper serving the residents of Soweto, *The Sowetan*, has provided a university bursary for students wishing to study journalism. The *Star*, one of the major Gauteng newspapers, recently established a R25 million day care centre for 1 000 children (Soweto March to Freedom, 2002; iafrica.com, 2002). This is expected to become a centre of excellence influencing child care throughout Southern Africa.

2.10   HOUSING

According to Chapman (2003), the nightmare is now over. Peace and at least the hope of prosperity have come to Soweto; proof may be seen to lie in the horde of camera-toting tourists who invade the townships almost daily; guidebooks in hand, they sip cappuccinos at sidewalk cafés and stroll around Soweto's new monuments and malls. Chapman quotes a Soweto resident on the subject of the housing situation: "Ngakane says she barely recognizes the place. 'In the old days we didn't have tar roads. We lived in a match box: six children, one room', the petite 63 year old says, standing in a front yard filled with bright flowers. 'The new government built houses and tarred the roads … In 10 years, Soweto will be a little heaven'" (Chapman, 2003:5).

The overwhelming majority of houses are of a standard design consisting of three or four rooms;   these houses are the so-called match boxes mass-produced by the public authorities (Dawie, 2001).   Briscoe (2002) describes the houses as being built on a functional floor space of 43 m^2, and consisting of two bedrooms, a dining room and a kitchen. The size of the yard is 330 m^2. Each house has its own flush toilet and water tap. It is quite common for up to eight people to share a house. Because of congestion, many residents build extensions and backyard shacks; these dwellings are often rented out to 'new arrivals' for an average monthly rental of R120. The number of backyard structures in Soweto is estimated at 121 000. There are 160 000 formal units (houses), accommodating up to 10 occupants per house (Soweto SA, 2003). Of all the houses in Soweto, approximately 95 000 are owned by residents, and approximately 65 000 are rented. Briscoe (2002) and Creighton (2003) report that of the houses in Soweto, 71 000 are government houses, of which 60% are rented and approximately 40% have been sold under the freehold scheme.

In recent years, new townships have been developed by both the public and private sectors, through employer-involvement and self-help schemes, and these offer blocks of flats and a wide variety of houses ranging from very substantial double-storey buildings with luxury features and swimming pools to neat, compact suburban homes with a garage and a garden (Gold Reef Guides, 2003; Creighton, 2003).

By 1988 all houses in Soweto had been provided with electricity, a mammoth undertaking by world standards (Dawie, 2001). A city of more than 3,5 million people was provided with electricity in a project that took seven years (Soweto SA, 2003). The electrification of Soweto has been considered one of the greatest projects ever undertaken in Africa and probably in the world. In spite of access to electricity, however, many residents continue to use their coal stoves, and the resultant fumes and smoke cause a serious pollution problem during the winter months. Creighton (2003) notes that approximately 90% of dwellings have TV and virtually all households have radios.

There are eleven hostels, ten for single migrant men and one for women, containing an estimated 82 240 beds (Ian, 1999). The hostels have been the seat of unrest and serious crime as a result of their style of construction and overcrowding. An urgent programme of upgrading and re-development is under way, and some of the hostels have been converted into family units.

More than 40% of the roads in Soweto (some 716 km) have been tarred (Larry, 2001; Briscoe, 2002). Approximately 50% of the houses in Soweto have running water; the remaining households use outside taps and outside toilets. As people continue to stream from the rural areas seeking work, large numbers of people live in shacks and temporary accommodation. It is currently estimated that there are 112 000 shacks in Soweto, accommodating up to 10 occupants per shack (Creighton, 2003). With the co-operation of residents, special programmes have been introduced to move squatters to controlled camps where essential services can be supplied. However, owing to the lack of land and funds, informal settlements are likely to remain a permanent feature of Soweto.

2.11   HEALTH CARE AND CHRIS HANI BARAGWANATH HOSPITAL

One of 69 provincial hospitals run by the Department of Hospital Services (Soweto SA, 2003), Chris Hani Baragwanath Hospital, which is the largest hospital in the southern hemisphere (Joburg Gateway to Africa, 2001), is located in Soweto. It is recognised world wide as a leading specialised hospital providing training and medical services of a high standard. The hospital grounds cover 173 acres. The hospital has 3 400 beds and a total staff complement in excess of 5 000. The hospital budget for 2002/2003 was R767 million. The hospital serves approximately 2 million outpatients and 130 000 ward patients annually. In 1997, Chris Hani Baragwanath Hospital was chosen by the UN AIDS Organisation as one of nine AIDS cure research sites worldwide (Creighton, 2003; Soweto SA, 2003; Briscoe, 2002).

More than 200 overseas graduates are trained at the hospital each year (Larry, 2001). Graduates have gone on to make a valuable contribution to medicine throughout Africa and the world (Dawie, 2001). However, in spite of the outstanding facilities offered by

the hospital, many residents of Soweto continue to consult traditional healers (Soweto SA, 2003). Traditional healers are being incorporated into health services and are seen as valuable contributors to the AIDS educational programme.

2.12   THE SOWETO TOWNSHIP TOURISM TRAIL

Township tours are currently gaining enormous popularity, as international tourists are eager to see how the country has progressed since its first democratic elections in 1994 (Masland *et al*., 2002; Soweto Tours, 2003a). A small, but growing number of foreigners are overnighting in the homes of middle-class and working-class families in Soweto, seeing the rhythms and routines of the new era at first hand. Most tourists come from Europe, and some from the United States (South Africa Online Travel Guide, 2002). The most infrequent visitors, tour operators say, are white South Africans (Chapman, 2003).

Mabogane and Callaghan (2002) describe Soweto as containing lively hubs of humanity. It is not merely a place for squatters, criminals and the poverty-stricken — amidst the apparently grim living circumstances, there is hospitality and hope, and even beauty. Soweto has always had a small and thriving middle class. The professionals — the teachers, doctors, shopkeepers and civil servants — have taken pains to build comfortable double-storey houses with roses in the gardens, satellite dishes on the roofs, and, in some instances, luxury cars parked in the driveway (Ramchander, 2003).

Local tour operators are of the opinion that at present tourists are generally not interested in cultural villages, as they are beginning to realise that cultural villages offer no more than staged authenticity (Ramchander, 2003); these villages commercialise the culture(s) of the people who are on display and have no spiritual links with the real culture of the people whatsoever, as they have been established expressly for the purposes of tourism (Dondolo, 2001; Witz, 2001). By contrast, however, the number of tourists visiting the townships is increasing, as tourists want to see the 'real' people. They are more interested in townships as reflections of past and present human experience, and in people's daily life as an amalgam of current developments and their cultural heritage (Witz, 2001; Ramchander, 2003).

Mrs J. Briscoe, CEO of Gold Reef Guides, in an interview conducted on 23 May 2003, cited the fact that a number of entrepreneurs from Soweto have established tour operations or shuttle services. The relatively high start-up costs, as well as the difficulties involved in obtaining tour operators' licences and competition from large players in the field have meant that only the most determined have endured. They are now well organised: tours are conducted in air-conditioned vehicles with cell-phone contact by trained guides and staff.

Popular stops during tours include the opportunity to view the huge mansion built by Winnie Mandela for her estranged husband, the tomb of Hector Peterson, the first victim of the 1976 riots, and the recently constructed Hector Peterson Museum, which offers visitors a detailed account of the events of 1976, including visuals and eyewitness accounts. Further stops are the Regina Mundi Catholic Parish Church, formerly the venue of protest meetings; the street on which stands the house that former President Nelson Mandela occupied prior to his imprisonment, and the home formerly occupied by Dr Desmond Tutu (Soweto Tours, 2003a). Tourists also have the opportunity to peek into old hostels, visit Freedom Square, which commemorates the struggle for liberty, pay a call on merchants selling traditional African medicines, and savour typical African dishes (Gold Reef Guides, 2003). The Credo Mutwa Cultural Village, built by Credo Mutwa, herbalist, author, diviner and sangoma (traditional healer), features a number of impressive mythical statues within its grounds, and provides the ideal setting to learn about the different dimensions of Soweto's cultural heritage (Farrow, 1999; Joburg Gateway to Africa, 2001; Soweto Tours 2003b).

Although reports of crime in the townships have caused many travellers to bypass them, more adventurous visitors are now embarking on tours. Many visitors take driving tours that let them see the world of the township from a van window, while others prefer the opportunity for direct interaction with the locals.

2.13   THE DEMAND FOR TOWNSHIP TOURISM

Tourist attractions in urban areas draw a wide range of visitors, from local residents to overseas tourists.   Tourists in the province of Gauteng fall within the following six market segments (Human Sciences Research Council, 2001; Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2002):

? Local day trippers

? Domestic tourists

? Business and MICE

? African visitors

? Overseas FIT

? Overseas groups

These segments have certain characteristics in common, which are useful for guiding the development of tourism products and services. However, it should be noted that they are not homogeneous.

? **Local day trippers**

According to the Gauteng Tourism Authority (2002), Gauteng has a population of 7,9 million. Approximately 67% live above the poverty line, giving a potential base of day trip tourists of 5,3 million people. Although it is a geographically concentrated province, Gauteng is divided into separate urban zones whose inhabitants are more likely to spend their leisure time within their region of residence. The core target market for township tourism in Soweto is therefore residents of the northern suburbs of Johannesburg and, to a lesser extent, residents of the inner city and southern suburbs (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2002).   This greater Johannesburg area is home to 2,6 million people. Removing a proportional poverty percentage gives a more realistic base of 1,7 million potential day trip visitors.

Gauteng residents tend to seek leisure experiences that correspond with European and American aspirations. They do not show the same interest in township or historical tourism attractions as foreigners, and are easily put off by fears of crime, dirt and poverty.

? **Domestic tourists**

The greater Johannesburg area (central Gauteng) is South Africa's third most popular domestic holiday destination, attracting 6,84% of domestic tourists, or 347 645 tourists per annum (Human Sciences Research Council, 2001). A further 804 797 visit Gauteng to visit friends and family. This makes a total of almost 1,2 million domestic tourists visiting Gauteng for leisure purposes every year.

With the majority of this segment staying with friends and family, few need to pay for accommodation facilities. Those who pay for accommodation, however, are likely to choose a hotel or guesthouse with status in a sophisticated area. Township accommodation is therefore unlikely to appeal to this group who, like their day visitor counterparts, are not lured by historical and cultural attractions and are put off by crime (Human Sciences Research Council, 2001). Their profile indicates a demand for novel, exciting and trendy entertainment venues; a township environment is unlikely to satisfy this demand, as it is less glamorous.

? **Business and MICE**

This segment includes both foreign and domestic tourists staying in Gauteng for at least a night, primarily for business reasons, and/or to participate in meetings, incentives, conferences and events (MICE). 34% of foreign visitors to Gauteng are here for business; this translates into approximately 300 000 foreign business visitors annually (SA Tourism 2003b). Central Gauteng attracts 160 000 business visitors annually (Human Sciences Research Council, 2001), the highest of any province.

Business and MICE travellers tend to stay in large, branded hotels with services, located close to business hubs (Human Sciences Research Council, 2001). Township accommodation is unlikely to fall within this category. Business and MICE travellers favour organised after-hours entertainment, often seeking novel, cross-cultural and education-oriented experiences (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2002). They expect high standards and are usually time-poor, with leisure time only in the evenings. Township

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tourism has the potential to offer these experiences, but products will need to be very accessible and close to business hotels and conference venues.

? **Foreign FIT (fully independent travellers)**

Gauteng airports are the main gateway to South Africa, and so the province is visited by more foreign visitors than any other province, attracting between 55% and 63% of all foreign visitors, or 870 000 overseas visitors per annum (SA Tourism, 2003b). Visitors come from Europe (43%), North America (14%), the Far East (9%), Australasia (4%), South America (3%) and the Middle East (2%) (SA Tourism 2003a, 2003b).

Personal safety is the biggest concern of foreign tourists to South Africa, and most foreign tourists are likely to reject accommodation within towns hips as unsafe. However, there is a demand for experiences that bring visitors into contact with the people of South Africa, as they wish to experience African culture and to see South Africa after the political change (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2002). This makes township tours a popular choice, but also implies that township tours must enable visitors to come into contact with current and traditional lifestyles, and to see historical sites that are symbols of political change. Most important, visitors expect to experience a culture very different from their own (Human Sciences Research Council, 2001).

? **Foreign groups**

10% to 13% of all foreign visitors to Gauteng, some 113 100 people per annum, favour a general tour package, and thus travel with a group (SA Tourism, 2003b). These, too, are highly seasonal visitors. The major difference between FIT and group activities is that decisions for groups are made by tour operators and tour guides. Visitors from the Far East, Germany, Holland, Belgium and France tend to favour group travel (Human Sciences Research Council, 2001; SA Tourism, 2003b). In terms of day and evening activities, groups (northern Continental European and North American groups in particular) demonstrate a high demand for township and other cultural experiences.

Soweto tours have become a popular feature on group itineraries (Gold Reef Guides, 2003). Activities are maximised on group itineraries, and Soweto competes with many other possible activities in Gauteng.   In order to host groups adequately, visitor attractions need coach parking and facilities for at lest 46 people (coaches carry 44 people, plus driver and guide) (Gold Reef Guides, 2003). Groups need a balance of 'drive-by' sites and attractions that offer guests first-hand experiences and interactions. This could be well served in a township environment by food/drink experiences, entertainment, and visits to community centres.

? **Africa**

Over 4,2 million visitors come to South Africa from the rest of the continent, with a high proportion here to shop for goods (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2002; SA Tourism, 2003a). Given that Gauteng has the widest range of retail facilities, a high proportion of visitors from Africa are likely to visit the province. However, given that these visitors come from countries where townships are not a novelty, township visits would have little appeal, and visitors from elsewhere in Africa are therefore more likely to seek the 'bright lights' experiences of the sophisticated built-up districts (City of Johannesburg, 2003).

2.14   TOURIST EXPECTATIONS OF TOWNSHIP EXPERIENCES

The main markets that seek township experiences are thus foreign FIT and foreign groups. Few of the other segments currently visit townships other than to visit friends and family (Human Sciences Research Council, 2001). Tourists who actively seek township experiences seek an experience that is very different from their own way of life. Most expect to see poverty and are prepared for this. However they want to engage with people from this different background, to learn about their way of life and see the influence of South Africa's history. As Ramchander (2003) reports, tourists visiting Soweto are in search of a genuine and complete experience. They want to see how families live, how the unemployed survive and what the conditions are like in the hospitals. They want to speak to those who have been in exile and those who lived through the apartheid years in South Africa. In fact, they often exchange addresses with those they meet in Soweto so they can keep in touch. Soweto is the best known of all

South African townships, and has become something of a brand name requested by tourists (Soweto SA, 2003a).

2.15   SUMMARY

In giving effect to the objective of profiling current Soweto society, the researcher has highlighted the metamorphosis of what was once a shunned destination into an extremely popular destination for cultural tourists. In many respects, the evolution of Soweto is the story of South Africa and its many townships, all of which have undergone similar social development and social change; the key findings and conclusions from this investigation of the perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in Soweto will thus be equally applicable to townships elsewhere in the country.

CHAPTER 3

LITERATURE REVIEW: PERCEPTIONS OF SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1   INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a theoretical basis and framework for assessing host community perceptions of socio-cultural impacts of township tourism according to social exchange theory, and to identify key socio-cultural impact variables and concepts contained in the literature with a view to developing an appropriate research methodology and instruments that will direct and inform the research process.

The chapter begins with a discussion of the underlying cultural tourism motivators, with particular focus on the cultural tourism and authenticity debate. An extensive literature review covers the nature of the principal social and cultural interactions of hosts and guests, characteristics of host-guest relationships, and their associated socio-cultural impacts. The need for host perception research and the factors influencing host perceptions of socio-cultural impacts are extensively discussed. The chapter concludes with an exposition of a theoretical framework and two tourism models employed for assessing socio-cultural impacts in host perception research.

3.2   SPECIAL-INTEREST TOURISM AND CULTURAL TOURISM MOTIVATORS

Boniface (1995), Eagleton (2000) and Smith (2003) observe that tourists' attitudes and motivations for travel are changing, as demonstrated by the new forms of special-interest tourism, such as township tourism. Evidence suggests that tourists are less likely than before to view travel as simply a 'vacation', the principal goal of which is rest and relaxation (Poon, 1993). The majority of tourists today prefer to actively engage their minds or bodies; a change of this nature may help to explain the tremendous rise in both the volume and types of special-interest tourism (Richards, 1997; Timothy & Boyd, 2003). Special-interest tourism in large measure entails contact with other cultures and learning about other ways of life, as in township tourism.

One could view cultural tourism as falling within the realm of special-interest tourism in that cultural tourism involves tourists travelling to particular locations for the express purpose of understanding and/or experiencing a culture that is somehow different from their own and to increase their appreciation of cultural resources (Boniface, 1995; Smith 2003). In fact, the term 'cultural tourism' is sometimes used synonymously with the term 'special-interest' tourism. Cultural tourism, with its subsets of heritage, ethnic and township tourism, is constantly growing, as more and more tourists seek to interact with other cultures and broaden their knowledge and personal experience base (Lubbe, 2003).

Every culture is different, and curiosity about our world and its many different peoples is a strong motivation for travel (Lubbe, 2003). Successful tourism management requires knowledge of exactly who the cultural tourists are and an understanding of their motivations. Since tourist behaviour patterns at destinations are generally shaped by their country of origin and their reasons for travelling, this is equally important in the context of township tourism. Boniface (1995), Brown (2000) and Smith (2003) suggest a number of motivations for cultural tourism based on the premise that those who travel do so either because they are attracted to something, or because they want to escape from something.

? **Escapism**

One of the most significant factors attracting a visitor to a cultural site is the extent to which it is different from daily life. Smith (2003:33) expresses this as follows: "The boredom, lassitude or monotony of everyday life that may hinder our ability to feel authentic in an existential sense are temporarily removed. This craving for difference and exoticism is perhaps stronger in the case of cultural tourists who will actively seek out remote locations, unusual experiences or close and authentic contact with indigenous groups".

? **Status**

Status is an important motivation for visiting cultural sites. Paradoxically, status stimulates both the need to go where everyone else has been, and the need of those who

perceive themselves as 'leaders' to go where the mass tourist does not go and do what the mass does not do (Boniface, 1995). The goal is "to be seen in the most fashionable or exclusive places and to return home with the photos and souvenirs to prove it" (Brown, 2000:107). The consequence is the spread of the tourism industry to formerly remote or isolated areas such as townships, causing a growth in cultural tourism.

? **Religion and spirituality**

Tourists who travel for these reasons do so to "find something higher than oneself, either through a feeling of heightened solidarity with other holiday makers, through experience of a culture deemed more 'authentic' or through visiting a site considered meaningful or sacred" (Brown, 2000:107). A site such as Stonehenge, for instance, offers visitors historical and archaeological interest, but for many it is also a site of religious or spiritual significance.

Boniface (1995) suggests that one reason for visiting one place over another is the desire to satisfy spiritual needs that can be met only at the 'real' or original site rather than at a replica or substitute. A model of Stonehenge, for instance, is thus not likely to instil the same sense of awe and spiritual wonder as the original.

? **Research and education**

The range of visitor needs for research and education is too broad for a comprehensive discussion here, but in short it includes both formal and informal education of tourists and even entire societies. However, there is a real need for professionals to collect and draw upon primary data so that education can be geared to a particular target group and encompass the needs of the hosts (Smith, 2003). This would offer visitors the chance to learn about the community, or give them the opportunity to learn something about the significance of a place and its association with the local community, its heritage and a cultural or natural landscape (Urry, 2002).

? **Specialness and exclusivity**

An element of the travel experience is convincing yourself or others that you are having a better experience than you would have at home, and, ideally, that the experience is not one that others are likely to be able to replicate. This seems to bear out the suggestion made by MacCannell (1976) that travel allows us to enjoy and exploit simultaneously the exotic difference of 'the other' while discovering our own identity. Cultural tourism can help bring us into contact with our true selves (Stebbins, 1997; Smith, 2003).

3.3 FACTORS FACILITATING THE GROWTH OF CULTURAL TOURISM

Studies by Poon (1993), Boniface (1995), Keyser (2002), McKercher and Du Cros (2002), Smith (2003), Reisinger and Turner (2003) indicate that there are both several supporting and newly emerging trends contributing to the expansion of the market for cultural tourism across the world, namely:

? Rising education levels. Education is the single most significant factor influencing cultural participation. Affluence and travel are increasing as educational attainment levels rise (Keyser, 2002).

? Increasing economic role of women. Statistics reveal that women are participating more in cultural activities than men. Women control more income, are in positions of leadership and make decisions regarding children's leisure activities and family vacations (Reisinger & Turner, 2003).

? Increasing demand for short, get-away trips. People are trying to pack more activities into more frequent trips of short duration. Convenience and quality are the key requirements (Boniface, 1995; Richards, 1997).

? Shifts in demographics. The tourists born between 1965 and 1977 are independent travellers who are mobile, highly educated, and looking for authenticity and adventure (Poon, 1993).

? Searching for meaning. Tourism is the means to this, and not the end in itself. Many tourists are finding the meaning they seek in nature, heritage and culture (Smith, 2003).

? Increasing numbers of events and festivals. The surge in events and festivals across the world increases expectations as well as opportunities for cultural tourism (Richards, 1997).

? Increased use of the Internet. Through this medium it becomes possible to spread information quickly and accurately all over the world (McKercher & Du Cros, 2002).

3.4   IN SEARCH OF AUTHENTICITY — A CULTURAL TOURIST MOTIVATION DEBATE

Robinson and Boniface (1998) argue that the positive and negative consequences of contact fostered by tourism have been closely linked to debates about authenticity. It is well documented that the concept of authenticity in tourism studies has been shaped by the work of MacCannell (1973, 1976), who first made the connection between a formal concept of authenticity and tourist motivation, suggesting that tourists seek authentic experiences which they can no longer find in their everyday lives. MacCannell proposes that, for Western tourists, the primary motivation for travel lies in a quest for authenticity.

MacCannell (1973, 1976) notes that although tourists demand authenticity, it may be difficult to distinguish between true authenticity and what he terms "staged" authenticity, where a situation has been contrived so as to seem authentic. MacCannell argues that attractions vary in terms of the degree to which they are staged, and suggests that tourists today seek "backstage" (genuine or non-contrived) experiences, since modern tourists demand true authenticity (MacCannell, 1988). MacCannell further argues that "backstage" is where the real life of the community is carried out and authentic culture is maintained.   The front stage, by contrast, is where commercial and modified performances and displays are offered to the mass of the visitors, and it is this area that tourists try to get beyond in their search for authenticity (Richards, 1997). Ramchander (2003) comments that in South Africa, both front stage and backstage authenticity are evident, for instance in cultural villages, where locals 'perform' culture for the tourist in the front stage area, returning to the backstage area when they return to their real homes at the end of the day and carry out their normal cultural activities.

Townships as destinations are intended to reflect what in MacCannell's terms is the backstage. In the South African context, a visit backstage reveals the effects of racially discriminatory laws on the past and present human experiences, while front stage experiences involve purely favourable images. However, Dondolo (2001) argues that not all of the township tour package is authentically based. Rather, part of the package is carefully constructed, structured, and well planned.

The link between the issue of authenticity in tourism and township tourism is the topic of active debate, and has a direct bearing on the manner in which residents perceive tourism in townships.   It is necessary to distinguish, however, between township tourism situations that involve a purely visual display of arts, crafts and political landmarks and those that involve visitors in a genuine context, such as visits to people's homes, traditional healers and active dance (Ramchander, 2003).   While the country often benefits by showcasing township communities, it is important to understand how tourists and the host community feel about such cultural experiences.

Pearce and Moscardo (1986) take the idea of authenticity one step further by suggesting that not only do people's perceptions of a situation play an important role in determining its authenticity, but also that people's needs or demands for authenticity vary.   Thus, enjoyment of a situation will be mediated by people's preferences for authenticity as well as their perceptions of it. In recent years, however, growing concern has been expressed about the commodification of culture (Dogan, 1989; Akis, Peristianis & Warner, 1996; Brunt & Courtney, 1999; Brown, 2000). Tourism in particular has been identified as major force for commodification. There is no doubt that the presence of tourists often leads to the creation of cultural manifestations specifically for tourist consumption (Cohen, 1988; Tomaselli & Wang, 2001). In these circumstances, culture as a process is transformed through tourism into a cultural product, as in the case of township tourism in South Africa.

This is supported by the argument that when tourists seek authenticity, they are in fact seeking the realisation of a myth that they have about a particular culture/society

(MacCannell, 1976; Boniface, 1995; Burns & Holden, 1995); this has given rise to the idea that some aspects of cultural tourism are in fact being sold in the form of myths in order to satisfy the expectations of myth-seeking cultural tourists. Weaver and Opperman (2000) point out that despite a genuine search for authenticity or myths, what tourists actually find is the staged authenticity. Tourists demand instant culture in a short time and limited space; their search for authentic experiences of another culture within those parameters leads to locals of that culture either providing those experiences or staging them to appear as realistic as possible (Robinson & Boniface, 1998; Tomaselli & Wang, 2001). This is clearly evident in the mushrooming of cultural villages all over South Africa.

According to Holloway (2000) staged authenticity is in effect a freezing of culture and art styles in pseudo traditional form. Staged authenticity has changed the way crafts and rituals are produced, the type of objects favoured and the meanings attached to them. Culture is in danger of becoming commercialised and trivialised, as when 'authentic folk dances' are staged for the benefit of tourists as in-house entertainment or as cabaret (Cohen, 1988; Tomaselli & Wang, 2001). This practice is quite common in Southern Africa, where certain leading hotel groups invite traditional dancers to dance and entertain the hotel residents. Traditional tribal dances are often arranged and presented in shortened form; an example of this is evident at the PheZulu Village in the Valley of a Thousand Hills in KwaZulu-Natal, where dancers are paid to go through the motions for the benefit of groups of tourists. In this manner an important ritual, such as the marriage alliance between two groups, is trivialised, as this performance is staged at least four times a day to make it a paying concern.

Brown (2000) comments that staged authenticity leads to a reduction or degradation of the quality of indigenous artistic work, as artistic efforts are downgraded to meet tourist demands. Staged authenticity thus ushers in the very real danger of performers or artists over time losing sight of the original significance of their practices, the basis of which will ultimately shift within the host culture (Sharpley, 1994). In South Africa the performance of sangomas as a public attraction, for instance, has done much to reduce the

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original significance and value of the activities of these traditional practitioners (Ramchander, 2003).

Pizam and Milman (1986) and Allen *et al.* (1988) comment on the connection between staged authenticity and the erosion of local languages. The languages employed during staged performances of particular customs and traditions are being altered to accommodate the foreign language speaker (Tomaselli & Wang, 2001), and thus the original messages and meaning have been altered. The film and stage play 'ShakaZulu' is a striking example of language erosion; the indigenous language is barely used in the staging of indigenous culture and history.

Many souvenirs misrepresent indigenous cultures and lifestyles. Many tourists favour traditional items such as the African shield and spear, but find them too large and cumbersome to transport conveniently. In response, local craftspeople reduce the size of these and similar items for tourist convenience. Some tourists are in fact ignorant of the original use of the objects they acquire, as they are usually purchased during fleeting trips to curio shops, craft centres and in hotel foyers. These trends contribute to the loss of much of the authenticity of these objects. This is a common feature of international tourism, with locals being inaccurately portrayed as leading an authentic simple and traditional life no longer accessible to the modern world at large (Burns, 1999; Butler & Hinch, 1996). Actual observation by the researcher of deeply rural areas in South Africa such as Msinga and Nongoma in fact reveals very little evidence of a truly authentic traditional lifestyle (Ramchander, 2003).

3.5   THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN HOST AND GUEST

Mathieson and Wall (1982), Ap (1990), Allen *et al.* (1993), Ap and Crompton (1993) and Sharpley (1994) confirm that the key to the socio-cultural impacts of tourism appears to be the relationship between hosts and guests. Smith (1989) notes that contact between tourists and hosts of different cultural backgrounds takes the form of direct face-to-face encounters between tourists and hosts of different cultural groups. This type of contact is experienced by tourists when they travel from a home culture to the host culture, and by

hosts when they serve tourists from a foreign culture. Reisinger and Turner (2003) classify the interaction between tourists and hosts from two different cultures as intercultural contact, and the interaction between tourists and hosts from more than two cultural groups as cross-cultural contact. A full definition of who the tourist is can be found in Appendix B.

In routine tourism, opportunities for tourists and hosts to meet as equals and really learn to know each other are extremely limited. Instead, a master-servant relationship tends to develop between the relatively rich tourists and the relatively poor locals (Pizam & Milman, 1986; Husbands, 1989). Locals gain the impression that tourists from rich countries always have plenty of time for leisure and plenty of money to spend. The difference in material wealth may create feelings of inferiority among local people and the wish to be like 'them', the rich tourists (Pizam & Pokela, 1987). This could be one reason for the growing social ills characteristic of so many Third World destinations, viz. the degradation of traditional value structures, begging, prostitution, crime, and substance abuse (Pizam & Milman, 1986; Pizam & Pokela, 1987).

In the travel and tourism business, social and cross-cultural interactions will always occur. The tourist encounter is simply a series of transactions between hosts and guests, which is the essence of the tourism system (Smith, 1989). People approach each other as strangers who come from culturally different backgrounds because one is at work and the other is at leisure. Direct contact is not necessary for impacts to occur and the mere sight of tourists and their direct behaviour may result in behavioural changes on the part of permanent residents (De Kadt, 1979; Du Cros, 2001; Tosun, 2002). Socio-cultural impacts are the outcome of different types of relationships that occur between tourists and hosts as a result of their coming into contact (Tosun, 2002).

Keyser (2002) identifies the following contexts in which contact or interaction between tourists and host communities typically take place (table 3.1) .

SOCIAL	The interaction takes place while tourists and hosts share resources and facilities available to both tourists and host communities, such as beaches, public transport, and restaurants.
ECONOMIC	Tourists and hosts engage in the buying and selling of goods and services, such as arts and crafts, guiding services, and accommodation. Often, but not exclusively, these interactions occur within the confines of facilities created for the tourist.
CULTURAL	Many destinations feature organized displays and performances of indigenous culture, or offer opportunities for cultural exchange, such as visits to local villages, places of cultural significance, and meetings with community members. This requires tourists to venture beyond the range of tourist facilities, and into the sphere of living of the host community.

Adapted from (Keyser, 2002)

Table 3.1   INTERACTION BETWEEN TOURISTS AND HOSTS

The presence of large numbers of tourists, many from different cultures, will therefore unavoidably influence the societies they visit; the tourists, by the same token, will in all likelihood themselves be affected by these societies.

3.6   CHARACTERISTICS OF HOST-GUEST RELATIONSHIPS: KEY TO SUCCESS OR DISASTER?

Interpreting host-guest relationships within the township tourism context necessitates a review of typical features of host-guest relationships as identified in the literature.

Mathieson and Wall (1982) characterise the relationship between tourists and local people as follows:

? It is transitory or short-term in that each tourist is generally present for a few days or a few weeks. Any relationships that develop tend to be superficial. A deeper relationship will develop only where the tourist returns to the same resort and accommodation frequently.

? Tourists are under pressure to enjoy a wide variety of experiences in a short time period, and so delays cause irritation. Residents may therefore exploit the time pressures under which tourists operate.

? Tourists are often segregated from local people and spend most of their time in and around tourism facilities with other tourists. They may rarely meet any local people other than those who are employed in the tourism industry.

? Host-guest relations tend to lack spontaneity, often being formalised and planned.

? Host-guest relations are often unequal and unbalanced in terms of both material inequality and differences in power; guests are generally able to impose their will on the hosts, who are seen as servers.

These characteristics can be perceived as negative impacts in the context of sustainable tourism, and are very typical of host-guest interactions in the townships (Swarbrooke, 1999). Tosun (2000) and Keyser (2002) note that most interactions between tourists and hosts are characterised by an 'at arm's length' attitude, and remain fairly superficial. Keyser (2002) notes further that since tourism is commercial hospitality, the smiles of service staff and local residents may not be a true reflection of their true feelings about tourism, but for the sake of income, they remain hospitable.

3.7   HOST PERCEPTIONS OF IMPACTS AND THE NEED FOR HOST PERCEPTION RESEARCH

Perceptions of various impacts of tourism have been extensively researched since the 1970s. Most studies have concentrated on how various segments of host communities respond to tourism impacts. Scholars suggest that although the socio-cultural impacts of tourism have been extensively studied, additional research on the subject should be conducted in other geographical locations so as to further the development of theory in this field (Sheldon & Var, 1984; Smith & Krannich, 1998; Tosun, 2002).

In the past, tourism leaders have strongly denied the negative impacts that the industry can introduce into host communities. This denial has been based on the belief that if such an admission were to be made, tourism would lose the vital support it has from residents, employees and politicians. For tourism to thrive in an area it needs the support of the

area's residents. This realisation has led to increasing attention being given over the past two decades to the perceived impacts of tourism. Mathieson and Wall (1982) presented a valuable synthesis of research findings current at the time relating to the perceived impacts of tourism within a conceptual framework designed to illuminate tourism as an amalgamation of phenomena and their interrelations. These authors grouped perceived impacts of tourism into the three traditional categories of economic, physical and social, but pointed out the artificiality of these categories, and their frequent overlap.

Economic impact studies have tended to emphasise the be nefits that accrue to a destination area and to disregard the costs (Allen *et al.*, 1988; Sharpley, 1994; Smith & Krannich, 1998). There are two main reasons for this. First, many of the benefits, such as increased income and employment, are tangible and comparatively easy to measure, while many of the economic costs, such as noise, congestion, and pollution, are relatively intangible and difficult to measure in economic terms. Second, economic impact studies are frequently commissioned by tourism advocates to engender support for tourism. Brown (2000), Sharpley (2000) and Mason (2003) caution, however, that although many such studies are conducted with enthusiasm to make the economic case as strong as possible, they are methodologically flawed.   Given their invariably positive results, economic impact studies tend to generate optimism regarding the potential of tourism among decision-makers and community residents.

Tourism is obviously not an evil in itself, but whether it always plays a positive role in the developing countries, or in the South African township context, for that matter, must be questioned. The problem is worth raising at a time when a great many states are pinning their hopes on tourism and affording it priority status in development plans. Yet does tourism not in some respects constitute a new form of economic domination, a new means of bringing about the cultural inferiority of 'exotic' peoples — in short, a new form of colonialism? (Cohen, 1979; Dann, 1981; Cohen, 1988; Dogan, 1989; Butler & Hinch, 1996). Although the latter question was first raised over 20 years ago and in the context of the Third World, it is equally applicable today in the context of local and regional communities in developing countries such as South Africa.

3.8 SYNOPSIS OF THE LITERATURE DEALING WITH THE PERCEIVED POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Tables 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4 present a synopsis of three major trajectories in the literature dealing with perceptions of the positive and negative socio-cultural impacts of tourism development by encapsulating the range of opinions held by a number of authors in the field.

WRITER(S)	ISSUE / IMPACT
Mathieson and Wall (1982)	Tourism modifies the internal structure of the community, dividing it into those who have/have not a relationship with tourism/tourists.
Krippendorf (1987)	Tourism has colonialist characteristics robbing local populations of autonomous decision-making.
Allen et al (1988)	Lower/moderate levels of tourism development are more likely to be financial.
Crompton and Sanderson (1990)	Employment in tourism demands flexible working patterns which is eroding gender segregation.
Urry (1991)	There are more opportunities for women in tourism, which provides many with a greater degree of economic independence.
Harrison (1992)	Tourism provides new opportunities and instigates social changes.
McKercher (1993)	Preference for investment in profit centres (e.g., swimming pools) rather than cost centres (e.g., sewage systems).
Sharpley (1994)	Employment opportunities and the presence of visitors lure younger people to areas of tourism development. Conversion in retail sector to souvenir outlets. Tourism improves quality of life through improvements to infrastructure.
Burns and Holden (1995)	Tourism provides socioeconomic benefits at one extreme and dependency and reinforcement of social discrepancies at the other extreme. Biggest problem is congestion/overcrowding. Pressure for change is politically intercultural initiated by entrepreneurs or politicians in response to community pressure.

Table 3.2 KEY SOCIAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

The perceived social and cultural impacts of tourism refer to the ways in which tourism is seen to contribute to changes in value systems, individual behaviour, family relations, collective lifestyles, safety levels, moral conduct, creative expressions, traditional ceremonies, and community organisations (Walle, 1996). Pizam and Pokela (1987) and

Tosun (2002) contend that these perceived impacts on host communities or destination areas may be classified into two categories. The first relates to the characteristics of the destination area, which includes the perceived social impacts of the resident-visitor encounter; examples are cultural gap effects, crime, prostitution, and the demonstration effect (i.e. changes in values, attitudes, or behaviour of the host population that can result from observing tourists). The second category concerns social impacts on infrastructure development and their perceived effects on the local resources, for example, pressure on local resources and facilities, local versus imported labour, local language and cultural effects, and lifestyle changes (Pizam & Pokela, 1987).

Literature in the field acknowledges that from a social and cultural perspective, the rapid expansion of tourism in the latter half of the 20th century is important because within individual destination areas or countries, its development has led to changes in the structure of society (Mathieson & Wall, 1982; Crompton & Sanderson, 1990; Urry, 1991; Harrison, 1992;). Social impacts involve the "more immediate changes in the social structure of the community and adjustments to the destination's economy and industry while the cultural impacts focus on the longer-term changes in a society's norms and standards, which gradually emerge in a community's social relationships and artifacts" (Murphy 1985:117).

Research to date indicates that tourism as a factor of change can affect traditional family values (Knox, 1982), cause cultural commercialisation, increase the crime rate and lead to negative elements such as prostitution (Cohen, 1988) and gambling (Pizam & Milman, 1986). Further, tourism development may create social conflicts within the destination community due the socio-cultural differences, economic welfare, and purchasing power gaps between the host community and tourists (McIntosh *et al*, 1995). On the negative impact side of the spectrum studies have concentrated on such variables as an increase in the price of goods and services, inflation in property values, social disadvantages such as crowding, congestion, pollution and an increase in undesirable activities such as prostitution, gambling, alcohol and drugs and crime (Pizam *et al*., 1982; Ap, 1992; Burns & Holden, 1995).

WRITER(S)	ISSUE / IMPACT
Doxey (1975)	Irridex model: worsening cumulative effect of host attitudes toward tourists.
De Kadt (1979)	Nature of contact with tourists can influence attitudes/behaviour/values towards tourism.
Mathieson and Wall (1982)	Tourism is a source of revenue for the church. Perceived safety and security maybe affected.
Pizam et al (1982)	Tourism is a potential determinant of crime.
Murphy (1985)	The Young locals are most susceptible to the demonstration effect caused by tourism. Languages are learnt through the demonstration effect.
Krippendorf (1987)	Real understanding/communication is seldom produced by tourist-host interaction.
Ryan (1991)	Erosion of the local language/dialect.
McKercher (1993)	There is always likely to be a certain degree of conflict due to incompatible demands of tourists and hosts.
Sharpley (1994)	Tourism instigates social interaction within host community. Tourism contributes to the preservation of religious and historic buildings. Hosts adopt foreign languages through necessity. Hosts develop stereotypical attitudes towards tourists. Commoditization of religion and resulting conflict.
Burns and Holden (1995)	Hosts develop coping behaviors and avoid contact with tourists wherever possible.
McIntosh et al (1995)	Mixing socially is the most favourable situation. Resentment is generated by the economic gaps arising between the host and tourist. Local resentment is generated by inflated prices.

Table 3.3   KEY SOCIAL IMPACTS OF TOURIST-HOST INTERACTION

The views of the authors in table 3.3 reflect a significant correlation between the advancement of tourism and negative impacts in the host community. Pizam and Milman (1986) further indicate that tourism can contribute to social conditions that have the potential to cause serious problems in the host society. It is frequently asserted that the traditions of the host countries are weakened under the influence of tourism (Sharpley, 1994; Crick, 1997). Authenticity and the identity of the traditional cultures are lost as a consequence of the hosts' tendency to imitate tourists who represent for them a more advanced civilisation to which they aspire (Dogan, 1989; Greenwood, 1989; King *et al.*, 1993; Fladmark 1994; Craik, 1997). The authors listed in table 3.3 further assert that

these negative impacts may take the form of changes in value systems, lifestyle, ceremonies and community organisation.

The disruption of intimate and personal relations is associated with commercialisation and materialism, which are cited as being perhaps one of the most common consequences of tourism (Burns & Holden, 1995; Robinson & Boniface, 1998). If commercialisation is interpreted as demanding money for services previously provided free, this translates into the replacement of a value system based on moral values with one based on money. Tourism transforms human relationships into a source of economic gain, and the proportion of non-economic relationships diminishes (Cohen, 1995). Previously warm and intimate relationships are thus transformed into commercial forms (Dogan, 1989).

WRITER(S)	ISSUE / IMPACT
White (1974)	Hotel accommodation is a greater sociocultural threat.
De Kadt (1979)	Arts, crafts and local culture can be revitalized.
Collins (1978)	Hosts behaviour can be transformed temporarily.
Murphy (1985)	Attitude changes are an indication of acculturation.
Cohen (1988)	There are assumed negative impacts of commoditization.
Nunez (1989)	Acculturation process of the two cultures taking on aspects of each other likely to occur.
Browne (1993)	Tourism destroys traditional culture.
Sharpley (1994)	True culture adapts over time to the needs of tourism. Meaning/authenticity are not necessarily lost. Acculturation is linked to the nature of the encounters.
Burns and Holden (1995)	Culture is seen as a commercial resource.

Table 3.4   KEY CULTURAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

While some of the authors in table 3.4 view the interaction between different societies and cultures as a threat to traditional cultures and societies, to others it represents an opportunity for peace, understanding and greater familiarity among different societies and nations (De Kadt, 1979; Rojek & Urry, 1997). Ratz (2003) suggests that tourism not only creates jobs and business opportunities and helps to stabilise the local economy, but also facilitates cultural exchange between hosts and visitor, brings about an improved

image of the host community and provides recreational facilities. Tourism has also been credited with improving the standard of living, increasing opportunities for recreation and entertainment, promoting cultural exchange, promoting the cultural identity of the host community, and increasing the demand for the preservation of historical and architectural monuments (Cohen, 1984; Mason, 2003; Ratz 2003). By exposing the host to other cultures, tourism is seen as introducing benefits such as tolerance and understanding; the act of presenting one's culture to outsiders strengthens the idea of what it means to live within a community, thus increasing identity, pride, cohesion, and support (De Kadt, 1979).

If any conclusion can thus be drawn at this point, it must be that authors in the field hold widely varying views concerning whether or not tourism offers benefits to host communities (King *et al*., 1993; Pizam *et al.,* 1978).

3.9   A TYPOLOGY OF TOURISM-HOST COMMUNITY RELATIONSHIPS

Typologies have been widely used within tourism literature as a useful way to establish broad classifications. Boyd and Singh (2003) have put forward four possible relationship scenarios that may develop in the cultural tourism context.

? **Win-win**

In the win-win scenario, both the community and tourism benefit. An example is community-based tourism, where the community is in support of tourism and participates in and benefits from it, and where tourism ensures the maintenance of the resource base of the community itself (Boyd & Singh, 2003). Significant examples of community-based tourism associated with indigenous peoples that have received considerable attention from tourism scholars are the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) projects in Zimbabwe, the Annapurna Conservation Area Project (ACAP) in Nepal, and Aboriginal tourism at Uluru (Ayers Rock) in Australia (Pearce *et al.*, 1996; Boyd & Singh, 2003).

? **Win-lose**

Where the community benefits but mass tourism does not necessarily do so, a win-lose scenario exists. This can arise in cases where tourist numbers are restricted to ensure that host-guest ratios are appropriate to cope with numbers (Boyd & Singh, 2003). The community benefits, as the emphasis is often on encouraging quality tourism, stressing meaningful interaction between residents and tourists, encouraging higher spending, minimal leakage and less negative impact (Boyd & Singh, 2003). Bermuda is a good example of a destination that has promoted quality tourism by restricting tourist numbers to the benefit of local communities (Pearce *et al.*, 1996).

? **Lose-win**

In the lose-win scenario the community loses, while tourism gains. Many tourist-gambling communities fall into this category, as gaming often destroys the fabric of communities in both physical terms (areas are destroyed to make way for more casinos) and social terms (increased deviant behaviour, addiction and organised crime) (Boyd & Singh, 2003). In contrast, tourism gains, as all-inclusive packages of gambling, entertainment, shopping and accommodation are offered to potential visitors.

? **Lose-lose**

Here both the community and tourism lose. An example of this would be uncontrolled mass coastal resort-based tourism where emphasis is on short-term economic gain at the expense of long-term community and environmental benefit (Pearce *et al.*, 1996). Resorts along the Mediterranean coast fit this scenario, where traditional fishing villages have been replaced with masses of visitors who have a superficial relationship with their hosts, and are low spenders with significant negative impacts (Boyd & Singh, 2003). This situation has improved somewhat recently with increased recognition of the need for a good relationship between residents and tourists.

Given these four scenarios, the ideal would be to move towards a win-win situation, yet unfortunately many destination communities throughout the world remain in a less than favourable situation (Boyd & Singh, 2003).

3.10   TOURIST-HOST CONTACT IN LESS DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

In less developed countries where cultural differences between tourists and hosts are greater than in more developed countries, the negative effect of direct tourist-host contact is increased (Pearce, 1982b; Ap, 1992; Brunt & Courtney, 1999). Rich tourists who visit Third World countries have little respect for local values, and are often perceived as aggressive and insensitive.   Tourist-host contact often generates exploitation, assault, victimisation and numerous social problems. While all of these elements need not be present at once, they are nevertheless attributable to significant cultural differences that are important in shaping tourists' and hosts' perceptions of each other (Pearce, 1982b; Reisinger & Turner, 2003).

3.11   DETERMINANTS OF HOST COMMUNITY PERCEPTIONS (FACTORS INFLUENCING RESIDENT PERCEPTIONS OF IMPACTS)

Research on environmental and personal characteristics contributes to identifying whether residents favour tourism or not. Ratz (2003) reports that the social and cultural characteristics of the host community are constantly influenced by the political, technological, social, cultural and natural aspects of their wider environment (see figure 3.1).   The problem of separating tourism's impacts from these influences is as yet unresolved (Pearce, 1989; Crick, 1991; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000); in consequence, the present study focuses exclusively on resident perceptions of impacts. This decision was made in light of the main objective of socio-cultural impact analysis, which is to provide developers, local authorities and all other parties concerned with information on host communities' perceptions of and attitudes towards tourism development with a view to reinforcing perceived positive impacts and minimising perceived negative impacts.

The degree to which socio-cultural impacts influence or are experienced by host communities may depend on a number of factors, including the number and type of tourists, the nature of tourism development in the area, the pace of development, and the socio-economic and cultural conditions of the host society (Ratz, 2003). Accordingly, the reactions of the local inhabitants to the impacts of tourism take various forms. However, the extent of residents' perceptions of and attitudes toward tourism can be

influenced by social and economic factors such as community attachment, duration of residence in an area, and economic dependency on tourism. McCool and Martin (1994), for instance, find that residents who are strongly attached to their community view tourism impacts with more concern than do those who are less attached to their community.
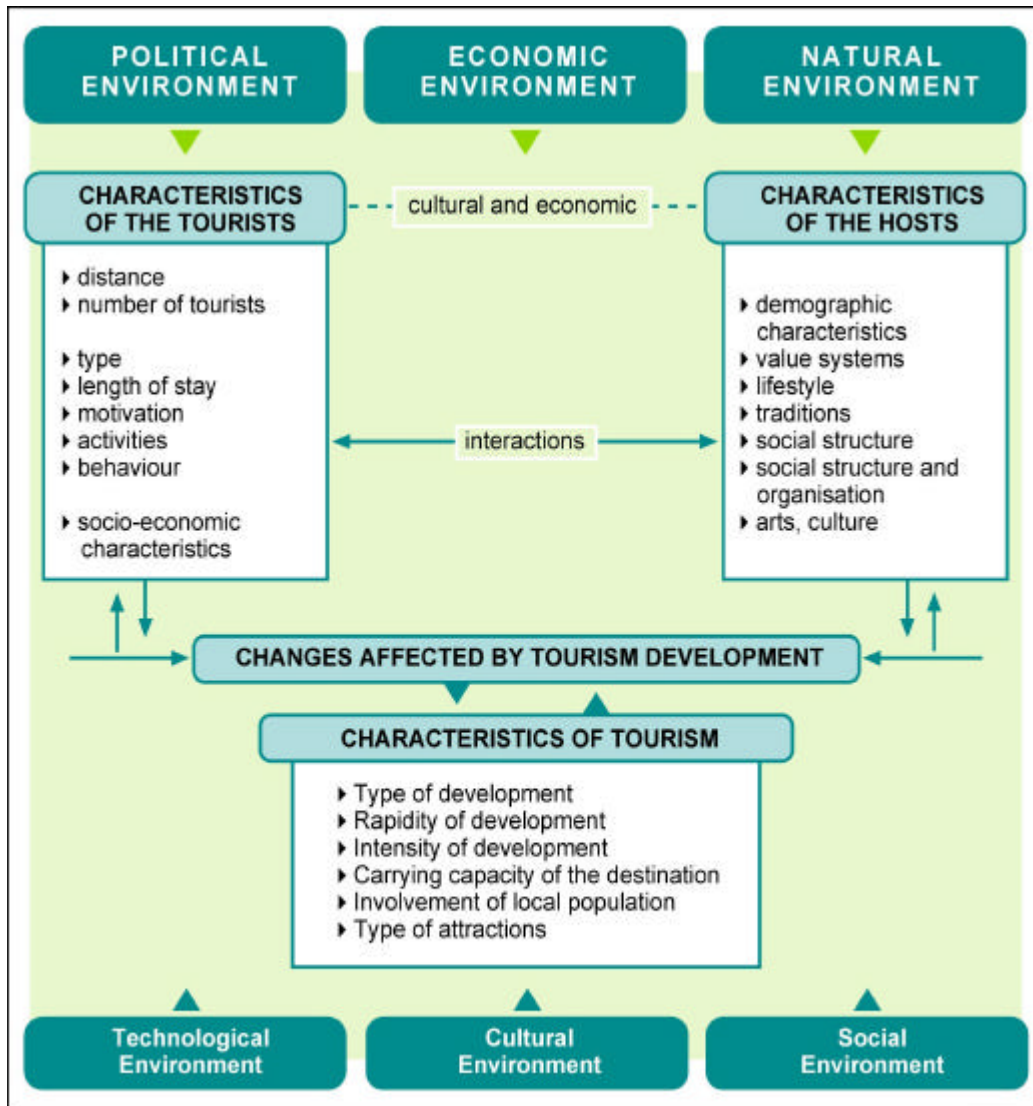
Adapted from (Ratz, 2003)

Figure 3.1   TOURISM'S SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS WITHIN THE FRAMEWORK OF THE WIDER SOCIAL CHANGE

Several studies have shown that residents who benefit from tourism have a higher level of support for it and thus report more positive impacts (Husbands, 1989; Lankford, 1994). King *et al.* (1993) point out that those people who derive personal benefits from tourism are also less likely than others to report negative impacts. In other words, perceptions of

positive benefits are significantly related to personal benefits from tourism, but do little actually to explain the perceived negative impacts (Pearce *et al.*, 1996).

Ap (1992) finds that people living further from tourism areas are more negative about the impacts; as a corollary, it has been reported that residents in higher tourist-density areas are more positive about the industry (Sheldon and Var, 1984). Pizam *et al.* (1978) nevertheless record negative sentiments about tourism expressed by residents with more contact, although this appears contradictory to the findings of Pizam, Neumann and Reichel (1979) that residents with high contact have positive perceptions. This apparent contradiction, however, may be explained by the site-specific conditions under which tourists and hosts interact. Reisinger and Turner (2003) argue that the consequences of social contact between tourists and hosts depend largely on the social contact between individuals from different cultural backgrounds, and the conditions under which they interact. Social contact between individuals from different cultural backgrounds may result in negative attitudes, perceptions, and experiences.

3.12 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR ASSESSING SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS

Tourism management is a relatively new academic discipline, and sociology and anthropology, two of the academic disciplines from which it draws, are particularly relevant to this study. Much of the theory relating to cultural tourism and the impact of tourists on the host community has been contributed by sociologists and anthropologists who have been studying tourism for many years (Cohen, 1972; Greenwood, 1989; Smith, 1989; Nash & Smith, 1991; Graburn, 1993; Sharpley, 1994; Burns & Holden, 1995; Burns, 1999; Graburn, 2002).

A review of the work of these authors reveals that sociologists study the social aspects of tourism, whereas anthropologists view tourism as a cultural phenomenon. The patterns and influences of social interaction on residents and tourists, and the social factors affecting tourism demand are among the topics explored in the sociology of tourism. An obvious synergy thus exists between anthropology and the sociology of tourism, as both

seek to identify and make sense of culture and human dynamics. Because tourism is a global set of activities crossing many cultures, an understanding of the consequences of the interaction between managing, generating and receiving tourism societies is vital (Cohen, 1979, Greenwood, 1989, Sharpley, 1994; Burns & Holden, 1995).

Tourism as a social phenomenon involves social interaction between tourists and residents, and between tourists and the tourism industry (Cohen, 1979). This interaction may cause social change. Tourism is influenced by social factors such as fashion, social status, and the norms and values of a society. Sharpley (1994) lists four principal areas of analysis that have emerged in sociological treatments of tourism in the literature. These are: socio-economic impacts, tourists and their motivations, attitudes and perceptions, the tourist-host relationship, and the structure of the tourism system.

Tourism as a cultural phenomenon involves contact between the different cultural backgrounds of tourists and host communities, and the tourism industry and residents (Richards, 1997). This contact is sometimes referred to as a cultural exchange (Keyser, 2002). Many researchers believe that tourism is one of the factors causing cultural change in societies; in this regard, Burns and Holden (1995:119.) express the view that tourism is "a pan-human touristic process that originates with the generation of tourists in society, continues as tourists travel to other places where they encounter hosts, and ending as the give and take of this encounter affects the tourists, their hosts and their home culture".

Therefore both sociology and anthropology remind us that tourism involves contact between two groups of people: the tourists and the host communities. Both point to change because of the interaction, and both are therefore applicable to the study of socio-cultural impacts in township tourism. Useful themes explaining cultural tourism and host-guest relationships derived from these two disciplines are further explored in chapter 4.

3.13   THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES: THEORIES AND MODELS

Studies of the impact of tourism on local communities elsewhere in the world have revealed that tourism has a specific, sociological effect on host communities (Cohen, 1988), and several models have been developed to help explain the impacts of tourism and the way in which these are perceived by residents. Doxey's Irridex model (1975), Butler's Tourist Area Life Cycle (1980), and social exchange theory (Ap, 1992) are most often invoked to explain tourist-host relationships and their specific social and cultural impacts.

3.14   DOXEY'S INDEX OF IRRITATION (IRRIDEX)

In the Irridex model, Doxey developed a useful framework for the analysis of community attitudes towards tourists; the Irridex (derived from 'irritation index') represents the escalating irritation of residents as the impact of visitor numbers increases. From studies in South Africa it is clear that different regions in South Africa would feature at different positions on the Irridex, according to their level of exposure and the degree to which tourists and tourism are effectively managed.

Doxey (1975) cites the physical presence of tourists, the differences between tourists and locals and foreign ownership of local resources as possibly constituting the primary factors causing social impacts.

STAGE	HOST COMMUNITY ATTITUDE	CHARACTERISTICS
Stage 1	Euphoria	• Small number of visitors • Visitors seek to merge with the local community • Host community welcomes tourism • Limited commercial activity in tourism
Stage 2	Apathy	• Visitor numbers increase • Visitors are taken for granted • The relationship between tourists and the host community is more formalised
Stage 3	Irritation	• The number of tourists grows significantly • Increased involvement of external commercial concerns • Increased competition for resources between tourists and residents • Locals concerned about tourism
Stage 4	Antagonism	• Open hostility from locals • Attempts to limit damage and tourism flows

Adapted from (Keyser, 2002)

Table 3.5   CAUSATION THEORY OF VISITOR-RESIDENT IRRITANTS: DOXEY'S IRRIDEX

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This model is a useful simplification of the complex relationships and sets of attitudes that develop between tourists and host communities. The specific ability of host communities to accommodate or tolerate tourism, and the attitudes that are formed in consequence, are known to differ from community to community, and are determined by a number of factors, including the number and types of visitors, length of visit, and cultural distance between hosts and guests (Doxey, 1975).

Doxey's Irridex model offers useful insight into what the expected attitudes of township residents may be as their community progresses through the phases listed above. Tourism management in the form of community involvement and consultative decision-making needs to be offered as a tourism development solution should residents exhibit any of the characteristics in stages 2–4.

3.15   BUTLER'S TOURIST AREA LIFE CYCLE MODEL

Butler (1980) proposes that tourism progresses through the stages of exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation and then decline; as can be seen from figure 3.2, there is a correlation between these stages and the attitudes of residents to tourists.

Source (Butler, 1980)
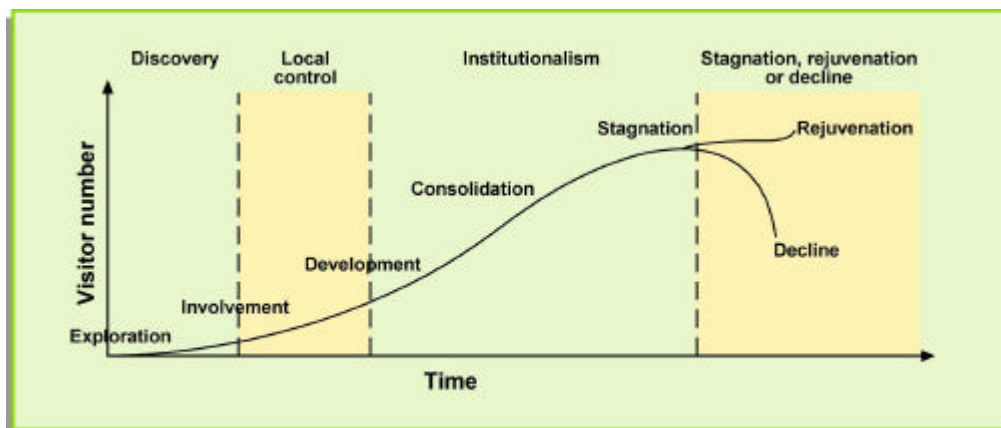
Figure 3.5   BUTLER'S TOURIST AREA LIFE CYCLE MODEL

The initial stage, or exploration, is typified by a new-found curiosity in travelling to the area. During the following stage, services are introduced to serve the needs of this travelling public. The third stage is characterised by robust physical development in area

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products and services.   However, this rapid development becomes an issue to the residents and to policy agents relative to host community impacts, and thus it is during the development phase that the economic, sociological, cultural, and ecological impacts become prominent. This phase is commonly characterised by considerable advertising and promotional efforts aimed at attracting tourists and maintaining a balance with available resources. In the consolidation stage the rate of increase of visitors declines though total numbers are still increasing and exceed permanent residents. At stagnation peak tourist volumes have now been reached and the destination is no longer fashionable, relying upon repeat visitors from more conservative travellers. The last phase is determined largely by the positive or negative impacts that have occurred during the development phase. Hence, the final stage of decline is largely contingent on the host community's ability to cope with identified tourism impacts.   If the issues are insurmountable, decline occurs, with a concomitant drop in tourist arrivals to the area. However, if policies are enacted that sustain the balance between precious resources and tourist demands, decline will in all probability be averted (Butler, 1980).

 As the number of visitors to a region increases, residents who were at first overwhelmingly positive in their attitudes towards their guests develop greater reservations concerning the long-term benefits brought by the visitors. This may be because the original expectations of the benefits of tourism were unrealistic (and so impossible to fulfil) or because the benefits are perceived to accrue to only a small number of people. Alternatively, although expectations of the benefits may be fulfilled, the environmental or social costs may initially have been overlooked, or excessively discounted, so that the local residents come to doubt whether their visitors are an unqualified blessing (Butler, 1980).

3.16   SOCIAL EXCHANGE THEORY

Social exchange theory has been considered an appropriate framework for developing an understanding of residents' perceptions of tourism impacts (Nash, 1989; Ap, 1990; Allen *et al*., 1993). A study by Ap (1992) drawing on social exchange theory sheds some light on this subject, and suggests that when an exchange of resources (expressed in terms of

power) between residents and tourism is high and balanced, or high for the host, tourism impacts are viewed positively by residents. On the other hand, when an exchange of resources is low or an unbalanced exchange that favours the tourist occurs, residents view the impacts negatively (Ap, 1990, 1992).

Social exchange theory suggests that individuals will engage in exchanges if (1) the resulting rewards are valued, (2) the exchange is likely to produce valued rewards, and (3) perceived costs do not exceed perceived rewards (Ap, 1992). These principles suggest that residents will be willing to enter into an exchange with the tourists if they can reap some benefit without incurring unacceptable costs. Theoretically, residents who view the results of tourism as personally valuable and believe that the costs do not exceed the benefits will favour the exchange and support tourism development (King *et al.*, 1993).

Earlier research has recognised that the elements being offered by the host community include not only economic components but also social and environmental factors (Pizam & Milman, 1986, 1993; Allen *et al.*, 1993; King *et al.*, 1993). Residents appear to be willing to enter into an exchange with tourists if they feel the transaction will result in a gain; studies have shown that economic gain, along with social and environmental factors, affect resident perceptions of tourism and their support of or opposition to tourism (Pizam *et al.*, 1978; Tyrrell & Spaulding, 1984). These studies suggest that the value attributed to the elements of exchange affects the way tourism is perceived and the manner in which residents react to tourism.

Social exchange theory may thus explain why earlier research demonstrates that support for tourism is dependent on resident perceptions of tourism impacts (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Theoretically, the relationship holds true because the perception of tourism impacts is a result of assessing rewards and costs (Ap, 1992). Consequently, residents who perceive the exchange with tourists as beneficial will support tourism, while those who perceive the exchange as deleterious will oppose tourism development (Ap, 1992). The perception of tourism impacts is affected by the exchange the perceivers believe they

are making. Therefore, expressed support for tourism development may be considered as a willingness to enter into an exchange with the tourists.

Social exchange theory, which is generally concerned with explaining the exchange of resources (physical or symbolic) between people or groups of people, is similar to Nash's suggestion that the relationship between tourists and their hosts includes certain understandings that must be agreed and acted upon (Nash, 1989), which implies a form of transaction. When applied to tourism, social exchange implies that both tourists and hosts engage in a process of negotiation or exc hange, the ultimate aim of which is to maximise the benefit to each from the encounter (Pizam *et al*., 1978; Nash, 1989; Ap, 1992). For the tourist, the benefit may be the purchase of a product or service or, more generally, a desired experience; for local people, the benefit may be economic gain.

The exchange process itself follows a sequence of events, commencing with the identification of a need (Ap, 1992). Unless a need or a motivation exists, there is no reason for either party to initiate an exchange; thus, unless a community has a need to develop tourism or sees tourism as a means of economic and social improvement, it is unlikely to be willing to become involved in or to welcome the development of tourism (Ap, 1992; Ap & Crompton, 1998). The one exception may be where a community has a tradition of hospitality with no expectation of payment or reward, although such a tradition is likely to become rapidly commercialised with the advent of regular tourism (Ap, 1990, 1992).

Once needs have been recognised, both the tourist and the host enter into an exchange situation that must be rational and result in satisfactory benefits (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). In other words, both parties act in a rational manner that will result in the desired benefits, although those benefits will be satisfied rather than maximised. For example, tourism development is normally undertaken for the potential economic and social benefits that it will bring to a community, such as improved standards of living and better transport services (Pizam *et al*., 1978; Allen *et al*., 1988; Reisinger & Turner, 2003). The greater the perceived benefits, the more positive local people's attitudes towards tourists

will be. However, certain costs are involved, such as having to put up with crowds or higher costs in the shops during the tourist season; once those costs begin to outweigh benefits, then attitudes towards tourism and tourists will become increasingly negative (Nash, 1989; Reisinger & Turner, 2003).

What is important to note is that the social exchange, or tourist-host encounter, must be reciprocal. Reciprocity suggests that the resources exchanged should be roughly equivalent and, therefore, neither party should feel they are being exploited (Ap, 1992; Allen *et al.*, 1993; King *et al.*, 1993). Once either the host or the tourist recognises a lack of reciprocity, for example, when tourists feels that they are being taken advantage of by being charged an excessively high price for souvenirs or when hosts believe that they are being taken advantage of by having tourists intrude on their privacy by taking photographs, then the exchange becomes unbalanced (Nash, 1989; Ap, 1992;; Reisinger & Turner, 2003). In this situation, the host is more likely to adopt a more negative attitude towards encounters than tourists because what is 'business as usual' for local people is a one-off experience for tourists (Ap, 1992). However, if the conditions of rationality, the achievement of benefits and reciprocity are fulfilled, then the exchange will be perceived as fair and equitable; if the host and the tourist both feel that they have achieved a fair and satisfactory outcome, then each will have a positive perception of the encounter (Ap, 1992; Sharpley, 1994).

The advantages of using social exchange theory, then, are that it is able to accommodate explanations of both positive and negative perceptions and to examine relationships at either the individual or the collective level. Social exchange theory demonstrates that resident evaluation of the impacts of tourism and resident support for tourism are dependent on what residents value.

3.17   SUMMARY

This chapter has provided a theoretical basis and framework for assessing host community perceptions of socio-cultural impacts of township tourism and identified a

useful corpus of socio-cultural impact variables and concepts. These will contribute to appropriate methodological instruments that will direct and inform the research process.

This chapter has also brought to the fore the most significant problem associated with assessing socio-cultural impacts, namely the difficulty in distinguishing these from other impacts, and hence in measuring them. This partly explains why these impacts have in the past been regarded as less significant than economic impacts. As a result, much research has relied on the perceptions of a range of respondents, particularly local residents, but also tourists themselves and other players in tourism. A good deal of research has also entailed an attempt to apply various theories, such as those of Doxey, Butler and Ap, to specific tourism development contexts.

Empirical research tends to suggest that local residents in many locations are willing to consider trade-offs with regard to tourism — they are willing to accept some negative consequences as long as tourism is perceived as bringing some benefits.   However, as a consumer of resources, tourism has the ability to over-consume cultural and social resources, leading to negative impacts on societies and culture. Yet numbers alone do not determine socio-cultural impact. Other contributing factors, including type of contact, visitor and destination characteristics and local perceptions about the importance of tourism, were also covered in this chapter. It was also pointed out that tourism alone does not necessarily lead to negative impacts and conflict between tourists and host communities; these are more likely to be attributable to the inadequate management of tourism.

While the models of Doxey and Butler offer a reflection of resident perceptions of tourism and useful assessment criteria for exploring the community's attitude at certain stages of tourism development, social exchange theory as proposed by Ap was explored as a logically and intuitively appealing theory to form the basis of an investigation of the perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism of Soweto residents.

CHAPTER 4

LITERATURE REVIEW: APPROPRIATE PLANNING FOR TOURISM IN DESTINATION COMMUNITIES

4.1   INTRODUCTION

Following on from the review of the socio-cultural impacts resulting from host-guest interactions contained in the literature as presented in chapter 3, this chapter introduces the views of various authors concerning feasible approaches to managing tourism impacts in destination communities. Chapter 4 addresses a fundamental objective of this study, which is to review suitable tourism development strategies and approaches for tourism planners, managers and communities for managing the effects of tourism on host communities. Sustainable development and sustainable tourism have been signalled by most researchers as the way forward for tourism development and planning in developing countries such as South Africa. Based on the discussions in this chapter and the findings in chapter 6, appropriate strategies will be recommended for the Soweto township tourism context in chapter 7.

4.2   SOCIO-CULTURAL SUSTAINABILITY

Although societies are able function harmoniously in the presence of tourism, the possibility nevertheless remains that relationships within that society and its lifestyle, customs and traditions may well change as a result of the introduction of visitors with different habits, styles, customs and means of exchange (Weaver & Lawton, 2002). Even if a society survives under these circumstances, its culture can undergo irreversible alterations (Burns & Holden, 1995). Vital to sustainable tourism is responsible behaviour on the part of the visitor and the prevention of any form of distortion of the local culture (Greenwood, 1989; Nash & Smith, 1991; Graburn, 1993). To sustain the hosts' desire for tourists to visit and the guests' desire to return, the negative impacts of cultural tourism must be kept to the minimum through skilled management, an area in which social scientists and anthropologists can offer assistance (Greenwood, 1989; Graburn, 1993; Burns & Holden, 1995; Burns, 1999).

Social sustainability is the ability of a community to absorb visitors for either long or short periods of time without being influenced negatively by people different from themselves (in other words, without experiencing social disharmony) or attempting to alleviate any disharmony by adapting their functions or relationships (Weaver & Lawton, 2002).

4.3   THE NON-SUSTAINABLE DIMENSION OF CULTURAL TOURISM

4.3.1   Continuous use of cultural sites

The overuse of sites such as cultural villages and townships can become a particular problem, as has happened with heritage tourism elsewhere in the world. This overuse can result in both damage to buildings and landscapes and an unsatisfactory experience for visitors (Boniface, 1995). The problem can be caused by too many visitors in total, too high a proportion of consumers visiting at the same time, or the wrong kind of visitors whose behaviour is not appropriate (Swarbrooke, 1999). All of these are management problems, and often it may be beyond the skill or financial resources of those who own the cultural tourism resources in question to solve them.

4.3.2   Lack of local control

There are many interest groups and many individuals hold their own viewpoints, with the result that there is no easy way of reaching a consensus. Communities rarely, if ever, speak with one voice (McIntyre, 1993). The mechanisms that are used to elicit the views of the community provide an opportunity for a minority of self-appointed community spokespeople, or people with strong views, to dominate the process (Swarbrooke, 1999); the views of the so-called 'silent majority' may thus often go unheard. Moreover, professionals may undervalue or even ignore local views that run contrary to their own. This is particularly prevalent when 'public participation exercises' are held to legitimise decisions that have, in all probability, already been taken (Ashley & Roe, 1998; Swarbrooke, 1999).

Even if a community could speak with one voice, its ability to control local tourism development would be limited by a number of factors, including the following (DEAT, 1996; Swarbrooke, 1999):

? If a destination community tries to control tourism activities, the power of the tourism industry allows for tour operators simply to move on to another destination where they will not face similar constraints.

? A community may wish to limit the growth of tourism in an area, but government policies may require the maximisation of the attraction of foreign tourists to the destination to help the balance of payments of the country.

? Externally based organisations may already have a strong voice in the area because of their ownership of local businesses. An example of this would be hotels owned by national hotel chains or transnational companies.

? The stimulus and funding for the development of cultural tourism in South Africa often comes from outside the local area due to lack of economic empowerment in both rural and urban communities.

In South Africa, amongst indigenous populations in particular, history has shown that in most cases, local people may have little say in the process, which is clearly at odds with the concept of sustainable tourism (DEAT, 1996). It is perhaps especially a problem in the heritage field, where the story of a community is told to tourists by outside professionals rather than by local people. This is an extremely contentious issue in South Africa, particularly in the cultural tourism context, where there is a scarcity of site guides. The lack of local control may often lead to developments that are inappropriate for their location because the outside agencies lack the necessary knowledge (Goudie *et al.*, 1999). Furthermore, it can lead to some or most of the benefits derived from the development being exported away from the local area (DEAT, 1996). The challenge is, therefore, to find ways of making cultural tourism products such as township tourism and cultural villages more sustainable in themselves, and to be better able to contribute towards the development of sustainable tourism in general.

4.3.3   Trivialisation or loss of authenticity

The needs of the tourism industry, and the tastes of tourists, can lead to the trivialising of culture and a loss of authenticity (Cohen, 1995; Swarbrooke, 1999; Dondolo; 2001). Traditional dances, for instance, are shortened to accommodate the schedules of tour groups, and traditional cuisine is internationalised to make it acceptable to the palates of visitors. This topic was extensively covered in the previous chapter.

4.4   SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The concept of sustainable development emerged in the mid nineteen-sixties. However, the term was first used in the Bruntland report, entitled *Our Common Future,* prepared by the World Commission on Development and Environment in 1987.   Sustainable development brings together the apparently contrasting concepts of economic development and environmental conservation. The vision put forward by the Bruntland report was one of economic development not concerned purely with attaining maximum economic growth (i.e. pursuing economic efficiency), but also with issues of fairness between the individuals and groups making up today's society as well as fairness between the present generation and those generations still to come (Bruntland, 1987; Harris *et al.*, 2002; Keyser, 2002).

The sustainable development approach implies that the resources for development are conserved for indefinite future as well as present use; sustainable   development is considered to be "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (Bruntland, 1987).   This approach thus ensures that future generations everywhere will have sufficient resources to adequately sustain themselves and maintain a reasonable quality of life (Harris *et al.*, 2002; Keyser, 2002). For people whose present quality of life is not of an acceptable standard, the resources, if sustained, will be available for them and their children potentially to achieve quality of life in the future.

 Achieving sustainability is now the underlying principle for all types of development, including tourism (Hunter & Green, 1995). The achievement of sustainability is an

objective that will require much time and effort, and careful planning and management of resources development are the key means to achieving it (Inskeep, 1991). Keyser (2002) argues that the use of phrases such as 'beyond the rhetoric of sustainable development' and 'operationalising sustainable development' clearly points to the need to stop talking about sustainable development and start acting to turn it into reality. Figure 4.1 illustrates the cornerstones of sustainable development.
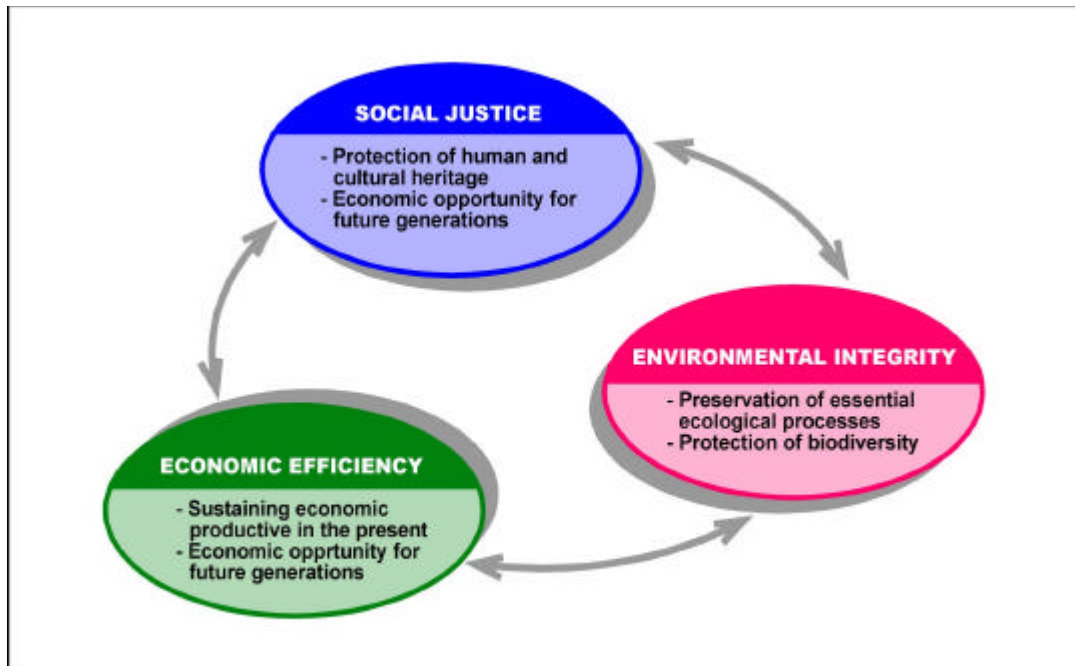
Adapted from (Keyser, 2002:373)

Figure 4.1 THE CORNERSTONES OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

4.5   SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

Cultural tourism and sustainable tourism are often seen as virtually synonymous. The former is seen as sensitive, soft, 'intelligent' tourism that is complementary to the concept of sustainable tourism (Weaver & Lawton, 2002). However there are several aspects to cultural tourism that may well prevent it from being a sustainable activity in its own right, and may in fact make it incompatible with the principles of sustainable tourism.

The concept of sustainable tourism, popularised following the release of the Bruntland report, represents a direct application of the sustainable development concept.

Sustainable tourism, in this context, is tourism that meets the needs of present generations without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Hunter & Green, 1995; Harris *et al.*, 2002). Some commentators, such as McIntyre (1993) and Mowforth and Munt (1998), prefer the term 'sustainable tourism development', since the term 'sustainable tourism' could imply an emphasis on the well-being of the tourism sector itself, in the sense of 'sustained tourism', rather than on the communities where tourism takes place. The term 'sustainable tourism', however, is more widely used, with some arguing that the concept of sustainable tourism should take into account the sustainability of tourism as well as that of the local community (McIntyre, 1993). This contention is based on the argument that the term is meaningless if there is no tourism sector to which the adjective 'sustainable' can be attached (Hunter, 1995). As with 'sustainable development', the label 'sustainable tourism' is susceptible to appropriation by those pursuing a particular political agenda (Weaver & Lawton, 2002).

Sustainable tourism embraces a community-oriented approach, encouraging community involvement and participation (Keyser, 2002). Keyser (2002:381) notes that definitions of sustainable tourism emphasise three fundamental features:

- ? *Quality* Sustainable tourism involved providing quality experiences for visitors, while improving the quality of life of the host community.
- ? *Continuity* Sustainable tourism ensures the continuity of the natural resources upon which it is based, and the continuity of the culture of the host communities.
- ? *Balance* Sustainable tourism balances the needs of the tourism industry, supporters of the environment, and the local community.

According to Ritchie and Crouch (2003), the social dimension of tourism has received little attention in impact studies, compared with the attention paid to the environmental impact of tourism. Socio-cultural impacts usually occur slowly over time and tend to be invisible and intangible (Mathieson & Wall, 1982). Swarbrooke (1999) notes that the social impact of tourism is usually permanent, or all but impossible to reverse. Figure 4.2 presents a model of the social dimension of sustainable tourism that offers a complete perspective on the socio-cultural aspects of sustainable tourism (Swarbrooke, 1999). All

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the stakeholders in tourism are clearly interrelated, and indeed interdependent, each with both rights and responsibilities that need to be recognised.

THE TOURIST

- Who can, and cannot, afford a holiday
- Paying a fair price for the holiday
- The legitimacy or otherwise of the benefits gained from tourism, from relation to having sex with children
- Visiting destinations with poor human rights records
- The need to feel safe and secure
- Interactions and relations with fellow tourists and the host community
- Attitudes towards staff
- Exploiting low wage-earners to enjoy a cheap holiday

FOREIGN TOUR OPERATORS

- Relations with the local tourism industry and the host community
- Exploiting low cost economies to reduce their costs
- Images and expectations created by their promotional activities
- Doing business with entrepreneurs who may have a poor record as employers
- Lack of long-term commitment to local communities

DESTINATION GOVERNMENT

- Restrictions on, and harassment of tourists from particular countries and cultures
- Devoting resources to tourism that could otherwise be allocated to other priorities such as health and education
- Subsidizing the cost of holidays for tourists
- Creating images of the destination for tourists through their promotional activities
- Deciding how tax revenues from tourists will be used
- Degree and nature of regulation of the tourism industry
- Attitudes to traditional cultures and indigenous people in the destination

LOCAL TOURISM INDUSTRY

- Human resource issues including pay, working conditions and promotion opportunities
- Influence with government decision-makers
- Value for money, otherwise, offered to tourists
- Representations of local cultures for tourists

HOST COMMUNITY

- Attitudes towards, and relations with, the tourists
- Level of involvement and degree of influence on public sector decision-making in relation to tourism
- Impact of tourism on the society and culture
- Strengths of, and commitment towards, conserving the society and culture

Source (Swarbrooke, 1999:70)

Figure 4.2   THE SOCIAL DIMENSION OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

A very useful summary of the principles behind sustainable tourism management, as originally proposed by Bramwell, Henry, Jackson, Prat, Richards and Van der Straaten (1996), follows in table 4.1.

- The approach sees policy, planning and management as appropriate and, indeed, essential responses to the problems of natural and human resource misuse in tourism.
- The approach is generally not anti-growth, but it emphasizes that there are limitations to growth and that tourism must be managed within the limits.
- Long-term rather than short-term thinking is necessary.
- The concerns of sustainable tourism management are not just environmental, but also economic, social, cultural, political and managerial.
- The approach emphasizes the importance of satisfying human needs and aspirations, which entails a prominent concern for equity and fairness.
- All stakeholders need to be consulted and empowered in tourism decision making, and they also need to be informed about sustainable development issues.
- While sustainable development should be a goal for all policies and actions, putting the ideas of sustainable tourism into practice means recognizing that in reality there are often limits to what will be achieved in the short and medium term.
- An understanding of how market economies operate, of the cultures and management procedures of private sector businesses and of public and voluntary sector organizations, and of the values and attitudes of the public is necessary in order to turn good intentions into practical measures.
- There are frequently conflicts of interest over the use of resources, which means that in practice trade-offs and compromises may be necessary.
- The balancing of costs and benefits in decisions on different courses of action must extend to considering how much different individuals and groups will gain or lose.

From (Bramwell *et al.*, 1996)

Table 4.1   PRINCIPLES BEHIND SUSTAINABLE TOURISM MANAGEMENT

4.6   CRITIQUE OF THE SUSTAINABLE TOURISM APPROACH

The researcher believes that it is necessary to recognise that sustainable tourism may be an impossible dream, and the best we can hope for is to develop sustainable forms of tourism.   This may be because tourism is inherently non-sustainable, or because unforeseen future political, economic, social and technological change may make current approaches to sustainable tourism management obsolete (Bramwell *et al.*, 1996; Ashley & Roe, 1998). We must recognise that sustainable tourism is an overtly political subject, in that it concerns the distribution of resources, both now and in the future (Timothy, 1998). The fact that some people will gain and some people will lose as a result of sustainable tourism means that it is inherently political, and its political nature means that sustainable tourism is about who has the power — host communities, governments, the industry or the tourists — and how these role-players recognise that definitions of sustainable tourism and devising strategies to try to achieve it will normally reflect who has the power in any particular situation (Richards & Hall, 2000; Sharpley, 2000).

The idea of community involvement as a cornerstone of sustainable tourism is problematic (Reed, 1997). Communities are rarely homogeneous, and thus will rarely take a single homogeneous view on any issue. There is a need to develop mechanisms for arbitrating the conflicting views concerning tourism that will emerge in any community. Tourism management should not allow articulate minorities to dominate the process to the exclusion of other citizens; sustainable tourism is thus about stakeholders whose interests have to be balanced (Richards & Hall, 2000). Swarbrooke (1999) notes that in some instances the community may wish to pursue policies that run counter to sustainable tourism; it cannot thus be assumed that community involvement will automatically ensure more sustainable forms of tourism.

The sustainable development strategy needs to shift towards emphasis on implementation, since many sustainable tourism strategies have been devised, but there are as yet few examples of successful initiatives (Mann, 2000). This is quite evident in the White Paper on Tourism Development and Promotion of 1996. Sustainable tourism development needs to be interpreted in terms of what destinations and the tourism industry can do to implement and operationalise sustainable tourism development (Mann, 2000). In other words, we need to ask what steps destinations, tourists and tourism businesses can take to make sustainable tourism development a reality, and what changes tourism destinations and the tourism industry need to implement in their daily operations and ways of doing business in order to become more sustainable.

4.7   Responsible tourism development

Responsible Tourism as a concept has gained much momentum in the 1990's and is quite synonymous with the concept of sustainable tourism development, alternative tourism, ecotourism, green tourism, and soft tourism. The White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa identifies the concept of 'Responsible Tourism' as the most appropriate concept and guiding principle for tourism development in South Africa (DEAT, 1996). The Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Mohammed Valli Moosa emphasises that, "Responsible tourism destinations conserve nature and increase the living standards of local communities. By supporting these destinations, and

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contributing to their success, you can help them achieve these aims. Responsible tourism allows you to meet local people and experience their culture and way of life, which will make your visit more meaningful and enjoyable. As a responsible tourist, we encourage you to ask your hosts what they are doing to develop the local economy and protect the environment"(SA Hospitality Industry Responsible Tourism Guide, 2002:2).

Responsible tourism is seen as a positive approach by tourism industry partners to develop, market, and manage the tourism industry in a responsible manner, to create a competitive advantage. According to the Responsible Tourism Handbook (2003) and the South African White Paper on Responsible Tourism of 1996, responsible tourism implies:

- ? Tourism industry responsibility to the environment, through the promotion of balanced and sustainable tourism, and a focus on environmentally based tourism activities;
- ? Responsibility of government and business to involve the local communities that are in close proximity to tourism plant and attractions, through the development of meaningful economic linkages;
- ? Responsibility to respect, invest and develop local cultures, and protect them from over-commercialization and over-exploitations;
- ? The responsibility of local communities to become actively involved in the tourism industry, to practice sustainable development, and to ensure the safety and security of visitors;
- ? The responsibility of both employers and employees in the tourism industry, both to each other and the customer (responsible trade union and employment practices); and
- ? Responsible government as well a responsibility on the part of tourists to observe the norms and practices of South Africa.

According to the Responsible Tourism Handbook (2003) and the South African White Paper on Responsible Tourism of 1996, the key elements of responsible tourism include:

- ? Avoidance of waste and over-consumption

- ? Using local resources in a sustainable manner

- ? Maintenance and encouragement of natural, social and cultural diversity

- ? Sensitivity to the host culture

- ? Local community involvement in planning and decision making

- ? A prerequisite assessment of the environmental, economic and social impacts prior to tourism development

- ? Ensuring that the host population is involved in and benefits from tourism

- ? The tourism that is marked should be responsible, respecting the local, natural and cultural environment

- ? The impacts of tourism must be monitored and open disclosure of information ensured.

"Responsible Tourism" is therefore a concept underpinned by sound environmental, social and economic principles, offering a way to minimise environmental and cultural impacts, by benefiting local communities and reducing poverty (SA Hospitality Industry Responsible Tourism Guide, 2002). Responsible tourism therefore involves participation by all stakeholders.   This includes private sector, government, local communities, disadvantaged communities, minority groups, consumers, NGO's, the media, employees and others.   By comparing the description and principles of responsible tourism defined in the White Paper with the principles of sustainable tourism development described previously, one will see that the principles and descriptions are essentially the same.

4.8   RESPONSIBLE COMMUNITY TOURISM AS THE WAY FORWARD?

The sustainable tourism development concept embraces a community-oriented approach, encouraging community involvement and participation. It is therefore useful for the purposes of this research to provide a critical review of community tourism as an approach, bearing in mind that Soweto township tourism emanates from the community. A critical question then relates to the extent to which the community tourism management approach may be effective for destination communities such as Soweto in creating opportunities for township residents.

As in Soweto, host communities throughout the world play an integral role in the tourism industry. What they typically lack, however, is the power to influence the nature and direction of tourism development (Ashley & Roe, 1998). The level of choice exercised by host communities in becoming a destination is questionable in the case of tourism in general, and particularly so in developing countries. Thus, in worst-case scenarios, host communities are actively disadvantaged by having tourism occur in their own backyards, which is why the term 'host' can be hotly contested (Singh *et al.,* 2003). For example, in many contexts in South Africa, indigenous peoples have been displaced from land so that national parks or wildlife areas can be created (Keyser, 2002). In such cases the rewards reaped from subsequent tourism development are typically pocketed by outside tourism operators and the government, while local people must deal with diminished livelihood options.

4.9   TOWARDS A RESPONSIBLE COMMUNITY TOURISM APPROACH

The concept of community has been significant in tourism, and tourism planning in particular, for over 20 years (Murphy, 1985; Haywood, 1988; Murphy, 1988; Prentice, 1993; Jurowski, 1997; Ashley & Roe, 1998; Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Tosun, 1999; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000; Richards & Hall, 2000; Mann, 2000; Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002). Indeed, the central role of the community in tourism planning has come to be recognised as one of the tenets of sustainable and socially responsible tourism. However, while community-based planning is an important driver in academic and bureaucratic approaches to tourism development (Murphy, 1988), it is important to recognise that such an approach does not automatically lead to sustainable tourism development (Richards & Hall, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002); a key point to remember is that the local should not be romanticised, as often seems to be the case in discussions of tourism planning. Nevertheless, a community-based approach provides the possibility that the need for consultation regarding the use of shared resources and the needs of neighbours will open the way to the resolution of tourism conflicts (Ashley & Roe, 1998; Tosun, 2000). When examining the role of the community in tourism it is impossible to separate the social, economic and political processes operating within a community from the conflict which occurs between stakeholders (Singh *et al.*, 2003). Conflict and

disagreement between members of a community over the outputs and outcomes of tourism are, in fact, the norm.

Tourism planners therefore typically have to achieve a compromise between various stakeholders and interests in tourism development in an attempt to arrive at outcomes acceptable to stakeholders within the wider community (Inskeep, 1991; Hall, 2000). Indeed, much of the recent proliferation of tourism literature dealing with co-operation and collaboration in tourism destinations is a direct response to the need to find mechanisms to accommodate the various interests that exist in tourism development (Selin, 2000; Timothy, 1998, 1999). One of the responsibilities of the host population is to recognise the desire of many tourists to meet and interact with local people and to be prepared to foster the host-guest relationship in tourism (Tosun, 2002). The host population should have an active say in the kind of tourism appropriate to their own lifestyle, culture and natural resources, and to be free to reject tourism as an economic option if other options are available (Singh *et al.*, 2003).

Participation by host communities in tourism planning and development is fundamental to the process (Selin, 2000; Timothy, 1998). In this context, Dowling (2000) asserts that "the host population and local services are important in themselves and are incidentally basic resources in relation to tourism". The United Nations Environment Programme (1986) advocated that tourism should be subject to environmental planning and management, taking into account the well-being of the local population, which too often has to accept a large influx of tourists without having had a voice in such development. The demands of the public that their concerns be incorporated into the decision-making process has resulted in the emergence of public participation programmes and requirements that environmental impact statements be prepared.

Prentice (1993) and Sharpley (1994) note that the community approach to tourism development in its original form was, in effect, the precursor of what has become sustainable tourism development. Fundamental to this approach is the recognition that a thriving and healthy tourism industry depends upon an equally healthy and thriving local

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community (Tosun, 1999, 2000). It is the local community that benefits from tourism but, at the same time, it is the local community that bears the costs of tourism and has to pick up the pieces once the tourists have gone (Haywood, 1988; Jurowski, 1997; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). In other words, tourism is a resource industry, and local communities are as much a resource, or part of the tourism product, as are tourist facilities and attractions.

Therefore, the basic requirement for the community approach to tourism development is that all members of communities in tourist destination areas, rather than just those directly involved in the tourism industry, should be involved in the management and planning of tourism (Murphy, 1985; Haywood, 1988; Murphy 1988; Jurowski, 1997; Ashley & Roe, 1998; Mann, 2000). Pearce *et al.* (1996) include the education of both local people and communities, community ownership of tourist facilities, the facilitation of local residents' way of life and the undertaking of constant monitoring and research as equally essential ingredients of community-based tourism development. The purpose of this approach is to ensure that the objectives of tourism development coincide with the community's wider social and economic goals, that the tourism industry gives back to the community while extracting a living from it, and that both the industry and its community base can benefit mutually from a long-term partnership (Pearce *et al.*, 1996; Richards & Hall, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002).

Tourism is an economic activity that involves tourists who are willing to spend money in return for certain goods and services, and organisations and businesses that will provide those goods and services at a profit.   Under such circumstances, balanced and harmonious tourist-host relationships will occur only when the tourism product is small scale, locally owned and controlled, and not the major source of income and employment for the local community (Murphy, 1985; Haywood, 1988; Murphy, 1988; Mann, 2000). As soon as the hosts become dependent, either on tourists or on outside organisations, a form of exploitation results. The tourist-host relationship becomes based upon conflict and the local community begins to suffer from the social and cultural impacts of tourism.

4.10   WHY COMMUNITIES NEED TO BE EMPOWERED TO HAVE A MANAGEMENT ROLE

Clearly most destination communities currently do not dictate the terms or conditions on which tourism takes place in their home area, yet it is they who must live with the direct consequences of tourism (Timothy, 1998). These consequences often include negative social and environmental impacts, even in situations where communities are benefiting economically from tourism. To ensure a strong likelihood of economic, political and social benefits of tourism accruing to host communities, there needs to be full participation (Murphy, 1988; Prentice, 1993; Timothy, 1998; Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Richards & Hall, 2000; Tosun, 2000). Full participation is said to occur where communities supply the majority of goods and services to tourists, have considerable input into planning decisions, and collectively manage common resources (Timothy, 1998; Tosun 1999, 2000). The latter point is particularly relevant in situations where tourism is based on natural and cultural features. When tourism ventures are largely dependent on local cultural resources, and are locally managed, this allows communities to participate with equity in the tourism process (Timothy, 1998; Tosun, 2000).

Thus access to information pertaining to the pros and cons of tourism and how it may impact on their lives is important for host communities, particularly for those in less developed countries where information flows are often poor. Some of the questions local

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communities may want to consider include the following (Haywood, 1988; Prentice, 1993; Mann, 2000; Richards & Hall, 2000; Singh *et al*., 2003):

? What forms of tourism are desirable in our community?

? How can we ensure that the majority of benefits from tourism accrue locally?

? What measures need to be in place to ensure that tourism takes place in a controlled manner?

? How can we ensure that tourism does not undermine our culture, our society, or existing livelihood activities in this community?

Empowerment is not an easily defined concept, yet it is a term that has been enthusiastically adopted by agencies with diverse social and political aims because it is both attractive and seen as politically correct (Scheyvens, 2002). Empowerment should be a precursor to community involvement in tourism, as it is a means to determine and achieve socio-economic objectives The local community needs to be empowered to decide what forms of tourism they want to be developed in their respective communities, and how the tourism costs and benefits are to be shared among different stakeholders (Scheyvens, 2002; Singh *et al.*, 2003). A framework that specifies four dimensions of empowerment (economic, social, psychological and political) helps explain what empowerment can mean for host communities involved in tourism, as well as how disempowerment may manifest itself (Scheyvens, 2002). It demonstrates multiple ways in which communities need to be empowered if they are to have at least some management control over tourism and secure maximum benefits from engaging in tourism initiatives (Singh *et al.*, 2003).

4.10.1 Economic empowerment

Economic gains from involvement in both formal and informal sector activities can lead to empowerment for host communities, but what is more important than the total amount of these economic benefits is the spread of the benefits (Scheyvens, 2002). For a community to be economically empowered it will need secure access to productive resources in a tourism area. This is particularly important in the case of common property resources and in situations where protected areas have been established.

4.10.2 Social empowerment

Social empowerment refers to a situation in which a community's sense of cohesion and integrity has been confirmed or strengthened through its involvement in tourism (Scheyvens, 2002). Social empowerment perhaps most clearly results from tourism when profits are used to fund social development projects identified by the community, such as water supply systems or clinics in the local area (Scheyvens, 2002). Social disempowerment may occur if tourism results in crime, begging, perceptions of crowding, displacement from traditional lands, loss of authenticity or restitution and inequities in the distribution of the benefits of tourism (Timothy, 1999).

4.10.3 Psychological empowerment

Psychological empowerment should ideally mean that a community's confidence in its ability to participate equitably and effectively in tourism planning, development and management is maximised (Scheyvens, 2002). This may involve capacity-building and reinforcement of the self-worth of community members so that they can play an active role in decision-making or power-sharing processes with external stakeholders (Singh *et al.*, 2003).

According to Scheyvens (2002), a host community that is optimistic about the future, has faith in the abilities of its residents. A community that is relatively self-reliant, and demonstrates pride in its traditions and culture, can be said to be psychologically powerful. Tourism that is sensitive to cultural norms and builds respect for local traditions can, therefore, be empowering for local people. Preservation of tradition is extremely important in terms of maintaining a group's sense of self-esteem and well-being (Singh *et al.*, 2003).

4.10.4 Political empowerment

Scheyvens (2002) asserts that it is at this level of empowerment that the issue of community management of tourism most clearly comes to the fore. Once community members are politically empowered by involvement in tourism, their voices and concerns guide the development of any tourism initiative from the feasibility stage through to its

implementation. A community is usually diverse in terms of class, gender, caste, age and ethnicity, so it is important that democratic structures that encourage the involvement of a range of interest groups are in place (Timothy, 1999). Forming organisations, or working through traditional organisations structures, can certainly help communities gain greater control over tourist development in their areas and give them political strength to deal with outsiders, including the private sector and government officials (Ashley & Garland, 1994).

4.11   APPROPRIATE FORMS OF COMMUNITY TOURISM: ISSUES OF SCALE AND THE NATURE OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Another issue critical to understanding the management of host community tourism is scale. Studies by Britton and Clarke (1987), Opperman (1993), and Dahles and Bras (1999) reveal that small-scale initiatives have gained much support in discussions of community involvement in tourism because these initiatives are more likely to be owned and managed locally, and thus provide greater local benefits than tourism enterprises controlled by outsiders. Essentially, when local people can meet many of the needs of tourists themselves, they are more likely to retain some control over tourism (Opperman, 1993; Dahles & Bras, 1999). Controlling one's own enterprise is a positive step in the direction of self-determination for people otherwise dependent on the tourism industry for menial jobs or handouts, and is more likely to lead to self-fulfilment. If tourism moves 'up scale' in an area, local people can lose important economic advantages as well as control over tourism enterprises (Thomlinson & Getz, 1996).

While community enterprises certainly offer opportunities for residents to manage tourism on their own terms, other configurations, such as joint ventures with private-sector partners, also enable host communities to play a management role (Ashley and Roe, 1998). Whether destination communities always see small-scale or alternative forms of tourism as preferable to mass or luxury tourism should also be questioned. Thomlinson and Getz (1996) argue that while small-scale tourism is perceived to fit in well with the philosophy of alternative tourism, in practice mass tourism may be the preferred option if it brings in more money to local communities.

Table 4.2 indicates other opportunities for the involvement of host communities in the management of tourism.

TYPE OF ENTERPRISE OR INSTITUTION	OPPORTUNITIES FOR MANAGEMENT ROLES BY LOCALS	EXAMPLES
Private business run buy outsider(s) or local entrepreneur	• Written agreement over nature and extent of the enterprise • Agreement over benefits for the wider community	• Tours of natural features in the area to take place only at set times and to be postponed during community rituals • No more than two bus loads of tourists to visit an attraction within the community in a day • Jobs for local people or donations to be a community fund based on the number of visitors
Community enterprise	• Collectively owned and managed • Collectively owned but individually managed	• Community campsite run by a management committee • Craft centre owned by the community but managed by an individual with business training
Joint venture between community and private operator	• Revenue sharing agreement • Participation in decision-making	• Community has equity in lodge and representatives sit on board of directors • Community leases land for tourism development and set conditions upon which development may proceed
Tourism planning body or conservation authority	• Consultation • Representation • Participation	• Local consultation in regional tourism planning • Community representatives on tourism board or parks boards

Source: Adapted from (Ashley and Roe, 1998:8)

Table 4.2 OPPORTUNITIES FOR HOST COMMUNITIES TO BE INVOLVED IN THE MANAGEMENT OF TOURISM

Some communities may prefer mass tourism that involves, for example, one bus load of tourists arriving per day at a set time for a cultural performance and to buy crafts and then returning to their hotels, rather than tourism where outsiders come to stay in their village, as the latter is more culturally invasive (Britton & Clarke, 1987; Scheyvens, 2002). Communities may in fact be concerned that small-scale enterprises simply cannot compete with larger tourism ventures. Therefore, while some host communities will wish to pursue small-scale, alternative forms of tourism, others will prefer mass tourism (Opperman, 1993; Dahles & Bras, 1999). It is in the latter cases, however, that concerns are more likely to arise about the lack of community control over tourism.

4.12 HOW OUTSIDE VISITORS CAN MANAGE COMMUNITY TOURISM IMPACTS

With pre-travel information, visitors can often prepare themselves for travel to places where the culture is known to be quite different from their own (Swarbrooke, 1999). Tourists are able to obtain information about the culture of the host community, especially unacceptable behaviour, and essential actions, such as correct greeting behaviour and tipping, from commercial guide books, travel agents and tour operators (Swarbrooke, 1999; Keyser, 2002). Keyser (2002) suggests that the use of modern technologies such as the Internet, CD-ROMs, and in-flight videos or printed material, can also be used to encourage tourists to behave with sensitivity.

Each culture has particular values, habits, and norms, and tourists need to recognise and respect local cultures (Boniface, 1995; Smith, 2003), and codes of conduct or guidelines can be extremely useful as tools to minimise social and cultural impacts. Tourists often need and usually appreciate tips and information on how to behave. Much of the socio-cultural damage caused by tourism is due to a lack of knowledge and understanding (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Keyser (2002) recommends that the following points should be addressed in guidelines and codes of conduct for tourists: local customs and traditions; use of technological gadgetry; religious beliefs; bartering and bargaining; permission for photographs and videos; indigenous rights; language; treatment and status of local officials; invasion of privacy; off-limit areas; responses to begging; alcoholic beverages; keeping promises; smoking; and tipping.

There is a need for governments and the tourism industry to create tourism awareness by initiating programmes to inform the public about tourism, and to obtain feedback from local people about their perceptions of tourism (Mason, 2003). Tourism is particularly dependent on the use of community spaces and resources, and community receptiveness, as in the case of township tourism.

4.13   SUMMARY

In this chapter, the principles, characteristics and approaches to responsible community tourism destinations were explored. A sustainable tourism destination rarely occurs by accident. Rather, it is the product of the careful planning, management and monitoring of tourism development. This chapter highlighted the evolution of a new way of thinking about development in the form of the sustainability paradigm. The application of the concept of sustainability to tourism development was traced, and some of the initiatives of the tourism industry and tourism organisations in this field were noted, culminating in emphasis of the fact that planning is critical to the long-term economic, social and environmental sustainability of a destination and its tourism industry.

Chapter 4 also discussed the possibilities for destination communities to play a management role in responsible tourism, rather than assuming that they should be satisfied with simply gaining economic benefits from tourist activity. It was shown that economic gains do not always compensate for the social, cultural and environmental impacts of tourism in destination communities. The tourism industry in many countries is dominated by foreign ownership and capital, with little meaningful local involvement. There is nevertheless a strong rationale for host communities to play a role in managing tourism when it is they who will endure the most direct consequences of poorly planned and managed tourism.

It has been shown that the form and nature of tourism can play a significant role in influencing whether or not communities will be able to play a management role. This is likely to occur if tourism remains small scale and caters to the budget market, and less likely to occur as resort development, other forms of luxury tourism and mass tourism come to dominate. In the latter cases it may be appropriate for host communities to establish partnership arrangements with private sector interest so they can share experience and resources

A responsible community tourism approach calls for active participation by locals, ensuring that communities are empowered through knowledge of their choices and

options regarding management of natural and cultural resources in tourism development. They can then decide what options to pursue and how they wish to pursue them. Only when people take the initiative to change systems themselves (for which they need psychological empowerment) and establish more equitable structures (a sign of social and political empowerment), can active participation occur. It is important to realise that the inclusion of local communities as more active participants in tourism development will in all likelihood result in increasing conflicts between them and other stakeholders, including the government. Finding effective ways of resolving such conflicts will be critical to the long-term success of such ventures.

It is clear that in many cases destination communities are at a disadvantage in that they lack the skills, experience and knowledge of tourism processes necessary to play an active role in managing tourism. It would be useful for future studies to reveal examples of collaborative arrangements initiated to overcome these disadvantages. Particularly pertinent would be examples of arrangements that secure a strong role for communities in actually managing responsible tourism to their areas rather than merely playing the role of beneficiaries.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1   INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the research design and methodology procedures used in this study. The chapter begins with a discussion of the quantitative and qualitative research design and methodology; this is followed by a full description of the mixed methodologies (triangulation) approach used in this study. Data analysis by means of univariate, bivariate and multivariate analysis used for the treatment of data in this study is discussed in detail. Included are details of the population selected for the study, a description of respondents, sampling procedures, the variables investigated, quantitative and qualitative instrumentation used, data collection methods and the treatment and analyses of data.

5.2   OVERVIEW OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES IN THE SOCIAL
            SCIENCES

To satisfy the information needs of any study or research project, an appropriate methodology has to be selected and suitable tools for data collection (and analysis) have to be chosen (Mouton, 2001). Primarily there are two distinct approaches that inform the gathering of data in any research project, namely the qualitative approach and the quantitative approach. Qualitative and quantitative methodologies in the social sciences are governed by specific paradigms.

5.2.1   Qualitative approach

The qualitative approach is grounded in the interpretive social sciences paradigm. Qualitative forms of investigation tend to be based on a recognition of the importance of the subjective, experiential 'lifeworld' of human beings. Such reflection is the province of phenomenology reports (Babbie, 1995; Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Gilbert (1993) notes that qualitative methodologies provide avenues that can lead to the discovery of these deeper levels of meaning. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (1991) describe the task of the qualitative methodologist as to capture what people say and do as a product of how they

interpret the complexity of their world, and to understand events from the viewpoints of the participants. In the domain of tourism specifically, Jennings (2001) notes that the qualitative methodology gathers information as text-based units, which represent the social reality, context and attributes of the phenomenon under study. The methodology is inductive in nature.

Again within the context of tourism research specifically, Finn, Elliot-White and Walton (2000) and Walle (1996) explain that qualitative or inductive research commences in real-world settings, that is, in the empirical social world, where data about the tourism phenomenon are gathered, then analysed, and theoretical constructs are either generated or modified. Research that utilises a qualitative methodology will draw on data collection methods such as participant observation, in-depth interviews and/or focus groups (Jennings, 2001). As a consequence of its underlying, paradigm, qualitative research is subjective, since it relies on the texts and discourses of participants and involves small numbers of participants in the research process as a result of the process of gathering in-depth information (Gilbert, 1993; Walle, 1993; Gunn, 1994). Moreover, qualitative research, because of the small numbers of participants, does not presume to represent the wider population. Qualitative research enables researchers to present detailed snapshots, as it were, of the participants under study (Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Finn *et al.*, 2000).

Since qualitative reports are not presented as a statistical summation, but rather adopt a more descriptive, narrative style, this type of research is likely to be of particular benefit to the practitioner (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1991; Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). However, it is on those grounds that qualitative research has often been described as not being empirical. Nevertheless, this argument does not hold, since the term 'empirical' has nothing to do with numbers or the manipulation of variables, but refers instead to whether phenomena are capable of being found in the real world and assessed by means of the senses (Gilbert, 1993; Finn *et al.*, 2000; Jennings, 2001). Perhaps one of the major limitations of qualitative research and evaluation is the time required for data collection, analysis and interpretation. The researcher has to spend a considerable amount of time in

the research setting in order to examine, holistically and aggregately, the interactions, reactions and activities of subjects (Babbie, 1995).

The problem of adequate validity and reliability is a criticism often levelled by quantitative researchers at qualitative methods. Because of the subjective nature of qualitative data and its origin in single contexts, it is difficult to apply conventional standards of reliability and validity (Gilbert, 1993; Creswell, 1994). Contexts, situations, events, conditions and interactions cannot be replicated to any extent, nor can generalisations be made to a wider context than the one studied with any degree of confidence. In short, the richness, individuality and subjective nature of a participant's perspective and understanding are not amenable to the usual scientific criteria. However, Neuman (1994), Walle (1996) and Jennings (2001) argue that this does not make such understanding any less real or valid for that participant. Quantitative researchers expect the qualitative researcher to demonstrate the validity and reliability of claims, to demonstrate the generality of feelings — in short, to meet the same criteria as quantitative research.

5.2.2   Quantitative approach

A quantitative research approach is grounded in the positivist social sciences paradigm, which primarily reflects the scientific method of the natural sciences (Creswell, 1994; Jennings, 2001). This paradigm adopts a deductive approach to the research process. In the tourism context it thus commences with theories, hypotheses or research questions about a particular tourism phenomenon, gathers data from the real-world setting and then analyses the data statistically to support or reject the hypotheses (Veal, 1997; Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Welman & Kruger, 2001). Researchers who adopt a more deductive approach use theory to guide the design of the study and the interpretation of the results (Neuman, 1994). The overall objective is to test or verify a theory, rather than to develop one. Thus the theory offers a conceptual framework for the entire study, serving also as an organising model for the research questions or hypotheses and for the entire data collection procedure (Veal, 1997; Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Welman & Kruger, 2001).

A quantitative methodology abstracts data from the participants into statistical representations rather than textual pictures of the phenomenon. The entire research process is objectively constructed and the findings are usually representative of the population being studied. The main strengths of the quantitative approach lie in precision and control. Control is achieved through the sampling and design, and precise and reliable quantitative measurement. A further strength is that experimentation leads to statements about causation, since the systematic manipulation of one variable can be shown to have a direct causal effect on another when other variables have been eliminated or controlled (Babbie, 1995; Blanche & Durrheim, 1999). Furthermore, hypotheses are tested through a deductive approach, and the use of quantitative data permits statistical analysis (Welman & Kruger, 2001). The method thus provides answers which have a much firmer basis than a lay person's common sense, intuition or opinion.

One of the limitations of quantitative research reported by critics is that many researchers are concerned that the scientific quantitative approach denigrates human individuality and the ability to think (Walle, 1996; Massey, 2003). Gilbert (1993) argues that its mechanistic ethos tends to exclude notions of freedom, choice and moral responsibility. Quantification can become an end in itself rather than a human endeavour seeking to explore the human condition. It fails to take account of people's unique ability to interpret their experiences, construct their own meanings and act on these (Gilbert, 1993; Massey, 2003). It is worth noting, however, that a scientific approach cannot in fact be totally objective, since subjectivity is involved in the very choice of a problem as worthy of investigation and in the interpretation of the results.

5.3   TOWARDS TRIANGULATION AS AN APPROACH

In practice, both quantitative and qualitative approaches are frequently appropriate within a single investigation. It is up to the researcher to choose specific methodologies that will permit a clear understanding of the topic to emerge.

Within academia it has been common practice to associate particular epistemologies with distinctive methodologies (Neuman, 1994; Decrop, 1999). For example, in the discipline of geography, positivism has traditionally been linked with quantitative methods, whilst more recent epistemological perspectives such as humanism and postmodernism have been linked with qualitative methods (Creswell, 1994). Faced with the quantitative-qualitative dichotomy, researchers have often been forced to choose one paradigm over the other, and, as a result, there are few accounts of integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social science methods literature.

However, more recently, social science researchers have exhibited a growing recognition of the benefits of a multiple methods approach to research, especially as positivism has been discredited and new approaches such as postmodernism have emerged (Blaikie, 1991; Bowen, 2003; Massey, 2003). Also, while in the past policy makers have tended to display a preference for quantitative research, they have gradually begun to demonstrate a heightened awareness of the role of qualitative research in informing policy formulation (Decrop, 1999).

Triangulation implies that techniques are used in a parallel sense, thus providing overlapping information, making it possible to check results from more than one viewpoint. Easterby-Smith *et al.* (1991) distinguish between four distinct types of triangulation:

? Data triangulation: where data is collected at different times, or from different sources, in the study of a phenomenon

? Investigator triangulation: where several different researchers collect data relating to the same phenomenon independently and compare findings

? Methodological triangulation: where different methods of data collection, commonly both quantitative and qualitative, are combined in the study

? Triangulation of theories: where a theory derived from a new discipline is used to explain a phenomenon in another discipline

Bowen (2003) contends that a combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches should be viewed as an acceptable methodological approach for research occupying a variety of epistemological positions and concerning a wide range of substantive research areas in tourism. Both Bowen (2003) and Massey (2003) report that the multiple methods approach represents a poly-vocal approach to research, where employing a range of methodological strategies means that the researcher does not necessarily privilege one particular view of the social world over another. In recognition of these and other such arguments, many social science researchers are increasingly rejecting the automatic association of particular methodologies with particular epistemologies (Bowen, 2003; Massey, 2003). Instead, they are exhibiting flexibility in selecting the method or methods most appropriate to a particular research project.

Despite the fact that they are often presented as a dichotomy, quantitative and qualitative methods are not mutually exclusive and they do indeed share common ground, for example overlapping in the processes of logical enquiry by which they are underpinned (Decrop, 1999). Indeed, some of the key arguments in favour of quantitative methods (for instance, arguments citing the objective nature of quantitative research as opposed to the subjective nature of qualitative research) have been increasingly discredited (Creswell, 1994; Decrop, 1999). Many positivists would in fact agree that no research is entirely objective and error free, as researchers choose their subject and the manner in which they will conduct their investigation. Furthermore, whilst quantitative methods have been regarded as deductive (associated with the formulation and testing of hypotheses), qualitative methods are associated with an inductive approach. However, as Bowen argues, "in all research we move from ideas to data to ideas" — in other words, researchers continually move between research questions and evidence, regardless of the methods adopted to carry out the research (Bowen, 2003).

Blaikie (1991), Easterby-Smith *et al.* (1991), Creswell (1994), Decrop (1999), Bowen (2003), and Massey (2003) have emphasised the following benefits of combining qualitative and qualitative methods:

? While the quantitative design strives to control for bias so that facts can be understood in an objective way, the qualitative approach strives to understand the perspective of the programme stakeholders, looking to first-hand experience to provide meaningful data (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1991).

? The accumulation of facts and causes of behaviour are addressed by the quantitative methodology, whereas the qualitative methodology addresses concerns with the changing and dynamic nature of reality (Bowen, 2003).

? Quantitative research designs strive to identify and isolate specific variables within the context of the study (seeking correlation, relationship, causality), while the qualitative design focuses on a holistic view of what is being studied (via documents, case histories, observations and interviews).

? Quantitative data is collected under controlled conditions in order to rule out the possibility that variables other than the one under study may account for the relationships identified, while qualitative data is collected within the context of its natural occurrence (Massey, 2003).

? Both quantitative and qualitative research seek reliable and valid results. Data that is consistent or stable, as indicated by the researcher's ability to replicate the findings, is of major concern in the quantitative arena, while the validity of qualitative findings is paramount so that data is representative of a true and full picture of the constructs under investigatio n (Blaikie, 1991; Bowen, 2003).

When methods are combined, the advantages of each methodology complement those of the other, making a stronger research design that will yield more valid and reliable findings (Decrop, 1999). The inadequacies of individual methods are minimised, and more threats to internal validity are recognised and addressed.

In selecting an approach for the present study, the benefits and shortcomings of the various methodologies were considered, and an integrated approach combining elements of both qualitative as well as quantitative data was decided upon, thus making triangulation possible. Both qualitative and quantitative methods would make it possible

to gather the most needed data to address the research problem and to ensure that the objectives of the study were successfully met.

5.4   METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION USED IN THE STUDY

5.4.1   Primary research methods for data collection

? A Likert scale questionnaire survey was the main instrument providing quantitative data, and was designed around opinion statements as a means of exploring respondents' perceptions of a wide range of socio-cultural impacts. Questionnaire household surveys using the Likert scale have been used widely by researchers measuring perceptions of the impacts of tourism on residents (Allen *et al.*, 1988; Ap, 1992; Ap & Crompton, 1993; Getz, 1994; Lankford, 1994; McCool & Martin, 1994).

? Semi-structured personal interviews were conducted, providing qualitative insights and illuminations.

? Participant observation was conducted by the researcher's going on township tours.

5.4.2   Secondary research methods for data collection

Secondary research is research based on secondary resources that already exist (Veal, 1997; Jennings, 2001). Secondary research methods in the current study included Soweto tourism brochures, leaflets, photographs, videos, newspaper and magazine articles, government publications, conference proceedings, reports, academic journals, books, diaries, visitor record books, unpublished manuscripts, statistics and the World-Wide Web (Internet).

5.5 DESCRIPTION OF THE MAIN MEASUREMENT INSTRUMENT USED IN THE STUDY: THE LIKERT METHOD

Resident perceptions of tourism development have been well documented, and in tourism impact studies, the development of a tourism impact assessment scale has received considerable attention (Allen *et al.*, 1988; Ap, 1992; Ap & Crompton, 1993; Getz, 1994; Lankford, 1994; McCool & Martin, 1994). A standard scale could provide researchers and tourism planners with a tool for measuring resident perceptions of tourism in different townships and on different occasions, thus providing a basis for adequate

comparative analysis. The development of a scale of this kind responds to the call for the establishment of standardised instrumentation for use in tourism research. Likert in 1932 proposed a method of attitude measurement (Likert, 1967); the same method remains in use today, and is appropriate to the current context, since Likert scale questionnaire surveys have been widely used for measuring perceptions and attitudes of the host community towards socio-cultural impacts (Ap & Crompton, 1993; Lankford, 1994; McCool & Martin, 1994).

About two decades ago, with the introduction of tourism impact attributes by Pizam *et al*. (1978), researchers began using various resident-attitude-related attributes to quantify perceived tourism impacts. Liu and Var (1986) and Liu, Sheldon and Var (1987) further distilled these attributes into a smaller number of identical impact domains. From their development of a standardised impact scale, Lankford (1994) identified two impact factors from a 27-item tourism impact scale. The variables pertaining to residents' perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in Soweto used in this study mirror those used by Lankford (1994). Although a relatively large number of perceived impact studies have been reported, there is a need to develop better measures of perceived impacts of tourism. To date, the only reasonably generic, reliable and valid perceived impact scale to have appeared in the literature is that developed by Lankford (1994), which provides a conceptual framework for perceived tourist impact.

A Likert scale instrument was therefore developed for the purposes of this study to assess residents' perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism. The research variables were measured on a 5-point Likert-type scale, with a score of 1 representing 'strongly disagree' and a score of 5 representing 'strongly agree'. The scale was designed to elicit respondents' opinions on a range of issues relating to the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism. In such scales no judges are used to rank the scale statements: it is assumed that all subjects will perceive 'strongly agree' as expressing greater favour towards the attitude statements than 'moderately agree' and 'strongly disagree' (Likert, 1967; Lankford 1994). Some of the item statements should be expressed positively and some negatively to encourage respondents not to respond

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automatically, but to think about every item. Ideally there should be roughly equal numbers of positively and negatively worded items (Lankford, 1994). Individual items can be, and normally are, analysed by counting how many respondents gave a particular response to the item. A subject's score is tabulated by assigning a numerical value to each of the answers, ranging from 1 for the alternative at one end of the scale to 5 for the alternative at the other, and then calculating the sum of the numerical values of the answers to all questions (Jennings, 2001). However, the principal objective, which is not uncontroversial, is to arrive at an overall score for all the items combined together.

5.5.1   Advantages of the Likert method

Likert (1967), Lankford (1994) and Veal (1997) list the advantages of the Likert method as including:

? the fact that the method is based entirely on empirical data regarding subjects' responses rather than the subjective opinions of judges;

? the fact that this method produces more homogeneous scales and increases the probability of a unitary attitude being measured; as a result, validity (construct and concurrent) and reliability are reasonably high; and

? greater ease of preparation.

5.5.2   Construction of the Likert scale questionnaire used in the study

The basic procedures employed in developing the scale for measuring resident perceptions of tourism impacts for the purposes of this study followed the procedures recommended by Likert (1967), Churchill (1979) and Lankford (1994). Four main steps were taken in developing the instrument.

? Identification and generation of socio-cultural tourism impact variables, i.e. long-term impact variables derived from three source of information: (a) a review of a pool of impact items used in research on resident perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of tourism, as mentioned earlier in chapter 2, (b) a review of questionnaires utilised for attitude and perception studies relating to socio-cultural tourism impacts and (c) insights gained from an examination of information relating to township tourism from

secondary sources such as newspapers, magazines, tour operator web sites and leaflets.

? These variables were then used to formulate as 57 attitudinal statements. The survey questionnaire (see Appendix A) consists of three parts. The first section (Part A, consisting of 6 questions) was structured in such a way as to elicit demographic information regarding the respondents' gender, age, educational level, income, and years of residence. Part B consisted of 57 impact variable items incorporating a 5-point Likert scale to measure respondents' level of agreement or disagreement with a statement about the impact of township tourism on a given economic, social or cultural aspect. Respondents were asked to rate items on an ordinal scale of 1–5. In Part C, respondents were asked to provide any additional positive or negative comments they wished to make regarding township tourism development and planning as a way of identifying other impacts and problems not included in the questionnaire.

? The pre-test was conducted using a convenience sample of 25 Unisa staff and students resident in Soweto, primarily to ensure the clarity of the questions and to measure whether the questionnaire could be completed within a reasonable period of time (about 20 minutes), and secondly, to elicit some comments about the content validity, as respondents were asked to describe any difficulties they had in completing the questionnaire accurately.

? The survey instrument was modified on the basis of comments and suggestions made by the pre-test subjects. Re-wording of the questionnaires was necessary in order to remove any jargon, inconsistencies or leading questions. The final questionnaire appears as Appendix A.

5.5.3   Pool of items (impact variables) derived from the literature and fieldwork

The following scales were developed using impact variables derived from the literature; these were then used to formulate statements specific to township tourism in Soweto.

The statements were subsequently divided into four scale categories, and these were then contextualised within the Likert scale questionnaire.

CATEGORY 1	SOCIAL IMPACTS

NO	ITEMS
1	Township tourism will encourage an increase in street children along the tourist route
2	The current level of township tourism has significantly improved the standard of living of Soweto residents
3	Family life of local residents has been disrupted by the presence of tourists
4	Community life has become disrupted as a result of the development of tourism in Soweto
5	Local residents view foreign tourists as intruding into their community
6	Residents feel that their safety is affected as more tourists are encouraged to visit Soweto
7	Local people are being exploited because of the growth of township tourism
8	Further growth in Soweto tourism will result in overcrowding of local amenities by tourists
9	An increase in tourists into Soweto will lead to resentment between residents and tourists
10	The Soweto community should take steps to restrict tourism development
11	Local resentment is generated because of the inflated prices for the tourist market
12	Contact with tourists may introduce health risks to the host community
13	Township tourism has resulted in a greater demand for female labour
14	The number of tourists on township tours should increase significantly
15	Township Tourism will gradually result in an increase in municipal rates and taxes
16	Soweto residents have been consulted and made aware of the tourism development plan for township tourism
17	The current level of township tourism has significantly improved the local community's hospitality toward strangers
18	Local residents oppose the presence of township tourists in the Soweto region
19	The benefits of township tourism outweigh the negatives
20	Township tourism increases the rate of organised crime in the Soweto community
21	Government should restrict further development of township tourism in Soweto
22	Township tourism has increased traffic problems in Soweto
23	The noise levels caused by township tourism are not appropriate for a residential community
24	Tourists taking photographs of local people can cause great offence to locals
25	Locals are barred from using tourist facilities in Soweto
26	Tourists who are seen to be wealthier than the majority of the residential population are more likely to generate resentment.
27	Tourism development increases the development of recreational facilities and amenities for residents
28	Local residents are the ones who really suffer from living in an area popular with tourists
29	Local people are treated equally, rather than as inferiors by tourists

CATEGORY 2	PHYSICAL/ENVIROMENTAL IMPACTS

NO	ITEMS
30	Township tourism has made residents more conscious of the need to maintain and improve the appearance of the area
31	There are better roads (infrastructure) due to township tourism development
32	Residents are satisfied with the manner in which township tourism development and planning is currently taking place
33	The development of township tourism has generally improved the appearance of Soweto
34	Township tourism in Soweto has led to more litter in the streets

Table 5.1 FOUR CATEGORIES WITH IMPACT ITEMS GENERATED FROM LIKERT SCALE

CATEGORY 3	CULTURAL IMPACTS

NO	ITEMS
35	Tourist interest in culture has resulted in a strengthening of traditional activities and cultural pride
36	Local people alter their behaviour in an attempt to copy the style of tourists
37	Township tourism has stimulated the locals' interest in participating in traditional art forms
38	Local culture is being renewed as a result of township tourism
39	Interacting with tourists leads to a deterioration of local languages
40	Township tourists show respect for the cultural lifestyle of the local people
41	Traditional African culture in Soweto is being commercialised (sold) for the sake of tourists
42	Tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities by the local population
43	Township tourism helps to conserve the cultural identity and heritage of the host population
44	Locals often respond to tourist needs by adapting traditional practices to enhance their commercial value
45	Township tourism causes changes in the traditional culture of local residents
46	Meeting tourists promotes cross-cultural exchange (greater mutual understanding and respect for one another's culture)

CATEGORY 4	SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS

NO	ITEMS
47	Only a small minority of Soweto residents benefit economically from tourism
48	Income-generating opportunities created by township tourism development are evenly distributed across the community
49	By creating jobs and generating income, township tourism promotes an increase in the social wellbeing of residents
50	Township tourism has led to more people leaving their former jobs for new opportunities in tourism
51	In addition to payment to tour operators for tour costs, tourists should be advised to make donations for the benefit of the local community
52	Township tourism provides many worthwhile employment opportunities for Soweto residents
53	Township tourism holds great promise for Soweto's economic future
54	Tourism has already improved the economy of Soweto
55	The development of township tourism in Soweto benefits the visitors more than the locals
56	Soweto residents have been adequately consulted in participating in entrepreneurial initiatives in township tourism
57	Township tourism in Soweto is in the hands of a few operators only

Table 5.1 FOUR CATEGORIES WITH IMPACT ITEMS GENERATED FROM LIKERT SCALE

5.6 PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS

According to Krippendorf (2001) opinions about and expectations of tourism can be very different, depending on which population or occupational groups are considered. This needs to be taken into account when the sample is chosen.

For both quantitative and qualitative data collection methodologies, the sample was selected from the following categories:

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Type 1: Residents who are in constant and direct contact with township tourists; because they depend on township tourism and would perhaps be unemployed without it, they welcome visitors.

Type 2: Township residents who have no contact with tourists or see them only in passing and whose household income is not derived from township tourism.

The rationale behind selecting different categories of respondents was to allow key comparisons to be made.

5.7   SAMPLING DESIGN AND SAMPLING METHODS USED IN THE STUDY

The main purpose of sampling is to achieve representativeness; the sample should be assembled in such a way as to be representative of the population from which it is taken (Gilbert, 1993; Jennings, 2001).   To achieve this, the sampling units are randomly selected. This is the commonest approach to sampling, but it is by no means the only one, nor is representativeness — in a numerical sense — the only aim of sampling procedures.

5.7.1   Population and sampling frame

Jennings (2001:136) defines population as "all the study subjects (tourists, visitors, hosts, family, friends, employees, managers) or study units (attractions, transport providers, accommodation facilities) that are the focus of the research project". In this study the target population consists of Soweto residents living around the 14 main tourism hubs or visiting points in Soweto. The 14 tourism hubs are Dobsonville, Protea South, the Oppenheimer Tower, Meadowlands, Dhlamini, Freedom Square, Kliptown, Phefeni, the Hector Peterson Memorial, Orlando West, Power Park Informal Settlement, Informal Settlement, Taxi Rank and Diepkloof Hostel. These are the destinations to which tour operators take tours, visiting political landmarks, museums, homes, informal settlements, traders, restaurants, shebeens, museums and so on. Residents living in and around these hubs are divided into those who earn an income from tourism, and those who are not directly involved in tourism.

5.7.2   Sample size

A sample of 350 households living around the 14 main tourism hubs of Soweto was selected for the quantitative part of the study. A combination of systematic and stratified random sampling approaches was used for sample selection.

5.7.3   Sampling technique followed for quantitative research design

According to Central Statistics South Africa (2003), the 2001 Census revealed that the population of the areas in which the 14 tourism hubs are located numbers 352 054. However, the researcher observes that the actual population size could well be far higher, since there is considerable difficulty attached to conducting population counts in informal settlements. The population of Soweto is estimated at between 1,3 million and 4 million people. There is no official figure available for the number of households and persons living in the two informal settlements in and around the main tourism hubs. With the assistance of a statistician, it was decided to approximate a 0,1% sampling minimum for the study area as a whole.

A study sample of 350 households was therefore drawn from the resident household population of the 14 main tourism hubs listed above. The first step involved stratified random sampling; accordingly the population of Soweto was first subdivided into sub-groups (tourism regions). Systematic sampling was then applied through the selection of every third household at each of the tourism hubs. A decision on the number to sample at each tourism hub or visiting point was based on the following formula:

(Visiting points) = 14 = k

n = 350 households

n/k = 350/14 = 25

25 x 14 = 350

Therefore it was necessary to interview at least 25 households at each tourism hub or visiting point, of which 12 households derived an income from tourism and 13 households were not dependent on tourism. This was essential in order to obtain true representativeness and to allow for comparisons to be made. Every third household was targeted at each hub to arrive at the 25 households.

Figure 5.1   SOWETO STUDY AREA INDICATING TOURISM HUBS

5.8   DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE (FIELDWORK) IN THE STUDY

In order to gather information on residents' perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism, 350 household surveys (constituting the basis of the quantitative component of the study) together with unstructured personal interviews and participant observation (constituting the qualitative component of the study) were carried out in the Soweto region (14 tourism hubs) over an eight-week period. Two fieldworkers, who knew the study area very well, were employed on a part-time basis and trained by the researcher in both approaching the respondents to elicit their participation and monitoring the completion of questionnaires. The purpose of the training was to make sure the fieldworkers understood the importance of their role in the research project and what they could expect in the field. They were taught the skills required for approaching the respondents and were familiarised with the various sections of the questionnaire. This training was both relevant and necessary, as it was the fieldworkers' first experience of such a situation.

The researcher assumed a supervisory role in monitoring the fieldworkers daily. This helped to ensure that only respondents who were targeted participated. The survey team, together with the researcher, visited the 14 tourism hubs in Soweto and identified those respondents to be interviewed. The survey team then distributed one questionnaire to each of the selected households. The unstructured personal interviews were conducted by the researcher.

5.9   DATA ANALYSIS OF LIKERT SCALE QUESTIONNAIRE

The quantitative data collected was initially coded into numerical representations, so that a series of statistical analyses could be performed using the software package Statistical Analysis System (SAS), version 8. According to Jennings (2001), the software package enables researchers to:

- ? enter and store data
- ? utilise retrieval strategies
- ? engage in statistical analyses
- ? generate graphs and reports

? manage research projects

? write reports

For analysis purposes, the respondents were asked to rank their responses to the questions according to the Likert scale format. Coding in quantitative analysis differs from qualitative coding in that the raw data is turned into numerical representations to allow statistical analyses to be conducted on the aggregated data (Veal, 1997; Jennings, 2001). A code was developed for each of the response sets in the questionnaire, and numerical codes were assigned for each response (Veal, 1997). These responses were then turned into a series of numbers for capture using SAS for further statistical analysis.   The researcher checked and cleaned the data by examining the coded data for any incorrectly assigned codes and correcting these errors by reviewing the original data (Veal, 1997; Jennings, 2001).   Finally univariate, bivariate and multivariate data analysis was performed.

5.9.1   The analysis of univariate data used in the study

Univariate data analysis is the analysis of single variables. According to Mouton (2001), descriptive statistics organise and summarise the data to render it more comprehensible. Descriptive statistics enable the researcher to describe trends in the data and also to determine whether relationships exist between variables.

For this study, the researcher made use of the following descriptive statistics, with a range of aims:

? The calculation of frequencies and percentages expressed as tables, charts and graphs (see Appendix C)

? Measurements of central tendency, namely the mean. The mean is the sum of the individual scores in a distribution, divided by the number of scores (Vogt, 1993). The mean can be found for ordinal and interval variables.

? Measurements of dispersion of the data using the standard deviation (SD) of the measurements. The SD is a measure of how much, on average, the scores in a distribution deviate from the mean score (Vogt, 1993). This provides a reflection of

how homogeneous or heterogeneous a population is. The SD further provides an indication of the average distance from the mean (Vogt, 1993). A low SD would mean that most observations cluster around the mean. A high SD would indicate considerable variation in the responses (see Appendix D).

5.9.2   The analysis of bivariate data used in the study

The analysis of two variables, or bivariate analysis, was required for this study. Correlations as instruments of bivariate analysis and testing the significance of a difference between means were used.

Chi-square a test for assessing the statistical significance of cross-tabulated variables was used in the study (Welman & Kruger, 2001). Chi-square indicates whether or not a relation exists between or among variables. Most of the statistical tests report a significance level (or one can be obtained). Difficulty is sometimes experienced in interpreting these values. Generally, the smaller the significance level reported, the more conclusive the results. Social scientists usually establish a cut-off point at p = 0,05, i.e. the 5% level. This implies that there is a 5% chance that the results obtained were a result of chance (or sampling error).

Analysis of variance (ANOVA), or a t-test, was employed to test the theoretical framework on which the study was based so as to determine whether there were significant relationships or differences among group mean totals, item mean scores, and independent variables (Jennings, 2001). Independent variables considered in the analysis were residents' income from tourism, gender, and period of residence (see Appendix G).

5.9.3   The analysis of multivariate data used in the study

For the analysis of multivariate data, a range of more complex parametric tests was conducted on the data. Factor analysis and item mean analysis as a multivariate grouping procedure were applied to data (Reese & Lochmuller, 2003).

Factor analysis is a statistical approach that can be used to analyse interrelationships among large number of variables and to explain these variables in terms of their common underlying dimensions (factors) (Wikipedia, 2003). The statistical approach involves finding a way of condensing the information contained in a number of original variables into a smaller set of dimensions (factors) with a minimum load of information (Rummel, 2003; Wikipedia, 2003). Factor analysis has been widely used, especially in the behavioural sciences, to assess the construct validity of a test or a scale.

A review of factor analysis reveals that it entails four basic steps (University of Texas at Austin, 1997; Reese & Lochmuller, 2003; Rummel, 2003; Wikipedia, 2003):

? Data collection and generation of the correlation matrix

? Extraction of initial factor solution

? Rotation and interpretation

? Construction of scales of factor scores to use in further analyses

Reese and Lochmuller (2003) conclude that the main applications of factor analytic techniques are: (1) to reduce the number of variables and (2) to detect structure in the relationships between variables, that is, to classify variables. Therefore, factor analysis is applied as a data reduction or structure detection method. Factor analysis with varimax rotation and item analysis was used to determine the underlying perception patterns or dimensions associated with township tourism in Soweto.

Scale purification through the use of exploratory factor analysis and item analysis was used to assess dimensionality of scale and to delete items with either low or multiple loading factor coefficients (Rummel, 2003; Wikipedia, 2003). Item analysis is a detailed method for estimating the internal consistency of the instrument (Rummel, 2003). Here the researcher is interested in finding out how well the responses to each item correspond to the responses to the other items and to the test as whole. This helps the researcher to identify those items within an instrument that do not provide useful information about the subjects or that are actually confusing the data (Reese & Lochmuller, 2003). The researcher can then remove these troublesome items from the instrument (replacing them

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with better items if necessary) so as to increase the overall reliability of the instrument. In the case of this study, this allowed for the possible reduction of the 57 impact variables into categories of factors.

Factor loadings, eigenvalues and percentages of variance using principal components extraction with varimax rotation for total composite scores are usually reported (Wikipedia, 2003). The factor loadings, also called component loadings, are the correlation coefficients between the variables (rows) and factors (columns) (Rummel, 2003; Wikipedia, 2003). The eigenvalue for a given factor measures the variance in all variables that is accounted for by that factor (see Appendix E).

Part C of the questionnaire survey provided qualitative data and therefore content analysis as a way of systematically analysing the content of text and converting it to numerical variables to permit quantitative analysis (see Appendix C).

The findings were displayed in the form of tables and graphs, and documented in accordance with the stated aims of the study. Conclusions were drawn based on the findings, followed by recommendations for further research.

5.10   DESCRIPTION OF QUALITATIVE METHODOLOGY FOLLOWED

5.10.1 Semi-structured personal interviews

The personal interviews were semi-structured in nature and were conducted on an individual basis. The interviews made it possible to explore other themes and nuances, further enriching the data. In cases where respondents consented, tape recordings were made, which enabled the interviewer to pay close attention to discussions; transcriptions of recordings were made later. In many instances, however, the researcher found the respondents reluctant to allow the use of a tape-recorder, and in those instances the researcher resorted to note-taking. Each unstructured interview lasted approximately 30 minutes. The researcher explained the purpose of recording the discussion to the respondents in detail. The respondents were assured that the information recorded would be used only for the purpose of the study.

Semi-structured interviewing is based on the use of an interview guide (Veal, 1997; Jennings, 2001), which is a written list of questions and topics that need to be covered in a particular order. The interviews were broadly guided by the following four questions:

? How does tourism in Soweto personally affect your way of life?

? What do you like best about tourism in Soweto?

? What do you like least about tourism in Soweto?

? What are residents' concerns about tourism in Soweto?

The respondents were free to expand on the topic as they saw fit, and to relate their own experiences. The interviewer intervened only for clarification or further explanation (Veal, 1997). The interviewer used probing questions for clarification of concepts and ideas. Blanche and Durrheim (1997) and Veal (1997) conclude that the benefits of an unstructured interview include the opportunity it affords the interviewer to interact with respondents in a conversational setting so as to reach the heart of the subject under investigation. Semi-structured interviews are generally the most useful, in that they allow full exploration of the topic and yet retain a degree of structure, which ensures that most of the information obtained is relevant and manageable (Veal, 1997).

5.10.2 Participant observation

In participant observation the researcher becomes a participant in the social process being studied. For instance, the researcher who is studying the use of a park or resort may spend periods there as a user of the facility (Veal, 1997). In this study, the researcher assumed the role of tourist by taking six township tours with registered tour operators guiding tours in Soweto. Since the researcher was the data gatherer and recorder, the process of analysis was ongoing. In agreement with Veal (1997), the researcher constantly related his observations to the objectives of the study, drawing interim conclusions. The very act of deciding what to view, what to say and what to record during these township tours involved choices that were influenced by the researcher's evolving understanding of the phenomenon being studied.

5.10.3 Qualitative sampling

Easterby-Smith *et al.* (1991) and Neuman (1994) describe four commonly used qualitative research data collection methods, namely the case study, and ethnographic, phenomenological and grounded theory methods. Since the researcher was interested in understanding individual respondent perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism, the phenomenological method was deemed the most suitable for qualitative data collection. The phenomenological method suggests that respondents are chosen specifically because of their knowledge of the topic under investigation (Easterby-Smith *et al.*, 1991; Neuman, 1994; Veal, 1997). In keeping with this method, respondents in this study were selected specifically because of their township tourism experience as a result of living near or working within a major tourism hub in Soweto.

Purposive sampling, which is a type of non-probability sampling, was applied when conducting in-depth personal interviews (Veal, 1997; Jennings, 2001). Purposive sampling is also referred to as judgmental sampling, since it involves the researcher making a decision about who or what study units will be involved in the study. Welman and Kruger (2001) describe non-probability sampling as a method in which the researcher has no way of forecasting, estimating, or guaranteeing each element in the population to be represented in a sample.

5.10.4 Sample size — qualitative study

In using purposive sampling, the researcher decides when enough participants or units have been sampled. This occurs when there is redundancy with regard to data. In this study this was achieved after conducting 38 personal interviews. The cut-off is not predetermined, but emerges from the research process and concurrent data analysis (Babbie, 1995).

5.10.5 Data analysis — qualitative study

According to Blanche and Durrheim (1999), qualitative data analysis tends to be primarily an inductive process of organising data into categories and identifying patterns. For this study a content analysis method was followed to understand the procedures and

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importance of qualitative data analysis (Gunn, 1994). This entailed a literature review to learn about the various techniques of analysing qualitative data. Babbie (1995) states that the most general guide to analysing qualitative data involves looking for similarities and dissimilarities. The focus must be on those patterns of interactions and events that are generally common to what the researcher is studying (Babbie, 1995). This type of analysis formed the core of analysing the qualitative data collected during this study. Themes were identified, and the data was then classified into categories and themes.

Qualitative data collected through interview schedules is coded, and repeated themes (responses) or concepts recorded until saturation is achieved (Jennings, 2001; Veal, 1997). Recorded interviews are transcribed and coded into themes already established in the interview schedule. The role of theory-building remains the responsibility of the researcher. The essence of the analysis procedure will be to return to the terms of reference, the research problem and questions of the research, and begin to sort and evaluate the information gathered in relation to the questions posed (Finn *et al.*, 2000). In this way an explanation of the actual meaning of the data and logical reasoning can be achieved (Babbie, 1995). The goal is to integrate the themes and concepts into a theory that offers an accurate, detailed, yet subtle interpretation of the research arena (Veal, 1997; Jennings, 2001). The analysis will be complete when the researcher feels that his or her interpretation can be shared with tourism policy-makers and tourism development planners in both the public and private sectors and will make a meaningful contribution to theory. The above analysis was favoured for its potential to assist the researcher to describe trends in the data and also determine whether there were relationships between variables.

As previously noted, where consent was given, a tape recorder was used during the interviews. The researcher clearly explained the purpose of recording the discussion to the respondents, and respondents were assured that the information recorded would only be used for the purpose of the study.

5.11   VALIDITY OF DATA

Welman and Kruger (2001) describe validity as a mechanism that ensures that the process implemented to collect data has collected the intended data successfully. Validity refers to extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the subject under investigation (Babbie, 1995). To ensure that the data acquired was valid in this study, the following steps were taken:

? An extensive literature review was undertaken to understand how personal in-depth interviews and household surveys should be conducted (Blanche & Durrheim, 1999; Gunn, 1994; Finn *et al.*, 2000; Jennings, 2001). Interview guidelines were generated in conjunction with the fieldworkers. This ensured that the interviews focused on the topic under investigation.

? The purpose of the study was clearly explained to the respondents and issues of concern were resolved satisfactorily. The procedure of the interview was explained to the respondents.   Lastly, respondents were assured of anonymity and confidentiality. This encouraged frankness during the interviews.

The above steps ensured that the interviews were conducted under conditions and in an environment acceptable to the respondents, and therefore ensured that the process was trustworthy.

5.12   RELIABILITY OF THE DATA

Babbie (1995) describes reliability as a condition in which the same results will be achieved whenever the same technique is repeated to do the same study. This was achieved by the following means:

? The anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents was ensured so that they were able to provide information for use strictly for the purpose of the study. A rapport with the respondents was successfully established during the preliminary fieldwork

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stage. Here the researcher began to build a relationship of trust with the respondents, and the credibility of the study was reinforced.

?   The utilisation of trained fieldworkers ensured that the discussion level was high where necessary, and relevant to the study.

5.13   SUMMARY

Chapter 5 furnished a discussion of the choice of methodology used to conduct the present research. The range of methods and approaches that were applied fall within the paradigms of both quantitative and qualitative research. The researcher supported the choice of approach with a detailed description of the use of triangulation and its benefits, and the way in which this approach was customised to suit the requirements of the study as a whole. The method of sampling, data analysis (univariate, bivariate, multivariate) and the choice of statistics and data analysis used were described in detail.

CHAPTER 6

PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

6.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter 6 presents the results of the quantitative and qualitative components of the study; these results will provide the basis for the formulation of guidelines and recommendations pertaining to appropriate responsible policies and measures preventing negative tourism impacts and reinforcing positive ones. Interpretation of the main patterns of perceptions of socio-cultural impacts revealed in this chapter will thus prepare the way for an appropriate course of action to ensure the development of responsible township tourism management in South Africa, which will receive attention in chapter 7.

The results of the quantitative and qualitative research are presented as follows in this chapter:

RESEARCH METHODS USED	DATA ANALYSIS PERFORMED	SECTION RESULTS ARE DISPLAYED
Qualitative: • Semi-structured personal interviews • Participant Observation	Content analysis Field notes	6.3.1 6.3.2
Quantitative (Likert Scale Instrument): • Demographic profile of respondents • Distribution of responses to socio-cultural impact statements • Factor Analysis and Item Analysis	Univariate Bivariate Multivariate	6.2 6.4.1 6.4.6; 6.4.7

Table 6.1   SECTION REFERENCE FOR QUANTITATIVE & QUALITATIVE RESULTS

6.2   GENERAL DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

The research sample for the quantitative component of the study comprised 350 household heads, identified through systematic random sampling, in the 14 main tourism hubs in Soweto. Respondents interviewed were generally well distributed across gender, age, income levels and education. Demographic information concerning respondents' gender, age, their educational level, household income, income from tourism, and years of residence in Soweto appears in the figures in this section. (See Appendix C) The purpose of presenting a demographic profile is to

offer further insight into Soweto's historical development, people, lifestyle, culture, religion and tourism potential. As has been pointed out, the demographic profile of Soweto may be taken as representative of many other townships in South Africa that currently operate as tourism sites; the circumstances revealed in this case study are thus analogous to those prevailing in townships in all provinces of South Africa.

Figure 6.1 THE DISTRIBUTION OF AGE GROUPS OF THE 350 RESPONDENTS INTERVIEWED
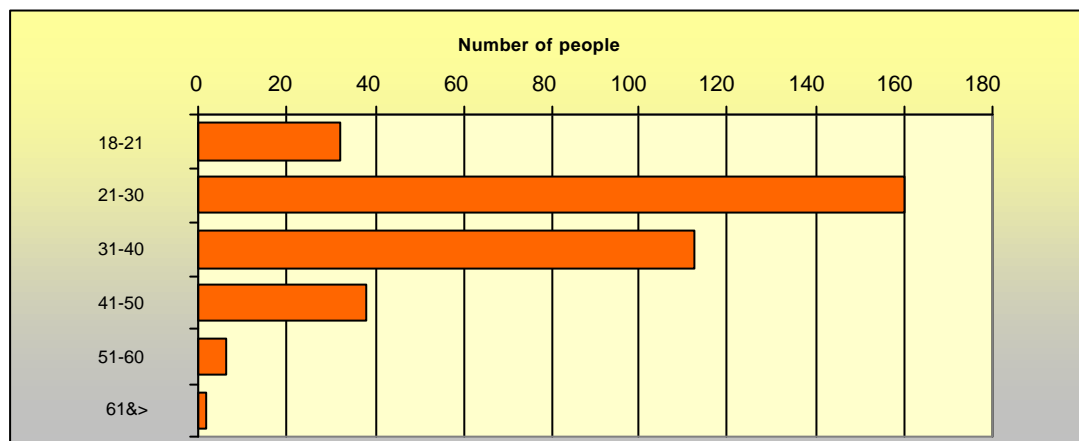
Most of the respondents fell within the age group 21–30, followed by those in the age group 31–40. These two age groups represent the main working force in the Soweto community, and are responsible for bringing in the main source of household income.

Figure 6.2 GENDER PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS
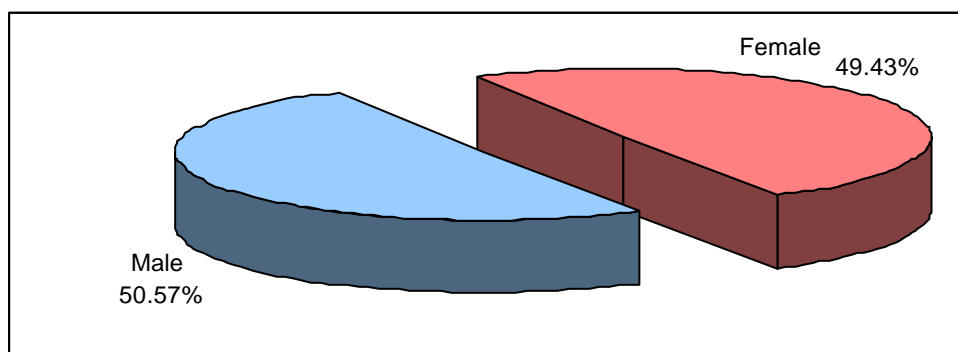
Very good representativeness in terms of gender was noted, with male respondents accounting for 50,57% and females for 49,43% of the sample. Tests for any significant differences in respondent perceptions using the demographic variable of gender are discussed in section 6.4.8 of this chapter.

Figure 6.3 ACQUIRED EDUCATIONAL LEVEL OF THE 350 RESPONDENTS
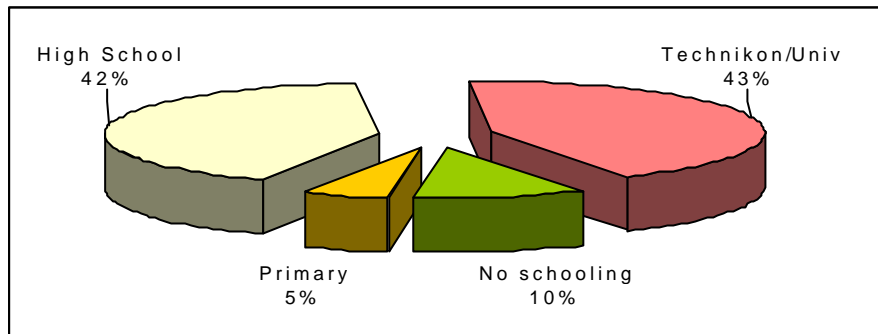
Of the respondents, 10% lacked any form of schooling whatsoever, and 5% had only primary schooling. The majority of the respondents had secondary school and tertiary education, with 42% having attained a high school education and 43% a technikon or university qualification. The educational levels of respondents allowed the researcher to gain further insight into the demographic profile of respondents interviewed at tourism hubs. Tests for any significant differences in perceptions of respondents using the demographic variable of income from tourism are discussed in section 6.4.8 of this chapter.

Figure 6.4 RESPONDENTS DERIVING INCOME FROM SOWETO BASED TOURISM
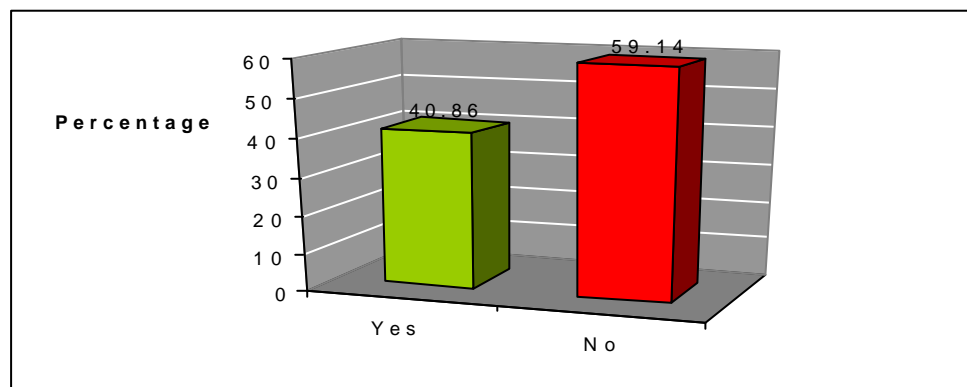
(Yes) indicates household income derived from tourism

(No) indicates household income not derived from tourism

For both the quantitative and qualitative components of the study, households in the host community were selected from the following categories:

Type 1: Residents who are in continuous and direct contact with township tourists, because they depend on township tourism and would perhaps be unemployed without it.

Type 2: Residents in townships who have no contact with tourists or see them only in passing and whose household income is not derived from township tourism.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, these two categories of respondents were selected so as to allow key comparisons to be made and tests to be carried out on the basis of respondents' perceptions and their demographic characteristics of income, gender and community attachment. Of the respondents, 40,86 earned an income from township tourism, and 59,14% did not. Tests for any significant differences in socio-cultural perceptions of respondents using the demographic variable of income from tourism are reported on in section 6.4.8.

Figure 6.5 DISTRIBUTION OF MONTHLY HOUSEHOLD INCOME
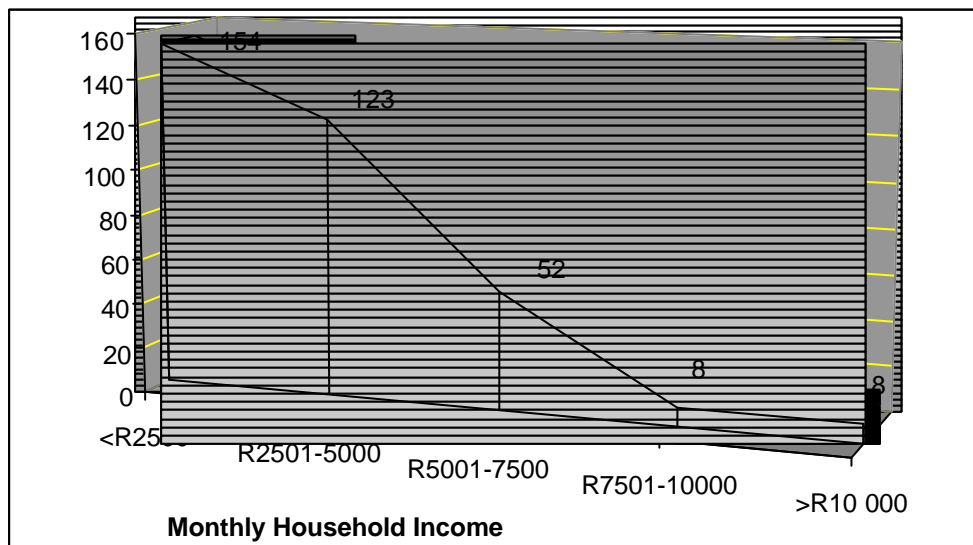
Figure 6.5 illustrates the distribution of monthly household income across the sample of 350 respondents interviewed in the quantitative study. 154 respondents earned an income below R2 500; 123 respondents earned an income of between R2 500 and R5 000; 52 respondents earned an income of between R5 001 and R7 50, and only 16 respondents earned an income above R7 501.

Figure 6.6 DURATION OF RESIDENCE IN SOWETO
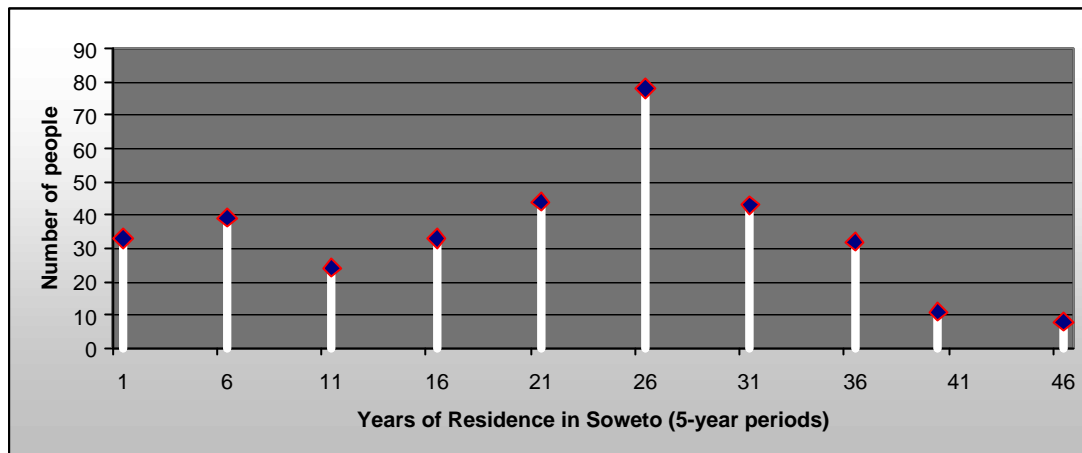
The majority of the respondents had been living in Soweto for between 21 and 31 years. This indicates a fairly stable community in terms of those respondents interviewed. The majority of these respondents would be aware of the transformations Soweto has undergone in the transition from the pre-apartheid to the post-apartheid era. These respondents would also have experienced a decade of democracy whilst resident in Soweto. A test of significance in any relationship between community attachment and perceived socio-cultural impacts appears in section 6.4.8.3.

6.3   QUALITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS

6.3.1   Results from semi-structured in-depth personal interviews

The researcher chose to analyse the content of the in-depth interviews holistically, and to report the recurring themes in their original form so as to   reflect a real-world setting;   direct quotes allow respondents' voices to be heard. Responses were divided into those reflecting positive and those reflecting negative perceptions, and appear in sections 6.3.1.1 and 6.3.1.2 respectively.

To give meaning to residents' perceptions, it is necessary to understand the stage of tourism development currently being experienced by the community under review. From the findings it is possible to correlate residents' perceptions of tourism impacts with a particular stage of tourism development in the host community. As previously noted, Ap and Crompton (1993) describe the development of tourism as progressing through the stages of embracement, tolerance, adjustment, and withdrawal. These stages correspond to the tourist area life cycle theory developed by Butler (1980), who

postulated a link between tourism development and the attitudes of residents to tourists. As the number of visitors to a region increases, residents who at first were overwhelmingly positive in their attitudes towards their guests develop increasing reservations concerning the long-term benefits of the presence of the visitors. Therefore, as the growth of and demand for tourism increase in an area, the impacts on the community gradually become more apparent and more negative.

Examining the results of the in-depth interviews provided below against the backdrop of the theories proposed by Ap and Crompton (1993) and Butler (1980), the researcher found Soweto to be in the stage of embracement or exploration and involvement. This conclusion was reached on the basis of the current willingness of Soweto residents to accept tourists into their community and the observation that residents' perceptions of honesty, generosity, and trust in people are increasing. The stage of exploration is typified by new-found curiosity in travelling to the area, and the commencement of the establishment of services to serve the needs of the travelling public. If the respondents' economic, social and cultural impact responses are considered in the context of tourism development models explored in chapter 4, it is possible to conclude that tourism development in Soweto is in the initial stages of development.

Host communities' attitudes towards and perceptions of tourism development and tourists were found to fluctuate continuously between the negative and the positive. Whilst respondents demonstrated a predominantly positive feeling towards tourists and township tourism, they were also able to point out some specific negative impacts. The results in the sections below indicate the range of positive and negative perceptions of socio-cultural impacts of township tourism revealed by the in-depth interviews.   These perceptions do not differ from those frequently cited in the literature (Pizam & Milman, 1986; Allen et al., 1988; Ap & Crompton, 1998), and are also clearly evident in the quantitative component of this study.

6.3.1.1 Positive perceptions

Notes were taken during the in-depth personal interviews or, where permission was given for recordings to be made, the interviews were recorded and subsequently transcribed. Comments were noted and the recurring positive perceptions then

grouped into clusters. The following is a composite reflection of respondent's responses. These included the following:

? *Township tourism has resulted in new opportunities for careers in tourism, more people taking up employment in tourism. Youth now have a new area to develop their interests in. Township tourism helps to keep the youth off the streets and will benefit their future. Has created opportunities for the locals to enter the tourism industry, find jobs as tour guides and tour operators.*

? *Soweto tourism has resulted in the locals becoming more aware of what tourism is all about. They have increased their hospitality skills. The locals are beginning to broaden their knowledge about international tourism, foreign places, and people. There is a cross-cultural exchange of learning taking place.*

? *Tourism has encouraged the entrepreneurial spirit amongst the community. Shebeens, restaurants and bed and breakfasts have developed. Many hawkers are selling of their art and crafts, as well as local cuisine.*

? *Township tourism has led to the upkeep and development of infrastructure, new facilities and amenities (restaurants, shops, night clubs, taverns, museums, craft centres) for both locals and tourists.*

? *Township tourism has our people interested in local art and traditions. Renewal of cultural traditions and practices, song, dance, music, food and crafts, has resulted because of tourism.*

? *Leads to conservation of cultural practices and our political landmarks and monuments, like Mandela house.*

? *It will gradually improve the economy, creates employment. The appearance and image of Soweto is improving, and the economy of Soweto will soon be well developed.*

? *Foreign tourists sometimes make huge donations to our clinics, schools and churches.*

? *Tourists are genuinely interested in the lifestyles, cultures, traditions of the locals showing respect and recognition for them. Locals have been instilled with a sense of pride about their heritage and culture. They treat locals with respect, dignity and equally. They are not perceived as being intrusive.*

? *Township tourism helps promote Soweto as a destination to foreign countries and promotes its Africanism together with its various art forms, food, music, song, dance, and crafts to other countries. Many locals have received recognition for their talents and skills and even have had the opportunity to travel abroad.*

 ? *Township tourism has allowed black and white people the opportunity to interact in the township, something that was very rarely seen prior to 1994. Townships were being*

perceived as no-go areas and stereotyped as dangerous and a home to criminals and hijackers.   This new opportunity helps to dispel this stereotype and allows for harmonious interactions between and across different race groups. Helps to break down stereotypes as well.

6.3.1.2 Negative perceptions

Recurring negative perceptions were noted and grouped into clusters by the same means. These perceptions included the following:

? *Crime in tourist hubs is a problem.   Now those tourists arrive carrying expensive cameras and money, it could create a breeding spot for criminals. Security should improved, tourists are at risk as well as the local community. In the process locals can be endangered. Street children increases and they follow the township tourism route.*

? *Tour companies bring in tourists in short fleeting trips.   This does not provide the opportunity for tourists to interact enough with locals and for them to spend money at the local craft centres. Some tourists just don't spend their money in Soweto and actually buy their crafts outside the township.*

? *The locals in Soweto have not been adequately consulted on the development and planning of Soweto tourism. This leads to resentment between those that have started tourism business and those who have not. This also leads to resentment between those locals not involved in tourism, and the tourists. Locals can become aggressive and arrogant towards tourism when they do not participate in tourism or have not been made aware or consulted.*

? *There is concern for the local community who are not participating in tourism or seem to have a don't take care attitude for tourism or tourists in the area.*

? *Tourism benefits are in the hands of a few. It seems like tourism benefits only those close to the hot spots, i.e. the struggle/political route, key ANC activists' homes and other high-profile or prominent people of Soweto. Many areas are neglected and thus locals left out.*

? *Tourists do take photos of the locals without any permission.   Locals should be compensated if they are asked to pose for photos and have the right to know what the photos will be used for. Locals find that tourists who don't seek permission, very intrusive. There should be proper rules of conduct for tourists, i.e. tourists should be briefed on how to behave in Soweto, i.e. not intrude on peoples home, and take photos of anything and everything.*

? *There is not enough evidence of development and the benefits brought by tourism. Locals believe that there is much talk around tourism, and even the tourists continue to come, but they don't see the rewards.*

? *Locals will appreciate it if government development planners from tourist offices like GTA and DEAT could inform them about present and future tourism development and planning, its benefits and impacts. They believe that locals should be provided with tourism awareness workshops, training, small business/entrepreneurial skills.*

? *Locals believe that there are certain health risks placed when coming in contact with tourists from abroad.*

? *Traditional African culture is being commercialised because of township tourism. Here people sell culture or trivialise their culture for the sake of tourists to make a profit.*

? *Locals believe that government and GTA should provide more marketing efforts and support for Soweto as a destination as well as profile and promote its bed and breakfasts and art/crafts. There is no official body to promote and organise Soweto tourism. More funds and donations should be made available by the local government and private sector to assist people kick starts their businesses.*

? *Certain people and the youth tend to copy and adopt tourists lifestyle, attitude, behaviour and dress.*

? *Prices of certain local crafts and food have been inflated as a result of the presence of tourists.*

? *Some tourists give the feeling of superiority to locals and locals feel inferior. Tourists show no interest in interacting with the locals, speaking to them, but simply hear the messages of the tour guides. Those that do decide to speak have communication problems.*

? *Township tourism has encouraged the increase of beggars and street children along main tourist routes.*

? *Some locals have a problem with tour guides, because they don't ask permission to bring tourists into their areas, tour guides seem to control where the tourists go and spend, they believe that tour guides are receiving kickbacks. They are not aware of the messages being given to the tourists, and they sometimes are just rude to the locals. Local people are unhappy about the tour guides and operators presently conducting tours in Soweto. They believe that the majority live outside Soweto and should not be given preference to conduct tours but rather the locals should. Again, who decides on this and who should manage this process.*

6.3.1.3 Interpretation of reported perceptions

The above findings show that support for the tourism industry is strong among respondents purely on economic grounds and where culture becomes an instrument to create harmony between the different races in South Africa. Both the positive and the negative perceptions arising from the in-depth personal interviews coincide with the characteristics of the three socio-cultural factors extrapolated in the quantitative component of this study. There tended to be a difference in opinion amongst those already generating an income from tourism and those not doing so. Respondents who had a direct business relationship with township tourism exhibited more positive attitudes than those with no direct relationship to the industry.   It is important to note that while certain attitudes confirm the results of similar studies, a number of others are unique to Soweto.

Responses to the effect that township tourism has allowed black and white people the opportunity to interact and that the stereotypical views of townships as no-go areas that are dangerous and a haven for criminals and hijackers are being dismantled echo the opinion of Dyer, Aberdeen and Schuler (2003). Locals were perceived to have increased their awareness of tourism and hospitality and begun to broaden their knowledge about international tourism, foreign places and people due to the cross-cultural exchange of learning taking place. Other responses to the effect that township tourism has fostered a renewed interest in local art, craft and traditions, and that locals have been instilled with a sense of pride about their heritage and culture were in keeping with what has been noted by Hashimoto (2002).

The majority of respondents similarly believed that township tourism would lead to the conservation of cultural practices and political landmarks/monuments. Appreciation was shown of the employment benefits generated by tourism through the acknowledgement that township tourism has resulted in new opportunities for careers in tourism as more people are taking up employment in tourism, and the youth have a new area in which to develop their interests. This type of tourism was said to have created opportunities for the locals to enter the tourism industry and find jobs as tour guides, tour operators, and entrepreneurs. Respondents further expressed the belief that the creation of employment through tourism would gradually improve the local economy. Previous research conducted in South Africa has provided similar

evidence that employment is one of the most sought-after benefits of tourism development (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2003).

Respondents emphasised that tourism had encouraged an entrepreneurial spirit amongst the community in that shebeens, restaurants, and bed and breakfasts have developed, and many hawkers are selling arts and crafts at tourism hubs. This finding is analogous to the assertion made by Koh (2000) that tourism growth is driven by entrepreneurial development. Respondents in favour of tourism alleged that the appearance and image of the township was improving, and that the economy of Soweto would soon be well developed. Benefits in terms of the upkeep and development of infrastructure and new facilities and amenities catering for both locals and tourists were similarly identified.

Despite a generally positive attitude, however, the respondents also acknowledged that negative impacts were occurring as a consequence of the development of township tourism, and thus not all were of the opinion that tourism impacted positively on local culture. Older respondents in particular voiced concern that traditional African culture was being commercialised and claimed that certain locals sell or trivialise their culture to tourists to make a profit. Moreover, tourists were perceived as at times displaying a lack of interest in cross-cultural interaction, as some tourists were said to appear to feel superior to locals, and unwilling to interact with them, preferring simply to listen to the commentary supplied by the tour guides. Communication difficulties exacerbate this perception, with language barriers frequently inhibiting host-guest interaction.

The behaviour of tourists was on occasion seen as impolite and intrusive, with tourists often taking photographs of the locals without permission.   The sentiment was expressed that locals should be compensated if asked to pose for photographs and have the right to know the purpose for which photos are taken. Respondents noted that locals find tourists who fail to seek permission very intrusive, and stated that tourists should be briefed on how to behave. Some respondents expressed concern that crime in tourism hubs had escalated, stating that wherever tourists arrive carrying expensive cameras and money, criminals often loiter. They expressed a need for improved security, as both tourists and the local community are at risk. Other social

problems attributed to tourism included an increase in the number of beggars and street children along main tourist routes.

The most negative comments were those pertaining to the inequitable distribution of economic and employment benefits amongst local residents; local people were said to be unhappy about the tour guides and operators currently conducting tours in Soweto, as they fail to ask permission to bring tourists into their areas and seem to control where the tourists go and spend their money. Respondents voiced the belief held by some that tour guides are receiving kickbacks. They further expressed the belief that the majority of the guides live outside Soweto, and voiced the argument that locals who know the area better should be given preference when it came to conducting tours. Another respondent identified the problem as relating to the fact that tour companies bring tourists only on brief trips; this gives tourists insufficient opportunity to interact meaningfully with locals and to spend money at the local craft centres — some tourists in fact do not spend their money in Soweto, and buy their crafts elsewhere. Tourism benefits are perceived to be in the hands of only a few, with one respondent commenting that tourism appears to benefit only those living close to the hot spots such as the struggle/political route or the homes of prominent ANC activists and other high-profile people of Soweto; those not living close to these hubs are excluded from tourism activities. For many residents there was insufficient evidence of tourism benefits. Despite much talk of tourism and the presence of tourists in the township, the majority of the respondents claimed not to see any tourism-derived rewards.

Much recrimination concerning the shortcomings of township tourism was directed at government. Respondents pointed out that the absence of an official body to promote and organise Soweto township tourism, and expressed the opinion that public sector marketing and support for Soweto as a tourism destination is called for. Also necessary, in their view, are funds and grants to assist local people in setting up businesses. Respondents argued that they have not been adequately consulted about the development and planning of tourism. This has led to resentment between local people who have started tourism businesses and those who have not, and antipathy between residents who do not benefit from tourism and tourists. Respondents called for information pertaining to present and future tourism planning and development

and its associated costs and benefits, and expressed the view that local people should be provided with workshops and training in tourism awareness, establishing small businesses, and entrepreneurial skills.

There is, therefore, evidence that different sectors of the community in Soweto are not uniformly exposed to the benefits of tourism development. The mix of positive and negative perceptions presented above may be attributed to the fact that the original expectations of the benefits of township tourism may have been unrealistic (and so impossible to fulfil) and that the benefits are perceived to accrue to only a small number of people. However, in those cases where the expectations of the benefits were met, the social costs were either initially overlooked or excessively discounted, and local residents are now beginning to question whether their visitors are an unqualified blessing or not.

6.3.2   Results derived from the researcher's field notes during participant observation

From the inception of this study in 2001, the researcher made notes on observations in the field and recorded conversations with various stakeholders during visits to Soweto. Aside from the qualitative fieldwork carried out in the form of in-depth semi-structured interviews, the researcher made field notes during six township tours conducted by different tour operators. In addition to these tours the researcher was invited to participate in tours to Soweto organised and conducted by Johannesburg Tourism and Gold Reef Guides. During the course of many of these tours, the researcher noted assertions by township residents that tourism is a mixed blessing. Some saw it as an intrusion, while others benefited from the financial and cultural exchanges offered by the tours.

On one of the researcher's field trips to Soweto, a local entrepreneur explained that township people are not always in favour of the tours that now pass regularly through the township; some of these give them the feeling of living in a zoo. This particular entrepreneur felt that there should be greater interaction between tourists and the local people, and to this end she has been encouraging her neighbours to welcome her guests, and promoting the idea that the more visitors the community receives, the more they, as local suppliers, will benefit (Ramchander, 2003). In similar vein, on the basis of observation in the field, the researcher noted that tour guides consider that

too many companies run safari-style drive-through tours, where tourists snap photos and gawk at the surrounding poverty from behind the windows of air-conditioned buses. After snapping up their postcards and African masks, most tourists leave with only the most fleeting of contact with the ordinary people (Ramchander, 2004).

Incidents reported to the researcher included a resident's having seen a guide stop his bus in the township and allow tourists to throw money at the people below. Another guide reported the embarrassment caused by two guests' demanding that local children dance for their cameras (Ramchander, 2003). Many township residents are still alarmed by visitors in their neighbourhood. According to a tourism development officer working in the area, the tours have had some "negative impact". There has been an invasion of privacy, with tourists intruding into people's homes. Guides, however, insist that the tours are not an attempt to make a voyeuristic theme park out of poverty, claiming that they brief tourists on acceptable behaviour and offer them an opportunity to interact with residents (Ramchander, 2003).

A more positive contribution, however, is made by those tour operators who allow tourists to meet locals in the township taverns, jazz clubs and restaurants. Some residents claim they are being exposed to the world through these tourists. The researcher received numerous reports of benefits to the community in the form of donations by tourists to schools, families, community projects, clinics and artists (Ramchander, 2003).

From the researcher's field notes and observations it can thus be concluded that communities living in and around the main tourism hubs in Soweto are unquestionably affected, whether negatively or positively, by township tourism. For a tourism-based economy to sustain itself in local communities, the residents must be willing partners in the process. Their attitudes toward tourism and perceptions of its impact on community life must be continually assessed. A systematic analysis of the tourism impacts revealed by the present study may assist government planners, local decision-makers and tourism promoters to identify real concerns and issues in order for appropriate policies and actions to be implemented.

6.4   QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH RESULTS

6.4.1   Distribution of responses to socio-cultural impact statements

Descriptive statistics is so named because it describes the general characteristics of a set or distribution of scores (Jennings, 2001). Frequencies, means and standard deviations are the descriptive statistics used in discussing the distribution of responses gathered during the quantitative component of this study. In the context of this study, frequency refers to the number of times a response (level of agreement) was given to the 57 impact variables appearing on the Likert scale used. The use of descriptive statistics in displaying frequency distribution makes data more comprehensible. The stacked graphs in figures 6.7 and 6.8 present the frequency distribution in the form of percentages for all responses (according to level of agreement) to the 57 socio-cultural impact statements included in the questionnaire distributed to respondents.

The graphs in figures 6.7 (negative attitude responses) and 6.8 (positive attitude responses), are easily interpreted, since the levels of agreement and disagreement are arranged from the highest percentage of responses to the lowest percentage of responses on a particular impact variable. In this way the impact variables calling for the greatest concern can be very easily, identified and addressed by the tourism manager and planner for present and future township tourism development and planning. These socio-cultural impact variables have been identified by the researcher and are given a closer examination in section 6.4.3 and 6.4.4.

A complete frequency distribution of responses is presented in Appendix C.

(Variables numbers given within brackets)

Legend: Strongly Disagree · Disagree · Unsure · Agree · Strongly agree

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
Tourists should be advised to make donations for the benefit of the local community (58)	6.34	9.22	5.76	37.46	41.21
Meeting tourists promotes cross-cultural exchange (mutual understanding & respect) (53)	3.18	12.43	9.83	43.93	30.64
Township tourism resulted in a strengthening traditional activities and cultural pride (42)	2.3	5.46	8.05	56.32	27.87
Township tourists show respect for the cultural lifestyle of the local people (47)	2.59	8.91	6.9	54.02	27.59
Township tourism helps to conserve the cultural identity &heritage of host population (50)	2.59	7.18	10.06	54.02	26.15
Tourism increases the development of recreational facilities and amenities for residents (34)	2.01	8.02	6.02	61.6	22.35
Township tourism holds great promise for Soweto's economic future	4.03	8.93	9.51	55.33	22.19
Township tourism increases consciousness to maintain & improve the area (37)	4.02	14.94	6.9	53.16	20.98
Township tourism increases social wellbeing of residents (income generating) (56)	4.61	6.34	10.09	58.21	20.75
Township tourism has generally improved the appearance of Soweto (40)	5.75	19.83	6.03	47.7	20.69
Township tourism renews local culture (45)	4.32	15.85	10.37	48.99	20.46
Township tourism improves infrastructure (38)	7.76	24.14	10.63	37.07	20.4
Township tourism has resulted in a greater demand for female labour (20)	9.17	21.46	9.17	39.83	20.34
The number of tourists on township tours should increase significantly (21)	13.18	13.18	6.3	50.14	17.19
Township tourism has stimulated the locals' participation in traditional art forms (44)	2.3	6.9	6.9	66.95	16.95
Township tourism provides many worthwhile employment opportunities (59)	6.65	16.47	13.58	47.69	16.61
Township tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities (49)	1.44	5.48	6.92	69.74	16.43
Current township tourism has significantly improved the local community's hospitality (24)	8.6	19.2	11.46	47.85	12.89
Current township tourism has significantly improved the standard of living (9)	9.46	26.07	7.74	47.28	9.46
Local people are treated equally, rather than as inferiors by tourists (36)	11.46	36.96	18.05	24.36	9.17
Tourism has already improved the economy of Soweto (61)	16.14	25.94	21.61	28.82	7.49
Township tourism cause people to search for new opportunities in tourism (57)	15.27	28.53	18.16	31.41	6.63
Residents are satisfied with current planning for township tourism (39)	8.62	36.21	22.7	26.44	6.03
The benefits of township tourism outweigh the negatives (26)	14.37	36.49	20.11	23.85	5.17
Residents have been adequately consulted in participating in entrepreneurial initiatives (63)	27.95	33.72	16.14	19.02	3.17
Residents have been consulted re development plan for township tourism (23)	35.06	34.2	16.09	12.07	2.59
Income-generating opportunities are evenly distributed across the community (55)	34.58	35.73	17.58	10.09	2.02

Percentage of responses

(Variables numbers given within brackets)

Legend: ■ Strongly Disagree ■ Disagree □ Unsure □ Agree ■ Strongly agree

Statement	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Unsure	Agree	Strongly agree
Only a few operators benefit (64)	4.32	7.49	8.93	47.26	31.99
Only a small minority benefit economically (54)	3.17	9.8	8.93	47.84	30.26
Increase in street children along the tourist route (8)	15.47	17.48	8.02	39.26	19.77
Locals adapt traditional practices for commercial value (51)	1.73	8.36	12.1	61.96	15.85
Tourism benefits visitors more than locals (62)	7.49	24.21	13.26	39.77	15.27
Photographers offend locals (31)	12.61	26.93	11.75	36.1	12.61
Changes in traditional culture (52)	6.03	33.62	16.09	32.18	12.07
Traditional African culture becomes commercialised (48)	7.76	21.84	12.64	45.69	12.07
Increase in municipal rates and taxes (22)	6.02	28.65	17.48	35.82	12.03
Local behavioural change - copy style of tourists (43)	7.47	32.76	12.93	35.54	11.49
Exploitation of locals (14)	14.61	34.67	14.33	25.21	11.17
Tourists are health risks (19)	8.6	24.64	22.64	32.95	11.17
Tourists are safety risks (13)	17.48	31.23	8.88	31.81	10.6
Wealthy tourists create generate resentment (33)	8.91	16.15	22.7	33.05	9.2
Local resentment due to inflated prices (18)	11.75	24.36	16.91	38.11	8.88
Restrict tourism development by Government (28)	39.37	24.71	5.17	22.13	8.62
Difficult to live in area popular with tourists (35)	10.6	38.97	15.47	26.36	8.6
Local languages deteriorate (42)	17.24	40.23	15.23	19.25	8.05
Increase in organised crime (27)	15.19	33.81	8.88	34.96	7.16
Foreign tourists are intruders (12)	18.68	27.87	10.34	36.21	6.9
Family life disrupted (10)	16.62	42.41	9.46	24.64	6.88
Resentment between residents and tourists (16)	14.9	34.1	12.32	31.81	6.88
Restrict tourism development by community (17)	35.82	37.25	4.3	16.05	6.59
Community life disrupted (11)	16.62	41.83	9.17	26.36	6.02
Overcrowding of local amenities (15)	18.91	39.83	8.88	26.65	5.73
Township tourists unwanted (25)	15.19	48.42	10.32	21.2	4.87
Increase in litter (41)	31.32	40.8	13.79	11.49	2.59
Locals barred from tourist facilities (32)	22.92	46.42	20.06	8.6	2.01
Higher noise levels (30)	30.09	43.55	14.04	10.6	1.72
Traffic increase (29)	17.77	48.71	13.75	18.05	1.72

Percentage of responses

6.4.2   Responses to impact variables given by respondents who derive income from tourism and those who do not

Organisation of the coded data into frequency distributions enabled the researcher to comment further on the data by using measures of central tendency. Overall positive and negative responses to impact variables were divided along the two target groups of residents used in the sample population. As already noted, the following categories of respondents were selected from the host community:

Type 1: Residents who are in continuous and direct contact with township tourists; because they depend on township tourism and would perhaps be unemployed without it, they welcome visitors.

Type 2: Residents in townships who have no contact with tourists or see them only in passing and whose household income is not derived from township tourism.

The two categories of respondents were selected so as to achieve a fair representation of the host community's perceptions of socio-cultural impacts and to allow key comparisons to be made. To accomplish this, measures of central tendency (mean and standard deviation) were performed on the data. The strength of the mean is that, unlike other measures, it is calculated on the basis of all the values in the distribution. In the sections that follow, a higher mean value indicates a stronger level of agreement with the socio-cultural impact statements.

 According to Finn et al. (2000) the standard deviation is the most useful measure of dispersion in that it utilises all the data in the distribution. The standard deviation compares each value in a distribution with the mean. In other words, it examines the variance of the data around the mean, and so says something about the representativeness of the mean for the data set (Finn et al., 2000; Jennings, 2001). Generally speaking, the smaller the standard deviation, the more concentrated the data around the mean; the greater the standard deviation, the greater the dispersion (Jennings, 2001). In the current study standard deviations were also used in the application of ANOVA tests during comparison between groups.

For a complete frequency distribution of means and standard deviations, refer to Appendix C.

6.4.3 The most positively perceived socio-cultural impacts

Frequency distribution and measurements in the form of means and standard deviations (SD) for the most positively perceived impact variables are reflected in the tables below. A higher mean indicates a stronger level of agreement with the statement. Table 6.2 reflects higher mean values for both groups of respondents (type 1 and type 2), indicating an overall strong agreement with the positive impact statements.

Type 1: Respondents with household income derived from tourism

Type 2: Respondents with household income not derived from tourism

V = The socio-cultural variable number on the questionnaire

V	POSITIVE ATTITUDE STATEMENT	TYPE 1		TYPE 2	
		Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
20	Township tourism has resulted in a greater demand for female labour.	3.56	1.20	3.30	1.32
34	Tourism development increases the development of recreational facilities and amenities for residents.	4.01	0.79	3.89	0.94
37	Township tourism has made residents more concious of the need to maintain and improve the appearance of the area.	3.93	0.94	3.58	1.15
40	The development of township tourism has generally improved the appearance of Soweto.	3.75	0.99	3.46	1.29
42	Tourist interest in culture has resulted in a strengthening of traditional activities and cultural pride.	4.07	0.81	3.99	0.94
44	Township tourism has stimulated the locals' interest in participating in traditional art forms.	3.86	0.76	3.92	0.90
45	Local culture is being renewed as a result of township tourism.	3.67	0.98	3.64	1.18
47	Township tourist show respect for the cultural lifestyle of local people.	4.14	0.82	3.82	1.03
49	Tourisn encourages a variety of cultural activities by the local population.	4.00	0.59	3.90	0.86
50	Township tourism helps to conserve the cultural identity and heritage of the host population.	4.08	0.73	3.85	1.05
53	Meeting tourists promotes crosscultural exchange (greater mutual understanding and respect one another's culture).	3.90	0.98	3.84	1.15
56	By creating jobs and generating income, township tourism promotes an increase in the social wellbeing of residents.	4.02	0.72	3.72	1.11
57	Township tourism has lead to more people leaving their former jobs for new opportunities in tourism.	3.10	1.15	2.68	1.22
59	Township tourism provides many worthwhile employment opportunities for Soweto residents.	3.79	0.88	3.28	1.25
60	Township tourism holds great promise for Soweto's economic future.	4.08	0.71	3.65	1.14

1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3=Undecided 4=Agree 5=Strongly Agree

Table 6.2   THE MOST POSITIVELY PERCEIVED ATTITUDE STATEMENTS

Figure 6.9 THE MOST POSITIVELY PERCEIVED ATTITUDE STATEMENTS
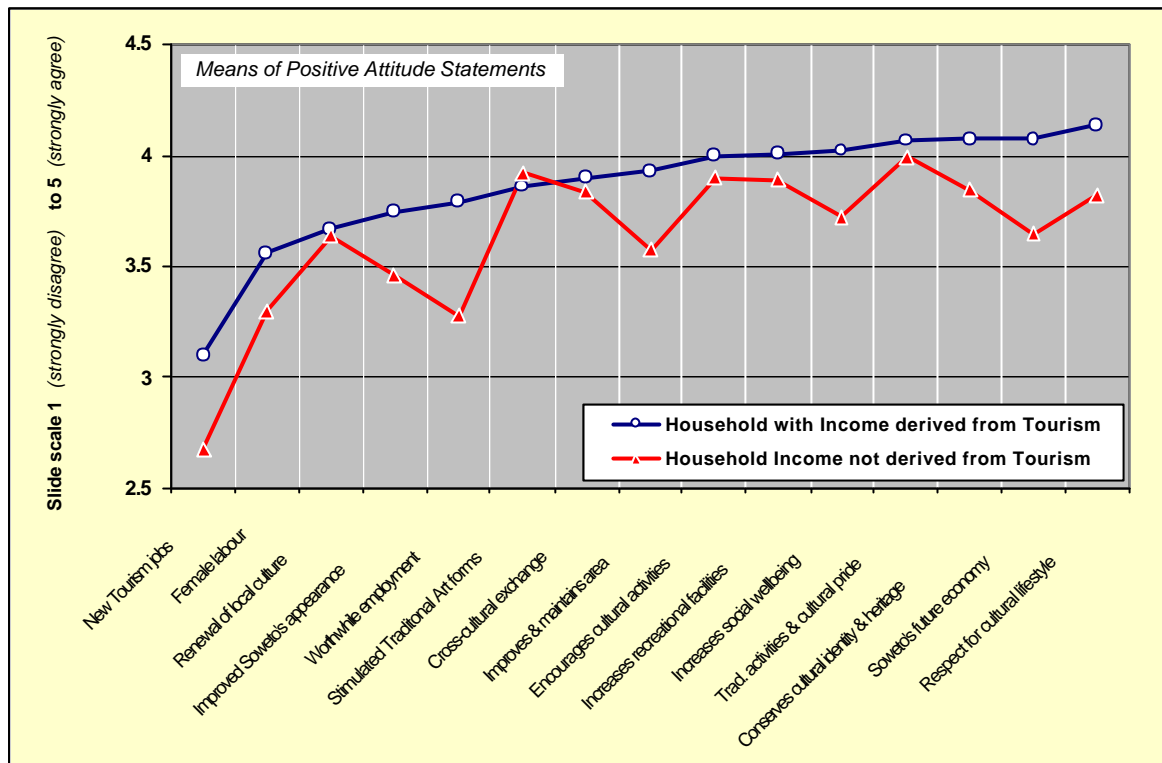
Responding to the impact statements on the Likert scale questionnaire, respondents perceived the following items as having the most positive socio-cultural impacts on their community and were in agreement that township tourism:

?   has resulted in a greater demand for female labour

?   increases the development of recreational facilities and amenities for residents

?   has made residents more conscious of the need to maintain and improve the appearance of the area

?   has generally improved the appearance of Soweto

?   has resulted in a strengthening of traditional activities and cultural pride

?   stimulates the locals' interest in participating in traditional art forms

?   results in local culture being renewed and greater respect for the cultural lifestyle of the local people

?   encourages a variety of cultural activities by the local population

?   helps to conserve the cultural identity and heritage of the host population

?   promotes cross-cultural exchange (greater mutual understanding and respect for one another's culture)

? promotes an increase in the social well-being of residents by creating jobs and generating income

? has led to more people leaving their former jobs for new opportunities in tourism

? provides many worthwhile employment opportunities for Soweto residents

? holds great promise for Soweto's economic future

6.4.4   The most negatively perceived socio-cultural impacts

Frequency distribution and measurements in the form of means and standard deviations for the most negatively perceived impact variables are reflected in the tables below.   A higher mean indicates a stronger level of agreement with the statement.   In table 6.3, there are higher mean values for both groups of respondents (type 1 and type 2), showing an overall strong agreement with the negative impact statements.

V	NEGATIVE ATTITUDE STATEMENT	TYPE 1		TYPE 2	
		Mean	Std Dev	Mean	Std Dev
22	Township tourism will gradually result in an increase in municipal rates and taxes.	3.10	1.01	3.26	1.25
48	Traditional African culture in Soweto is being commercialized (sold) for the sake of tourists.	3.29	1.02	3.35	1.36
51	Locals often respond to tourist needs by adapting traditional practices to enhance their commercial value.	3.79	0.72	3.84	0.94
52	Township tourism causes changes in the traditional culture of local residents.	2.82	0.98	3.30	1.25
54	Only a small minority of Soweto residents benefit economically from tourism.	3.59	0.04	4.16	0.96
62	The development of township tourism in Soweto benefits the visitors more than the locals.	2.99	1.13	3.54	1.21
64	Township tourism in Soweto is in the hands of a few operators only.	3.83	1.01	4.04	1.07

1= Strongly Disagree 2= Disagree 3=Undecided   4=Agree   5=Strongly Agree

Table 6.3   THE MOST NEGATIVELY PERCEIVED ATTITUDE STATEMENTS

See Appendix D for a complete list of means and standard deviations.

Figure 6.10 THE MOST NEGATIVELY PERCEIVED ATTITUDE STATEMENTS
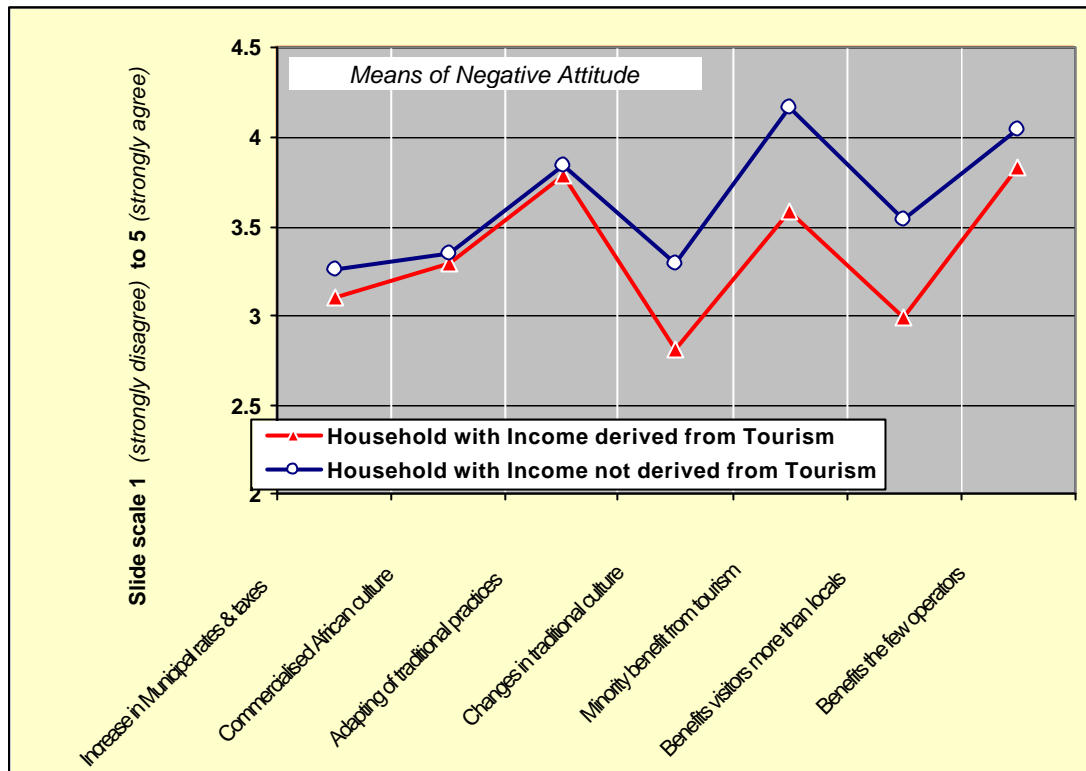
Responding to the impact statements on the Likert scale questionnaire, respondents perceived the following items to have the most negative socio-cultural impacts on their community, and were in agreement that township tourism results in:

? an increase in municipal rates and taxes

? traditional African culture in Soweto being commercialised for the sake of tourists

? locals responding to tourist needs by adapting traditional practices to enhance their commercial value

? changes and adaptations of traditional culture of local residents

? only a small minority of Soweto residents benefiting economically from tourism

? Soweto visitors benefiting more from tourism than the locals do

? Soweto tourism being in the hands of a few operators only

6.4.5   Difference in perceptions based on the demographic variable of income from tourism

The various sections of the local community are not uniformly exposed to the benefits of tourism developments. As would be expected, those sections deriving more benefits from tourism view tourism more favourably than those that do not. Positive attitudes and support for township tourism are thus significantly related to personal benefits from tourism. The results of this study are thus consonant with social exchange theory as proposed by Ap (1992), which explains residents' attitudes to tourism. According to social exchange theory, assessments of community support can be made by understanding host residents' characteristics (such as age, acquired educational levels, previous employment in the tourism industry, levels of income and whether they earn income deriving from tourism-related jobs) and by linking these to negative or positive attitudes towards tourism. Respondents employed in the tourism industry and whose household income depended on tourism were more favourably disposed towards tourists than those not employed in the industry.

Figure 6.11 DIFFERENCE IN PERCEPTIONS BASED ON THE DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLE OF INCOME FROM TOURISM
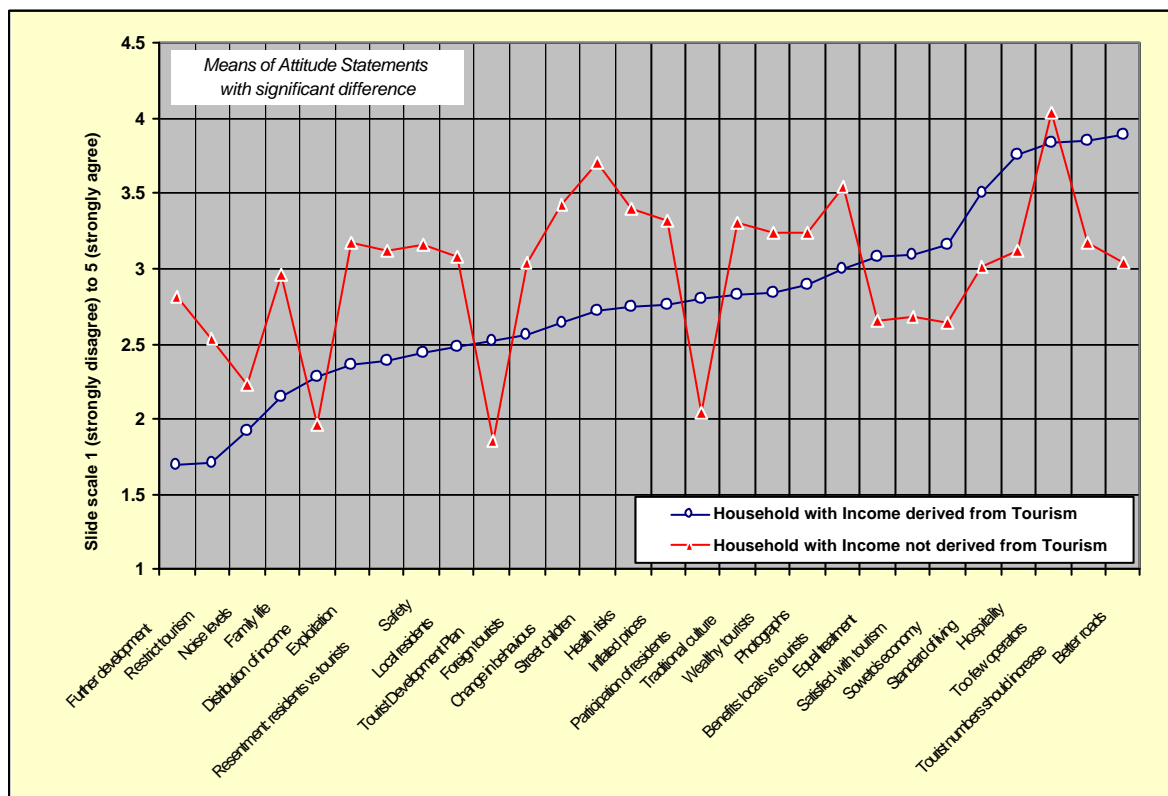
See Appendix D for a complete list of means and standard deviations.

Figure 6.11 reveals a significant difference in responses to 28 impact statements between residents who derived an income from tourism and those who did not. Respondents with a direct business relationship with tourism tended to have more positive attitudes towards tourism than those with no direct business relation with the industry, and respondents with immediate family members working in tourism-related businesses tended to have more positive attitudes towards tourism than those without. This study is therefore consonant with other studies that have found that residents benefiting from tourism have a higher level of support for tourism and thus report more positive impacts (King et al., 1993; Ap & Crompton, 1998).

The present study reveals that tourism not only created jobs and business opportunities, but also helped to stabilise the local economy, provided cultural exchange between hosts and visitors, and helped to improve community and recreation facilities. Furthermore, it was found that tourism improved the standard of living, increased availability for recreation and entertainment, promoted cultural exchange, promoted the cultural identity of the host community, and increased the demand for preservation of historical and architectural monuments.

The provision of jobs for residents is obviously an important by-product of tourism, but respondents also viewed tourism as a means of helping them learn, share, and preserve their culture. From the study it can therefore be concluded that tourism as a factor of change can affect traditional family values, cause cultural commercialisation and lead to an increase in the crime rate. Tourism may nevertheless also be a factor in the preservation of traditional culture rather than its dissolution. In many instances, traditions, customs and institutions in the process of vanishing under the impact of industrialisation and urbanisation have been revived and have gained a new spirit and meaning on becoming tourist attractions. Tourism contributes to the revitalisation of traditional cultures because the need to preserve, display, adorn and boast of the cultural resources arises only when there is an opportunity to exhibit these resources to others.

Positive attitudes tend to be associated with the economic role of tourism, while negative attitudes revolve around social concerns. Further, tourism development may

create conflicts in the destination community due to socio-cultural differences, economic welfare, and purchasing power gaps between the host community and tourists. Cultural differences within the local population may lead to favourable or unfavourable responses toward tourism, depending on the degree of similarity of the lifestyles of the residents and the tourists. The difference between the culture of the poor inhabitants and that of the tourists makes the former more fearful, apathetic and withdrawn when confronted with the latter. The fear that tourists cause the weakening of valued customs and traditions and the feelings of envy resulting from the enormous difference between the lifestyles may produce strong feelings of hostility toward tourists among poor inhabitants.

The fact that the costs and benefits of tourism are not evenly distributed within the local population leads to internal power and interest conflicts. Studies have revealed that tourism changes power relationships and increases interest conflicts within a destination. As a result of redistribution of political power, the groups that are negatively affected become hostile and resentful towards the newly developing elites. If tourism enters into a community via strangers and does not become an integral part of the socio-economic life of the community, it is likely that the dominant response towards it will be one of resistance. However, if tourism involves a significant proportion of the local people who expect to gain important socio-economic benefits from it, and if tourism is effectively integrated into the community, the initial response will probably be one of acceptance.

6.4.6 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a generic term for a family of statistical techniques concerned with the reduction of a set of observable variables to a small number of latent factors (Rummel, 2002; Massey, 2003). It has been developed primarily for analysing relationships among a number of measurable entities (such as survey items). The primary purpose of factor analysis is data reduction and summary. This statistical technique was chosen in this instance because of its capacity to identify underlying constructs or dimensions, or factor relationships, among data for which there is little theory or scale development (Reese & Lochmuller, 2003). Factor analysis includes a variety of correlational analyses designed to examine the interrelationships between variables (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). It is thus designed to examine the covariance

structure of a set of variables and to provide an explanation of the relationships among those socio-cultural variables in terms of a smaller number of unobserved latent variables called factors (Reese & Lochmuller, 2003). The main applications of factor analytic techniques are therefore (1) to reduce the number of variables and (2) to detect structure in the relationships between variables, in other words, to classify variables. See Appendix E for the results of factor analysis.

6.4.6.1 Results of factor analysis: principal component method using direct obliman rotation

Factor analysis (principal component method using direct obliman rotation) was conducted using SAS version 8 to determine the dimensions (factors) of 57 impact variables associated with township tourism impacts in Soweto.

Dunteman (1994:157) affirms that "[p]rincipal component analysis is a statistical technique that linearly transforms an original set of variables into a substantially smaller set of uncorrelated variables. Its goal is to reduce the dimensionality of the original data set". A small set of uncorrelated variables is much easier to understand and use in further analyses than a larger set of correlated variables. Factor analysis therefore helps to reduce the number of variables on the scale to core factors, since a single variable on its own cannot measure socio-cultural impacts meaningfully (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Theoretically the Likert scale questionnaire designed for this study had four constructs (scales) comprising a total of 57 socio-cultural impact variables. The value of factor analysis and item analysis lay in the ability to reduce the original 57 socio-cultural impact variables on the Likert scale to a few core factors. A factor makes it possible to measure a particular perception more broadly, reducing any possibilities of chance (Churchill, 1979). In this study the constructs were reduced by means of item and factor analysis to three factors.

All items from the scale having a loading score below 0,3 were excluded from the analysis — in other words, those items that did not load well were removed. 12 items did not load saliently due to either low variance or extraneous content.   After eliminating these items, 45 items (impact variables) from respondent data were reduced to three factors with similar characteristics. The results of factor analysis (factor loadings) are presented in table 6.4 below.

Factor 1 = Socio-economic
Factor 2 = Cultural and physical (appearance)
Factor 3 = Participation n benefits

A higher factor loading is indicated in bold print.

FACTOR 1	SOCIO – ECONOMIC IMPACTS			
V	ITEMS	COMPONENT 1	COMPONENT 2	COMPONENT 3
V8	Township tourism will encourage an increase in Street children along the tourist route	**0.381**	-0.036	0.147
V9	The current level of township tourism has significantly improved the standard of living of Soweto residents	**0.411**	0.083	0.157
V10	Family of local residents has been disrupted by the presence of tourists	**0.742**	0.070	-0.169
V11	Community life has become disrupted as a result of the development of tourism in Soweto	**0.725**	0.037	-0.070
V12	Local residents view foreign tourists as intruding into their community	**0.723**	-0.008	0.088
V13	Residents feel that their safety is affected as more tourists are encouraged to visit Soweto	**0.663**	0.066	0.150
V14	Local people are being exploited because of the growth of township tourism	**0.449**	0.103	0.054
V16	An increase in tourists into Soweto will lead to resentment between residents and tourists	**0.760**	0.026	-0.046
V17	The Soweto community should take steps to restrict tourism development	**0.563**	0.288	-0.201
V18	Local resentment is generated because of the inflated prices for the tourist market	**0.597**	0.090	0.124
V19	Contact with tourists may introduce health risks to the host community	**0.534**	-0.005	0.234
V21	The number of tourists on township tours should increase significantly	**0.731**	0.081	-0.093
V22	Township tourism will gradually result in an increase in municipal rates and taxes	**0.530**	-0.042	-0.116
V25	Local residents oppose the presence of township tourists in the Soweto region	**0.818**	-0.012	-0.137
V26	The benefits of township tourism outweigh the negatives	**0.356**	0.036	0.196
V27	Township tourism increases the rate of organized crime in the Soweto region	**0.593**	0.016	0.329
V28	Government should restrict further development of township tourism in Soweto	**0.832**	-0.048	-0.356
V31	Tourists taking photographs of local people can cause great offence to locals	**0.590**	0.096	0.182
V33	Tourists who are seen to be wealthier than the majority of the residential population are more likely to generate resentment	**0.650**	-0.098	-0.037
V35	Local residents are the ones who really suffer from living in an area popular with tourists	**0.749**	-0.041	-0.040
V39	Residents are satisfied with the manner in which township tourism development and planning is currently taking place	**0.396**	0.157	0.209
V43	Local people alter their behavior in an attempt to copy the style of tourists	**0.568**	-0.049	-0.181
V48	Traditional African culture in Soweto is being commercialized (sold) for the sake of tourists	**0.455**	0.041	0.064
V61	Tourism has already improved the economy of Soweto	**0.454**	0.043	0.155

Table 6.4   FACTOR LOADINGS (USING BMDP 4m – FACTOR ANALYSIS SOFTWARE)

F A C T O R 2   **CULTURAL/PHYSICAL**

V	ITEMS	COMPONENT 1	COMPONENT 2	COMPONENT 3
V15	Further growth in Soweto tourism will result in over-crowding of local amenities by tourists	0.160	**0.433**	0.087
V24	The current level of township tourism has significantly improved the local community's hospitality toward strangers	0.041	**0.419**	0.024
V29	Township tourism has increased traffic problems in Soweto	0.123	**0.388**	0.025
V30	The noise levels caused by township tourism is not appropriate for a residential community	0.235	**0.354**	-0.338
V34	Tourism development increases the development of recreational facilities and amenities for residents	0.223	**0.439**	-0.114
V37	Township tourism has made residents more conscious of the need to maintain and improve the appearance of the area	-0.029	**0.548**	0.189
V30	The development of township tourism has generally improved the appearance of Soweto	0.042	**0.603**	0.369
V41	Township tourism in Soweto has lead to more litter in the streets	0.116	**0.293**	-0.329
V42	Tourists interest in culture has resulted in a strengthening of traditional activities and cultural pride	-0.049	**0.675**	-0.031
V44	Township tourism has stimulated the locals' interest in participating in traditional art forms	-0.094	**0.600**	-0.053
V45	Local culture is being renewed as a result of township tourism	-0.154	**0.531**	0.111
V46	Interacting with tourists leads to a deterioration of local languages	-0.035	**0.373**	-0.034
V47	Township tourists show respect for the cultural lifestyle of the local people	0.145	**0.624**	-0.183
V49	Tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities by the local people	0.027	**0.524**	-0.185
V50	Township tourism helps to conserve the cultural identity and heritage of the host population	-0.006	**0.617**	-0.241
V53	Meeting tourists promotes cross-cultural exchange (greater mutual understanding and respect for one another's culture)	-0.085	**0.599**	0.183

Table 6.4   FACTOR LOADINGS (USING BMDP 4m – FACTOR ANALYSIS SOFTWARE)

F A C T O R 3   **PARTICIPATION IN BENEFITS**

V	ITEMS	COMPONENT 1	COMPONENT 2	COMPONENT 3
V23	Soweto residents have been consulted and made aware of the tourism development plan for township tourism	0.271	0.041	**0.377**
V54	Only a small minority of Soweto residents benefit economically from tourism	0.307	-0.098	**0.320**
V55	Income-generating opportunities created by township tourism development are evenly distributed across the community	0.200	0.023	**0.451**
V63	Soweto residents have been adequately consulted in participating in entrepreneurial initiatives in township tourism	0.300	0.150	**0.372**
V64	Township tourism in Soweto is in the hands of a few operators only	0.285	0.042	**0.362**

	COMPONENT 1	COMPONENT 2	COMPONENT 3
Chronbach's Alpha Reliability	0.933	0.870	0.695
Percentage Variance explained	23.19	8.41	3.81
Eigenvalue	11.74	4.68	2.52

Table 6.4   FACTOR LOADINGS (USING BMDP 4m – FACTOR ANALYSIS SOFTWARE)

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See Appendix E for the results of factor analysis.

Table 6.4 reveals the factor structure of perceptions of socio-cultural impacts to consist of three dimensions: socio-economic (factor 1), cultural and physical (factor 2), and participation in benefits (factor 3). Each factor is therefore a combination of survey items explaining maximum variation in a combination of characteristic scores (Dunteman, 1994; Reisinger & Turner, 2003). As consecutive factors are extracted, they account for less and less variability. The decision to stop extracting factors is made when there is very little 'random' variability left (Reisinger & Turner, 2003). Factors that account for less and less variance are therefore extracted.

The naming of factors is determined by the characteristics of which they are made up, as explained below:

Factor 1 — Socio-economic: Factor 1 loads strongly on 24 variables. These variables address issues such as the economic role of tourism at a personal and community level (standard of living). They relate to the various social costs and benefits of township tourism, which include congestion; crowding; the encouragement of street children; disruption of family and community life; tourist intrusion; crime and safety; exploitation of locals; resentment between hosts and tourists; inflated local prices and health risks. Socio-economic impacts involve the more immediate changes in the social structure of the community and adjustments to the destination's economy and industry.

Factor 2 — Cultural and physical: Factor 2 loads strongly on 16 variables. This factor allows for the measurement of variables concerned with cultural, physical and environmental issues, such as overcrowding; traffic problems; recreational facilities; appearance of Soweto; strengthening of traditional cultural activities; cultural pride; interest in traditional art forms; renewal of culture; deterioration of language; cultural lifestyle; conservation of cultural activities and cross-cultural exchange as a result of township tourism. Cultural impacts focus on the longer-term changes in a society's norms and standards that will gradually emerge in a community's social relationships and artefacts.

Factor 3 — Participation: Factor 3 loads strongly on 5 variables. Factor 3 can be used to measure the extent to which consultation has taken place, since the variables address issues of   benefits and participation of the local community in township tourism development and planning in Soweto.

6.4.6.2 Eigenvalues

One of the most popular criteria for deciding on the number of factors to retain is an eigenvalue greater than 1 (Dunteman, 1994). This simple criterion seems to work well, in the sense that it generally gives results consistent with the researcher's expectations. If a factor has a low eigenvalue, it contributes little to the explanation of variance in the variables and may be ignored in favour of more important factors. In this study the eigenvalues of the three factors, as reflected in table 6.4, are 11,74%, 4,68%, and 2,52% respectively.

The eigenvalue for a given factor measures the variance in all the variables accounted for by that factor. The eigenvalue is not the percentage of variance explained, but rather a measure of 'amount', used for comparison with other eigenvalues (Dunteman, 1994). A factor's eigenvalue may be computed as the sum of its squared factor loadings for all the variables. As shown in table 6.4, the three factors explain 23,19%, 8,41%, and 3,81% of the variance in the data respectively. The three-factor solution thus explained 35,41% of the variance in the correlation matrix. For a graphical representation refer to figure 6.12.

6.4.6.3 Chronbach's alpha coefficient of reliability

The statistical tool used in determining internal consistency is Chronbach's alpha, which is a statistical test of how well the items in a scale correlate with one another. The reliability of the scale is the extent to which repeated use of the scale at different times under the same conditions will lead to the same results (Ryan, 2000). Hence, in this instance, reliability is related to whether the three scales (factors) will yield the same result each time if used to measure the same perception repeatedly. If a scale is not reliable, it cannot be valid, because it is not properly measuring anything at all, let alone measuring the right thing.

Chronbach's alpha was calculated for each factor. In deciding on an acceptable Chronbach's alpha value, it should be remembered that there are no exact rules and that the research purpose should be kept in mind. In standardised tests, acceptable values have ranged from 0,6 to higher, where 1 is the ultimate value. A lower case of reliability is proven when the Chronbach's alpha reliability yields values of lower than 0,6 (Chronbach, 1951). Chronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were computed and the results for all three factors in the current study showed acceptable levels of reliability.

The internal consistency was calculated for each factor formed and each showed a relatively high reliability value (high Chronbach's alpha value). As indicated in table 6.4, all three factors yielded reliability values above 0,6 thus furnishing strong and acceptable factors.   Factors 1 and 2 are particularly strong, achieving a Chronbach reliability of 0,942 and 0,891 respectively, whereas factor 3 achieved a slightly lower Chronbach's alpha value of 0,695, although this is still considered satisfactory. The lower value might have been the result of there being only five items in the scale. The internal consistency of the overall index was proven to be substantial and the reliability was acceptable.

6.4.7   Validity of scales and item analysis

The validity of a scale instrument is the extent of its ability to measure what it sets out to measure (Dunteman, 1994).   Although validity was examined through factor analysis, factors were formed not only on the basis of the pure statistical results, but also as a result of the incorporation of the theory.

A scale is said to have content validity if the survey items being combined can be judged to give a comprehensive and balanced coverage of all the characteristics of each factor (Dunteman, 1994). For the purposes of content validity, all the items being combined must clearly relate theoretically to the factor in question (see table 6.5). Once the factor analysis was completed, item analysis using the ITEMAN™ Test Program was conducted to confirm that items comprising the three factors did in fact belong together. This process of evaluating each item as a way of estimating the internal consistency of the instrument is referred to as item analysis, and is the key to

building scales (Dunteman, 1994). In other words, the researcher needs to investigate whether the items on each of the factors correlate well.

In item test analysis the correlation of each item with a selected criterion is found, and weakly correlating items are dropped. For the original item test analysis, refer to Appendix F. When the weakest items are dropped, reliabilities (alpha) of the original scales usually rise. When dropping weak items ceases to produce rises in alpha, the final form of the scale has been reached. This entire procedure ensures that the items selected are best able to measure what they were intended to measure. Items that measure the same underlying construct should be related to one another; in other words, the scale should be unidimensional.

Table 6.5 shows the results of the item test analysis following the removal of weak item scale correlations. If the inter-item scale correlation were perfect, then every item would contribute equally to each factor on the scale. Naturally, some items contribute more than others, and those that contribute little will correlate poorly with the total for each factor. In the current study the minimum coefficient correlation for a factor item to be included in the final scale was deemed to be 0,30, as recommended by Reese & Lochmuller (2003). Items that failed to meet the 0,30 minimum coefficient criterion were removed. By removing these items the researcher increased the overall reliability and validity of the instrument for use in future studies.

Refer to figure 6.12 (page 163), for a graphical presentation of the results from the factor analysis and item test analysis procedures.

SOCIO – ECONOMIC

V	ITEMS	ITEM MEAN	ITEM VARIANCE	ITEM SCALE CORRELATION
V8	Township tourism will encourage an increase in Street children along the tourist route	2.696	1.885	.44
V9	The current level of township tourism has significantly improved the standard of living of Soweto residents	3.212	1.445	.50
V10	Family of local residents has been disrupted by the presence of tourists	3.372	1.472	.73
V11	Community life has become disrupted as a result of the development of tourism in Soweto	3.367	1.453	.73
V12	Local residents view foreign tourists as intruding into their community	3.152	1.641	.73
V13	Residents feel that their safety is affected as more tourists are encouraged to visit Soweto	3.132	1.736	.70
V14	Local people are being exploited because of the growth of township tourism	3.163	1.604	.50
V16	An increase in tourists into Soweto will lead to resentment between residents and tourists	3.183	1.496	.74
V17	The Soweto community should take steps to restrict tourism development	3.797	1.595	.60
V18	Local resentment is generated because of the inflated prices for the tourist market	2.920	1.443	.65
V19	Contact with tourists may introduce health risks to the host community	2.865	1.349	.60
V21	The number of tourists on township tours should increase significantly	3.450	1.646	.72
V22	Township tourism will gradually result in an increase in municipal rates and taxes	2.808	1.330	.53
V25	Local residents oppose the presence of township tourists in the Soweto region	3.479	1.270	.78
V26	The benefits of township tourism outweigh the negatives	2.690	1.289	.45
V27	Township tourism increases the rate of organized crime in the Soweto region	3.149	1.559	.67
V28	Government should restrict further development of township tourism in Soweto	3.641	1.977	.74
V31	Tourists taking photographs of local people can cause great offence to locals	2.908	1.631	.63
V33	Tourists who are seen to be wealthier than the majority of the residential population are more likely to generate resentment	2.925	1.311	.60
V35	Local residents are the ones who really suffer from living in an area popular with tourists	3.166	1.394	.73
V36	Local people are treated equally, rather than as inferiors by tourists	2.828	1.409	.31
V39	Residents are satisfied with the manner in which township tourism development and planning is currently taking place	2.851	1.190	.52
V43	Local people alter their behavior in an attempt to copy the style of tourists	2.894	1.428	.54
V48	Traditional African culture in Soweto is being commercialized (sold) for the sake of tourists	2.675	1.363	.51
V61	Tourism has already improved the economy of Soweto	2.856	1.472	.52

Table 6.5   FACTOR CORRELATION ITEM ANALYSIS

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CULTURAL/PHYSICAL

V	ITEMS	ITEM MEAN	ITEM VARIANCE	ITEM SCALE CORRELATION
V15	Further growth in Soweto tourism will result in over-crowding of local amenities by tourists	3.395	1.494	.53
V24	The current level of township tourism has significantly improved the local community's hospitality toward strangers	3.372	1.391	.48
V29	Township tourism has increased traffic problems in Soweto	3.628	1.053	.54
V30	The noise levels caused by township tourism is not appropriate for a residential community	3.897	1.009	.51
V34	Tourism development increases the development of recreational facilities and amenities for residents	3.943	0.782	.55
V37	Township tourism has made residents more conscious of the need to maintain and improve the appearance of the area	3.721	1.161	.57
V30	The development of township tourism has generally improved the appearance of Soweto	3.578	1.399	.63
V41	Township tourism in Soweto has lead to more litter in the streets	3.868	1.126	.42
V42	Tourists interest in culture has resulted in a strengthening of traditional activities and cultural pride	4.020	0.784	.65
V44	Township tourism has stimulated the locals' interest in participating in traditional art forms	3.894	0.710	.56
V45	Local culture is being renewed as a result of township tourism	3.654	1.212	.50
V46	Interacting with tourists leads to a deterioration of local languages	3.394	1.451	.46
V47	Township tourists show respect for the cultural lifestyle of the local people	3.951	0.932	.65
V49	Tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities by the local people	3.942	0.579	.55
V50	Township tourism helps to conserve the cultural identity and heritage of the host population	3.940	0.879	.60
V53	Meeting tourists promotes cross-cultural exchange (greater mutual understanding and respect for one another's culture)	3.864	1.169	.56

PARTICIPATION IN BENEFITS

V	ITEMS	ITEM MEAN	ITEM VARIANCE	ITEM SCALE CORRELATION
V23	Soweto residents have been consulted and made aware of the tourism development plan for township tourism	2.129	1.210	.59
V54	Only a small minority of Soweto residents benefit economically from tourism	2.078	1.063	.66
V55	Income-generating opportunities created by township tourism development are evenly distributed across the community	2.092	1.098	.66
V63	Soweto residents have been adequately consulted in participating in entrepreneurial initiatives in township tourism	2.357	1.359	.70
V64	Township tourism in Soweto is in the hands of a few operators only	2.049	1.096	.66

Table 6.5   FACTOR CORRELATION ITEM ANALYSIS

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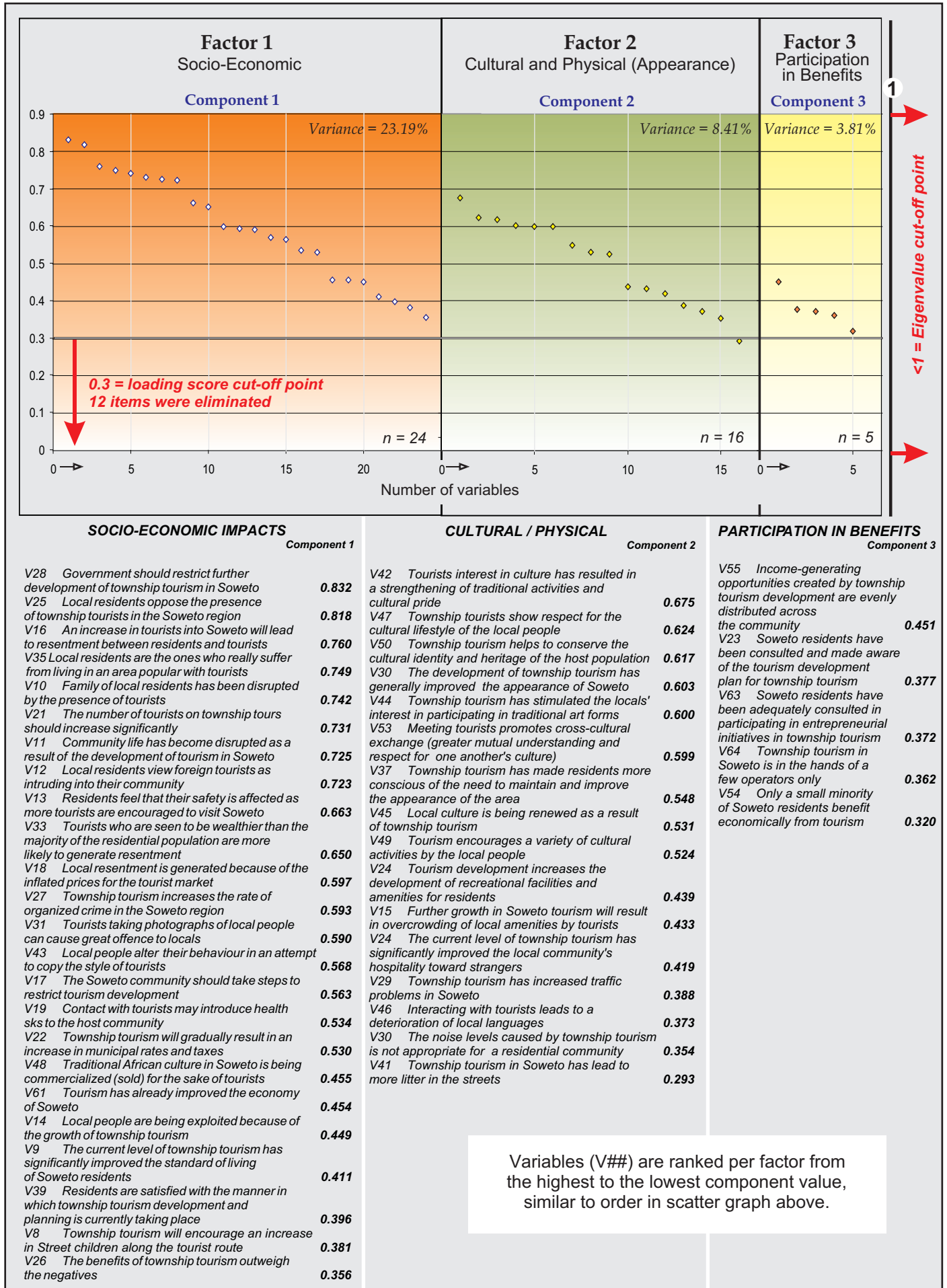
Figure 6.12: Graphical presentation of Factor Analysis Results (i.e. Table 6.4)

6.4.8   ANOVA procedures (tests of analysis of variance)

The t-test and analysis of variance make it possible to determine whether two groups have equivalent or different mean scores (Welman & Kruger, 2001). These authors state that t-tests and analysis of variance (ANOVA) determine whether an observed difference in the means of two groups is sufficiently large to be attributed to a change in some variable, or whether it could be attributable simply to chance.

Research has revealed that a number of independent variables in the host community's demographic profile can have widely differing influences on resident perceptions of tourism (Ap, 1992). Some of the independent variables (income from tourism, gender, and years of residence) identified from the literature and tested in this research are outlined here.

A series of ANOVA procedures using Duncan's multiple range test was performed to test for any significant differences in the underlying dimensions among respondents with different demographic characteristics. For the ANOVA procedure, the three factors emerging from the factor analysis were the dependent variables and the demographic variables were income from tourism, gender and length of residence in Soweto.

In interpreting the tables below, one should bear in mind that a higher mean shows a stronger level of support for that particular impact variable in each factor. In other words, on the scale:

?   1 = always negative

?   5 = always positive

There are guidelines that determine which differences are large enough to be considered 'real' and which may be due to chance. The significance level is a statement of the probability that an observed difference is due to chance. The most frequently used levels of statistical significance are 0,05 and 0,01 (Ryan, 1995). For the purpose of this study, the level of 0,05 was used as the level of statistical significance. The p-value is calculated to indicate the probability that the difference is due to chance (Ryan, 1995). For the purpose of this study, where the p-value was

<0,05, the researcher concluded that a statistically significant difference between the dependent and independent variables existed.

See Appendix G for ANOVA tests run on Duncan's multiple range.

6.4.8.1 ANOVA test: income from tourism

As noted in chapter 4 of this study, residents (or their relatives, friends, and neighbours) who depend upon tourism-based employment have been found to view tourism and tourists in a more favourable light than those who do not (Pizam et al., 1978; Tyrrell & Spaulding, 1984; Murphy, 1985; Pizam & Milman, 1986;; Pizam & Pokela, 1987). The ANOVA test carried out for the demographic variable "income from tourism" against the three factors "socio-economic", "cultural and physical" and "participation in benefits" revealed the following:

VARIABLE	V5(1) EARN INCOME		V5(1) NO INCOME		P-VALUE
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
FACTOR 1	3.374	0.525	2.806	0.756	<.0001
FACTOR 2	3.885	0.436	3.659	0.632	<0.0003
FACTOR 3	2.439	0.739	1.954	0.660	<0.0001

Table 6.6   ANOVA TEST OF INCOME FROM TOURISM

In terms of the ANOVA test conducted on independent variable (V5) (income derived from tourism), the p-value for factor 1 (socio-economic) is < 0,0001. This means that there is a significant difference in perceptions of the construct (factor 1) "socio-economic" between respondents who earned an income from tourism and those who did not. This is confirmed by the fact that the mean of V5 (1), 3,374, is higher than the mean of V5 (2), 2,806, indicating that those who earned an income from tourism tended to view positive socio-economic impacts more strongly than those who did not.

The same applies for the second construct, factor 2 (cultural and physical), where the mean for V5 (1), 3,885, is higher than the mean for V5 (2), 3,659, and where the p-

value is <0,0003. This permits the conclusion that respondents who earned an income from tourism viewed the positive cultural impacts (the second construct on the scale) more favourably than those not earning an income from tourism. Therefore there is a significant difference between the two groups of respondents when responding to factor 2.

The same applies for factor 3 (participation in benefits), where the mean for V5 (1), 2,439, is higher than V5 (2), 1,954. The p-value of <0,0001 reveals a significant difference between the two groups of respondents. Those respondents who earned an income from tourism perceived participation in benefits (the third construct on the scale) more favourably. Respondents earning an income from tourism perceived participation, consultation and benefits as positive and actually taking place, as opposed to those not earning an income from tourism.

A significant difference was therefore recorded on all three factors with regard to the relationship of the independent variable "income derived from tourism". This means that those residents who earned an income from tourism perceived tourism more favourably (i.e. perceived there to be positive impacts) on all three factors of socio-economic, cultural and physical and participation in benefits.

6.4.8.2 ANOVA test of gender

FACTOR	MEANS		P-VALUE
	Male	Female	
FACTOR 1	3.04268	3.02325	0.9853
FACTOR 2	3.79179	3.71009	0.1616
FACTOR 3	2.15789	2.14000	0.4901

Table 6.7   ANOVA TEST OF GENDER

Since the p-value is >0,05 for all three factors, there was no significant difference in the way respondents perceived socio-cultural impacts when the variable of gender was taken into consideration. There was therefore no difference in the way in which males and females perceived tourism impacts on the three factors.

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6.4.8.3   ANOVA test of community attachment

(1)   Up to 15 years
(2)   16–30 years
(3)   31+ years

FACTOR	MEANS			P-VALUE
	Time up to 15 years	Time 16-30 years	31 + years	
FACTOR 1	3.20831	2.94689	2.99662	0.2326
FACTOR 2	3.79154	3.75341	3.70415	0.7413
FACTOR 3	2.42292	2.02581	2.07263	0.0018

Table 6.8   ANOVA TEST OF COMMUNITY ATTACHMENT

Earlier research has used length of residence as a means of measuring community attachment and found a high correlation between the two (Allen et al., 1988; King et al., 1993; McCool & Martin, 1994; Akis et al., 1996; Ap & Crompton, 1998). These studies have attempted to identify an association between perceptions of tourism and length of residence in an effort to demonstrate that the longer a respondent has lived in the community, the more negative they will be towards tourists and tourism.

The ANOVA test conducted during the present study showed a significant difference with regard to respondents who had lived in Soweto for up to 15 years (relative newcomers) with reference to the third factor (participation in benefits), with a p-value of <0,0018. Respondents who had lived in Soweto for a period of up to 15 years tended to be more positive about the participation and consultation taking place with regard to township tourism compared with respondents who had been resident in Soweto for longer. Respondents who had lived in Soweto for over 16 years therefore tended to perceive the construct "participation in benefits and consultation" in township tourism less favourably. There were no statistical differences between the demographic variable "length of residence" and the other two factors, where the p-values were >0,2326 and >0,7413 respectively. This finding supports the finding of McCool and Martin (1994), whose study revealed that residents who were strongly attached to their community viewed tourism impacts with more concern and less favourably than those fairly new (and less attached) to their community.

The characteristics of the three factors extrapolated in the quantitative study and their underlying patterns coincide closely with the results arising from in-depth personal interviews and participant observation in the qualitative component of the study. The social and cultural impacts of township tourism are often difficult to measure because they are to a large extent indirect. Nevertheless, in the present study, the findings derived from the qualitative data reinforced the results emanating from those derived from the quantitative data. The researcher was also able to prove that methodological triangulation makes it possible to investigate different experiences and effects by means of multiple methods, thereby building the strength of the study, in terms of reliability and validity in particular.

See Appendix G for ANOVA tests run on Duncan's multiple range.

6.5   SUMMARY

Chapter 6 presented the results and data analysis of both the quantitative and qualitative components of the study. The demographic profile of the respondents was presented first, followed by descriptive analysis of the results of interviews and participant observation undertaken in the qualitative study. The results from the qualitative component coincide with those characteristics constituting three factors extrapolated from factor analysis in the quantitative component of the study. The use of methodological triangulation enabled the researcher to draw on various sources of data in the research process, thereby improving the overall reliability and validity of the research results.

Supported by the various statistical tests and qualitative results, it was found that apart from obvious and visible effects on the economy and the physical environment, township tourism does contribute to social and cultural changes in the host community of Soweto as represented by the respondents selected for the study. Tourism impact studies are rare in South Africa, and those that are being or have been conducted are usually restricted to economic analysis; the socio-cultural impacts of tourism is therefore a topic that to date has been under-researched.

The results reflected in chapter 6 indicate that townships are becoming high-growth areas for the South African tourism industry. Tourist numbers will grow and

pressures on local cultures will increase. Evidence in chapter 6 demonstrates that the various sectors of the Soweto community are not uniformly exposed to the benefits of tourism development. It was found that host communities' attitudes and perceptions toward tourism development and tourists fluctuate continuously between the negative and the positive. Whilst respondents demonstrated a predominately positive feeling towards tourists and township tourism, they were also able to point out some specific negative impacts. The results also revealed that whilst locals may be antagonistic to tourist invasion, they find it extremely difficult to raise their concerns and take action. The main objective of the social-cultural impact analysis conducted was to provide developers, local authorities and managers concerned with information on host communities' perception of township tourism development in Soweto with a view to reinforcing perceived positive impacts and minimising perceived negative impacts.

In the South African context, where the vast majority of the population has had no previous exposure to tourism, support and coaching aimed at assisting communities to empower themselves with the skills needed to take decisions pertaining to tourism is imperative. As Sharpley (2000) argues, the future of tourism will be largely dependent on the adoption of the principles of community empowerment and participatory development planning. This is undoubtedly true of tourism development in black townships in South Africa.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1   INTRODUCTION

Chapter 7 provides an overall review of the research aim, objectives, findings, conclusions, and recommendations of this study. The emphasis of this chapter, however, is on meeting the final objective of the study, namely to formulate principles and guidelines and recommend approaches that can be applied to the development of sustainable township tourism in South Africa, so as to create the basis necessary for good practice for any community cultural tourism project. Chapter 7 begins by summarising the background to the research, and the research purpose, methodology and findings. The researcher goes on to make explicit the contribution of this study to the discipline of tourism management in South Africa and internationally. Suggestions are made for future research based on the theme of this study. The author then discusses the challenge of responsibly managing sustainable township tourism, using a community approach, in South Africa. The chapter concludes with key recommendations for township tourism development and planning in South Africa.

7.2   REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In a concluding chapter it is important to review the aim and objectives set for the study to ensure that they have been achieved. The aim of this study was stated as being to investigate the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in Soweto as perceived by the host population and to examine the extent to which these coincide with the classifications in the literature. It was envisaged that results from the study might provide the basis for formulating responsible principles or guidelines to shape appropriate policies and measures intended to prevent negative tourism impacts and reinforce positive ones. See table 7.1.

To give effect to the stated aim of the study, the following eight objectives were achieved in the seven chapters of this thesis:

RESEARCH OBJECTIVE	CHAPTER REFERENCE
To profile Soweto's background (history, its people, lifestyle, culture, religion and tourism potential).	Chapter 2
To provide a theoretical basis and framework for assessing host community's perceptions of socio-cultural impacts of township tourism according to social exchange theory.	Chapter 3
To review suitable tourism development strategies and approaches for tourism planners, managers and communities, to manage the effects of township tourism on destination communities.	Chapter 4
To use key socio- cultural impact variables and concepts identified in the literature review to develop appropriate research methodology and instruments that will direct and inform the research process.	Chapter 5
To develop a multiple-item attitudinal scale for measuring resident perceptions toward township tourism, and to assess the effects of selected "independent" variables identified from the literature on resident perceptions toward township tourism development.	Chapter 5
To evaluate and interpret main trends or patterns of the perceived socio-cultural impacts (results) found in the literature and the study itself.	Chapter 3 and 6
To profile the intricate relationship of resident's perceptions and tourism impacts by measuring the stage of tourism development in a host community i.e. relating resident perception research to a corresponding stage of township tourism development in Soweto.	Chapter 6 and 7
To formulate principle guidelines and recommend approaches that can be applied to the development of sustainable township tourism in South Africa, so as to create the basis necessary for good practice for any community cultural tourism project.	Chapter 7

Table 7.1   REVIEW OF RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

7.3   COMPREHENSIVE SUMMARY OF THE RESEARCH AND MAIN FINDINGS

For tourism to thrive in an area it needs the support of the residents of the area (Ap, 1992; King *et al.*, 1993; Krippendorf, 2001). Over the past few decades, tourism has come to be viewed as the key to economic development. However, there is the possibility of negative impacts of tourism development outweighing the economic benefits. If a host community perceives the total effects to be negative, their level of support is likely to diminish. Residents' positive attitudes toward tourism development are thus critical to sustaining the growth of community tourism businesses.

In the past, tourism leaders have strongly denied the negative impacts that the industry can bring about in host communities (Hall, 2000; Ratz, 2003). This denial has been based on the belief that if such an admission were made, tourism would lose vital support from residents, employees, and politicians. The present study suggests that industry stakeholders are aware of the negative impacts of tourism, and that support for tourism is not based on the belief that it has only positive impacts on host communities. In light of these findings, it would be wise for private and public sector tourism managers, planners and developers to admit candidly that the industry can cause negative impacts. Such an admission should allow industry members to work side by side with other concerned citizens to minimise the negative impacts.

Little attention seems to have been paid to what local people in tourism communities in South Africa feel, think and want. How else can one explain the fact that there is so little information about how locals perceive tourism developments in their communities? Research documents and other publications focus almost exclusively on the interest of the industry itself (Mason, 2003). Tourists are the market, and the studies that have been conducted thus far are market research studies, commissioned and financed by the travel industry, and providing clear insight into why people travel. The aim of this study, by contrast, was to profile township tourism in Soweto and to examine the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in Soweto as perceived by the host community. Results from the study provide the basis for formulating responsible principles and guidelines

that can be applied to appropriate policies and measures geared towards preventing negative impacts and reinforcing positive ones. To achieve this aim a research instrument was developed to determine the dimensions explaining Soweto residents' perceptions of township tourism development and whether there are any differences in perceptions of tourism development among Soweto residents with different demographic traits.

Understanding local reaction and the factors that influence residents' perceptions is essential to achieving the goal of support for tourism development (Allen *et al.*, 1993; King *et al.*, 1993; Fredline & Faulkner, 2000). Support for tourism development is influenced by the perceptions of its costs and benefits and the state of the local economy. It has been suggested that these perceptions are influenced by the concern residents have for their community, their emotional attachment to their community, the degree to which they are culturally sensitive, and the extent to which they use the same resource base that tourists use (Dogan, 1989; McCool & Martin, 1994). As already noted, most studies on resident perceptions suggest that the majority of residents support tourism as an economic development strategy. A direct relationship exists between the perceived benefits of tourism and local residents' support for its development (Pizam & Milman, 1986; Ap, 1992; McCool & Martin, 1994).

In selecting a suitable methodology for this study, the benefits and shortcomings of various methodologies were considered and a decision taken to employ methodological triangulation, which combines elements of both qualitative and quantitative techniques, making a convergence of results possible. In-depth semi-structured personal interviews, participant observation and a Likert scale questionnaire were used to assess residents' perceptions of township tourism development in Soweto. A sample of 350 respondents represented the host community (residents) of Soweto. On the basis of the literature review 57 socio-cultural impact variables were selected and used to formulate item statements designed to determine respondents' perceptions of township tourism in Soweto. A five-point Likert scale was used to measure the levels of agreement and disagreement with each statement, with 1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree. This

scale was selected as reflecting a better conceptual framework with regard to perceived tourism impact. Content validity of the scale was first secured through a pre-test and evaluation by Unisa staff members and students resident in Soweto.

Descriptive statistics enabled the researcher to describe trends and key socio-cultural impacts in the data and also to determine whether any relationships existed between variables. The scale was later purified and further refined into more distinct constructs using factor analysis and item analysis to provide a better interpretation of resident perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism. The three factors extrapolated through factor analysis are socio-economic, cultural and physical, and participation in benefits. The researcher ensured scale validity by means of an extensive review of previous research and used Chronbach's reliability and item analysis tests to stabilise the scale. For the alpha reliability coefficients, a factor with a value lower than 0,6 was not considered a valid dimension in explaining the socio-cultural impact of township tourism development. The study revealed the alpha values of the three attitude domains to be 0,933, 0,870 and 0,695 respectively. Items with a loading value below 0,3 were excluded from the analysis. The acceptable items correlating with more than one dimension were also deleted from the analysis. The factor analyses and item analysis confirmed the dimensional distinctiveness of the instrument and its dimensional stability. The instrument proved to have acceptable levels of internal consistency and relatively high convergent validity.

Finally a series of ANOVA procedures was performed to test for any significant differences in the underlying dimensions among respondents with different demographic characteristics. In the ANOVA procedure, the three factors emerging from the factor analysis were the dependent variables, and the demographic variables of income from tourism, gender and length of residence were the independent variables. It was possible to make assessments of community support by understanding residents' characteristics such as age, acquired educational levels, previous employment in the tourism industry, length of stay in Soweto and whether they derived income from tourism-related jobs, and by linking these to negative or positive perceptions of tourism.

Social exchange theory provided the theoretical background for this study. In the tourism context Ap (1992) incorporates social exchange theory into a conceptual framework using the social exchange processing model as a theoretical basis to assist scholars in understanding why residents have positive and negative perceptions of tourism. Social exchange theory articulates that residents will be inclined to exchange their resources with tourists if they can acquire benefits without incurring unacceptable costs. This theory articulates further that those who perceive the benefits of tourism to be greater than the costs may be more amenable to participating in the exchange and giving full-fledged support for tourism development — other words, if residents perceive themselves as receiving more benefits through the exchange process, they will tend to more loyally support their community tourism business.

It was found that the Soweto community's perceptions of township tourism and tourists fluctuate continuously between the negative and the positive. Findings revealed that the host community's support for township tourism was affected by three factors: socio-economic, cultural and physical, and participation in benefits. One of the most important theoretical contributions of this study is the confirmation by the findings of the usefulness of exchange theory principles in explaining residents' perceptions of tourism. The factors thought to directly influence support for tourism actually influence the perceptions of its costs and benefits. Perceptions and expectations of township tourism in Soweto can therefore be very different depending on which group of residents is being considered. Those respondents in continuous contact with tourists and who depend on tourism viewed tourism favourably, and those who have no contact with tourists or see them only in passing exhibited a range of attitudes.

Respondents demonstrated a predominantly positive attitude towards a number of socio-cultural impacts and agreed strongly that township tourism in Soweto is dismantling the stereotypical perceptions of townships as dangerous and a haven for criminals and hijackers; increases the development of recreational facilities and amenities for residents; has increased their awareness of tourism and hospitality and the need to maintain and

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improve the appearance of the area; has fostered a renewed interest in local art, craft and traditions; has instilled a sense of pride in locals concerning their heritage and culture; broadens their knowledge about international tourism, foreign places and people due to the cross-cultural exchange of learning taking place, and leads to the conservation of cultural practices and political landmarks.

Appreciation was shown for the employment benefits generated by tourism, which has resulted in a greater demand for female labour and offered new career opportunities in tourism by creating opportunities for locals to enter the industry as tour guides, tour operators and entrepreneurs.   Respondents further believed that the creation of employment through tourism holds a great promise for Soweto's economic future.
Whilst township residents demonstrated a predominantly positive attitude towards tourists and township tourism, they were also able to point out some specific socio-cultural costs. Not all residents were of the opinion that tourism had a positive influence on local culture. Older respondents in particular voiced the concern that traditional African culture was being commercialised and claimed that certain locals sell or trivialise their culture to make a profit.

Residents argued that certain tourists and tour operators do not show acceptable standards of behaviour, and cited intrusion as a significant problem. Some residents expressed concern about the escalation of crime in tourism hubs. Residents further cited inadequate consultation about township tourism development and planning as a negative aspect. Moreover, the benefits of township tourism appeared to accrue to only a small elite within the Soweto community. Respondents were in strong agreement that township tourism benefits only a small minority of Soweto residents, with those with the most power, education and language skills or those who happen to live in the right place being most likely to get new jobs, set up enterprises, make deals with outsiders, or control collective income earned by the community. Increasing disparities in income can exacerbate conflicts within a community and has led to resentment between local people who have started tourism businesses and those who have not, and antipathy between residents not benefiting from tourism and tourists.

A broad conclusion drawn from this study is that township residents who benefit economically from township tourism are supportive of it, and this support is associated with a belief that township tourism causes mostly positive benefits. As a corollary, those without a commercial interest in township tourism tend to regard its impacts in a negative light. In keeping with this argument, Soweto residents who expressed the view that township tourism attracts organised crime and causes traffic congestion, for example, would almost automatically be opposed to tourism.

The identification of Soweto as a tourism destination has undoubtedly affected the quality of life of local residents. Effects of township tourism include an increased number of people, increased use of roads, and various economic and employment-based effects. Because Soweto is in the early stages of its life cycle as a tourism destination, Soweto residents seem to do and accept everything that is demanded by outsiders, ranging from the tourist trade and tourism promoters to their own government and entrepreneurs. They believe the promises when they are told that tourism is their big chance, and that it is of vital importance for the region, and, indeed, for the whole country. Yet no-one has taken the trouble of asking Soweto residents whether township tourism clashes with their own values and ideas. No-one mentions the negative socio-cultural aspects. Tourism development in Soweto appears to take place over the heads of the majority of residents, and few Soweto residents participate in tourism development as equal partners with tourism developers. Sadly, once township tourism takes hold of Soweto completely the locals will begin to realise what they have let themselves in for. As the literature reveals, in such circumstances disillusionment and more realistic attitudes tend to replace the initial euphoria. By then it is usually too late and the locals soon lose control over their own destiny.

While success in this industry depends upon attractions and services, it requires the hospitality of local residents. If the tensions as mentioned by the respondents in this study are not adequately addressed, and the host community gradually reaches the stage of antagonism as identified in Doxey's Irridex model, tourists to Soweto will cease to be perceived by residents as individuals on holiday who may be talked to or who may be

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interesting. Instead, tourists will be seen simply as unidentifiable components within the mass. In a sense they will then be dehumanised, and as such become fair game for anyone who wishes to cheat, ridicule or even rob them. The hosts' anger, antipathy or mistrust will ultimately be conveyed to the tourists, and is likely to make them reluctant to visit places where they feel unwelcome.

7.4   CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY TO THE DISCIPLINE OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT

This study has contributed to the discipline of tourism management in generating a new body of knowledge by profiling the emergence and development of township tourism in South Africa as a form of special-interest tourism. The most important contribution of this study lies in the development of a research instrument that demonstrates the effect of various factors on resident perceptions of the impacts of township tourism in Soweto. This research instrument may now be used to monitor elements of socio-cultural tourism sustainability in township tourism research in any of the nine provinces in South Africa. The development of an assessment instrument to measure perceived impacts was intended to facilitate a monitoring process to assist communities in sustaining tourism at a level at which both visitors and residents perceive net benefits to accrue. The researcher believes that the impact assessment instrument developed for this study thus constitutes a useful measurement tool for use by South African tourism managers and planners, with the scale possibly becoming a standardised instrument for use in township tourism research. Further testing of resident perceptions in different townships using this instrument will provide a more comprehensive basis for the comparative study of the nature and changing dynamics of resident perceptions of the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in South Africa.

Local responses were found to be diverse and moulded largely by perceptions of how township tourism personally influenced the lives of respondents and their community. Those who felt economically dependent on it held a generally favourable view of tourism and its impacts, while those who were not tourism-dependent expressed generally antagonistic views. These findings lend credence to previous findings in the literature

that indicate that those who receive direct benefits from tourism are less likely to attribute negative social and environmental consequences to it and hold more positive attitudes towards its expanded development. Therefore, the extent to which Soweto residents accept or reject changes attributable to township tourism depends in large measure on their perceptions of how it affects their personal welfare and lifestyle.

This research is further of value to city planners and provincial authorities whose efforts are directed at developing and promoting township tourism The results of the study have produced several warning indicators that can be used to identify those areas needing intervention as a result of the influences exerted by tourism. The more attentive tourism leaders are to the concerns of township residents, the more support they are likely to receive for community development efforts. Tourism promoters and public officials must recognise township impacts and introduce comprehensive measures to manage township tourism initiatives, preserve culture, and establish opportunities for public involvement.

An evaluation of the growing significance of township tourism in South Africa will increase the effectiveness with which cultural tourism and products are responsibly and sustainable managed and promoted. The responsible management guidelines derived from this and future studies will inform local decision-makers in government, the private sector, and the tourism industry of the potential and importance of sustainable township tourism. We will need to understand these matters if we are to create sustainable cultural tourism products that bring real benefits to local communities.

7.5   SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Much of the literature accepts that tourism host communities are homogeneous; the findings of this study, however, demonstrate that township communities are in fact heterogeneous. The present study revealed the host community to be made up of elites and the rest of the population; those involved in tourism and those not involved; property owners and renters; young and old people; employers, employees, and the self-employed; those with private cars and those relying on public transport; affluent and less well-off residents. The heterogeneity of township communities must therefore be acknowledged

in tourism planning and management, and the importance of different interest groups and vested interests needs to be recognised. The acceptance of the notion of heterogeneity brings with it the realisation that the planning and management of township tourism is a more complex and even more necessary task than at first thought.

Further recommendations for future studies would include the introduction of hypothesis testing, perhaps to prove that age and education are a good determinant of Soweto residents' attitudes toward tourism. Would younger Soweto residents perhaps respond more favourably to township tourism activity than older residents? Soweto residents' educational levels could further be tested against their awareness of the negative aspects of township tourism. Do Soweto residents with higher educational levels have a stronger awareness of the negative aspects of tourism? The measurement of educational levels of township residents in a destination area could be used as an effective tool, as in this case there was a differentiation between groups.

The present study focused exclusively on the perspectives of the host community in Soweto. However, the impacts of tourism are also a factor of township tourist attitudes and expectations, and this, too, is an area that deserves further investigation. It is generally assumed that township tourists constitute homogeneous groupings, united by virtue of their being tourists and engaging in tourist behaviour. To the host community, they appear homogeneous by reason of their status as outsiders and strangers. However the collective term 'township tourists' conceals a number of social and cultural distinctions. Township tourists' perceptions and expectations represent an important part of the tourism product.   The rapid development of township tourism and its internationalisation calls for more studies on tourist behaviour in a cross-cultural environment. Since the cultural background of the majority of international township tourists differs vastly from that of their hosts, the influence of culture on the interpersonal contact between tourists and hosts requires analysis. What do international township tourists perceive as most important in social contact with hosts? How do they relate to and perceive the Soweto community, which differs culturally from themselves? Do they want to interact with the Soweto hosts? Are there any obstacles to their interaction?

7.6 THE CHALLENGE OF MANAGING RESPONSIBLE TOWNSHIP TOURISM IN SOWETO: TOWARDS A COMMUNITY APPROACH

Mason (2003) points out that tourism management is concerned with ways of managing tourism resources, tourist interaction with physical resources and tourist interaction with residents of tourist areas. The focus of tourism management is thus primarily on tourism impacts in tourism destinations. It is in such areas that the supply side of tourism (physical resources, built environment and resident population) interacts with the demand side (often referred to as the market side, but made up of tourists, travel agents, tour operators, tourist boards and tourism developers). It is this aspect of tourism management, namely the management of tourism impacts, rather than the management of people in tourism businesses, with which the present study has been concerned.

To a great extent, it is possible to say that tourism management is what tourism planners are, or should be, engaged in. Many publications and much research in the last decade of the twentieth century focusing on tourism planning and management were concerned with issues relating to planning, management and sustainability (Weaver & Opperman, 2000; Weaver & Lawton, 2002; Mason, 2003). During that time, the concept of sustainable tourism changed (Bramwell *et al.*, 1996; Swarbrooke, 1999). Depending on the author, the target audience and the context in which statements have been made, emphasis has come to be placed on environmental factors, social factors or economic factors. There is therefore now a significant body of literature on sustainable tourism, but much of this is theoretical and there is often a large gap between theory and practice (Bramwell & Lane, 2000).

If we accept that township tourism in South Africa is going to increase, then we face the challenge of finding the balance between consumption and conservation; in other words, the challenge of achieving sustainable township tourism. The present study reveals that township tourism has become a complex phenomenon of unprecedented proportions, which can constitute either an opportunity or a threat with regard to culture, depending on how tourism is managed. Planning and managing township tourism requires that a number of issues be dealt with. For those involved in the preservation of culture, the

challenge lies in understanding and working effectively with the tourism industry. For those in the tourism sector, there is a need to understand the needs of host communities as well as the principles and concerns that are a part of cultural heritage preservation (McKercher & Du Cros, 2002). Township tourism as a phenomenon is not about to disappear, and poorly managed township destinations will have a negative effect on both local communities and the tourism industry if cultural resources and values are degraded. The challenge is not to stop township tourism, but rather for stakeholders to work together in achieving sustainable planning and responsible management.

Responsible township tourism development presents many challenges, and policy-makers and communities will have to meet these challenges if they are to achieve comprehensive and sustainable township tourism development (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Bramwell & Lane, 2000). Tourism development is dependent on destination area resources and the goodwill of the communities involved. In utilising cultural and natural resources, the tourism industry has a responsibility towards the community in that these resources are being exposed and sold as by-products; these actions affect the lives of everyone involved in such activities (Mann, 2000; Smith, 2003). It is therefore important that at the local level, township tourism planning should be based on the development goals, priorities, participation and capacities as identified by, and to the mutual benefit of, its residents (Mann, 2000). Community-based planning is a local area planning approach that involves full participation by the local community, drawing on local skills and expertise, and providing for empowerment of the local community through the development and implementation of the resultant plan (Mann, 2000; Singh *et al.*, 2003). This is essentially a bottom-up approach to planning, the objective of which is to build effective communities where residents or neighbouring communities have a high quality of life, and contribute to community well-being and cultural development.

Community-based tourism is viewed as a more responsible approach to development than traditional mass tourism, as it allows host communities to free themselves from the hegemonic grasp of outside tour operators and powerful leaders at national level (Pearce *et al*., 1996; Scheyvens, 2002). Scheyvens (2002) describes empowerment in community

tourism as being a blend of economic, psychological, social and political empowerment, and argues that economic empowerment allows residents and entire communities to benefit financially from tourism. Psychological empowerment is vital for developing self-esteem and pride in local cultures, traditional knowledge and natural resources. Social empowerment assists in maintaining a community's social equilibrium, and has the power to lead to co-operation in important areas such as education and health care. Finally, political empowerment is best manifested in representational democracy where people can make their opinions known and raise concerns about development initiatives.

With the incorporation of these ingredients of empowerment into community-based tourism, Soweto will be able to progress towards status as a community with public participation in decision-making and local involvement in the benefits of tourism. Participation in decision-making means that residents will have opportunities to voice their own hopes, desires and fears for development and contribute to the planning process from their own expertise and experiences, thereby making a meaningful contribution to the organisation and administration of tourism (Krippendorf, 2001; Mann, 2000). While relatively few residents of developing countries have experience as tourists, their familiarity with local socio-cultural and environmental conditions is a most valuable resource.

The development of a community-based plan provides the opportunity to include strategies that empower local communities, making them better able to provide for their own needs. This can contribute to a more effective community, by strengthening local capacity for action. Based on a review of the work of Haywood (1988), Murphy (1988), Inskeep (1991), Prentice (1993), Bramwell *et al*. (1996), Pearce *et al*. (1996), Timothy (1998), Mann (2000), Richards and Hall (2000), Tosun (2000), Scheyvens (2002), Boyd and Singh (2003), the findings of this study, the characteristics of an empowerment model and tools for applying planning processes to Soweto tourism set out below are put forward.

An empowerment model for Soweto township tourism planning:

- ? recognises that local Sowetans are well placed to know what they need
- ? recognises that values and priorities vary from place to place
- ? strategically places resources to maximise access by local people
- ? gives local people resources to meet their own needs
- ? gives local communities control over resources
- ? develops the management skills of the local community

The Soweto township tourism planning model should not be pursued in isolation from other levels of planning. It is desirable that provincial and national planning initiatives be integrated and interpreted at the local level to ensure that the planning framework is consistent with committed government directions.

Steps in the application of tourism planning processes for Soweto

- ? Gauteng Tourism Authority (GTA), Johannesburg Tourism, Soweto Tourism Association and community leaders should identify a programme for township tourism planning that reflects strategic planning priorities at the regional level.
- ? Various stakeholder groups within the local community should be identified and asked to nominate representatives to serve on a steering committee.
- ? The appropriate external agencies should be engaged in the planning process.
- ? Agencies should be informed about local planning initiatives and invited to participate; they should receive relevant information that will assist with the development of the plan.
- ? Appropriate use should be made of the expertise of individuals and groups in the township and consensus achieved on the criteria for assessing local township needs and aspirations.
- ? Residents should be employed for data collection, and local expertise and familiarity should be drawn on as a resource, at the same time ensuring that confidentiality of information will be respected.
- ? Opportunities must be provided for the community to receive feedback and to contribute to the interpretation of results.

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? The appropriate catchments for township-based tourism planning need to be identified. Design of the local service catchments needs to relate to social identity, patterns of social interaction, and community interest.

? Clear options for decision-making should be canvassed through community consultation, and local residents should be involved in the consultation process.

? Client groups should be involved in decisions about resources and locations as a way of maximising local access by different sections of the community.

? Once the plan has been put in place, it must be regularly reviewed; it is essential that plans remain living documents, not fixed in time.

? Agencies prepared to support a local area planning process by contributing to the development of strategies and providing resources for implementation must be identified.

? These key agencies should be invited to serve on the steering committee.

? The way in which the roles and responsibilities of agencies should be integrated so as best to achieve local objectives must be defined. Agencies should be debriefed when the strategies are in draft form, and asked to assist in developing integrated implementation proposals.

Measures to control tourism impacts in Soweto

In the impact process, the use of indicators is essential if communities are to be in a position to assess how well plans are meeting their objectives (Inskeep, 1991; McKercher & Du Cros, 2002). If the Soweto community is to develop plans and policies that will meet their needs and respect their tangible and intangible heritage, they must begin to measure the potential impacts of township tourism.

From the results of the present study and literature on community-based tourism, the researcher suggests the following measures to control tourism impacts in Soweto (Pearce *et al*., 1986; Haywood, 1988; Murphy, 1988; Inskeep, 1991; Prentice, 1993; Bramwell *et al.*, 1996; Timothy, 1998; Mann, 2000; Richards & Hall, 2000; Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002; Boyd & Singh, 2003):

? Township residents should be involved in the planning and development process of township tourism so that they are able to influence decision-making and feel that they are part of tourism.

? Suitable forms of township tourism must be selected that are compatible with the local societies. Moreover, selective marketing will make it possible to attract the type of township tourists who will respect the local social customs and cultural traditions.

? The introduction of a policy that is specific to township tourism as a means of achieving cultural conservation will contribute significantly to reducing negative impacts on the local culture.

? The authenticity of local dance, drama, dress, art and crafts in townships should be maintained, even though these may be to some extent adapted for presentation to tourists. However, certain traditional ceremonies and rituals should not be modified for tourism, and tourists viewing them should be controlled.

? Township tourists should be informed about local society and customs, dress codes and acceptable behaviour in religious and other places, courtesies to observe in taking photographs, tipping policies, and any local problem such as crime. If township tourists understand these matters, they are likely to demonstrate increased sensitivity.

? Employees should be trained to work with township tourists effectively; training should include language and socio-cultural sensitivity training where needed. In addition to providing better services, this will reduce any possible misunderstanding between tourists and employees.

7.7 GUIDELINES AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR RESPONSIBLE TOWNSHIP TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

The tourism industry in post-apartheid South Africa has placed the responsibility for constructing, packaging and transmitting images and representations of the 'new' South African society and its past in the hands of a limited number of stakeholders within the public and private sector. The alienation and exclusion of black people from mainstream

tourism both in the past and currently has meant that most township residents have lacked control over the way in which their diverse cultures are portrayed. While the tourism industry has been recognised both locally and internationally as a substantial and attractive source of economic benefits, problems such as those relating to the representation of and participation by the township community experienced by Soweto residents have been identified.

If township tourism is to be encouraged as a new basis for cultural tourism development, the active collaboration of local cultures is required. The literature is clear on the fact that collaboration should address issues such as the redistribution of tourism revenue and the need to involve host cultures in ownership and management roles in the community. Unfortunately the reality for most communities is that outside forces usually determine the speed and direction of tourism development, and local people are seldom consulted. False expectations are often raised among the people when they are promised that the arrival of tourists will bring new wealth to the community. They soon discover that the real economic gain from tourism goes to the organisers and entrepreneurs.

Non-governmental organisations, governments and private initiatives therefore need to work more closely with the townships to develop sustainable cultural tourism that will benefit the community as a whole, and not just the handful of residents who live around tourism hubs or political landmarks. Empowering the locals and giving them the means to develop their culture in their own way must be seen as the key to solving the township tourism problem. It should be up to the local people to decide the limits of tourism. In general it can be said that the more the local community is able to participate in the decisions affecting their own tourist development, the less they will be socially affected by the rapid changes.

While the challenge of transformation in South Africa is being recognised, there are a number of key recommendations that should form the foundation of any socially responsible approach to township tourism development. These include the following:

? Emphasis should be placed on societal marketing that takes into account the acceptance of the township images used in tourism promotion by township residents. The voice of Soweto residents, for instance, can only be heard in tourism marketing by involving selected community representatives in vetting the images of their township that are being circulated externally. From a marketing perspective, exploiting township stereotypes may boost township tourism growth, but one should question the long-term implications of such campaigns, which may reinforce misunderstandings and work against the interests of the township residents (Smith, 2003). In addition, township residents may find such stereotyping of their culture offensive. The avoidance of images that may have a negative influence on the host community's way of life, such as overtly romanticised, sanitised and static images, may contribute to the creation of sustainable township tourism ventures.

? The research skills of locals in the townships should be developed so as to make possible the evaluation and monitoring of the effectiveness and use of facilities and services, the determination of market reactions, and the assessment of community responses and attitudes (Mason, 2003). This recommendation is based on the view that efforts aimed at making township tourism more sustainable are more likely to be successful if they are based on sound research.

? For Soweto residents and most township communities in the rest of South Africa, the tourism public sector will need to lead the way in host community education and participation in township tourism. Education, awareness and capacity building are key to achieving sustainable township tourism (Harris *et al*., 2002). The incentive to conduct such training programmes or broad community education initiatives resides in the need to maintain community support for township tourism and to minimise the negative impacts of social contact associated with tourism on the township residents.

? The establishment of effective township tourism awareness and education programmes and the implementation of capacity building programmes amongst the

historically disadvantaged will empower Soweto residents to take ownership of tourism activities in their townships for their own benefit.

?   To ensure both economic and cultural benefits for community members, planners and township tourism providers should create an atmosphere in which township residents can actively participate in caring for and protecting their cultural heritage, as well as an arena in which to share their accomplishments with others (Krippendorf, 2001). In this way Soweto residents will be able to uphold and care for their culture, and benefit more than in purely economic terms.

?   The qualitative research component of this study has shown that current entrepreneurial activities in the township are limited. For the most part, township residents are working in isolation, with limited outside guidance, and in an impoverished environment in which access to new ideas, information, knowledge, training, technology and even the printed word is severely limited. One should look at empowering township communities on a larger scale through establishing linkages with other businesses (Scheyvens, 2002). Examples of these can include, catering companies, banks, bookshops, linen and upholstery outlets catering for guesthouses and travel agencies were tours can also be booked. The potential entrepreneurs will gain skills in running a business and thus become more self-sufficient (Boyd & Singh, 2003). Capacity building within township communities is therefore a key issue.

?   Ownership of township tourist facilities should be encouraged in order to ensure that more profits are retained locally. Township tourism projects should as far as possible be locally owned. Partnerships with small businesses in the region should be developed. The benefits derived from township tourism should be shared with the local community, and the local community should have access to resources for township tourism development (Tosun, 2000).

?   Strengthening the linkages between township tourism and other economic sectors provides more local employment and income from tourism (Reed, 1997). Township

tourism projects should be integrated with other economic activities in the region and the projects should contribute to the development of new local businesses.

? While the cultural nuances are to respected, township tourism developments and activities should be planned so as to provide equal opportunities to both men and women (Robinson & Boniface, 1998).

? All options for township tourism development must serve effectively to improve the quality of life of township residents, and must entail a positive effect and inter-relation with regard to socio-cultural identity (Richards & Hall, 2000).

? Stakeholders in township tourism development must consider its effects on cultural heritage and traditional elements, activities and dynamics of each local community (Rojek & Urry, 1997; McKercher & Du Cros, 2002). Respect for social and cultural traditions, practices, laws and customs of indigenous and local township communities and support for their identity and interest must at all times remain central to the formulation of tourism strategies and plans.

? The following should be monitored (World Tourism Organization, 2000):
- Implementation of approved township developments and compliance with conditions
- Township visitor satisfaction levels and the socio-cultural and environmental impacts on the attractions
- Attitudes toward township tourism and perceptions of its impact on community life
- The maintenance of quality and authenticity of handicrafts and products made in townships; this could be achieved through the setting of minimum standards

? A suitable environment for township and cultural attractions must be created, including facilities and amenities to accommodate tourists and facilities for use by the local community, which will enable them to revive cultural components. In addition,

special events could be sponsored by the government to focus attention on cultural attributes, thereby reviving interest in such attractions amongst local township communities (Harris *et al.*, 2002).

? Effective responsible management of cultural and heritage attractions depends on the existence of a close working relationship between government and township communities (Mann, 2000; Weaver & Lawton, 2002). This requires trust, sharing and mutual respect at the level of the township community. This kind of effective working relationship requires a great deal of time and effort at the level of the township community concerned.

? Since domestic and international tourism is one of the foremost vehicles for cultural exchange, conservation should provide opportunities for members of the host community and township visitors to experience and understand the community's culture and heritage at first hand. Individual aspects of the cultural heritage have differing levels of significance, some having universal value, and others having national, regional or local importance (Smith, 2003). Interpretation programmes should present the significance of the cultural heritage in a relevant and accessible manner to the host community and the visitor, drawing on appropriate, stimulating and contemporary forms of education, media, technology and personal explanation of historical, environmental and cultural information (Keyser, 2002; Mason, 2003; Reisinger & Turner, 2003).

? The retention of the authenticity of certain places is important. It is an essential element of their cultural significance, as expressed in the physical material, collected memory and intangible traditions that remain from the past (Cohen, 1988). Programmes should present and interpret the authenticity of places and cultural experiences so as to enhance the appreciation and understanding of that cultural heritage.

? Before further township tourism is heavily promoted or developed for increased tourism, management plans should establish appropriate limits of acceptable change, particularly in relation to the impact of township visitor numbers on the integrity, ecology and biodiversity of the site, access and transportation systems and the social, economic and cultural well-being of the host community (Inskeep, 1991; Swarbrooke, 1999).

? Comprehensive township tourism programmes and high-quality information should optimise township visitors' understanding of the significant characteristics of the cultural heritage and enable them to enjoy the visit in an appropriate manner (Ratz, 2003; Smith, 2003).

? Respect for the sanctity of spiritual places, practices and traditions is an important consideration for township site managers, visitors, policy-makers, planners and tourism operators (Rojek & Urry, 1997; Robinson & Boniface, 1998). Township visitors should be encouraged to behave as welcome guests, respecting the values and lifestyles of the host community, rejecting possible theft of or illicit trade in cultural property and conducting themselves in a manner which would generate a renewed welcome, should they return.

? Host communities in townships and indigenous people should be involved in planning for conservation and tourism. Representatives of the township, property owners and relevant indigenous peoples who may exercise traditional rights or responsibilities over their own significant sites should be involved in the process of establishing strategies, policies and protocols for the identification, conservation, management, presentation and interpretation of their cultural heritage resources, living traditions and contemporary cultural expressions in the township tourism context (Stebbins, 1997; Timothy, 1998; Smith, 2003).

? The needs and wishes of some township communities or indigenous peoples to restrict or manage physical, spiritual or intellectual access to certain traditions,

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beliefs, activities, artefacts or sites should be respected. All relevant stakeholders in the township should be identified and included in the process.

? Township tourism programmes should encourage the training of site interpreters from the host community as a way of enhancing the skills of local people in the presentation and interpretation of their cultural values.

? Cultural interpretation and education programmes among the residents of the townships should engender a knowledge of and respect for their cultural heritage, encouraging them to take a direct interest in safeguarding their heritage assets.

? Township tourism promotion programmes should provide a wider distribution of benefits and relieve the pressures on more popular places by encouraging township visitors to experience the wider cultural, heritage and natural characteristics of the region or locality (Swarbrooke, 1999).

? It is apparent that successful and responsible township tourism planning requires the involvement and participation of the residents of the destination areas. If township residents are to participate in a meaningful way in the early stages of the planning process, they require certain types of information. More information should be provided on the expected impact of the project on community projects (Mason, 2003; Reisinger & Turner, 2003). This information can be provided in the form of a newsletter or brochure to be distributed to all township residents.

? The host population should be informed about towns hip tourists and the problems associated with township tourism. If the host population receives comprehensive information about township tourists and township tourism, many misunderstandings could be eliminated, feelings of aggression averted, more sympathetic attitudes developed and a better basis for hospitality and contact with township tourists created (Prentice, 1993; Richards & Hall, 2000; Harris *et al.*, 2002). Information should aim at introducing the host population to the tourists' background, their country, their

daily life (such as working and housing conditions), their reasons for travelling and their behaviour patterns.

? Using the national education system to develop a stronger, more overt sense of pride in township culture and heritage, a training scheme for national guides should be introduced as a way of reducing youth unemployment and enhancing the township tourism experience. There is currently a great deal of scope for guides at key cultural sites. Although interviews conducted during the course of this study indicated that residents do have pride in their culture and would like tourists or to be more interested, tourism managers need to ensure that residents do not see culture as 'belonging' only to the international tourist sector. The question of 'ownership' of culture is critical.

The recommendations and principles for a way forward need to be debated thoroughly and resolved by interested and affected communities, each considering their local situation, before anything can be implemented at national level. Best practice frameworks, norms, standards and guidelines are essential if South Africa is to manage the impacts of township tourism on our cultural environment responsibly.

Even though South Africa is currently celebrating a decade of democracy, South African society continues to face enormous social, cultural and economic challenges in its attempts to confront the legacies of previous generations. For cultural tourism, this challenge lies not only in product development, but also in the issues relating to the impact of culture that are central to development, education, training, marketing and management. Cultural tourism presents a very good opportunity to generate economic growth and development that can be sustainable in the long term. For the previously marginalised groups this constitutes a much yearned for injection of development infrastructure and brings the hope of real economic development, job creation, education and training.

7.8   SUMMARY

Tourism that focuses predominantly on the cultural features of a country is more likely to involve a greater degree of tourist-resident interaction, and resident satisfaction with tourism development policy is critical to the success of new developments. In the past few decades, tourism has been seen as the key to economic development. However, tourism development cannot be said to be successful if the negative impacts outweigh the economic benefits. If a host community perceives the total effects to be negative, the level of support from the host community is likely to diminish. Therefore residents' positive attitudes toward tourism development are critical to sustaining the growth of community tourism businesses.

As a consumer of resources, township tourism has the ability to over-consume cultural and social resources, leading to negative impacts on societies and culture. Numbers alone, however, do not determine socio-cultural impact; other factors to consider include type of contact, visitor and destination characteristics, and local perceptions about the importance of township tourism. It must be realised that township tourism per se does not necessarily lead to negative impacts and conflict between tourists and host communities; negative effects are caused by inadequate management of township tourism. Impacts are related to the management of township tourists and their behaviour, and the level of integration with local communities.

Township tourism gives rise to a range of both positive and negative socio-cultural impacts, and the process of assessing and measuring them is not a straightforward one. As local communities are not homogeneous, socio-cultural impacts are perceived differently by different individuals. The present study revealed that the host community of Soweto, like many others, is made up of groups and individuals with mixed views regarding the perceived impacts of tourism.

This chapter focused on ways in which destination planners and managers can reduce the harmful effects of township tourism on host communities. Many of these strategies have at their core the central principle of communication and information provision.

Township tourists need information to enable them to behave in a responsible and sensitive way, both before they depart for their destination and at the destination itself. The tourism industry has the responsibility to provide township tourists with accurate information about local cultures and appropriate behaviour. Host communities need to understand why township tourism is important, how tourism works, its benefits and costs, and how they can participate. Important questions to be asked regarding township tourism in South Africa are: "Who should control township tourism?" and "What should be controlled?"

Resident perceptions are undoubtedly a key component in the identification, measurement and analysis of township tourism impacts. However, investigation of community perceptions of township tourism is not just an academic exercise. These perceptions are also important in terms of the determination of local policy, planning and responsible management responses to township tourism development and in establishing the extent to which public support exists for township tourism.

Cultural diversity and authenticity are central aspects to the township tourism experience. Township tourism requires a higher level of community involvement than most other forms of tourism and offers greater opportunities for local communities. Supporting services and products can be equally rewarding and add local flavour to the experience through the showcasing of local goods and customs. Support for the revival and maintenance of traditional cultural skills and practices, as well as new cultural products, is an integral part of the development of cultural tourism. At the same time, awareness of the various economic, social and cultural opportunities associated with township tourism should be created amongst locals.

Forming the conclusion to the present study, this chapter argued that township tourism ventures that involve local communities through the community tourism approach should be developed through a process of consultation and negotiation, ensuring opportunities for locals to participate in and determine decisions about the nature of their involvement. Prior to any township tourism development, assessment of both future as well as present

needs and expectations of the community should be undertaken. Proper development for township tourism should be informed by both market requirements and societal needs and development objectives.   Socially, environmentally and economically beneficial responsible township tourism development requires achieving a balance between commercial success, the maintenance of cultural integrity and social cohesion, and the maintenance of the physical environment.

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APPENDIX A: LIKERT SCALE INSTRUMENT
QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent

As part of my Ph.D. research at the University of Pretoria, I am conducting a survey that investigates the socio-cultural impacts of township tourism in Soweto. Results of the study will be made available to the Soweto Community, Tourism Managers and Planners, involved in township tourism development. With the assistance of   my fieldworker I will appreciate it if you could complete the following questionnaire. Any information obtained in connection with this study that can be identified with you will remain confidential. In any written reports or publications, no one will be identified and only group data will be presented. You are free to withdraw your participation at any time. If you have any questions about the research, please call Mr Pranill Ramchander (082 330 4053) or E-mail pramchan@tsa.ac.za.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Pranill Ramchander (Researcher)
University of Pretoria, Gauteng

PART A

For statistical purposes only. Place a tick where appropriate.

For office use

1. Respondent number — V1 [ ] 1 to 3

2. Gender : Male [1]   Female [2] — V2 [ ] 4

3. Age (of respondent): _____ — V3 [ ] 5 to 6

4. Acquired educational Level:

   No Schooling [1]   Primary Schooling [2] — V4 [ ] 7

   High School [3]   Technikon/University [4]

5. Is your household income derived in any way from Soweto-based tourism?

Yes [1]   No [2] — V5 [ ] 8

6. Your household's approximate monthly income in Rands

Below 2500 [1]   2500 - 5000 [2] — V6 [ ] 9

5001-7500 [3]   7501-10000 [4]

Above 10000 [5]

7. Years of Residence in Soweto: _____Years — V7 [ ] 10 to 1

PART B

For each of the statements below, please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by placing a tick in the appropriate box.

The response scale is as follows:
1. **Strongly Disagree**
2. **Disagree**
3. **Undecided or Neutral**
4. **Agree**
5. **Strongly Agree**

STATEMENTS CATEGORY: SOCIAL IMPACTS	SCALE	FOR OFFICE USE ONLY
8 Township tourism will encourage an increase in street children along the tourist route	1 2 3 4 5	V8 12
9 The current level of township tourism has significantly improved the standard of living of Soweto residents	1 2 3 4 5	V9 13
10 Family life of local residents has been disrupted by the presence of tourists	1 2 3 4 5	V10 14
11 Community life has become disrupted as a result of the development of tourism in Soweto	1 2 3 4 5	V11 15
12 Local residents view foreign tourists as intruding into their community	1 2 3 4 5	V12 16
13 Residents feel that their safety is affected as more tourists are encouraged to visit Soweto	1 2 3 4 5	V13 17
14 Local people are being exploited because of the growth of township tourism	1 2 3 4 5	V14 18
15 Further growth in Soweto tourism will result in overcrowding of local amenities by toursists	1 2 3 4 5	V15 19
16 An increase in tourists into Soweto will lead to resentment between residents and tourists	1 2 3 4 5	V16 20
17 The Soweto community should take steps to restrict tourism development	1 2 3 4 5	V17 21
18 Local resentment is generated because of the inflated prices for the tourist market	1 2 3 4 5	V18 22
19 Contact with tourists may introduce health risks to the host community	1 2 3 4 5	V19 23
20 Township tourism has resulted in a greater demand for female labour	1 2 3 4 5	V20 24
21 The number of tourists on township tours should increase significantly	1 2 3 4 5	V21 25
22 Township Tourism will gradually result in an increase in municipal rates and taxes	1 2 3 4 5	V22 26

23 Soweto residents have been consulted and made aware of the tourism development plan for township tourism

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V23 | | 27 |

24 The current level of township tourism has significantly improved the local community's hospitality toward strangers

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V24 | | 28 |

25 Local residents oppose the presence of township tourists in the Soweto region

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V25 | | 29 |

26 The benefits of township tourism outweigh the negatives

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V26 | | 30 |

27 Township tourism increases the rate of organised crime in the Soweto community

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V27 | | 31 |

28 Government should restrict further development of township tourism in Soweto

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V28 | | 32 |

29 Township tourism has increased traffic problems in Soweto

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V29 | | 33 |

30 The noise levels caused by township tourism is not appropriate for a residential community

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V30 | | 34 |

31 Tourists taking photographs of local people can cause great offence to locals

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V31 | | 35 |

32 Locals are barred from using tourist facilities in Soweto

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V32 | | 36 |

33 Tourists who are seen to be wealthier than the majority of the residential population are more likely to generate resentment.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V33 | | 37 |

34 Tourism development increases the development of recreational facilities and amenities for residents

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V34 | | 38 |

35 Local residents are the ones who really suffer from living in an area popular with tourists

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V35 | | 39 |

36 Local people are treated equally, rather than as inferiors by tourists

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V36 | | 40 |

CATEGORY:PHYSICAL/ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

37 Township tourism has made residents more conscious of the need to maintain and improve the appearance of the area

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V37 | 41 |

38 There are better roads (infrastructure) due to townaship tourism development

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V38 | 42 |

39 Residents are satisfied with the manner in which township tourism development and planning is currently taking place

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V39 | 43 |

40 The development of township tourism has generally improved the appearance of Soweto.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V40 | 44 |

41 Township tourism in Soweto has lead to more litter in the streets

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V41 | 45 |

CATEGORY: CULTURAL IMPACTS

42 Tourist interest in culture has resulted in a strenthening of traditional activities and cultural pride

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V42 | 46 |

43 Local people alter their behaviour in an attempt to copy the style of tourists.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V43 | 47 |

44 Township tourism has stimulated the locals' interest in participating in traditional art forms

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V44 | 48 |

45 Local culture is being renewed as a result of township tourism

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V45 | 49 |

46 Interacting with tourists lead to a deterioration of local languages

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V46 | 50 |

47 Township tourists show respect for the cultural lifestyle of the local people

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V47 | 51 |

48 Traditional African culture in Soweto is being commercialised (sold) for the sake of tourists

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V48 | 52 |

49 Tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities by the local population

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V49 | 53 |

50 Township tourism helps to conserve the cultural identity and heritage of the host population

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V50 | 54 |

51 Locals often respond to tourist needs by adapting traditional practices to enhance their commercial value

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V51 | 55 |

52 Township tourism causes changes in the traditional culture of local residents

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V52 | 56 |

53 Meeting tourists promotes cross-cultural exchange (greater mutual understanding and respect one another's culture

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V53 | 57 |

CATEGORY:SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS

54 Only a small minority of Soweto residents benefit economically from tourism

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V54 | | 58 |

55 Income-generating opportunities created by township tourism development are evenly distributed across the community

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V55 | | 59 |

56 By creating jobs and generating income, township tourism promotes an increase in the social wellbeing of residents

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V56 | | 60 |

57 Township tourism has led to more people leaving their former jobs for new opportunities in tourism.

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V57 | | 61 |

58 In addition to payment to tour operators for tour costs, tourists should be advised to make donations for the benefit of the local community

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V58 | | 62 |

59 Township tourism provides many worthwhile employment opportunities for Soweto residents

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V59 | | 63 |

60 Township tourism holds great promise for Soweto's economic future

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V60 | | 64 |

61 Tourism has already improved the economy of soweto

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V61 | | 65 |

62 The development of township tourism in Soweto benefits the visitors more than the locals

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V62 | | 66 |

63 Soweto residents have been adequately consulted in participating in entrepreneurial initiatives in township tourism

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V63 | | 67 |

64 Township tourism in Soweto is in the hands of a few operators only

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | V64 | | 68 |

APPENDIX B: DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

APPENDIX B: DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

The development of a conceptual framework is arguably the most important part of any research project and also the most difficult. The following presents a list of definitions of key concepts, selected by the researcher as the 'building blocks' to the study. These concepts are general representations of the phenomena to be studied.

1. Acculturation

Acculturation is the process of borrowing aspects of culture by a subordinate group from a dominant group. Acculturation is what happens when outside influences diffuse in on a large scale and replace traditional cultural patterns (Robinson & Boniface, 1998).

The most glaring example of this is the process of colonisation. What happened to the societies Europeans came into contact with when they began to colonise the rest of the world? Pressure from Europeans bought about changes to language, religion, and political and economic systems to name but a few. Transculturation occurs when an individual moves to another society and adopts its culture. Immigrants who learn the language and take on the cultural patterns of their adopted culture have transculturated.

2. Commodification

The commodification of a destination's culture refers to its transformation into a commodity in response to the perceived or actual demands of the tourist market, and is a major negative socio-cultural impact associated with tourism (Weaver & Lawton, 2003). Culture may be modified in accordance with the demands of the tourist market, and its original significance eroded or lost altogether. Commodification can occur when the community is regularly visited by a large number of tourists. Ceremonies are altered to provide more appeal to tourists, and performances are made at regular intervals suitable to the tourist market. Authenticity thus gives way to attractions of a more contrived nature. Prices are set at the highest possible levels

allowed by the market. Large quantities of cheaply produced souvenirs are made available for sale. According to Greenwood (1989:179), "commoditization of culture in effect robs people of the very meanings by which they organize their lives".

Tourism can turn local cultures into commodities when religious rituals, traditional ethnic rites and festivals are reduced and sanitised to conform to tourist expectations, resulting in what has been called 'reconstructed ethnicity'. Once a destination is sold as a tourism product, and the tourism demand for souvenirs, arts, entertainment and other commodities begins to exert an influence, basic changes in human values may occur. Sacred sites and objects may not be respected when they are perceived as goods to trade (United Nations Environment Programme, 2003).

3. Culture

There is no universal definition of culture, although numerous attempts have been made to define this concept. In the context of this study, culture is broadly understood to be the way people express themselves, not only verbally but also through dress, lifestyle, beliefs and practices. Elements of culture that attract tourists are handicrafts, language, tradition, history of the region, heritage, indigenous technology, religion, dress and traditional leisure activities such as song and dance (Fladmark, 1994; Boniface, 1995; Craik, 1997; Richards, 1997; Rojek & Urry, 1997; Eagleton, 2000; Butcher, 2001b; McKercher & Du Cros, 2002; Smith, 2003).

One definition of culture that might be useful as a starting point states that culture is the patterned behaviour and mental constructs that individuals learn, are taught, and share within groups to which they belong (Rojek & Urry, 1997). Culture consists of three component parts:

- ? the sharing of common meaning of which language is the primary transmitter;
- ? the organisation of a society, in terms of such things as family structure, marriage patterns, and form of government;
- ? the distinctive styles and techniques of a society, from architecture to music to agriculture

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A society can be defined as a group of people occupying a specific locality who are dependent on each other for survival, and who share a common culture.

4.   Cultural tourism

According to Stebbins (1997:948), cultural tourism is "a genre of special interest tourism based on the search for and participation in new and deep cultural experiences, whether aesthetic, intellectual, emotional or psychological". This definition would seem to include museums, galleries, festivals, architecture and historic sites as well as any experience that brings one culture into contact with another, specifically through tourism.

Richards (1997:24) reports that the European Association for Tourism and Leisure Education provides both a technical and conceptual definition of cultural tourism. The technical definition reads as follows: "All movements of persons to specific cultural attractions, such as heritage sites, artistic and cultural manifestations, arts, and drama outside their normal place of residence"; the conceptual definition is formulated as "[t]he movement of persons to cultural attractions away from their normal place of residence, with the intention to gather new information and experiences to satisfy their cultural needs".

Cultural tourism is constantly growing as increasing numbers of tourists seek to interact with other cultures and broaden their knowledge and personal experience base (Boniface, 1995). Every culture is different, and curiosity about our world and its many different peoples is a strong motivation for travel. Culture is therefore increasingly being viewed as an asset that communities own and that can be marketed in a way that creates employment and attracts investment. Cultural tourism has many definitions, forms and levels of intensity and, like eco-tourism, means different things to different people in South Africa. Examples of cultural tourism packaging in South Africa include such varied elements as a guided tour of Soweto, watching mine dancers do the gumboot dance at Gold Reef City or visiting the Lesedi Cultural Village.

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5. Demonstration effect

It is argued that by observing the behaviours and superior material possessions of tourists, local people may be encouraged to imitate tourists' actions and aspire to ownership of particular sets of goods, such as clothing, that they see in the possession of the visitors and to which they are attracted. This is known as the demonstration effect. In some cases, the demonstration effect can have positive outcomes, especially where it encourages people to adopt more productive patterns of behaviour and where it encourages a community to work towards things that they may lack. More typically, however, the demonstration effect has been characterised as a disruptive influence, as it involves a pattern of lifestyle and associated material ownership that is likely to remain inaccessible to local people for the foreseeable future (Allen et al., 1988; Pearce, 1982a; Pizam & Milman, 1986). This may promote resentment and frustration or, in cases where visitor codes and lifestyles are partially adopted by locals, may lead to conflicts with prevailing patterns, customs and beliefs.

6. Host community

The host community is the resident population in a destination area. The relationship between tourism, tourists and the host community has become a subject of debate in development planning forums (King et al., 1993). The vital role of community involvement and ownership at all levels of tourism development is stressed. The hosts in the tourism industry are the people with whom tourists come into contact when visiting tourism destinations. They range from local community members, tour operators, tour guides and restaurateurs to hotel staff. Hosts greatly contribute to the perceptions tourists develop of the visited destination. Thus, the cultural differences that influence the quality of the interpersonal interaction between tourists and hosts can significantly add to tourist holiday experiences and satisfaction (Reisinger & Turner, 2003).

7. Host perception

The concept of perception was chosen for the purposes of the present analysis due to its appropriateness and the fact that it can be more effectively used in the analysis of

tourist-host contact than the concept of attitude (Ap, 1992). Kurtz and Boone (1984) identify three reasons for this. First, there is a clear distinction between the concepts of perception and attitude. Perception represents the process by which meaning is attributed to an object, event or person encountered in the environment, whereas attitude represents a predisposition to think and act in a certain way towards an object, event or person. An attitude is created on the basis of experience during the process of learning, and acquiring knowledge. Perception, by contrast, can be created without experience and knowledge of the object/person. This is often the case when tourists develop perceptions of a destination prior to actually visiting it. Second, tourists and hosts may attribute meanings to each other (perceive each other) without having previous experience and knowledge of each other. Consequently, they develop perceptions rather than attitudes to each other. Third, not all tourists and hosts meet and experience each other. Those who do may have limited experience, which does not allow for the acquiring of a complete and accurate knowledge of each other and, consequently, attitude development. Fourth (and this is a point with which Reisinger and Turner (2003) concur), the decision to travel comes from a perception in the first instance, and attitudes develop later after travel has commenced.

8.   Responsible tourism

The White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa proposes responsible tourism as the key guiding principle for tourism development. Responsible tourism implies a proactive approach by tourism industry partners to developing, marketing and managing the tourism industry in a responsible manner, so as to create a competitive advantage. Responsible tourism implies a responsibility on the part of the tourism industry to the environment through the promotion of balanced and sustainable tourism and focus on the development of environmentally based tourism activities. Responsible tourism implies that government and business have a responsibility to involve the local communities that are in close proximity to the tourism plant and attractions through the development of meaningful linkages. It implies the responsibility to respect, invest in and develop local cultures and protect them from over-commercialisation and over-exploitation. It also implies the

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responsibility of local communities to become actively involved in the tourism industry, to practise sustainable development and to ensure the safety and security of visitors (South Africa, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996).

9.   Socio-cultural impacts

Keyser (2002) defines social impacts as the changes in the norms and values of society that are more apparent in the short term. Cultural impacts have been described by Brunt and Courtney (1999:196) as those "which lead to a longer-term, gradual change in a society's values, beliefs, and cultural practices". This is to some extent caused by tourist demand for instant culture and authentic souvenirs, and at the extreme may result in the host society's becoming dependent on the tourism-generating country.

Fridgen (1991:92) states that social impacts can be thought of as "changes in the lives of people who live in destination communities which are associated with tourism activity". The same author defines cultural impacts as "the changes in the arts, artifacts, customs, rituals and architecture of a people that result from tourism activity or development" (ibid, 97). In the travel and tourism business, social and cross-cultural interactions will always occur. Such interactions between tourists and the host community often result in social and cultural impacts.

10. Socio-cultural impact assessment

Becker (2001:312) defines social impact assessment as "the process of identifying the future consequences of current or proposed actions, which are related to individuals, organizations and social macro-systems".   Social impact assessment can be implemented in different ways; Becker applies it as a process for analysing current or future actions.

Burdge (1995:12) considers social impact assessment as "the systematic advanced appraisal of the impacts on the day to day life of persons and communities when the environment is affected by a development or policy change". The same author

further describes social impacts as the consequences to human populations of any public or private actions that alter the ways in which people live, work play, relate to one another, organise to meet their needs and generally cope as members of society. The term also includes cultural impacts involving changes to norms, values and beliefs that guide and rationalise people's cognition of themselves and their society.

11. Sustainable development

Sustainable development has been defined as development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Bruntland, 1987)   The concept of sustainable tourism became popular following the release of the Bruntland report in 1987. The concept at its most basic represents a direct application of the concept of sustainable development.

12. Tourist

The commonly although not universally accepted definition of international tourist is that recommended by the United Nations Conference on International Travel and Tourism held in 1963, which stated that a visitor is "any person visiting a country other than that in which he has his usual place of residence, for any reason other than following an occupation remunerated from within the country visited" (Inskeep, 1991). The term visitor includes two distinct types of travellers:

Tourists-Temporary visitor staying at least 24 hours in the country visited and the purpose of whose journey can be classified as:

> Leisure (i.e., recreation, holiday, health, religion, or sport);
>
> Business;
>
> Family;
>
> Mission; and
>
> Meeting.

Excursionists-Temporary visitors staying less than 24 hours in the destination visited and not making an overnight stay (including travellers on cruises).

13. Tourism and development

If tourism is to be incorporated into a country's development plan it must be organised and developed according to a strategy on sound foundations. These foundations should take account of the coordination of tourism-related sectors, and the supply and demand for the tourism product. The process of development planning involves a wide cross-section of participants who may bring with hem goals that are conflicting. Furthermore, different stakeholders may well bring with them incompatible perceptions about the industry and the development process itself (Cooper *et al.,* 1998).

14. Tourism development planning process

The concept of planning is concerned with organising some future events in order to achieve prespecified objectives. Integrated planning and development is a form of comprehensive planning: comprehensive because it integrates all forms of planning – economic, physical, social and cultural. Planning is not a static concept, it attempts to deploy the best strategy in a world of changing internal and external influences. Although planning, as a dynamic concept, can take a variety of forms, there is a consistent structure that can be applied to the process of planning (Cooper *et al.,* 1998).

15. Tourism management

Tourism management is concerned with issues relating to planning, management and sustainability, and is what tourism planners should be engaged in. Because tourism management is multidisciplinary, solutions to problems will increasingly require the co-operation and collaboration of researchers from a number of disciplines (Weaver & Lawton, 2002). Mason (2003) notes that tourism management is concerned with the ways to manage the resources for tourism, the interaction of tourists with physical resources and the interaction of tourists with residents of tourist areas. Tourism management thus focuses primarily on tourism impacts in tourism destinations. It is in such areas that the supply side of tourism (physical resources, built environment and resident population) interacts with the demand side (often summarised as the

market side, but made up of tourists, travel agents, tour operators, transport operators, tourist boards and tourism developers).

16. Township tourism

Burgeoning tourist interest in visiting South Africa's black townships can be ascribed to three primary factors. First, township visits are meant to provide a more authentic and non-performative experience, depicting 'real' history, 'real' people and the 'real' South Africa. Tourists are motivated by interest in the ethnic diversity and rich cultural heritage of townships, manifested in the daily lives and practices of township residents. Second, township tourism offers visitors visual evidence of the deprivation wrought by the apartheid regime. Finally, township tourism offers tourists the opportunity to share the townships' resistance heritage (Witz *et al.*, 1999; Ramchander, 2003).

17. Shebeens

Shebeens primarily sell alcoholic beverages, such as beer, in the townships. Generally they form part of the informal sector. There are different categories of shebeens, which range from a basic bar to an upmarket entertainment centre (Strydom et al., 2000).

18. Spaza shops

Also called tuck shops, these are informal shops selling basic necessities in small quantities in disadvantaged areas of South Africa such as townships. A formal definition of a spaza is a "grocery store in a section of an occupied dwelling or in any other structure on a stand where people live permanently" (Strydom *et al.*, 2000) These stores are located on stands zoned for residential purposes in residential areas, unproclaimed informal residential areas and in hostels engaged in trade in consumer goods. The business practices of spazas entail ordinary retailing, that is, the selling of goods to clients over the counter, on a self-service or on-demand basis (ibid).

19. Staged authenticity

Adapting cultural expressions and manifestations to the tastes of tourists or even performing shows as if they were 'real life' constitutes staged authenticity. As long as tourists want a glimpse of the local atmosphere, a quick glance at local life, without any knowledge or even interest, staging will be inevitable (United Nations Environment Programme, 2003).

20. Traditional healers

Traditional healers play an important role in the religious and personal life of black communities in South Africa. People in the townships hold their customs and traditions dear. Traditional healers are a source of health care to which Africans have always turned and, even with the expansion of modern medicine, healers are still popular (Township Crawling, 2002). They use important elements of their practice to credibly offer medical assistance and spiritual care. An important element of traditional healing practice hitherto ignored by outsiders is the fact that traditional healers use the evidence of their results in collaboration with others to render medical assistance (ibid). As a result traditional healers are popular, because they provide more spiritual upliftment than other health providers from which patients can choose.

APPENDIX C: OVERALL DISTRIBUTION OF FREQUENCIES

```
1           MR P RAMCHANDER     T03049      ET407336     ETT9004           1
                                               08:59 Friday, August 8, 2003

                        The FREQ Procedure
                                       Cumulative
        V2     Frequency     Percent     Frequency     Percent
        -------------------------------------------------------
         1        177        50.57          177         50.57
         2        173        49.43          350        100.00


                                       Cumulative
        V3     Frequency     Percent     Frequency     Percent
        -------------------------------------------------------
        18          4         1.14            4          1.14
        19         11         3.14           15          4.29
        20         10         2.86           25          7.14
        21          7         2.00           32          9.14
        22         11         3.14           43         12.29
        23         14         4.00           57         16.29
        24         14         4.00           71         20.29
        25         10         2.86           81         23.14
        26         13         3.71           94         26.86
        27         31         8.86          125         35.71
        28         27         7.71          152         43.43
        29         18         5.14          170         48.57
        30         22         6.29          192         54.86
        31          6         1.71          198         56.57
        32         17         4.86          215         61.43
        33         16         4.57          231         66.00
        34         14         4.00          245         70.00
        35         13         3.71          258         73.71
        36         12         3.43          270         77.14
        37         11         3.14          281         80.29
        38         10         2.86          291         83.14
        39          2         0.57          293         83.71
        40         11         3.14          304         86.86
        41          5         1.43          309         88.29
        42          7         2.00          316         90.29
        43          7         2.00          323         92.29
        44          4         1.14          327         93.43
        45          3         0.86          330         94.29
        46          3         0.86          333         95.14
        47          3         0.86          336         96.00
        48          2         0.57          338         96.57
        49          1         0.29          339         96.86
        50          3         0.86          342         97.71
        52          1         0.29          343         98.00
        53          1         0.29          344         98.29
        56          1         0.29          345         98.57
        57          2         0.57          347         99.14
        59          1         0.29          348         99.43
        64          1         0.29          349         99.71
        69          1         0.29          350        100.00

The FREQ Procedure
                                       Cumulative
        V4     Frequency     Percent     Frequency     Percent
        -------------------------------------------------------
         1         36        10.34           36         10.34
         2         17         4.89           53         15.23
         3        145        41.67          198         56.90
         4        150        43.10          348        100.00
                        Frequency Missing = 2
                                       Cumulative   Cumulative
        V5     Frequency     Percent     Frequency     Percent
        -------------------------------------------------------
         1        143        40.86          143         40.86
         2        207        59.14          350        100.00
```

233

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                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
         V6    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
         ------------------------------------------------------
          1       154        44.64        154         44.64
          2       123        35.65        277         80.29
          3        52        15.07        329         95.36
          4         8         2.32        337         97.68
          5         8         2.32        345        100.00
                        Frequency Missing = 5
```

The FREQ Procedure

```
                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
         V7    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
         ------------------------------------------------------
          1        3         0.87          3          0.87
          2        8         2.31         11          3.18
          3        3         0.87         14          4.05
          4        9         2.60         23          6.65
          5       10         2.89         33          9.54
          6        9         2.60         42         12.14
          7        7         2.02         49         14.16
          8        4         1.16         53         15.32
          9        4         1.16         57         16.47
         10       15         4.34         72         20.81
         11        3         0.87         75         21.68
         12        5         1.45         80         23.12
         13        7         2.02         87         25.14
         14        4         1.16         91         26.30
         15        5         1.45         96         27.75
         16        2         0.58         98         28.32
         17        4         1.16        102         29.48
         18       11         3.18        113         32.66
         19        4         1.16        117         33.82
         20       12         3.47        129         37.28
         21        2         0.58        131         37.86
         22        9         2.60        140         40.46
         23        8         2.31        148         42.77
         24       11         3.18        159         45.95
         25       14         4.05        173         50.00
         26        6         1.73        179         51.73
         27       19         5.49        198         57.23
         28       15         4.34        213         61.56
         29       11         3.18        224         64.74
         30       27         7.80        251         72.54
         31        5         1.45        256         73.99
         32       10         2.89        266         76.88
         33       11         3.18        277         80.06
         34        9         2.60        286         82.66
         35        8         2.31        294         84.97
         36        8         2.31        302         87.28
         37       10         2.89        312         90.17
         38        4         1.16        316         91.33
         39        2         0.58        318         91.91
         40        8         2.31        326         94.22
         41        2         0.58        328         94.80
         42        5         1.45        333         96.24
         43        3         0.87        336         97.11
         45        1         0.29        337         97.40
         46        2         0.58        339         97.98
         49        1         0.29        340         98.27
         50        2         0.58        342         98.84
         56        1         0.29        343         99.13
         57        2         0.58        345         99.71
         59        1         0.29        346        100.00
```

234

```
                        The FREQ Procedure
                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
        V8     Frequency     Percent   Frequency      Percent
        ---------------------------------------------------------
         1          54        15.47          54        15.47
         2          61        17.48         115        32.95
         3          28         8.02         143        40.97
         4         137        39.26         280        80.23
         5          69        19.77         349       100.00
                      Frequency Missing = 1
                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
        V9     Frequency     Percent   Frequency      Percent
        ---------------------------------------------------------
         1          33         9.46          33         9.46
         2          91        26.07         124        35.53
         3          27         7.74         151        43.27
         4         165        47.28         316        90.54
         5          33         9.46         349       100.00


                      Frequency Missing = 1
                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
        V10    Frequency     Percent   Frequency      Percent
        ---------------------------------------------------------
         1          58        16.62          58        16.62
         2         148        42.41         206        59.03
         3          33         9.46         239        68.48
         4          86        24.64         325        93.12
         5          24         6.88         349       100.00
                      Frequency Missing = 1
                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
        V11    Frequency     Percent   Frequency      Percent
        ---------------------------------------------------------
         1          58        16.62          58        16.62
         2         146        41.83         204        58.45
         3          32         9.17         236        67.62
         4          92        26.36         328        93.98
         5          21         6.02         349       100.00


                      Frequency Missing = 1

The FREQ Procedure
                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
        V12    Frequency     Percent   Frequency      Percent
        ---------------------------------------------------------
         1          65        18.68          65        18.68
         2          97        27.87         162        46.55
         3          36        10.34         198        56.90
         4         126        36.21         324        93.10
         5          24         6.90         348       100.00
                      Frequency Missing = 2
                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
        V13    Frequency     Percent   Frequency      Percent
        ---------------------------------------------------------
         1          61        17.48          61        17.48
         2         109        31.23         170        48.71
         3          31         8.88         201        57.59
         4         111        31.81         312        89.40
         5          37        10.60         349       100.00


                      Frequency Missing = 1
                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
        V14    Frequency     Percent   Frequency      Percent
        ---------------------------------------------------------
         1          51        14.61          51        14.61
         2         121        34.67         172        49.28
         3          50        14.33         222        63.61
         4          88        25.21         310        88.83
         5          39        11.17         349       100.00
                      Frequency Missing = 1
                                      Cumulative    Cumulative
        V15    Frequency     Percent   Frequency      Percent
```

235

```
          -----------------------------------------------------
          1        66       18.91            66        18.91
          2       139       39.83           205        58.74
          3        31        8.88           236        67.62
          4        93       26.65           329        94.27
          5        20        5.73           349       100.00

                       Frequency Missing = 1

The FREQ Procedure

                                    Cumulative    Cumulative
          V16    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
          -----------------------------------------------------
          1        52       14.90            52        14.90
          2       119       34.10           171        49.00
          3        43       12.32           214        61.32
          4       111       31.81           325        93.12
          5        24        6.88           349       100.00
                       Frequency Missing = 1
                                    Cumulative    Cumulative
          V17    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
          -----------------------------------------------------
          1       125       35.82           125        35.82
          2       130       37.25           255        73.07
          3        15        4.30           270        77.36
          4        56       16.05           326        93.41
          5        23        6.59           349       100.00
                       Frequency Missing = 1
                                    Cumulative    Cumulative
          V18    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
          -----------------------------------------------------
          1        41       11.75            41        11.75
          2        85       24.36           126        36.10
          3        59       16.91           185        53.01
          4       133       38.11           318        91.12
          5        31        8.88           349       100.00
                       Frequency Missing = 1
                                    Cumulative    Cumulative
          V19    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
          -----------------------------------------------------
          1        30        8.60            30         8.60
          2        86       24.64           116        33.24
          3        79       22.64           195        55.87
          4       115       32.95           310        88.83
          5        39       11.17           349       100.00
                       Frequency Missing = 1
The FREQ Procedure

                                    Cumulative    Cumulative
          V20    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
          -----------------------------------------------------
          1        32        9.17            32         9.17
          2        75       21.49           107        30.66
          3        32        9.17           139        39.83
          4       139       39.83           278        79.66
          5        71       20.34           349       100.00

                       Frequency Missing = 1
                                    Cumulative    Cumulative
          V21    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
          -----------------------------------------------------
          1        46       13.18            46        13.18
          2        46       13.18            92        26.36
          3        22        6.30           114        32.66
          4       175       50.14           289        82.81
          5        60       17.19           349       100.00

                       Frequency Missing = 1
                                    Cumulative    Cumulative
          V22    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
          -----------------------------------------------------
```

236

```
   1          21          6.02            21          6.02
   2         100         28.65           121         34.67
   3          61         17.48           182         52.15
   4         125         35.82           307         87.97
   5          42         12.03           349        100.00

                   Frequency Missing = 1
                                   Cumulative    Cumulative
  V23     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
   1         122         35.06           122         35.06
   2         119         34.20           241         69.25
   3          56         16.09           297         85.34
   4          42         12.07           339         97.41
   5           9          2.59           348        100.00

                   Frequency Missing = 2

                   The FREQ Procedure

                                   Cumulative    Cumulative
  V24     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
   1          30          8.60            30          8.60
   2          67         19.20            97         27.79
   3          40         11.46           137         39.26
   4         167         47.85           304         87.11
   5          45         12.89           349        100.00
                   Frequency Missing = 1
                                   Cumulative    Cumulative
  V25     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
   1          53         15.19            53         15.19
   2         169         48.42           222         63.61
   3          36         10.32           258         73.93
   4          74         21.20           332         95.13
   5          17          4.87           349        100.00


                   Frequency Missing = 1

                                   Cumulative    Cumulative
  V26     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
   1          50         14.37            50         14.37
   2         127         36.49           177         50.86
   3          70         20.11           247         70.98
   4          83         23.85           330         94.83
   5          18          5.17           348        100.00

                   Frequency Missing = 2
                                   Cumulative    Cumulative
  V27     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
   1          53         15.19            53         15.19
   2         118         33.81           171         49.00
   3          31          8.88           202         57.88
   4         122         34.96           324         92.84
   5          25          7.16           349        100.00

                   Frequency Missing = 1
The FREQ Procedure
                                   Cumulative    Cumulative
  V28     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
   1         137         39.37           137         39.37
   2          86         24.71           223         64.08
   3          18          5.17           241         69.25
   4          77         22.13           318         91.38
   5          30          8.62           348        100.00

                   Frequency Missing = 2
```

```
                                    Cumulative   Cumulative
     V29    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
     -----------------------------------------------------------
      1          62       17.77          62        17.77
      2         170       48.71         232        66.48
      3          48       13.75         280        80.23
      4          63       18.05         343        98.28
      5           6        1.72         349       100.00

                    Frequency Missing = 1
                                    Cumulative   Cumulative
     V30    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
     -----------------------------------------------------------
      1         105       30.09         105        30.09
      2         152       43.55         257        73.64
      3          49       14.04         306        87.68
      4          37       10.60         343        98.28
      5           6        1.72         349       100.00

                    Frequency Missing = 1
                                    Cumulative   Cumulative
     V31    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
     -----------------------------------------------------------
      1          44       12.61          44        12.61
      2          94       26.93         138        39.54
      3          41       11.75         179        51.29
      4         126       36.10         305        87.39
      5          44       12.61         349       100.00

                    Frequency Missing = 1
The FREQ Procedure
                                    Cumulative   Cumulative
     V32    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
     -----------------------------------------------------------
      1          80       22.92          80        22.92
      2         162       46.42         242        69.34
      3          70       20.06         312        89.40
      4          30        8.60         342        97.99
      5           7        2.01         349       100.00

                    Frequency Missing = 1
                                    Cumulative   Cumulative
     V33    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
     -----------------------------------------------------------
      1          31        8.91          31         8.91
      2          91       26.15         122        35.06
      3          79       22.70         201        57.76
      4         115       33.05         316        90.80
      5          32        9.20         348       100.00

                    Frequency Missing = 2
                                    Cumulative   Cumulative
     V34    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
     -----------------------------------------------------------
      1           7        2.01           7         2.01
      2          28        8.02          35        10.03
      3          21        6.02          56        16.05
      4         215       61.60         271        77.65
      5          78       22.35         349       100.00

                    Frequency Missing = 1

                                    Cumulative   Cumulative
     V35    Frequency    Percent    Frequency     Percent
     -----------------------------------------------------------
      1          37       10.60          37        10.60
      2         136       38.97         173        49.57
      3          54       15.47         227        65.04
      4          92       26.36         319        91.40
      5          30        8.60         349       100.00
```

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```
                         Frequency Missing = 1
1              MR P RAMCHANDER     T03049     ET407336    ETT9004         11
                                                    08:59 Friday, August 8, 2003

                         The FREQ Procedure
                                          Cumulative   Cumulative
      V36      Frequency     Percent      Frequency     Percent
      ----------------------------------------------------------
       1           40         11.46           40         11.46
       2          129         36.96          169         48.42
       3           63         18.05          232         66.48
       4           85         24.36          317         90.83
       5           32          9.17          349        100.00

                         Frequency Missing = 1

                                          Cumulative   Cumulative
      V37      Frequency     Percent      Frequency     Percent
      ----------------------------------------------------------
       1           14          4.02           14          4.02
       2           52         14.94           66         18.97
       3           24          6.90           90         25.86
       4          185         53.16          275         79.02
       5           73         20.98          348        100.00

                         Frequency Missing = 2

                                          Cumulative   Cumulative
      V38      Frequency     Percent      Frequency     Percent
      ----------------------------------------------------------
       1           27          7.76           27          7.76
       2           84         24.14          111         31.90
       3           37         10.63          148         42.53
       4          129         37.07          277         79.60
       5           71         20.40          348        100.00

                         Frequency Missing = 2

                                          Cumulative   Cumulative
      V39      Frequency     Percent      Frequency     Percent
      ----------------------------------------------------------
       1           30          8.62           30          8.62
       2          126         36.21          156         44.83
       3           79         22.70          235         67.53
       4           92         26.44          327         93.97
       5           21          6.03          348        100.00

                         Frequency Missing = 2

                         The FREQ Procedure
                                          Cumulative   Cumulative
      V40      Frequency     Percent      Frequency     Percent
      ----------------------------------------------------------
       1           20          5.75           20          5.75
       2           69         19.83           89         25.57
       3           21          6.03          110         31.61
       4          166         47.70          276         79.31
       5           72         20.69          348        100.00

                         Frequency Missing = 2

                                          Cumulative   Cumulative
      V41      Frequency     Percent      Frequency     Percent
      ----------------------------------------------------------
       1          109         31.32          109         31.32
       2          142         40.80          251         72.13
       3           48         13.79          299         85.92
       4           40         11.49          339         97.41
       5            9          2.59          348        100.00

                         Frequency Missing = 2
```

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```
                                   Cumulative   Cumulative
V42    Frequency     Percent       Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1          8         2.30               8         2.30
  2         19         5.46              27         7.76
  3         28         8.05              55        15.80
  4        196        56.32             251        72.13
  5         97        27.87             348       100.00

              Frequency Missing = 2
                                   Cumulative   Cumulative
V43    Frequency     Percent       Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1         26         7.47              26         7.47
  2        114        32.76             140        40.23
  3         45        12.93             185        53.16
  4        123        35.34             308        88.51
  5         40        11.49             348       100.00

              Frequency Missing = 2


                   The FREQ Procedure
                                   Cumulative   Cumulative
V44    Frequency     Percent       Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1          8         2.30               8         2.30
  2         24         6.90              32         9.20
  3         24         6.90              56        16.09
  4        233        66.95             289        83.05
  5         59        16.95             348       100.00

              Frequency Missing = 2
                                   Cumulative   Cumulative
V45    Frequency     Percent       Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1         15         4.32              15         4.32
  2         55        15.85              70        20.17
  3         36        10.37             106        30.55
  4        170        48.99             276        79.54
  5         71        20.46             347       100.00

              Frequency Missing = 3
                                   Cumulative   Cumulative
V46    Frequency     Percent       Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1         60        17.24              60        17.24
  2        140        40.23             200        57.47
  3         53        15.23             253        72.70
  4         67        19.25             320        91.95
  5         28         8.05             348       100.00

              Frequency Missing = 2
                                   Cumulative   Cumulative
V47    Frequency     Percent       Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1          9         2.59               9         2.59
  2         31         8.91              40        11.49
  3         24         6.90              64        18.39
  4        188        54.02             252        72.41
  5         96        27.59             348       100.00

              Frequency Missing = 2

                   The FREQ Procedure
                                   Cumulative   Cumulative
V48    Frequency     Percent       Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1         27         7.76              27         7.76
  2         76        21.84             103        29.60
  3         44        12.64             147        42.24
```

240

```
    4          159          45.69           306          87.93
    5           42          12.07           348         100.00
```

```
                         Frequency Missing = 2
                                       Cumulative    Cumulative
    V49      Frequency      Percent      Frequency      Percent
    -----------------------------------------------------------
    1            5           1.44             5           1.44
    2           19           5.48            24           6.92
    3           24           6.92            48          13.83
    4          242          69.74           290          83.57
    5           57          16.43           347         100.00
```

```
                         Frequency Missing = 3
                                       Cumulative    Cumulative
    V50      Frequency      Percent      Frequency      Percent
    -----------------------------------------------------------
    1            9           2.59             9           2.59
    2           25           7.18            34           9.77
    3           35          10.06            69          19.83
    4          188          54.02           257          73.85
    5           91          26.15           348         100.00
```

```
                         Frequency Missing = 2
                                       Cumulative    Cumulative
    V51      Frequency      Percent      Frequency      Percent
    -----------------------------------------------------------
    1            6           1.73             6           1.73
    2           29           8.36            35          10.09
    3           42          12.10            77          22.19
    4          215          61.96           292          84.15
    5           55          15.85           347         100.00
```

```
                         Frequency Missing = 3
                                       Cumulative    Cumulative
    V52      Frequency      Percent      Frequency      Percent
    -----------------------------------------------------------
    1           21           6.03            21           6.03
    2          117          33.62           138          39.66
    3           56          16.09           194          55.75
    4          112          32.18           306          87.93
    5           42          12.07           348         100.00
```

```
                         Frequency Missing = 2
                                       Cumulative    Cumulative
    V53      Frequency      Percent      Frequency      Percent
    -----------------------------------------------------------
    1           11           3.18            11           3.18
    2           43          12.43            54          15.61
    3           34           9.83            88          25.43
    4          152          43.93           240          69.36
    5          106          30.64           346         100.00
```

```
                         Frequency Missing = 4
                                       Cumulative    Cumulative
    V54      Frequency      Percent      Frequency      Percent
    -----------------------------------------------------------
    1           11           3.17            11           3.17
    2           34           9.80            45          12.97
    3           31           8.93            76          21.90
    4          166          47.84           242          69.74
    5          105          30.26           347         100.00
```

```
                         Frequency Missing = 3
                                       Cumulative    Cumulative
    V55      Frequency      Percent      Frequency      Percent
    -----------------------------------------------------------
    1          120          34.58           120          34.58
    2          124          35.73           244          70.32
    3           61          17.58           305          87.90
    4           35          10.09           340          97.98
```

```
          5              7        2.02         347      100.00

                        Frequency Missing = 3
1                MR P RAMCHANDER    T03049     ET407336    ETT9004          16
                                                  08:59 Friday, August 8, 2003

                         The FREQ Procedure
                                        Cumulative    Cumulative
        V56     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
        ----------------------------------------------------------
          1           16        4.61           16         4.61
          2           22        6.34           38        10.95
          3           35       10.09           73        21.04
          4          202       58.21          275        79.25
          5           72       20.75          347       100.00

                        Frequency Missing = 3
                                        Cumulative    Cumulative
        V57     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
        ----------------------------------------------------------
          1           53       15.27           53        15.27
          2           99       28.53          152        43.80
          3           63       18.16          215        61.96
          4          109       31.41          324        93.37
          5           23        6.63          347       100.00

                        Frequency Missing = 3
                                        Cumulative    Cumulative
        V58     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
        ----------------------------------------------------------
          1           22        6.34           22         6.34
          2           32        9.22           54        15.56
          3           20        5.76           74        21.33
          4          130       37.46          204        58.79
          5          143       41.21          347       100.00

                        Frequency Missing = 3
                                        Cumulative    Cumulative
        V59     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
        ----------------------------------------------------------
          1           23        6.65           23         6.65
          2           57       16.47           80        23.12
          3           47       13.58          127        36.71
          4          165       47.69          292        84.39
          5           54       15.61          346       100.00

                        Frequency Missing = 4

                         The FREQ Procedure
                                        Cumulative    Cumulative
        V60     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
        ----------------------------------------------------------
          1           14        4.03           14         4.03
          2           31        8.93           45        12.97
          3           33        9.51           78        22.48
          4          192       55.33          270        77.81
          5           77       22.19          347       100.00

                        Frequency Missing = 3

                                        Cumulative    Cumulative
        V61     Frequency      Percent    Frequency      Percent
        ----------------------------------------------------------
          1           56       16.14           56        16.14
          2           90       25.94          146        42.07
          3           75       21.61          221        63.69
          4          100       28.82          321        92.51
          5           26        7.49          347       100.00

                        Frequency Missing = 3
                                        Cumulative    Cumulative
```

242

```
V62     Frequency     Percent     Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1          26         7.49          26          7.49
  2          84        24.21         110         31.70
  3          46        13.26         156         44.96
  4         138        39.77         294         84.73
  5          53        15.27         347        100.00

               Frequency Missing = 3
                               Cumulative   Cumulative
V63     Frequency     Percent    Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1          97        27.95          97         27.95
  2         117        33.72         214         61.67
  3          56        16.14         270         77.81
  4          66        19.02         336         96.83
  5          11         3.17         347        100.00

               Frequency Missing = 3


                    The FREQ Procedure
                               Cumulative   Cumulative
V64     Frequency     Percent    Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1          15         4.32          15          4.32
  2          26         7.49          41         11.82
  3          31         8.93          72         20.75
  4         164        47.26         236         68.01
  5         111        31.99         347        100.00

               Frequency Missing = 3
                               Cumulative   Cumulative
V65     Frequency     Percent    Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1          24         9.80          24          9.80
  2          30        12.24          54         22.04
  3          18         7.35          72         29.39
  4          32        13.06         104         42.45
  5          22         8.98         126         51.43
  6           6         2.45         132         53.88
  7          77        31.43         209         85.31
  8           2         0.82         211         86.12
  9          15         6.12         226         92.24
 10          10         4.08         236         96.33
 11           5         2.04         241         98.37
 16           2         0.82         243         99.18
 19           2         0.82         245        100.00

               Frequency Missing = 105

                               Cumulative   Cumulative
V66     Frequency     Percent    Frequency     Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1           8         5.16           8          5.16
  2           8         5.16          16         10.32
  3          19        12.26          35         22.58
  4          13         8.39          48         30.97
  5          14         9.03          62         40.00
  6          20        12.90          82         52.90
  7          26        16.77         108         69.68
  8           2         1.29         110         70.97
  9          24        15.48         134         86.45
 10          16        10.32         150         96.77
 11           4         2.58         154         99.35
 27           1         0.65         155        100.00

               Frequency Missing = 195

The FREQ Procedure

                               Cumulative   Cumulative
```

243

```
V67     Frequency      Percent     Frequency       Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1           3          3.80            3           3.80
  2           1          1.27            4           5.06
  3           3          3.80            7           8.86
  4           8         10.13           15          18.99
  5           8         10.13           23          29.11
  6           5          6.33           28          35.44
  7          16         20.25           44          55.70
  8           2          2.53           46          58.23
  9          21         26.58           67          84.81
 10          10         12.66           77          97.47
 11           2          2.53           79         100.00

               Frequency Missing = 271
                                   Cumulative    Cumulative
V68     Frequency      Percent     Frequency       Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  1           1          3.13            1           3.13
  4           1          3.13            2           6.25
  5           2          6.25            4          12.50
  6           1          3.13            5          15.63
  7           3          9.38            8          25.00
  9           7         21.88           15          46.88
 10           9         28.13           24          75.00
 11           8         25.00           32         100.00

               Frequency Missing = 318

The FREQ Procedure
                                   Cumulative    Cumulative
V69     Frequency      Percent     Frequency       Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
  4           1          0.40            1           0.40
 10           1          0.40            2           0.81
 12          29         11.69           31          12.50
 13          13          5.24           44          17.74
 14          40         16.13           84          33.87
 15           5          2.02           89          35.89
 16          48         19.35          137          55.24
 17          13          5.24          150          60.48
 18          23          9.27          173          69.76
 19          24          9.68          197          79.44
 20           6          2.42          203          81.85
 21           2          0.81          205          82.66
 22          12          4.84          217          87.50
 23           3          1.21          220          88.71
 24           5          2.02          225          90.73
 25          10          4.03          235          94.76
 26           5          2.02          240          96.77
 27           8          3.23          248         100.00

               Frequency Missing = 102

                                   Cumulative    Cumulative
V70     Frequency      Percent     Frequency       Percent
-----------------------------------------------------------
 12           3          2.07            3           2.07
 13           1          0.69            4           2.76
 14          10          6.90           14           9.66
 15           9          6.21           23          15.86
 16          19         13.10           42          28.97
 17           5          3.45           47          32.41
 18          15         10.34           62          42.76
 19          22         15.17           84          57.93
 20           1          0.69           85          58.62
 21           3          2.07           88          60.69
 22          17         11.72          105          72.41
 23           2          1.38          107          73.79
 25          19         13.10          126          86.90
 26           4          2.76          130          89.66
```

244

```
          27            15         10.34          145        100.00
```

Frequency Missing = 205

The FREQ Procedure

V71	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
12	1	1.59	1	1.59
13	1	1.59	2	3.17
14	2	3.17	4	6.35
15	3	4.76	7	11.11
16	6	9.52	13	20.63
17	1	1.59	14	22.22
18	5	7.94	19	30.16
19	7	11.11	26	41.27
20	2	3.17	28	44.44
21	1	1.59	29	46.03
22	9	14.29	38	60.32
23	3	4.76	41	65.08
25	5	7.94	46	73.02
26	4	6.35	50	79.37
27	13	20.63	63	100.00

Frequency Missing = 287

V72	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative Frequency	Cumulative Percent
13	1	6.25	1	6.25
17	1	6.25	2	12.50
18	2	12.50	4	25.00
19	2	12.50	6	37.50
21	1	6.25	7	43.75
22	1	6.25	8	50.00
23	1	6.25	9	56.25
25	5	31.25	14	87.50
27	2	12.50	16	100.00

Frequency Missing = 334

APPENDIX D: THE MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS

PROCEDURE

The MEANS Procedure

Variable	N	Mean	Std Dev	Minimum	Maximum
V3	350	31.34	8.29	18.00	69.00
V7	346	23.66	12.07	1.00	59.00
V8	349	3.30	1.37	1.00	5.00
V9	349	3.21	1.20	1.00	5.00
V10	349	2.63	1.21	1.00	5.00
V11	349	2.63	1.21	1.00	5.00
V12	348	2.85	1.28	1.00	5.00
V13	349	2.87	1.32	1.00	5.00
V14	349	2.84	1.27	1.00	5.00
V15	349	2.60	1.22	1.00	5.00
V16	349	2.82	1.23	1.00	5.00
V17	349	2.20	1.26	1.00	5.00
V18	349	3.08	1.20	1.00	5.00
V19	349	3.13	1.16	1.00	5.00
V20	349	3.41	1.28	1.00	5.00
V21	349	3.45	1.28	1.00	5.00
V22	349	3.19	1.15	1.00	5.00
V23	348	2.13	1.10	1.00	5.00
V24	349	3.37	1.18	1.00	5.00
V25	349	2.52	1.13	1.00	5.00
V26	348	2.69	1.14	1.00	5.00
V27	349	2.85	1.25	1.00	5.00
V28	348	2.36	1.41	1.00	5.00
V29	349	2.37	1.03	1.00	5.00
V30	349	2.10	1.01	1.00	5.00
V31	349	3.09	1.28	1.00	5.00
V32	349	2.20	0.96	1.00	5.00
V33	348	3.07	1.15	1.00	5.00
V34	349	3.94	0.89	1.00	5.00
V35	349	2.83	1.18	1.00	5.00
V36	349	2.83	1.19	1.00	5.00
V37	348	3.72	1.08	1.00	5.00
V38	348	3.38	1.26	1.00	5.00
V39	348	2.85	1.09	1.00	5.00
V40	348	3.58	1.18	1.00	5.00
V41	348	2.13	1.06	1.00	5.00
V42	348	4.02	0.89	1.00	5.00
V43	348	3.11	1.20	1.00	5.00
V44	348	3.89	0.84	1.00	5.00
V45	347	3.65	1.10	1.00	5.00
V46	348	2.61	1.21	1.00	5.00
V47	348	3.95	0.97	1.00	5.00
V48	348	3.32	1.17	1.00	5.00
V49	347	3.94	0.76	1.00	5.00
V50	348	3.94	0.94	1.00	5.00
V51	347	3.82	0.86	1.00	5.00
V52	348	3.11	1.17	1.00	5.00
V53	346	3.86	1.08	1.00	5.00
V54	347	3.92	1.03	1.00	5.00
V55	347	2.09	1.05	1.00	5.00
V56	347	3.84	0.98	1.00	5.00
V57	347	2.86	1.21	1.00	5.00

```
                          The MEANS Procedure

        Variable      N        Mean      Std Dev      Minimum      Maximum
        -----------------------------------------------------------------------
        V58         347        3.98        1.19         1.00         5.00
        V59         346        3.49        1.14         1.00         5.00
        V60         347        3.83        1.01         1.00         5.00
        V61         347        2.86        1.22         1.00         5.00
        V62         347        3.31        1.21         1.00         5.00
        V63         347        2.36        1.17         1.00         5.00
        V64         347        3.95        1.05         1.00         5.00
        -----------------------------------------------------------------------
1               MR P RAMCHANDER      T03049      ET407336      ETT9004            3
                                                    10:25 Monday, August 18, 2003

        ----------------------------------- V5=1 -----------------------------------

                          The MEANS Procedure

        Variable      N        Mean      Std Dev      Minimum      Maximum
        -----------------------------------------------------------------------
        V3          143       32.60        9.31        20.00        69.00
        V7          143       22.01       13.31         2.00        59.00
        V8          143        2.73        1.41         1.00         5.00
        V9          143        3.50        1.09         1.00         5.00
        V10         143        2.15        0.90         1.00         5.00
        V11         143        2.27        1.01         1.00         5.00
        V12         142        2.56        1.25         1.00         5.00
        V13         143        2.45        1.15         1.00         5.00
        V14         143        2.36        1.10         1.00         5.00
        V15         143        2.43        1.10         1.00         5.00
        V16         143        2.39        1.01         1.00         5.00
        V17         143        1.71        0.89         1.00         5.00
        V18         143        2.76        1.11         1.00         5.00
        V19         143        2.75        1.14         1.00         5.00
        V20         143        3.56        1.20         1.00         5.00
        V21         142        3.85        0.97         1.00         5.00
        V22         142        3.10        1.01         1.00         5.00
        V23         142        2.52        1.14         1.00         5.00
        V24         142        3.75        0.88         1.00         5.00
        V25         142        2.15        0.84         1.00         5.00
        V26         142        3.04        1.07         1.00         5.00
        V27         142        2.58        1.13         1.00         5.00
        V28         141        1.70        1.06         1.00         5.00
        V29         142        2.19        0.85         1.00         4.00
        V30         142        1.92        0.87         1.00         5.00
        V31         142        2.89        1.14         1.00         5.00
        V32         142        2.19        0.85         1.00         5.00
        V33         142        2.84        1.08         1.00         5.00
        V34         142        4.01        0.79         1.00         5.00
        V35         142        2.49        0.88         1.00         5.00
        V36         142        3.08        1.16         1.00         5.00
        V37         141        3.93        0.94         1.00         5.00
        V38         141        3.89        0.99         1.00         5.00
        V39         141        3.09        0.98         1.00         5.00
        V40         141        3.75        0.99         1.00         5.00
        V41         141        2.00        0.93         1.00         4.00
        V42         141        4.07        0.81         1.00         5.00
        V43         141        2.65        1.06         1.00         5.00
        V44         141        3.86        0.76         1.00         5.00
        V45         140        3.67        0.98         1.00         5.00
        V46         141        2.37        1.00         1.00         5.00
```

```
V47        141        4.14         0.82          1.00           5.00
V48        141        3.29         1.02          1.00           5.00
V49        141        4.00         0.59          1.00           5.00
V50        141        4.08         0.73          1.00           5.00
V51        140        3.79         0.72          1.00           5.00
V52        141        2.82         0.98          1.00           5.00
V53        143        3.90         0.98          1.00           5.00
V54        143        3.59         1.04          1.00           5.00
V55        143        2.29         1.02          1.00           5.00
-----------------------------------------------------------------------
---------------------------------- V5=1 ------------------------------------

                         The MEANS Procedure

Variable      N        Mean        Std Dev       Minimum        Maximum
-----------------------------------------------------------------------
V56        143        4.02         0.72          1.00           5.00
V57        143        3.10         1.15          1.00           5.00
V58        143        4.06         1.11          1.00           5.00
V59        142        3.79         0.88          1.00           5.00
V60        143        4.08         0.71          1.00           5.00
V61        143        3.15         1.06          1.00           5.00
V62        143        2.99         1.13          1.00           5.00
V63        143        2.80         1.12          1.00           5.00
V64        143        3.83         1.01          1.00           5.00
-----------------------------------------------------------------------


---------------------------------- V5=2 ------------------------------------

Variable      N        Mean        Std Dev       Minimum        Maximum
-----------------------------------------------------------------------
V3         207       30.47         7.41         18.00          52.00
V7         203       24.83        11.00          1.00          50.00
V8         206        3.70         1.20          1.00           5.00
V9         206        3.01         1.24          1.00           5.00
V10        206        2.96         1.30          1.00           5.00
V11        206        2.88         1.27          1.00           5.00
V12        206        3.04         1.27          1.00           5.00
V13        206        3.16         1.35          1.00           5.00
V14        206        3.17         1.27          1.00           5.00
V15        206        2.73         1.29          1.00           5.00
V16        206        3.11         1.27          1.00           5.00
V17        206        2.54         1.37          1.00           5.00
V18        206        3.31         1.22          1.00           5.00
V19        206        3.40         1.11          1.00           5.00
V20        206        3.30         1.32          1.00           5.00
V21        207        3.17         1.40          1.00           5.00
V22        207        3.26         1.25          1.00           5.00
V23        206        1.86         0.99          1.00           5.00
V24        207        3.12         1.29          1.00           5.00
V25        207        2.78         1.23          1.00           5.00
V26        206        2.45         1.12          1.00           5.00
V27        207        3.04         1.30          1.00           5.00
V28        207        2.81         1.44          1.00           5.00
V29        207        2.50         1.12          1.00           5.00
V30        207        2.23         1.08          1.00           5.00
V31        207        3.23         1.35          1.00           5.00
V32        207        2.21         1.03          1.00           5.00
V33        206        3.24         1.17          1.00           5.00
V34        207        3.89         0.94          1.00           5.00
V35        207        3.07         1.30          1.00           5.00
V36        207        2.66         1.18          1.00           5.00
```

```
V37          207          3.58          1.15          1.00          5.00
V38          207          3.03          1.31          1.00          5.00
V39          207          2.69          1.14          1.00          5.00
-------------------------------------------------------------------------

------------------------------------- V5=2 -------------------------------------

                         The MEANS Procedure

Variable      N           Mean          Std Dev      Minimum       Maximum
-------------------------------------------------------------------------
V40          207          3.46          1.29          1.00          5.00
V41          207          2.22          1.14          1.00          5.00
V42          207          3.99          0.94          1.00          5.00
V43          207          3.42          1.19          1.00          5.00
V44          207          3.92          0.90          1.00          5.00
V45          207          3.64          1.18          1.00          5.00
V46          207          2.77          1.31          1.00          5.00
V47          207          3.82          1.03          1.00          5.00
V48          207          3.35          1.26          1.00          5.00
V49          206          3.90          0.86          1.00          5.00
V50          207          3.85          1.05          1.00          5.00
V51          207          3.84          0.94          1.00          5.00
V52          207          3.30          1.25          1.00          5.00
V53          203          3.84          1.15          1.00          5.00
V54          204          4.16          0.96          1.00          5.00
V55          204          1.96          1.05          1.00          5.00
V56          204          3.72          1.11          1.00          5.00
V57          204          2.68          1.22          1.00          5.00
V58          204          3.92          1.24          1.00          5.00
V59          204          3.28          1.25          1.00          5.00
V60          204          3.65          1.14          1.00          5.00
V61          204          2.65          1.28          1.00          5.00
V62          204          3.54          1.21          1.00          5.00
V63          204          2.05          1.10          1.00          5.00
V64          204          4.04          1.07          1.00          5.00
```

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APPENDIX E: RESULTS OF FACTOR ANALYSIS

```
BMDP4M - FACTOR ANALYSIS

  Copyright 1977, 1979, 1981, 1982, 1983, 1985, 1987, 1988, 1990, 1993
                by BMDP Statistical Software, Inc.

        BMDP Statistical Software, Inc.¦ BMDP Statistical Software
        12121 Wilshire Blvd, Suite 300 ¦ Cork Technology Park, Model Farm Rd
        Los Angeles, CA 90025 USA      ¦ Cork, Ireland
           Phone (310) 207-8800        ¦    Phone +353 21 542722
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  Release: 7.1    (IBM/CMS)          DATE:    19-NOV- 3      AT 14:42:37
   Manual: BMDP Manual Volumes 1, 2, and 3.
   Digest: BMDP User's Digest.
  Updates: State NEWS. in the PRINT paragraph for summary of new features.

  PROGRAM INSTRUCTIONS

  /PROBLEM    TITLE IS 'THREE FACTORS V20 V32,V38,V52,V56,V57-V59,V60 OUT'.
  /INPUT      CODE='D2'. UNIT=3. CONTENT='DATA'.
  /FACTOR     METHOD=MLFA. CONSTANT=1. COMM=SMCS. NUMBER=3.
  /ROTATE     METHOD=DQUART.
  /PRINT      FSCORE=0. no corr. no shade. no iter. no mean.
              no ezsc. no ecas. no extr. cron. case=0.
  /PLOT       final=0. fscore=0.
  /END.

  PROBLEM TITLE IS
  THREE FACTORS V20 V32,V38,V52,V56,V57-V59,V60 OUT

  NUMBER OF VARIABLES TO READ . . . . . . . . . .    48
  NUMBER OF VARIABLES ADDED BY TRANSFORMATIONS. .     0
  TOTAL NUMBER OF VARIABLES . . . . . . . . . . .    48
  CASE WEIGHT VARIABLE. . . . . . . . . . . . . .
  CASE LABELING VARIABLES . . . . . . . . . . . .
  NUMBER OF CASES TO READ . . . . . . . . . . . . TO END
  MISSING VALUES CHECKED BEFORE OR AFTER TRANS. . NEITHER
  BLANKS IN THE DATA ARE TREATED AS    . . . . . . MISSING
  INPUT UNIT NUMBER . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .     3
  REWIND INPUT UNIT PRIOR TO READING. . DATA. . .    YES
  NUMBER OF INTEGER WORDS OF MEMORY FOR STORAGE .  745764

  INPUT BMDP FILE
  CODE. . . IS     D2
  CONTENT . IS     DATA
  LABEL . . IS

  VARIABLES
      1 V8         2 V9         3 V10        4 V11        5 V12
      6 V13        7 V14        8 V15        9 V16       10 V17
     11 V18       12 V19       13 V21       14 V22       15 V23
     16 V24       17 V25       18 V26       19 V27       20 V28
     21 V29       22 V30       23 V31       24 V33       25 V34
     26 V35       27 V36       28 V37       29 V39       30 V40
     31 V41       32 V42       33 V43       34 V44       35 V45
     36 V46       37 V47       38 V48       39 V49       40 V50
     41 V51       42 V53       43 V54       44 V55       45 V61
     46 V62       47 V63       48 V64

  VARIABLES TO BE USED
      1 V8         2 V9         3 V10        4 V11        5 V12
      6 V13        7 V14        8 V15        9 V16       10 V17
     11 V18       12 V19       13 V21       14 V22       15 V23
     16 V24       17 V25       18 V26       19 V27       20 V28
     21 V29       22 V30       23 V31       24 V33       25 V34
     26 V35       27 V36       28 V37       29 V39       30 V40
     31 V41       32 V42       33 V43       34 V44       35 V45
     36 V46       37 V47       38 V48       39 V49       40 V50
```

```
   41 V51         42 V53         43 V54        44 V55         45 V61
   46 V62         47 V63         48 V64
```

```
NUMBER OF CASES READ. . . . . . . . . . . . .     350
   CASES WITH DATA MISSING OR BEYOND LIMITS . .      13
       REMAINING NUMBER OF CASES . . . . . . . .     337


NUMBER OF VARIABLES TO BE USED. . . . . . . . .    48
INITIAL COMMUNALITIES ARE SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS
       OR COVARIANCES.
MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD FACTOR ANALYSIS IS PERFORMED.
NUMBER OF ITERATIONS FOR INITIAL FACTOR EXTRACTION   25
MAXIMUM NUMBER OF FACTORS . . . . . . . . . . .       3
NUMBER OF FACTORS IS LIMITED TO THE NUMBER OF EIGENVALUES
       GREATER THAN     1.000
TOLERANCE LIMIT FOR MATRIX INVERSION. . . . . .   0.00010
DIRECT QUARTIMIN ROTATION FOR SIMPLE LOADINGS IS PERFORMED.
GAMMA . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . . .    0.0000
MAXIMUM NUMBER OF ITERATIONS FOR ROTATION . . .      50
CONVERGENCE CRITERION FOR ROTATION. . . . . . . 0.0000100
KAISERS NORMALIZATION . . . . . . . . . . . . .     YES
1PAGE   3  4M THREE FACTORS V20 V32,V38,V52,V56,V57-V59,V60 OUT


SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS (SMC) OF EACH VARIABLE WITH ALL
OTHER VARIABLES, AND CRONBACH'S ALPHA, WITH THAT VARIABLE REMOVED
-----------------------------------------------------------------

                   SMC     ALPHA

    1 V8        0.42341   0.9218
    2 V9        0.43225   0.9210
    3 V10       0.73047   0.9192
    4 V11       0.76030   0.9193
    5 V12       0.68037   0.9193
    6 V13       0.67387   0.9193
    7 V14       0.52625   0.9208
    8 V15       0.50409   0.9216
    9 V16       0.67280   0.9191
   10 V17       0.62674   0.9197
   11 V18       0.56220   0.9197
   12 V19       0.48301   0.9203
   13 V21       0.66805   0.9191
   14 V22       0.43888   0.9214
   15 V23       0.44410   0.9219
   16 V24       0.47074   0.9225
   17 V25       0.69337   0.9190
   18 V26       0.36628   0.9217
   19 V27       0.62959   0.9196
   20 V28       0.71825   0.9195
   21 V29       0.38100   0.9221
   22 V30       0.48671   0.9223
   23 V31       0.60996   0.9197
   24 V33       0.48412   0.9205
   25 V34       0.46837   0.9214
   26 V35       0.62418   0.9196
   27 V36       0.42812   0.9229
   28 V37       0.50617   0.9224
   29 V39       0.48468   0.9208
   30 V40       0.59335   0.9210
   31 V41       0.34413   0.9234
   32 V42       0.52972   0.9223
   33 V43       0.46115   0.9212
   34 V44       0.53189   0.9231
   35 V45       0.47346   0.9236
   36 V46       0.41506   0.9234
   37 V47       0.57132   0.9213
   38 V48       0.48880   0.9211
   39 V49       0.45681   0.9227
   40 V50       0.52351   0.9227
   41 V51       0.38534   0.9236
```

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```
   42 V53          0.44122    0.9225
   43 V54          0.47376    0.9223
   44 V55          0.40193    0.9223
   45 V61          0.49472    0.9209
   46 V62          0.54897    0.9205
   47 V63          0.54505    0.9210
   48 V64          0.49916    0.9218


  ALPHA FOR ALL VARIABLES = 0.9227

 THIS IS CRONBACH'S STANDARDIZED ALPHA, COMPUTED FROM CORRELATIONS.

 COMMUNALITY ESTIMATES ARE SQUARED MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS (COVARIANCES).
1PAGE   5  4M THREE FACTORS V20 V32,V38,V52,V56,V57-V59,V60 OUT



   HISTOGRAM OF EIGENVALUES OF UNALTERED CORRELATION MATRIX

      EIGENVALUE     HISTOGRAM


    1  11.7412
*********************************************************************************************
***********
    2  4.68416    ***************************************
    3  2.52373    ********************
    4  2.09120    ******************
    5  1.81693    ***************
    6  1.67101    **************
    7  1.45583    ************
    8  1.27190    ***********
    9  1.18904    **********
   10  1.09603    *********
   11  1.04309    *********
   12  0.962111   ********
   13  0.902980   ********
   14  0.831010   *******
   15  0.804223   *******
   16  0.774820   *******
   17  0.764529   *******
   18  0.742853   ******
   19  0.662978   ******
   20  0.647405   ******
   21  0.634140   *****
   22  0.616336   *****
   23  0.587552   *****
   24  0.547945   *****
   25  0.525041   ****
   26  0.511362   ****
   27  0.486450   ****
   28  0.464096   ****
   29  0.443624   ****
   30  0.425669   ****
   31  0.405088   ***
   32  0.399984   ***
   33  0.373267   ***
   34  0.361912   ***
   35  0.354732   ***
   36  0.341383   ***
   37  0.321139   ***
   38  0.312236   ***
   39  0.282952   **
   40  0.256928   **
   41  0.250961   **
   42  0.246021   **
   43  0.240234   **
   44  0.212344   **
   45  0.204253   **
   46  0.190934   **
   47  0.181339   **
   48  0.145009   *
```

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```
CONDITION NUMBER =    80.97

GOODNESS-OF-FIT CHI-SQUARE =  2949.113  D.F. = 987  P-VALUE = 0.000


CANONICAL CORRELATIONS
----------------------

             0.9773
             0.9305
             0.8708

 COMMUNALITIES OBTAINED FROM  3 FACTORS AFTER    5 ITERATIONS.
 -----------------------------------------------------------

THE COMMUNALITY OF A VARIABLE IS ITS SQUARED MULTIPLE
CORRELATION WITH THE FACTORS.

    1 V8          0.1856
    2 V9          0.2400
    3 V10         0.5550
    4 V11         0.5216
    5 V12         0.5543
    6 V13         0.5247
    7 V14         0.2442
    8 V15         0.2536
    9 V16         0.5744
   10 V17         0.4636
   11 V18         0.4312
   12 V19         0.3905
   13 V21         0.5463
   14 V22         0.2615
   15 V23         0.2627
   16 V24         0.1852
   17 V25         0.6379
   18 V26         0.2003
   19 V27         0.5442
   20 V28         0.6825
   21 V29         0.1870
   22 V30         0.3020
   23 V31         0.4566
   24 V33         0.3970
   25 V34         0.2876
   26 V35         0.5398
   27 V36         0.0779
   28 V37         0.3236
   29 V39         0.2831
   30 V40         0.5089
   31 V41         0.2109
   32 V42         0.4467
   33 V43         0.3036
   34 V44         0.3518
   35 V45         0.2742
   36 V46         0.1370
   37 V47         0.4758
   38 V48         0.2326
   39 V49         0.3174
   40 V50         0.4445
   41 V51         0.1273
   42 V53         0.3667
   43 V54         0.2351
   44 V55         0.2825
   45 V61         0.2684
   46 V62         0.3270
   47 V63         0.3127

FACTOR  VARIANCE    CUMULATIVE PROPORTION OF VARIANCE  CARMINES
        EXPLAINED   IN DATA SPACE   IN FACTOR SPACE    THETA
 ------  ---------   ------------------------------    ------
    1   11.1336          0.2319          0.6550        0.9295
```

255

```
2      4.0359          0.3160          0.8924
3      1.8289          0.3541          1.0000
```

TOTAL VARIANCE IS DEFINED AS THE SUM OF THE POSITIVE EIGENVALUES OF THE
CORRELATION MATRIX.

UNROTATED FACTOR LOADINGS (PATTERN)

FOR MAXIMUM LIKELIHOOD CANONICAL FACTORS

		FACTOR1	FACTOR2	FACTOR3
		1	2	3
V8	1	0.395	-0.124	0.121
V9	2	0.470	-0.021	0.137
V10	3	0.720	-0.027	-0.191
V11	4	0.712	-0.074	-0.098
V12	5	0.729	-0.144	0.050
V13	6	0.710	-0.078	0.118
V14	7	0.493	0.010	0.039
V15	8	0.337	0.359	0.107
V16	9	0.748	-0.094	-0.077
V17	10	0.617	0.210	-0.198
V18	11	0.648	-0.040	0.098
V19	12	0.576	-0.137	0.200
V21	13	0.729	-0.029	-0.117
V22	14	0.481	-0.105	-0.138
V23	15	0.365	-0.078	0.351
V24	16	0.201	0.377	0.050
V25	17	0.771	-0.122	-0.169
V26	18	0.408	-0.063	0.174
V27	19	0.663	-0.145	0.289
V28	20	0.723	-0.117	-0.382
V29	21	0.271	0.334	0.045
V30	22	0.288	0.352	-0.309
V31	23	0.657	-0.043	0.154
V33	24	0.596	-0.192	-0.072
V34	25	0.357	0.390	-0.089
V35	26	0.714	-0.155	-0.076
V36	27	0.260	-0.091	0.043
V37	28	0.216	0.477	0.221
V39	29	0.494	0.040	0.193
V40	30	0.347	0.483	0.394
V41	31	0.150	0.314	-0.300
V42	32	0.195	0.639	0.021
V43	33	0.501	-0.107	-0.202
V44	34	0.118	0.581	-0.004
V45	35	0.070	0.497	0.151
V46	36	0.096	0.357	-0.005
V47	37	0.334	0.588	-0.138
V48	38	0.478	-0.049	0.044
V49	39	0.180	0.515	-0.141
V50	40	0.169	0.617	-0.187
V51	41	0.235	-0.268	-0.016
V53	42	0.178	0.534	0.222
V54	43	0.337	-0.201	0.285
V55	44	0.305	-0.096	0.424
V61	45	0.497	-0.065	0.131
V62	46	0.565	-0.088	0.009
V63	47	0.433	0.020	0.353
V64	48	0.377	-0.076	0.337
	VP	11.134	4.036	1.829

THE VP IS THE VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY THE FACTOR.
IT IS COMPUTED AS THE SUM OF SQUARES FOR THE
ELEMENTS OF THE FACTOR'S COLUMN IN THE FACTOR
LOADING MATRIX.

```
ROTATED FACTOR LOADINGS (PATTERN)
---------------------------------
                   FACTOR1     FACTOR2     FACTOR3
                      1           2           3

V8       1          0.381      -0.036       0.147
V9       2          0.411       0.083       0.157
V10      3          0.742       0.070      -0.169
V11      4          0.725       0.037      -0.070
V12      5          0.723      -0.008       0.088
V13      6          0.663       0.066       0.150
V14      7          0.449       0.103       0.054
V15      8          0.160       0.433       0.087
V16      9          0.760       0.026      -0.046
V17      10         0.563       0.288      -0.201
V18      11         0.597       0.090       0.124
V19      12         0.534      -0.005       0.234
V21      13         0.731       0.081      -0.093
V22      14         0.530      -0.042      -0.116
V23      15         0.271       0.041       0.377
V24      16         0.041       0.419       0.024
V25      17         0.818      -0.012      -0.137
V26      18         0.356       0.036       0.196
V27      19         0.593       0.016       0.329
V28      20         0.832      -0.048      -0.356
V29      21         0.123       0.388       0.025
V30      22         0.235       0.354      -0.338
V31      23         0.590       0.096       0.182
V33      24         0.650      -0.098      -0.037
V34      25         0.223       0.439      -0.114
V35      26         0.749      -0.041      -0.040
V36      27         0.265      -0.039       0.060
V37      28        -0.029       0.548       0.189
V39      29         0.396       0.157       0.209
V40      30         0.042       0.603       0.369
V41      31         0.116       0.293      -0.329
V42      32        -0.049       0.675      -0.031
V43      33         0.568      -0.049      -0.181
V44      34        -0.094       0.600      -0.053
V45      35        -0.154       0.531       0.111
V46      36        -0.035       0.373      -0.034
V47      37         0.145       0.624      -0.183
V48      38         0.455       0.041       0.064
V49      39         0.027       0.524      -0.185
V50      40        -0.006       0.617      -0.241
V51      41         0.321      -0.228       0.016
V53      42        -0.085       0.599       0.183
V54      43         0.307      -0.098       0.320
V55      44         0.200       0.023       0.451
V61      45         0.454       0.043       0.155
V62      46         0.561       0.012       0.035
V63      47         0.300       0.150       0.372
V64      48         0.285       0.042       0.362

         VP        10.065       4.495       1.996
```

THE VP IS THE VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY THE FACTOR.
IT IS COMPUTED AS THE SUM OF SQUARES FOR THE
ELEMENTS OF THE FACTOR'S COLUMN IN THE FACTOR
LOADING MATRIX.


```
FACTOR CORRELATIONS FOR ROTATED FACTORS
---------------------------------------


                 FACTOR1   FACTOR2   FACTOR3
                    1         2         3
```

```
FACTOR1    1    1.000
FACTOR2    2    0.207    1.000
FACTOR3    3    0.205    -0.023    1.000
1PAGE  13  4M THREE FACTORS V20 V32,V38,V52,V56,V57-V59,V60 OUT


      SORTED ROTATED FACTOR LOADINGS (PATTERN)
      ----------------------------------------


                      FACTOR1    FACTOR2    FACTOR3
                         1          2          3

      V28    20       0.832      0.000     -0.356
      V25    17       0.818      0.000      0.000
      V16     9       0.760      0.000      0.000
      V35    26       0.749      0.000      0.000
      V10     3       0.742      0.000      0.000
      V21    13       0.731      0.000      0.000
      V11     4       0.725      0.000      0.000
      V12     5       0.723      0.000      0.000
      V13     6       0.663      0.000      0.000
      V33    24       0.650      0.000      0.000
      V18    11       0.597      0.000      0.000
      V27    19       0.593      0.000      0.329
      V31    23       0.590      0.000      0.000
      V43    33       0.568      0.000      0.000
      V17    10       0.563      0.288      0.000
      V62    46       0.561      0.000      0.000
      V19    12       0.534      0.000      0.000
      V22    14       0.530      0.000      0.000
      V42    32       0.000      0.675      0.000
      V47    37       0.000      0.624      0.000
      V50    40       0.000      0.617      0.000
      V40    30       0.000      0.603      0.369
      V44    34       0.000      0.600      0.000
      V53    42       0.000      0.599      0.000
      V37    28       0.000      0.548      0.000
      V45    35       0.000      0.531      0.000
      V49    39       0.000      0.524      0.000
      V55    44       0.000      0.000      0.451
      V23    15       0.271      0.000      0.377
      V63    47       0.300      0.000      0.372
      V64    48       0.285      0.000      0.362
      V30    22       0.000      0.354     -0.338
      V41    31       0.000      0.293     -0.329
      V54    43       0.307      0.000      0.320
      V39    29       0.396      0.000      0.000
      V26    18       0.356      0.000      0.000
      V9      2       0.411      0.000      0.000
      V61    45       0.454      0.000      0.000
      V8      1       0.381      0.000      0.000
      V34    25       0.000      0.439      0.000
      V15     8       0.000      0.433      0.000
      V48    38       0.455      0.000      0.000
      V36    27       0.265      0.000      0.000
      V14     7       0.449      0.000      0.000
      V46    36       0.000      0.373      0.000
      V29    21       0.000      0.388      0.000
      V24    16       0.000      0.419      0.000
      V51    41       0.321      0.000      0.000

             VP      10.065      4.495      1.996
```

THE ABOVE FACTOR LOADING MATRIX HAS BEEN REARRANGED SO
THAT THE COLUMNS APPEAR IN DECREASING ORDER OF VARIANCE
EXPLAINED BY FACTORS. THE ROWS HAVE BEEN REARRANGED
SO THAT FOR EACH SUCCESSIVE FACTOR, LOADINGS GREATER
THAN 0.5000 APPEAR FIRST. LOADINGS LESS THAN 0.2500
HAVE BEEN REPLACED BY ZERO.

```
CRONBACH'S ALPHA IS THE STANDARDIZED ALPHA, COMPUTED FROM CORRELATIONS.
THE FIRST ALPHA IS CALCULATED USING ALL VARIABLES.  THE ALPHA FOR EACH
INDIVIDUAL FACTOR IS CALCULATED BY USING ONLY CERTAIN VARIABLES CHOSEN FOR
THEIR LOADINGS IN THE SORTED ROTATED FACTOR LOADING MATRIX.  FOR EACH FACTOR,
THE CALCULATION USES ONLY THE VARIABLES DISPLAYING A POSITIVE ROTATED FACTOR
LOADING ON THAT FACTOR, AS WELL AS A ZERO LOADING ON ALL OTHER FACTORS.
NOTE THAT ALPHA IS UNDEFINED IF ONLY ONE VARIABLE IS USED.

FACTOR  ALPHA  VARIABLES USED

       0.9227  - ALL -
     1 0.9208  V25       V16       V35       V10       V21       V11       V12
V13       V33     V18
                V31       V43       V62       V19       V22       V39       V26       V9
V61       V8
                V48       V36       V14       V51
     2 0.8295  V42       V47       V50       V44       V53       V37       V45
V49       V34       V15
                V46       V29       V24
     3          V55


FACTOR SCORE COVARIANCE (COMPUTED FROM FACTOR
STRUCTURE AND FACTOR SCORE COEFFICIENTS)
---------------------------------------------

THE DIAGONAL OF THE MATRIX BELOW CONTAINS THE SQUARED
MULTIPLE CORRELATIONS OF EACH FACTOR WITH THE VARIABLES.


                 FACTOR1    FACTOR2    FACTOR3
                    1          2          3

FACTOR1   1       0.952
FACTOR2   2       0.212      0.878
FACTOR3   3       0.202     -0.020      0.772


FACTOR SCORE COVARIANCE (COMPUTED FROM FACTOR SCORES)
-----------------------------------------------------


               FACTOR1  FACTOR2  FACTOR3
                  1        2        3

FACTOR1   1     0.952
FACTOR2   2     0.212    0.878
FACTOR3   3     0.202   -0.020    0.772

SCALE EVALUATION
----------------
ROTATED SECOND-ORDER FACTORS CALCULATED FROM THE MATRIX OF FACTOR CORRELATIONS
------------------------------------------------------------------------------
                 2ND-ORDR  2ND-ORDR
                    1         2

FACTOR1   1        0.557     0.544
FACTOR2   2        0.905    -0.164
FACTOR3   3       -0.153     0.908

           VP      1.153     1.147

THE VP IS THE VARIANCE EXPLAINED BY THE FACTOR.  A SINGLE
SECOND-ORDER FACTOR WITH A LARGE VP IMPLIES THAT THE FACTORS
SHARE COMMON VARIANCE.  THIS IS AN INDICATION OF OVERLAPPING
DIMENSIONS THAT CONTRIBUTE TO A SINGLE OVERALL DIMENSION.
FACTOR ROTATION IS DONE BY THE DIRECT QUARTIMIN METHOD.

NUMBER OF INTEGER WORDS USED IN PRECEDING   PROBLEM   13278
```

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APPENDIX F: RESULTS OF ITEM ANALYSIS (ITEMAN)tm
TEST

```
ITEMAN (tm) for 32-bit Windows, Version 3.6          Page  1
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Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003                                  Time: 14,46


   ********************  ANALYSIS SUMMARY INFORMATION  ********************


          Data (Input) File: d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
        Analysis Output File: d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.out
          Score Output File: NONE
             Exceptions File: NONE
     Statistics Output File: NONE

  Scale Definition Codes:  DICHOT = Dichotomous   MPOINT = Multipoint/Survey


  Scale:           1      2      3
                 ------- ------- -------
Type of Scale   MPOINT  MPOINT  MPOINT
N of Items         28      16      5
N of Examinees    350     350    350


                *****  CONFIGURATION INFORMATION  *****

             Type of Correlations:  Point-Biserial

         Correction for Spuriousness:  NO

                 Ability Grouping:  YES

                Subgroup Analysis:  NO

          Express Endorsements As:  PROPORTIONS

        Score Group Interval Width:   1

             Missing Data Option:  ITEMWISE DELETION

        Multipoint Scores will be:  SUMMED SCALE SCORE




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Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003                                  Time: 14,46


                      Item Statistics          Alternative Statistics
                -----------------------------  ----------------------

Seq.  Scale   Item   Item   Item-Scale  N per  Alter-  Proportion
No.   -Item   Mean   Var.   Correlation  Item   native  Endorsing   Key
----  -----   ------ ------ ----------- -----   ------  ----------  ---

  1(v8)1-1   2.696  1.885     .44        349      1       .20        +
                                                  2       .39
                                                  3       .08
                                                  4       .17
                                                  5       .15
```

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```
                                          Other      .00

 2(v9)1-2   3.212   1.445    .50     349      1      .09    +
                                             2      .26
                                             3      .08
                                             4      .47
                                             5      .09
                                          Other      .00

 3     1-3  3.372   1.472    .73     349      1      .07    +
                                             2      .25
                                             3      .09
                                             4      .42
                                             5      .17
                                          Other      .00

 4     1-4  3.367   1.453    .73     349      1      .06    +
                                             2      .26
                                             3      .09
                                             4      .42
                                             5      .17
                                          Other      .00

 5     1-5  3.152   1.641    .73     348      1      .07    +
                                             2      .36
                                             3      .10
                                             4      .28
                                             5      .19
                                          Other      .01

 6     1-6  3.132   1.736    .70     349      1      .11    +
                                             2      .32
                                             3      .09
                                             4      .31
                                             5      .17
                                          Other      .00
```

```
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```

Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003   Time: 14,46

		Item Statistics				Alternative Statistics		
Seq. No.	Scale -Item	Item Mean	Item Var.	Item-Scale Correlation	N per Item	Alter- native	Proportion Endorsing	Key
----	-----	------	------	-----------	-----	------	----------	---
7	1-7	3.163	1.604	.50	349	1	.11	+
						2	.25	
						3	.14	
						4	.35	
						5	.15	
						Other	.00	
9	1-8	3.183	1.496	.74	349	1	.07	+
						2	.32	
						3	.12	
						4	.34	
						5	.15	
						Other	.00	
10	1-9	3.797	1.595	.60	349	1	.07	+
						2	.16	
						3	.04	
						4	.37	

```
                                                5        .36
                                              Other      .00

11    1-10   2.920   1.443    .65     349       1        .09        +
                                                2        .38
                                                3        .17
                                                4        .24
                                                5        .12
                                              Other      .00

12    1-11   2.865   1.349    .60     349       1        .11        +
                                                2        .33
                                                3        .23
                                                4        .25
                                                5        .09
                                              Other      .00

14    1-12   3.450   1.646    .72     349       1        .13        +
                                                2        .13
                                                3        .06
                                                4        .50
                                                5        .17
                                              Other      .00


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Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003                                    Time: 14,46


              Item Statistics            Alternative Statistics
           -----------------------------  -----------------------
Seq.  Scale   Item   Item   Item-Scale N per  Alter-  Proportion
No.   -Item   Mean   Var.   Correlation Item  native  Endorsing   Key
----  -----  ------ ------  ----------- -----  ------  ----------  ---

15    1-13   2.808   1.330    .53     349       1        .12        +
                                                2        .36
                                                3        .17
                                                4        .29
                                                5        .06
                                              Other      .00

18    1-14   3.479   1.270    .78     349       1        .05        +
                                                2        .21
                                                3        .10
                                                4        .48
                                                5        .15
                                              Other      .00

19    1-15   2.690   1.289    .45     348       1        .14        +
                                                2        .36
                                                3        .20
                                                4        .24
                                                5        .05
                                              Other      .01

20    1-16   3.149   1.559    .67     349       1        .07        +
                                                2        .35
                                                3        .09
                                                4        .34
                                                5        .15
                                              Other      .00

21    1-17   3.641   1.977    .74     348       1        .09        +
                                                2        .22
                                                3        .05
```

263

```
                                          4        .25
                                          5        .39
                                        Other      .01

  24   1-18   2.908   1.631     .63     349    1        .13      +
                                          2        .36
                                          3        .12
                                          4        .27
                                          5        .13
                                        Other      .00
```

```
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  Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
  Date: 19 Nov 2003                                    Time: 14,46
```

		Item Statistics				Alternative Statistics		
Seq.	Scale	Item	Item	Item-Scale	N per	Alter-	Proportion	
No.	-Item	Mean	Var.	Correlation	Item	native	Endorsing	Key
----	-----	------	------	-----------	-----	------	----------	---
26	1-19	2.925	1.311	.60	348	1	.09	+
						2	.33	
						3	.23	
						4	.26	
						5	.09	
						Other	.01	
28	1-20	3.166	1.394	.73	349	1	.09	+
						2	.26	
						3	.15	
						4	.39	
						5	.11	
						Other	.00	
29	1-21	2.828	1.409	.31	349	1	.11	+
						2	.37	
						3	.18	
						4	.24	
						5	.09	
						Other	.00	
32	1-22	2.851	1.190	.52	348	1	.09	+
						2	.36	
						3	.23	
						4	.26	
						5	.06	
						Other	.01	
36	1-23	2.894	1.428	.54	348	1	.11	+
						2	.35	
						3	.13	
						4	.33	
						5	.07	
						Other	.01	
41	1-24	2.675	1.363	.51	348	1	.12	+
						2	.46	
						3	.13	
						4	.22	
						5	.08	
						Other	.01	

```
                ITEMAN (tm) for 32-bit Windows, Version 3.6        Page   6
```

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Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003   Time: 14,46

```
                    Item Statistics          Alternative Statistics
              -----------------------------   -----------------------
Seq.  Scale   Item   Item  Item-Scale  N per  Alter-  Proportion
No.   -Item   Mean   Var.  Correlation Item   native  Endorsing   Key
----  -----   ------ ----- ----------- -----  ------  ----------  ---

 44   1-25    2.182  0.736     .30      347      1        .16       +
                                                 2        .62
                                                 3        .12
                                                 4        .08
                                                 5        .02
                                               Other      .01

 45   1-26    2.894  1.371     .64      348      1        .12       +
                                                 2        .32
                                                 3        .16
                                                 4        .34
                                                 5        .06
                                               Other      .01

 54   1-27    2.856  1.472     .52      347      1        .16       +
                                                 2        .26
                                                 3        .22
                                                 4        .29
                                                 5        .07
                                               Other      .01

 55   1-28    2.689  1.454     .56      347      1        .15       +
                                                 2        .40
                                                 3        .13
                                                 4        .24
                                                 5        .07
                                               Other      .01

  8(v15)2-1   3.395  1.494     .53      349      1        .06       +
                                                 2        .27
                                                 3        .09
                                                 4        .40
                                                 5        .19
                                               Other      .00

 17   2-2     3.372  1.391     .48      349      1        .09       +
                                                 2        .19
                                                 3        .11
                                                 4        .48
                                                 5        .13
                                               Other      .00
```

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Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003   Time: 14,46

```
                    Item Statistics          Alternative Statistics
              -----------------------------   -----------------------
Seq.  Scale   Item   Item  Item-Scale  N per  Alter-  Proportion
No.   -Item   Mean   Var.  Correlation Item   native  Endorsing   Key
----  -----   ------ ----- ----------- -----  ------  ----------  ---
```

265

Seq. No.	Scale -Item	Item Mean	Item Var.	Item-Scale Correlation	N per Item	Alter- native	Proportion Endorsing	Key
22	2-3	3.628	1.053	.54	349	1	.02	+
						2	.18	
						3	.14	
						4	.49	
						5	.18	
						Other	.00	
23	2-4	3.897	1.009	.51	349	1	.02	+
						2	.11	
						3	.14	
						4	.44	
						5	.30	
						Other	.00	
27	2-5	3.943	0.782	.55	349	1	.02	+
						2	.08	
						3	.06	
						4	.62	
						5	.22	
						Other	.00	
30	2-6	3.721	1.161	.57	348	1	.04	+
						2	.15	
						3	.07	
						4	.53	
						5	.21	
						Other	.01	
33	2-7	3.578	1.399	.63	348	1	.06	+
						2	.20	
						3	.06	
						4	.48	
						5	.21	
						Other	.01	
34	2-8	3.868	1.126	.42	348	1	.03	+
						2	.11	
						3	.14	
						4	.41	
						5	.31	
						Other	.01	

```
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Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003                                   Time: 14,46
```

		Item Statistics				Alternative Statistics		
Seq. No.	Scale -Item	Item Mean	Item Var.	Item-Scale Correlation	N per Item	Alter- native	Proportion Endorsing	Key
35	2-9	4.020	0.784	.65	348	1	.02	+
						2	.05	
						3	.08	
						4	.56	
						5	.28	
						Other	.01	
37	2-10	3.894	0.710	.56	348	1	.02	+
						2	.07	
						3	.07	
						4	.67	
						5	.17	

266

```
                                        Other        .01

38    2-11    3.654   1.212    .50     347       1        .04       +
                                                 2        .16
                                                 3        .10
                                                 4        .49
                                                 5        .20
                                                 Other    .01

39    2-12    3.394   1.451    .46     348       1        .08       +
                                                 2        .19
                                                 3        .15
                                                 4        .40
                                                 5        .17
                                                 Other    .01

40    2-13    3.951   0.932    .65     348       1        .03       +
                                                 2        .09
                                                 3        .07
                                                 4        .54
                                                 5        .28
                                                 Other    .01

42    2-14    3.942   0.579    .55     347       1        .01       +
                                                 2        .05
                                                 3        .07
                                                 4        .70
                                                 5        .16
                                                 Other    .01


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Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003                                  Time: 14,46


                    Item Statistics          Alternative Statistics
                ------------------------------   ----------------------
Seq.  Scale   Item    Item    Item-Scale  N per  Alter-  Proportion
No.   -Item   Mean    Var.    Correlation Item   native  Endorsing   Key
----  -----   ------  ------  ----------- -----  ------  ----------  ---

43    2-15    3.940   0.879    .60     348       1        .03       +
                                                 2        .07
                                                 3        .10
                                                 4        .54
                                                 5        .26
                                                 Other    .01

46    2-16    3.864   1.169    .56     346       1        .03       +
                                                 2        .12
                                                 3        .10
                                                 4        .44
                                                 5        .31
                                                 Other    .01

16(v23)3-1    2.129   1.210    .59     348       1        .35       +
                                                 2        .34
                                                 3        .16
                                                 4        .12
                                                 5        .03
                                                 Other    .01

47    3-2     2.078   1.063    .68     347       1        .30       +
                                                 2        .48
                                                 3        .09
                                                 4        .10
```

267

```
                                           5        .03
                                         Other      .01

48     3-3    2.092   1.098    .66    347    1        .35      +
                                            2        .36
                                            3        .18
                                            4        .10
                                            5        .02
                                          Other      .01

56     3-4    2.357   1.359    .70    347    1        .28      +
                                            2        .34
                                            3        .16
                                            4        .19
                                            5        .03
                                          Other      .01
```

```
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Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003                                   Time: 14,46


                   Item Statistics        Alternative Statistics
              ----------------------------------  ----------------------

Seq.  Scale   Item   Item   Item-Scale  N per   Alter-  Proportion
No.   -Item   Mean   Var.   Correlation Item    native  Endorsing   Key
----  -----   ------ ------ ----------- -----   ------  ----------  ---

57     3-5    2.049   1.096    .66    347    1        .32      +
                                            2        .47
                                            3        .09
                                            4        .07
                                            5        .04
                                          Other      .01
```

```
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Item analysis for data from file d:\old data\take\ramchander\item5.dat
Date: 19 Nov 2003                                   Time: 14,46


Missing-data option:  Compute statistics on all available item responses

There were 351 examinees in the data file.

Scale Statistics
----------------

  Scale:          1       2       3
                ------- ------- -------
N of Items         28      16       5
N of Examinees    350     350     350
Mean           84.589  59.726  10.620
Variance      420.437  92.959  13.121
Std. Dev.      20.505   9.642   3.622
Skew           -0.593  -1.435   0.417
Kurtosis       -0.630   3.007  -0.607
Minimum        29.000  16.000   3.000
Maximum       124.000  79.000  21.000
Median         88.000  62.000  10.000
Alpha           0.936   0.870   0.695
SEM             5.186   3.475   2.001
```

```
Mean P            N/A     N/A     N/A
Mean Item-Tot.    0.595   0.547   0.658
Mean Biserial     N/A     N/A     N/A
Max Score (Low)   N/A     N/A     N/A
N (Low Group)     N/A     N/A     N/A
Min Score (High)  N/A     N/A     N/A
N (High Group)    N/A     N/A     N/A

Scale Intercorrelations
-----------------------

         1      2      3

  1  1.000  0.293  0.518
  2  0.293  1.000  0.129
  3  0.518  0.129  1.000
Elapsed Time: 4.766 seconds
```

APPENDIX G: ANOVA PROCEDURES (DUNCAN'S MULTIPLE

RANGE TEST)

```
1            MR P RAMCHANDER     T03049     ET407336     ETT9004          1
                                               09:30 Monday, December 1, 2003

                         The GLM Procedure


                      Class Level Information

                 Class        Levels    Values

                 V2                2    1 2

                 V5                2    1 2

                 TIME              3    1 2 3


                 Number of observations     350

 NOTE: All dependent variables are consistent with respect to the presence or
       absence of missing values.  However only 346 observations can be used
       in this analysis.

                         The GLM Procedure

 Dependent Variable: FACT1
                                    Sum of
 Source                   DF         Squares     Mean Square    F Value    Pr > F

 Model                     4      29.6739432       7.4184858      16.58    <.0001

 Error                   341     152.6162381       0.4475550

 Corrected Total         345     182.2901813


           R-Square     Coeff Var      Root MSE     FACT1 Mean

           0.162784      22.05664      0.668995       3.033080


 Source                   DF     Type III SS     Mean Square    F Value    Pr > F

 V2                        1      0.00015153      0.00015153       0.00    0.9853
 V5                        1     25.44649838     25.44649838      56.86    <.0001
 TIME                      2      1.31092209      0.65546105       1.46    0.2326


                         The GLM Procedure

 Dependent Variable: FACT2

                                    Sum of
 Source                   DF         Squares     Mean Square    F Value    Pr > F

 Model                     4       5.2406322       1.3101580       4.17    0.0026

 Error                   341     107.1806854       0.3143129
 Corrected Total         345     112.4213176
```

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```
        R-Square       Coeff Var       Root MSE      FACT2 Mean

        0.046616       14.94844        0.560636       3.750466


Source                     DF    Type III SS    Mean Square   F Value   Pr > F

V2                          1     0.61842265     0.61842265      1.97   0.1616
V5                          1     4.21715242     4.21715242     13.42   0.0003
TIME                        2     0.18833438     0.09416719      0.30   0.7413



                          The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: FACT3

                                  Sum of
Source                     DF     Squares      Mean Square   F Value   Pr > F

Model                       4    26.7356768      6.6839192     14.26   <.0001

Error                     341   159.8488607      0.4687650

Corrected Total           345   186.5845376


          R-Square       Coeff Var       Root MSE      FACT3 Mean

          0.143290       31.86198        0.684664       2.148844


Source                     DF    Type III SS    Mean Square   F Value   Pr > F

V2                          1     0.22377599     0.22377599      0.48   0.4901
V5                          1    16.35606437    16.35606437     34.89   <.0001
TIME                        2     6.05279684     3.02639842      6.46   0.0018


                          The GLM Procedure
                Duncan's Multiple Range Test for FACT1

   NOTE: This test controls the Type I comparisonwise error rate, not the
                      experimentwise error rate.


            Alpha                            0.05
            Error Degrees of Freedom          341
            Error Mean Square            0.447555
            Harmonic Mean of Cell Sizes 172.9769

              NOTE: Cell sizes are not equal.


              Number of Means             2
              Critical Range           .1415


       Means with the same letter are not significantly different.
```

272

```
Duncan Grouping        Mean      N    V2

           A        3.04268    175    1    (Male)
           A
           A        3.02325    171    2    (Female)

                 The GLM Procedure

         Duncan's Multiple Range Test for FACT2

NOTE: This test controls the Type I comparisonwise error rate, not the
                  experimentwise error rate.


           Alpha                        0.05
           Error Degrees of Freedom      341
           Error Mean Square          0.314313
           Harmonic Mean of Cell Sizes 172.9769

              NOTE: Cell sizes are not equal.


              Number of Means          2
              Critical Range         .1186


     Means with the same letter are not significantly different.


   Duncan Grouping        Mean      N    V2

           A        3.79179    171    2
           A
           A        3.71009    175    1

                 The GLM Procedure

         Duncan's Multiple Range Test for FACT3

NOTE: This test controls the Type I comparisonwise error rate, not the
                  experimentwise error rate.


           Alpha                        0.05
           Error Degrees of Freedom      341
           Error Mean Square          0.468765
           Harmonic Mean of Cell Sizes 172.9769

              NOTE: Cell sizes are not equal.


              Number of Means          2
              Critical Range         .1448


     Means with the same letter are not significantly different.


   Duncan Grouping        Mean      N    V2

           A        2.15789    171    2
           A
           A        2.14000    175    1
```

273

```
                        The GLM Procedure
```

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for FACT1

```
     NOTE: This test controls the Type I comparisonwise error rate, not the
                        experimentwise error rate.


              Alpha                              0.05
              Error Degrees of Freedom           341
              Error Mean Square             0.447555
              Harmonic Mean of Cell Sizes 167.7977

                 NOTE: Cell sizes are not equal.


                    Number of Means         2
                    Critical Range       .1437


         Means with the same letter are not significantly different.


         Duncan Grouping        Mean      N    V5

                A            3.37409     143    1    (Yes)

                B            2.79286     203    2    (No)
```

(On factor 1, the mean of those who derive income from tourism is significantly higher then the mean of those who do not derive income from tourism)

```
The GLM Procedure
```

Duncan's Multiple Range Test for FACT2

```
     NOTE: This test controls the Type I comparisonwise error rate, not the
                        experimentwise error rate.


              Alpha                              0.05
              Error Degrees of Freedom           341
              Error Mean Square             0.314313
              Harmonic Mean of Cell Sizes 167.7977

                 NOTE: Cell sizes are not equal.


                    Number of Means         2
                    Critical Range       .1204


         Means with the same letter are not significantly different.


         Duncan Grouping        Mean      N    V5

                A            3.88558     143    1
```

274

```
                  B        3.65529    203    2
```

```
                  The GLM Procedure
```

```
NOTE: This test controls the Type I comparisonwise error rate, not the
                    experimentwise error rate.


        Alpha                          0.05
        Error Degrees of Freedom        341
        Error Mean Square          0.468765
        Harmonic Mean of Cell Sizes 167.7977

            NOTE: Cell sizes are not equal.


            Number of Means          2
            Critical Range         .1470


    Means with the same letter are not significantly different.


    Duncan Grouping      Mean    N    V5

            A         2.43986   143   1

            B         1.94384   203   2



                  The GLM Procedure

        Duncan's Multiple Range Test for FACT1

NOTE: This test controls the Type I comparisonwise error rate, not the
                    experimentwise error rate.


        Alpha                          0.05
        Error Degrees of Freedom        341
        Error Mean Square          0.447555
        Harmonic Mean of Cell Sizes 109.5107

            NOTE: Cell sizes are not equal.


        Number of Means        2        3
        Critical Range      .1778     .1872


    Means with the same letter are not significantly different.


    Duncan Grouping      Mean    N    TIME

            A         3.20831    96   1
```

```
                         275
```

```
        B        2.99662      95     3
        B
        B        2.94689     155     2
```

                    The GLM Procedure

          Duncan's Multiple Range Test for FACT2

NOTE: This test controls the Type I comparisonwise error rate, not the
                    experimentwise error rate.

          Alpha   0.05
          Error Degrees of Freedom   341
          Error Mean Square   0.314313
          Harmonic Mean of Cell Sizes 109.5107

              NOTE: Cell sizes are not equal.

          Number of Means   2   3
          Critical Range   .1490   .1569

      Means with the same letter are not significantly different.


```
    Duncan Grouping       Mean      N    TIME

            A           3.79154     96     1
            A
            A           3.75341    155     2
            A
            A           3.70415     95     3
```

                    The GLM Procedure

NOTE: This test controls the Type I comparisonwise error rate, not the
                    experimentwise error rate.

          Alpha   0.05
          Error Degrees of Freedom   341
          Error Mean Square   0.468765
          Harmonic Mean of Cell Sizes 109.5107

              NOTE: Cell sizes are not equal.

          Number of Means   2   3
          Critical Range   .1820   .1916

      Means with the same letter are not significantly different.

Duncan Grouping	Mean	N	TIME	
A	2.42292	96	1	(up to 15 years)
B	2.07263	95	3	(31+ years)
B B	2.02581	155	2	(16-30 years)

(On factor 3, the mean of those living in the area for up to 15 years is significantly higher than that of those who live there for 16-30 years and those who live there for longer than 30 years. The means of the 16-30 and 31+ groups does not differ significantly)