

# **The development of Chinese tourism to South Africa: a historical perspective**

by

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## List of acronyms and abbreviations

Anon	Anonymous
ADS	Approved Destination Status
ANC	African National Congress
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
ATA	Africa Travel Association
B&B	Bed and Breakfast
BEE	Black Economic Empowerment
BEIC	British East India Company
CAGR	Average Compound Annual Growth Rate
CCCOWE	Chinese Coordination Centre of World Evangelization
CCP	Chinese Communist Party
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CITS	China International Travel Service
CNTA	China National Tourism Administration
CTA	China Travel Agency
CTS	China Travel Service
DA	Democratic Alliance
DACST	Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DEIC	Dutch East India Company
DFA	Department of Foreign Affairs
DPRK	Democratic People's Republic of Korea
ERM	Environmental Resources Management
ETC	European Travel Commission
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GEAR	Growth, Employment and Redistribution
GNI	Gross National Income
GNP	Gross National Product
HDI	Human Development Index
ICCA	International Convention and Conference Association
ID	Independent Democrat
IFP	Inkatha Freedom Party
IOTO	Indian Ocean Tourism Organization
LDCs	Least Developed Countries
MAT	Ministry for Administration and Tourism
MOFA	Ministry of Foreign Affairs (PRC)
MOFTEC	Ministry of Foreign Trade and Economic Cooperation (PRC)
MP	Members of Parliament
NBS	National Bureau Statistics (PRC)
NCOP	National Council of Provinces

NP	National Party
PPP	Purchasing Power Parity
PRC	People's Republic of China
RDP	Reconstruction and Development Programme
RETOSA	Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa
RIM	Robben Island Museum
RMB	Renminbi (Chinese currency)
ROK	Republic of Korea
SABC	South African Born Chinese
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAIRR	South Africa Institute of Race Relations
SARS	Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome
SAT	South African Tourism
SATOUR	South African Tourism Board
SMMEs	Small, Medium and Micro Enterprises
SSA	Statistics South Africa
TGCSA	Tourism Grading Council of South Africa
TRCCASS	Tourism Research Center of Chinese Academy of Social Sciences
UFH	University of Fort Hare
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UP	University of Pretoria
USA	United States of America
VFRs	Visiting Friends and Relatives
WESSA	Wildlife and Environment Society of South Africa
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WTO	World Tourism Origination
WTO <sub>1</sub>	World Trade Organization
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
WWI	World War I
WWII	World War II

## Glossary

**Traveller** - any person on a trip between two or more locations. International traveller refers to any person on a trip between two or more localities in different countries. Domestic traveller refers to any person on a trip between two or more localities in his or her country of residence.

**Visitor** - any person travelling to a place other than that of his or her usual environment for less than twelve consecutive months and whose main purpose of travel is not to work for pay in the place visited. Visitor consists of tourist (overnight visitor) and same day visitor (excursionist).

**Tourist (Overnight visitor)** - visitor staying at least one night in a collective or private accommodation at the place visited.

**Same Day Visitor (Excursionists)** - visitor who does not spend the night in a collective or private accommodation in the place visited (Figure 1).

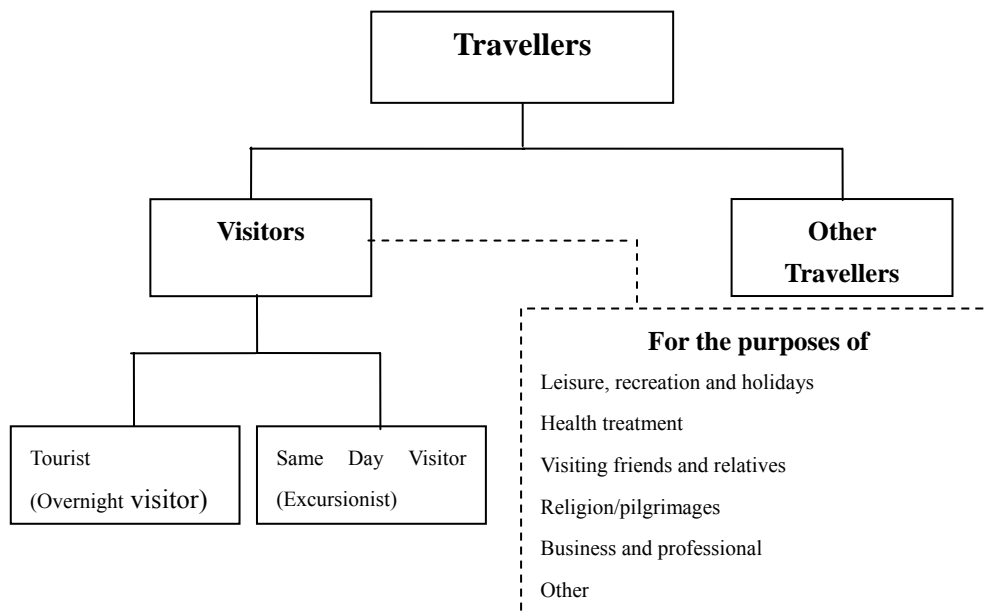


Figure 1 Classification of travellers and visitors

From: C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)* (Madrid, 1997), p. 6; WTO, *Conceptions, Definitions, and Classifications for Tourism Statistics*, (Madrid, 1995), p. 22.

Tourism statistics of China comply with the definitions of the World Tourism Organization (WTO): international tourist arrivals refer to tourist (overnight visitor) arrivals to China, while visitor arrivals refer to the total of tourist (overnight visitor) arrivals and same day visitor (excursionist) arrivals to China.

**Travel** - the act of moving outside one's community for business or pleasure but not for commuting or travelling to or from work or school.

**Tourism** - the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business, and other purposes. Tourism can be classified into domestic tourism and international tourism in the geographic category. International tourism consists of inbound tourism and outbound tourism. Domestic tourism and inbound tourism constitute internal tourism, while domestic tourism and outbound tourism make up national tourism (Figure 2). Hong Kong and Macao are two special administrative regions of China, and Taiwan as a province of China is not united with the Mainland. In tourism statistics of China, due to implementation of different political systems - the socialist system in the Mainland and the capitalist system in Hong Kong and Macao, travelling from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan to the Mainland is classified as inbound tourism and travelling from the Mainland to Hong Kong, Macao, Taiwan and other countries in the world as outbound tourism.

**Domestic tourism** - involving residents of the given areas travelling (as visitors) only within that area.

**Inbound tourism** - involving non-residents travelling as visitors in the given area.

**Outbound tourism** - involving residents travelling as visitors in an area other than the given area.

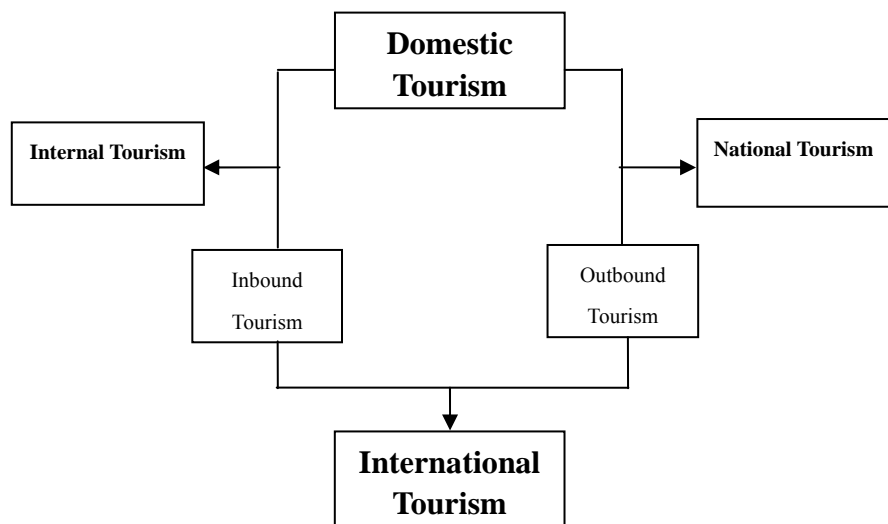


Figure 2 Classification of travel and tourism

Adapted from C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)* (Madrid, 1997), p. 8.

Notes: Information from C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2nd Edition)*, pp. 5, 8; C. Y. Gee et al., *The Travel Industry (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 12; WTO, *Concepts, Definitions and Classifications for Tourism Statistics*, p. 17; C. Zhao et al., *An Introduction to Tourism*, pp. 14-5.

# Chapter 1

## Introduction and literature overview

By the year 2020, China will be a dominant factor in the tourism industry: it will be ranked the top tourism destination with 130 million international arrivals, and the fourth biggest outbound tourism country with 100 million outbound travellers.<sup>1</sup> In terms of the development of both global and South African tourism, this is a fundamental aspect that requires specific examination. It is believed that, as is the case with other destinations, a study of the development of tourism and the trends related to Chinese tourists in South Africa will contribute to the further development of tourism within the South African context. Moreover, this study will also briefly consider China and South Africa as two major developing countries in Asia and Africa in the context of tourism. As case studies of these regions, it will consider criteria common to the development of tourism in developing countries.

Although this study focuses mainly on Chinese tourism to South Africa, it takes a broader approach in terms of its coverage. This is intended to provide a deeper understanding of the background and context of the Chinese and tourism, as well as the Chinese and South Africa. Research on the actual development of Chinese tourism to South Africa is a relatively untraversed field. To date, there has been little academic work on this subject in English or in Chinese besides a brief introduction on Chinese outbound tourism, as well as two Masters' dissertations which consider selected aspects of this broader topic. The bulk of the research for this study is therefore based on a range of books, theses, official records, government documents, annual reports, journal articles, media and internet information. It also includes field market research with Chinese tourists in South Africa using a questionnaire (available in Chinese and English) to investigate aspects relevant to Chinese tourists coming to South Africa. In addition, South African tourist guides involved in Chinese package tours were also interviewed. The research uses comparative, quantitative and qualitative methods to analyze Chinese tourism to South Africa, within the context of its historical development.

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<sup>1</sup> The World Tourism Organization (WTO), *Tourism 2020 Vision: executive summary*, p. 5.

The thesis comprises six chapters.

Chapter one presents an introduction to the development of Chinese tourism in both the global and South African context. It also presents an overview of the research by Mainland Chinese tourism scholars and economists; overseas Chinese tourism scholars; non-Chinese tourism scholars; and some overseas tourism organizations on the topic of Chinese outbound tourism in the global tourism market, as well as in such areas and countries as Hong Kong, the United States of America (USA), Canada, Australia and New Zealand. This literature overview also reviews the South African research on the development of Chinese outbound tourism to South Africa. It considers some of the problems in the research on this topic in the academic field, the South African government, as well as the broader South African tourism industry.

Chapter two presents a historical overview of travel in China since the earliest times. It examines in more detail the development of tourism in China since 1949, with the establishment of the People's Republic of China (PRC) and in particular the period of reform and opening up after 1978. This includes domestic tourism, inbound tourism and outbound tourism, and its role in the economic growth of China. It explores the motivation factors for the development of domestic and international tourism, particularly the more recent development of outbound tourism, as well as the future of tourism in China to 2020.

Chapter three traces the history of the earliest Chinese encounters with Africa. It presents an account of the Chinese experience and position in South Africa since the 1650s, during the period of the Dutch, the British, the Union and the Republic of South Africa, and particularly the more recent new democratic South Africa. It presents an outline of the historical transformation of the status of the Chinese in South Africa from convicts to “coolies” or indentured labour, to entrepreneurs and investors, to South African citizens, and to tourists. This historical transformation has resulted from a combination of factors such as the political and economic changes in China; the inception of the new democratic South Africa; the normalization of the diplomatic relations between China and South Africa; and South Africa's

obtaining the Approved Destination Status (ADS) from China. The Chinese residents in South Africa also play a role in attracting Chinese tourists to come to South Africa in the form of visiting friends and relatives (VFRs).

Chapter four offers an overview of travel in South Africa since the earliest times. It focuses on the development of tourism in the new democratic South Africa since the demise of apartheid in 1994. It identifies, evaluates and considers the development of South Africa as a preferred, quality, value-for-money tourist destination on the basis of a “system of a destination”. This system includes three types of attractions - the primary attractions based on natural and cultural resources; secondary attractions including auxiliary services and facilities such as accommodation and transport; and tertiary attractions including marketing and pricing - and the sphere of influence of attractions at international and national levels. It also considers the development of South Africa as a world-class tourist destination, with unique and diverse tourism resources, in a responsible and sustainable way.

Chapter five considers the rapid development of Chinese outbound tourism to South Africa. Based on the Chinese travel characteristics formed in Chinese cultural ecology; psychological theories (including the psychocentric-allocentric approach, travel career ladder and push-pull factors); and a market survey of Chinese tourists in South Africa. It focuses specifically on an analysis of the motivations of Chinese tourists to South Africa. It analyzes the constraints on Chinese tourists to South Africa and the competition South Africa faces in developing the Chinese outbound tourism market. It discusses possible strategies and efforts of developing this market. It also reflects on the economic and socio-cultural effects of Chinese tourists on South Africa. According to the increase of Chinese tourists to South Africa, it finally develops a model to forecast the arrivals of Chinese tourists coming to South Africa.

Chapter six summarizes the development of tourism in China since reform and opening up in 1978 and South Africa after the establishment of the new democratic South Africa in 1994. It focuses on general and specific characteristics of the development of tourism in these two developing countries, namely, developing inbound tourism first and then domestic and

outbound tourism thereafter. It points out that the success of China and South Africa in the development of tourism provides valuable experiences for all the developing countries and underdeveloped countries (LDCs) in the world. It finally stresses the importance of international cooperation in the development of tourism.

The development of Chinese outbound tourism has attracted the interests of a succession of Mainland Chinese, overseas Chinese and non-Chinese tourism scholars and economists. They began to study the development and the importance of Chinese outbound tourism in the global tourism market and in such areas and countries as Hong Kong, USA, Canada, Australia and New Zealand. According to the geographical distribution and nationality of researchers, research on Chinese outbound tourism falls into four major categories:

- research by tourism scholars in Mainland China;
- research by overseas Chinese (or overseas Chinese together with non-Chinese) tourism scholars;
- research by non-Chinese tourism scholars; and
- research by tourism organizations of various areas and countries in the world.

In the first category, tourism scholar Zhang Guangrui, the Director of the Tourism Research Centre of the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences (TRCCASS), outlined the development of Chinese outbound tourism between 1999 and 2001 and its developmental trends.<sup>2</sup> Zhang and another tourism scholar Song Rui also analyzed the development of Chinese outbound tourism in an interview on the People's Internet, one of the most influential official internets in China.<sup>3</sup> More recently, Zhang also proposed his new ideas on the consumption of Chinese

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<sup>2</sup> G. Zhang, An Analysis and Forecast of the Development of Outbound Tourism in China, in TRCCASS, *A Green Book of China's Tourism 2001-2003*, <http://www.lianghui.org.cn/chinese/zhuanti/234762.htm>, 2002-11-19.

<sup>3</sup> People.com.cn, Comments of Two Scholars Zhang Guangrui and Song Rui on Economy of Outbound Tourism in China, <http://www.people.com.cn/GB/14838/14839/34480/2959155.html>, 2004-11-02.

outbound travellers on the internet.<sup>4</sup> Also on the internet, tourism scholar Du Jiang and others analyzed the developmental trends of Chinese outbound tourism, such as the preference for long-haul destinations, price issues, the transformation of sightseeing to holidaymaking, travelling patterns, the time of outbound travel, the capacity for consumption and the transformation of tourism from a weak culture to a strong one.<sup>5</sup> From the outset of Chinese group travels at one's own expense and organized by a travel agency, Du and his co-authors also evaluated the consumption trends of Chinese tourists in outbound tourism using questionnaires.<sup>6</sup> In an economic journal in China, tourism scholars Sun Yuqin and Dong Sihua proposed their ideas about popular topics in developing Chinese outbound tourism such as rapid growth, prospective developmental trends, and positive and negative effects of Chinese outbound tourism.<sup>7</sup> In a geographic research journal, two scholars of regional economy, Xiao Jiancheng and Ren Jiangming, based on the theories of consumers' behaviour, explored the Chinese outbound tourism market and existing problems. They also proposed the strategies of developing Chinese outbound tourism.<sup>8</sup>

The second category, which includes overseas Chinese and non-Chinese scholars' writing on tourism, is the largest and includes scholars from throughout the world as well as a few in South Africa. Changfeng Chen, a Chinese tourism scholar in the USA, described the size of the Chinese overseas travel market, types of travellers to the USA and their characteristics in a web article. He also estimated that the potential and implications of the Chinese overseas

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<sup>4</sup> G. Zhang, An Analysis of the Developmental Policy on Chinese Outbound Tourism, <http://theory.people.com.cn/GB/40536/3355937.html>; G. Zhang, Chinese Outbound Travellers Become Shopping-aholic, <http://www.cass.net.cn/webnew/file/2005072947190.html>, 2005-07-29.

<sup>5</sup> J. Du et al, An Analysis of the Developmental Trend of Chinese Outbound Tourism, *Tourism Tribune*, 2002, [http://w.ww.sina-qd.com/t/2003-10-20/news\\_102.shtml](http://w.ww.sina-qd.com/t/2003-10-20/news_102.shtml).

<sup>6</sup> J. Du et al, An Analysis of the Consumption of Chinese Outbound Travellers, <http://www.lixinjian.com/ArticleShow.asp?ArticleID=102>; J. Du et al, The Evaluation of the Consumption of Chinese Outbound Travellers and Analysis of Subjective and Objective Interaction, <http://www.lixinjian.com/ArticleShow.asp?ArticleID=103>.

<sup>7</sup> Y. Sun en S. Dong, An Analysis of Issues in the Development of Chinese Outbound Tourism, *Journal of Jiangxi University of Finance and Economics* 28(4), 2003, pp. 58-9.

<sup>8</sup> J. Xiao en J. Ren, An Analysis of the Chinese Outbound Tourism Market and its Developmental Strategies, *Yunnan Geographic Environment Research* 15(1), January 2003, pp. 2-11.

travel market for the USA, and listed some barriers for the development of the new market.<sup>9</sup> In his PhD thesis, Guo Wenbin, a Chinese tourism scholar in Australia, examined the structure of the Chinese outbound tourism industry, its characteristics and the influencing factors. He also explored the successful strategies of Australia to enter the Chinese outbound market on the basis of a review of Chinese travel history, the competitive theories of West and East, and a thorough analysis of industrial practice in China.<sup>10</sup> In her PhD thesis, Grace Wen Pan, another Chinese tourism scholar in Australia, investigated the process of developing Sino-Australian partnership relationships in the tourism industry. She informed Australian tour operators about this process to facilitate the establishment of business relationships with Chinese travel agents so as to develop Australia as a preferred tourist destination for Chinese tourists.<sup>11</sup> She also outlined Chinese outbound tourism in Australia and examined cultural factors, particular “guanxi” (the special relationship in traditional Chinese business networks) in the Australian-Chinese tourism sectors.<sup>12</sup>

Hong Kong tourism scholars, Hanqin Qiu Zhang and Vincent C. S. Heung, analyzed the trends of Mainland Chinese outbound travellers to Hong Kong, the market performance, social, economic and political factors of developing Chinese outbound tourism, and the policy implications for the tourism industry in Hong Kong and the Asian Pacific region.<sup>13</sup> Based on push and pull factors, Qiu Zhang and another Hong Kong tourism scholar, Terry Lam, set up a model as a conceptual framework for studying Mainland Chinese visitors’ motivations to visit Hong Kong.<sup>14</sup> On the basis of a systematic sampling approach, and a self-administered and closed-ended questionnaire, Hailin Qu, a Chinese tourism scholar in the

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<sup>9</sup> C. Chen, Rising Chinese Overseas Travel Market and Potential for the United States,

<http://www.hotel-online.com/Trends/AdvancesInHospitalityResearch/ChineseTravelMarket998.html>.

<sup>10</sup> W. Guo, Strategies for Entering the Chinese Outbound Travel Market, PhD thesis, Victoria University, 2002.

<sup>11</sup> G. W. Pan, Business Partnership Relationships in the Chinese Inbound Tourism Market to Australia, PhD thesis, Griffith University, Queensland, 2004.

<sup>12</sup> G. W. Pan, A Theoretical Framework of Business Network Relationships Associated with the Chinese Outbound Tourism Market to Australia, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 14(2), 2003, pp. 87-104.

<sup>13</sup> H. Qiu Zhang en V. C. S. Heung, The Emergence of the Mainland Chinese Outbound Travel Market and its Implications for Tourism Marketing, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, pp. 7-12.

<sup>14</sup> H. Qiu Zhang en T. Lam, An Analysis of Mainland Chinese Visitors’ Motivations to Visit Hong Kong, *Tourism Management* 20(5), 1999, pp. 587-94.

USA, and Isabella Li, a Hong Kong BA graduate, identified travel characteristics, travel patterns, destination selection attributes, perceptions and the satisfaction levels of Mainland Chinese visitors to Hong Kong.<sup>15</sup> Qu and another Hong Kong tourism scholar, Sophia Lam, also developed a model to explain the demand of Mainland Chinese tourists for Hong Kong using the variables - tourist arrivals from Mainland China between 1984 and 1995; disposable income per capita in China; consumer price indices in Hong Kong and China; and the exchange rate.<sup>16</sup> Hong Kong tourism scholars, Cathy H. C. Hsu and T. Lam, also identified potential Mainland Chinese visitors' motivations and barriers of visiting Hong Kong on the basis of the push and pull motivation theory.<sup>17</sup> Other Hong Kong tourism scholars including Joanne Jung-Eun Yoo, examined the relationship of culture to international visitors' trip characteristics and investigated two groups - Mainland Chinese and Americans - of international air travellers to Hong Kong with distinctively different cultural backgrounds. In their journal articles, they also conducted a comparison of demographic and trip characteristics of these two cultural groups.<sup>18</sup>

Numerous articles on Chinese outbound tourism have appeared in *the Journal of Vacation Marketing*, an international journal of the travel and hospitality industries. These articles consider the topics in various destinations and are often written by a combination of overseas Chinese and non-Chinese nationals. Chinese tourism scholar in Australia, Zhou Li and others, outlined the main characteristics of tourists from Mainland China; and identified key constraints and opportunities in developing Chinese outbound tourism.<sup>19</sup> W. Guo and Australian tourism scholar, Lindsay Turner, examined the structure of the Chinese tourism

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<sup>15</sup> H. Qu en I. Li, The Characteristics and Satisfaction of Mainland Chinese Visitors to Hong Kong, *Journal of Travel Research* XXXV(4), Spring1997, pp. 37-41.

<sup>16</sup> H. Qu en S. Lam, A Travel Demand Model for Mainland Chinese Tourists to Hong Kong, *Tourism Management* 18(8), 1997, pp. 593-7.

<sup>17</sup> C. H. C. Hsu en T. Lam, Mainland Chinese Travellers' Motivations and Barriers of Visiting Hong Kong, *Journal of the Academy of Business and Economics*, March 2003, [http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi\\_m0OGT/is\\_1\\_2/ai\\_113563632](http://www.findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m0OGT/is_1_2/ai_113563632).

<sup>18</sup> J. J. E. Yoo et al, A Cross-cultural Comparison of Trip Characteristics: international visitors to Hong Kong from Mainland China and USA, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 16(1), 2004, pp. 65-77.

<sup>19</sup> L. Zhou et al, The China Outbound Market: an evaluation of key constraints and opportunities, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 4(2), 1998, pp. 109-19.

market and explored the possibility for foreign companies to enter the Chinese travel market and the way of developing their market entry strategies.<sup>20</sup> G. W. Pan and Scottish tourism scholar, Eric Laws, provided an analysis of the growing demand for Chinese outbound tourism and the special characteristics of this market. They also analyzed the significances of “guanxi”, the opportunities and problems for Australian operators to improve their service.<sup>21</sup> Chinese tourism scholar in the USA, Cai Liping and others examined the demographic and socio-economic characteristics and trip-related attributes of outbound Chinese travellers to the USA. They also compared this market with Chinese visitors travelling to nine Asia-Pacific areas and countries designated by the Chinese government as travel destinations, and Chinese visitors to Japan and Western Europe.<sup>22</sup> Chinese tourism scholar Xiaoyan Mo and New Zealand tourism scholar Chris Ryan investigated demographics and the perceptions of Chinese tourists of New Zealand based on a study of 400 Mainland Chinese visitors, a new but thriving market for New Zealand.<sup>23</sup>

As regards South Africa, there are two Masters theses related to Chinese outbound tourism to South Africa. In her Masters thesis of business administration, Chan Pin Yee Celia, focused on the psychographic issues of Chinese tourists coming to South Africa. She pointed out that understanding these factors, such as travel motivations of Chinese tourists, their buying behaviour, their preferences of destination as well as perception of South Africa, contributed to developing appropriate and various marketing strategies. In her survey of 505 Chinese citizens and cluster analysis of fifteen travel motivation factors, scores indicated that respondents could be classified into six distinct clusters: generalists, “yuppie”, knowledge, social, cultural and relaxing travellers. These identified segments were then profiled according to their demographic attributes, preferences in buying behaviour and perception of

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<sup>20</sup> W. Guo en L. W. Turner, Entry Strategies into China for Foreign Travel Companies, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, pp. 49-63.

<sup>21</sup> G. W. Pan en E. Laws, Tourism Marketing Opportunities for Australia in China, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, pp. 39-47.

<sup>22</sup> L. Cai et al, Chinese Travellers to the United States: an emerging market, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 6(2), 2000, pp. 131-44.

<sup>23</sup> C. Ryan en X. Mo, Chinese Visitors to New Zealand: demographics and perceptions, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, pp. 13-27.

South Africa. Results of her research provided implications for segmentation, targeting and positioning of South Africa at the strategic market level.<sup>24</sup> In her Masters thesis in Commerce (Management), Bingyan Yu provided a brief examination of the South Africa tourism industry, with particular reference to the emergence of South Africa as a destination for Chinese tourists. She identified, analyzed and evaluated the factors that could impact positively and or negatively on the image of South Africa as a tourist destination among Chinese tourists. She also identified current perceptions of South Africa's image and demonstrated that the industry needed to undertake further consumer studies to identify those images that were likely to stimulate travel by Chinese tourists to South Africa in general, and the Western Cape in particular. Moreover, she pointed out that it was essential to consider the existing image of the destination among Chinese tourists to South Africa when South African Tourism organizations positioned South Africa as a tourist destination in developing the Chinese tourism market.<sup>25</sup>

In the third category, which includes research conducted by non-Chinese tourism scholars, Belgium tourism scholar Veronique Verhelst, in her master thesis, presented an overview of the development of Chinese outbound tourism, and explored the possibility of an ADS agreement between China and the Shengen Areas.<sup>26</sup> In her research, New Zealand tourism scholar Susanne Becken discussed the Chinese tourists in New Zealand: their trip characteristics, expenditures, preferred travel styles and requirements for transportation and accommodation.<sup>27</sup> Nicolino Strizzi, an analyst of Canadian Tourism Commission, conducted an overview of China's inbound and outbound tourism market.<sup>28</sup> At the request of the Austrian National Tourist Office, Swedish tourism scholar, Silvia Roth, investigated the

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<sup>24</sup> P. Chan, *Motivations of Chinese Leisure Tourists and Their Perception of South Africa as a Destination*, MA thesis, the University of Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, 2002.

<sup>25</sup> B. Yu, *The Image of South Africa among Visiting Chinese Tourists: implication for destination positioning and marketing strategy*, MA thesis, University of the Western Cape, Cape Town, 2004.

<sup>26</sup> V. Verhelst, *Study of the Outbound Tourism Industry of the People's Republic of China: a possibility of a bilateral ADS agreement between the PRC and the Shengen Area*, MA thesis, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, 2003.

<sup>27</sup> S. Becken, *Chinese Tourism to New Zealand*, Discussion Paper, Landcare Research, 2003.

<sup>28</sup> N. Strizzi, *An Overview of China's Inbound and Outbound Tourism Market*, 1998.

Chinese outbound travel market.<sup>29</sup> In her Masters thesis, she also explored the business travellers and Goteborg as a business destination, taking Chinese business travellers to Goteborg as a case study.<sup>30</sup> Murray Bailey, the editor of *Travel Business Analyst*, conducted research on Chinese outbound tourism in 1994 and 1998 respectively.<sup>31</sup> American tourism scholar Pauline J. Sheldon reviewed the history of Chinese outbound travel and the development of tourism in China, particularly, focusing on Chinese outbound tourism. He also analyzed Hawaii as a destination for Chinese tourists and conducted a market survey for Chinese tourists to Hawaii for travel pattern, activities and motivation of Chinese tourists to Hawaii.<sup>32</sup> In South Africa, there is a brief introduction on Chinese outbound tourism in a monograph entitled *Marketing South African Tourism (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, written by South African tourism scholar Richard George.<sup>33</sup> In his book, Chinese outbound tourism was taken as a case study of future tourism marketing. However, his study includes some misconceptions and inaccurate data. For example, the statement that “South Africa became the first African country to be granted the ADS in 2000, making it one of the only 17 such destinations.”<sup>34</sup> In fact, South Africa received the ADS from the Chinese government in 2002 it becoming officially operational in 2003.<sup>35</sup> Another inaccurate example is the Chinese population of “almost 1.4 billion”.<sup>36</sup> According to the figures of National Bureau of Statistics (NBS) of the PRC, in 2001, China had a population of approximately 1.29 billion, of which Mainland China had approximately 1.27 billion.<sup>37</sup>

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<sup>29</sup> S. Roth, *The Chinese Outbound Travel Market: overall situation and specific aspects of travel to Europe*, 1998.

<sup>30</sup> S. Roth, *The Business Travellers and Goteborg as a Business Destination: the case Chinese business travellers to Goteborg*, MA thesis, Goteborg University, 2003.

<sup>31</sup> M. Bailey, *China Outbound*, *Travel & Tourism Analyst* 6, 1994, pp. 19-35; M. Bailey, *China Outbound*, *Travel & Tourism Analyst* 3, 1998, pp. 19-39.

<sup>32</sup> P. J. Sheldon, *China - the Awakening Dragon: outbound Chinese tourists and their motivations*.

<sup>33</sup> R. George, *Marketing South African Tourism*, pp. 396-7.

<sup>34</sup> *Ibid*, p. 396.

<sup>35</sup> See Chapter 5, pp. 161-2.

<sup>36</sup> R. George, *Marketing South African Tourism*, pp. 396.

<sup>37</sup> NBS, *Major Figures of the 2000 Population Census (No. 1)*, <http://www.cpirc.org.cn/en/e5cendata1.htm>, 2002-03-28.

The fourth category is concerned with tourism organizations. The WTO, the European Travel Commission (ETC),<sup>38</sup> the Hawaii Tourism Authority,<sup>39</sup> the Canadian Tourism Commission<sup>40</sup> and the Scandinavian Tourist Board,<sup>41</sup> all conducted comprehensive research on the topic. They considered the development of outbound tourism in China, including the policy of the Chinese government on outbound tourism, characteristics of the Chinese outbound tourism market and travel barriers of Chinese nationals.

The dramatic development of Chinese outbound tourism has also drawn the attention of the South African government and the local tourism industry. South African Tourism (SAT), the official tourism marketing organization under the jurisdiction of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), released official reports on the development of Chinese outbound tourism to South Africa: “South African Tourism Reports on China: Quarter 1 - 3 of 2004” in a range of quarterly country reports.<sup>42</sup> The SAT also conducted detailed research on the Chinese market and released its results in the tourism marketing report “Marketing South Africa in China” in 2005.<sup>43</sup>

There are however certain problems in terms of statistics of Chinese tourist arrivals in South Africa. The WTO and China adopt the approach of separating the tourist arrivals of China and Hong Kong because Hong Kong is one of two special administrative regions of China. Since 1998, when the diplomatic relations were normalized between China and South Africa, tourist arrivals from Mainland China have increased at a fantastic rate while tourist arrivals from Hong Kong have decreased (Figure 1. 1). In 2003, the average compound annual growth

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<sup>38</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism.

<sup>39</sup> The School of Travel Industry Management of University of Hawaii, Identifying and Analyzing the Chinese Outbound Market for Hawaii, Manoa, 2003.

<sup>40</sup> The Canadian Tourism Commission, Research on the Chinese Outbound Travel Market Report, Ottawa, 2001.

<sup>41</sup> The Scandinavian Tourist Board, Chinese Outbound Travel Market – 2004 Update, 2004.

<sup>42</sup> SAT, Quarterly Country Reports 2004, <http://www.southafrica.net/satourism/research/research.cfm>.

<sup>43</sup> SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, <http://www.southafrica.net/satourism/research/viewResearchDetail.cfm?ReportTypeCategoryID=30>.

rate (CAGR)<sup>44</sup> of Chinese tourist arrivals from Mainland China was 17.4.6% while the CAGR of Chinese tourist arrivals (including Hong Kong) were only 8.6%. The SAT statistics on the tourist arrivals from China including Hong Kong dwarfed the growth of tourist arrivals from Mainland China (Figure 1. 2). This is not feasible because it is not in line with the statistics of the WTO and China. It also affects the potential development of the Mainland Chinese tourist market.

This brief overview of the range and nature of research on Chinese outbound tourism throughout the world points to its growing importance. In addition, the above mentioned South African based misconceptions, inaccurate data and problems result from a lack of understanding China, tourism in China, as well as Chinese tourism to South Africa. As a result, it is necessary and indeed urgent to conduct research on tourism in China. Comprehensive research in this field is therefore critical for South African tourism institutions and the tourism industry to develop a mature Chinese outbound tourism market as soon as possible and take a share of the big Chinese outbound tourism market.

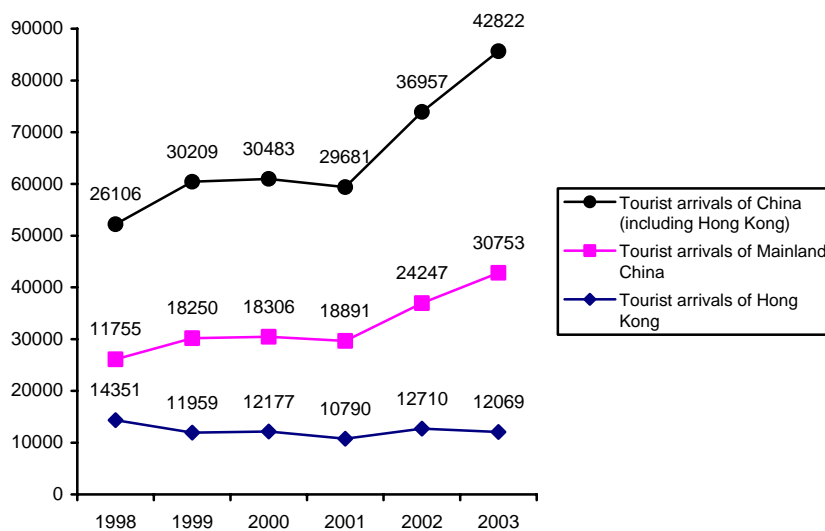


Figure 1. 1 Tourist arrivals of Mainland China and Hong Kong 1998-2003

Adapted from: South African Embassy in the PRC, Chinese Tourist Arrivals in South Africa 1998-2004, Email, 2005-02-17; DEAT, Chinese Tourists Arrivals (including Hong Kong) in South Africa 1998-2004, Email, 2005-01-25.

<sup>44</sup> The formula for calculating CAGR is  $(\text{current value}/\text{base value})^{(1/\# \text{ of years})-1}$ . See also SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, p. 4.

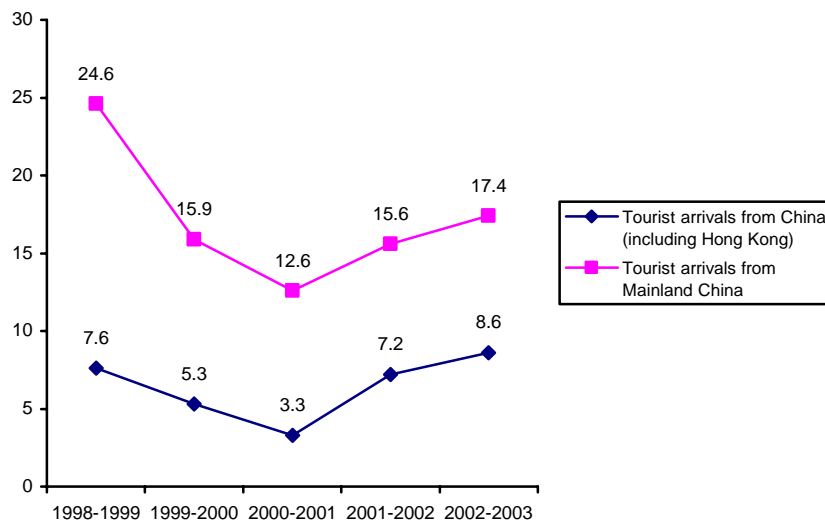


Figure 1.2 CAGR of Chinese tourist arrivals (including Hong Kong) and Mainland Chinese tourist arrivals 1998-2003 (%)

Adapted from: South African Embassy in the PRC, Chinese Tourist Arrivals in South Africa 1998-2004, Email, 2005-02-17; DEAT, Chinese Tourists Arrivals CAGR (including Hong Kong) in South Africa 1998-2004, Email, 2005-01-25.

## **Chapter 2**

### **Raising the bamboo curtain: tourism in China since 1978**

#### **I. Introduction**

This chapter is a historical outline of travel and tourism in China. It presents an overview of the travel history of China from the earliest times to the present. It reviews the development of tourism within China after the mid twentieth century, and in particular, inbound tourism from the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949 to the period of reform and opening up in 1978. It uses comparative, quantitative and qualitative methods to focus on macro and micro analysis of the development of tourism in China - domestic tourism and international tourism including inbound tourism and outbound tourism - as well as its role in the Chinese economy and the development of global tourism since 1978. This development is divided into three stages: firstly, the rapid development of inbound tourism between 1978 and 1985, when inbound tourism was seen as both a political instrument and a generator of foreign exchange; secondly, the steady development of inbound tourism and the rise of domestic tourism between 1986 and 1991, when tourism was incorporated into the "Seventh Five-Year National Plan (1986-1990)"; and thirdly, the simultaneous development of inbound, domestic and outbound tourism from 1992 to the present, when tourism was viewed as a key industry in the tertiary industry and a national economic growth point in China's market economy. It explores motivation factors for the development of inbound tourism, domestic tourism and outbound tourism and its economic and socio-cultural impacts on Chinese society. It also sets out to correct some of the misconceptions about the development of tourism in China, such as the origin of modern tourism in China. Moreover, it considers the developmental trend of tourism in China from the present to 2020 according to the estimation of the WTO and China's various ambitious plans. Finally, as a framework for the development of tourism in China, it provides a context for understanding the current development of tourism in China for researchers and tour operators engaged in developing the tourism market in China.

Travel in China, as a social cultural phenomenon, is as old as the 5 000-year-old recorded history of China.<sup>1</sup> It has taken various forms through the ages and includes travel for trade, religious travel, scholarly travel to the famous mountains and rivers, travel for seeking official posts, imperial tours and folk tours in ancient times,<sup>2</sup> as well as various types of tourism in modern times: adventure tourism, business tourism (including tourism of conferences and exhibitions), cruise tourism, coastal tourism, cultural tourism (including heritage and ethnic tourism), educational tourism, event tourism, health tourism, eco-tourism, rural tourism, urban tourism and sports tourism.<sup>3</sup>

Travel in China originated from the periods of Xia (2070BC-1600BC), Shang (1600BC-1046BC) and Zhou (1046BC-221BC). It was in its prime in the periods of Qin (221BC-207BC), Han (206BC-220AD), Sui (581-618), Tang (618-907), Song (960-1279), Yuan (1271-1368), Ming (1368-1644) and the early Qing (1644-1911). During these affluent dynasties, travel was one of the most popular activities.<sup>4</sup> However, from the mid and late Qing and the period of the Republic of China (1911-1949), travel declined due to the depressed economy, the “closed-door policy” and the unstable society.<sup>5</sup>

The establishment of the PRC in 1949 represented the greatest opportunity for the development of tourism in China during the mid twentieth century. As far as the development of tourism in China since 1949 is concerned, G. Zhang believed that tourism in China has experienced three major phases: politics only (1949-1978), politics plus economics (1978-1985) and economics over politics (1985-the present).<sup>6</sup> On the other hand, H. Qiu Zhang and V. C. S. Heung, contended that tourism in China has gone through five major stages: travel as political activity (1949-1966); the Cultural Revolution and the fall of the

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<sup>1</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. ix.

<sup>2</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, pp. 52-4; G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 5.

<sup>3</sup> H. Keyser, *Tourism Development*, p. 246.

<sup>4</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 52.

<sup>5</sup> Ibid, pp. 52-3; S. Wang en T. Zhang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. II)*, p. 1.

<sup>6</sup> G. Zhang, China's Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, pp. 24-5.

“bamboo curtain” (1966-1978); raising the curtain and the emergence of tourism (1978-1985); tourism as a national development tool (1986-2001); and China’s entry into the World Trade Organization (WTO<sub>1</sub> 2001-the present).<sup>7</sup> In addition, another view was held by Chinese tourism scholar Wang Hongbin, who was one of the founders of tourism research and education in China, argued that tourism in China since 1949 should be divided into two periods: firstly, tourism as political activity (1949-1977), which focused on political activity in the diplomatic arena; secondly, the overall development (1978-the present), in which tourism was transformed from a political activity to a part of the national economy and when tourism management was reformed and refined.<sup>8</sup> Based on these various categorizations, two historical periods in the development of tourism in China are to be analyzed in this chapter: tourism as a predominantly political activity (1949-1978) and tourism as a predominantly economic activity (1979-the present).

In the first historical period (1949-1978), inbound tourism, which includes foreign tourists and overseas Chinese entering into and travelling inside China, was regarded as a political activity. It was limited to three categories of overseas visitors: overseas Chinese, who resided beyond the areas claimed as territory by the PRC; the compatriots from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan, who were officially referred to as compatriots because these three regions were considered as an integral part of China; and foreigners who had special permission to visit China.<sup>9</sup> From 1954 to 1978, visitor arrivals recorded only 125 000.<sup>10</sup> Outbound tourism, which includes the Chinese travelling out of the boundaries of Mainland China, was confined

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<sup>7</sup> H. Qiu Zhang en V. C. S. Heung, Guest Editorial: Special Issues on China, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, pp. 5-6.

<sup>8</sup> H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, pp. 49-53

<sup>9</sup> G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 14; A. A. Lew, Overseas Chinese and Compatriots in China’s Tourism Development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, p. 155; H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p.86; L. Jenkins en Z. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People’s Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, p. 106.

<sup>10</sup> L. K. Richter, *The Politics of Tourism in Asia*, Honolulu, 1989, as cited by T. H. B. Sofield en F. M. S. Li, Tourism Development and Cultural Policies in China, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(2), 1998, p. 369.

to diplomats and government officials only.<sup>11</sup> Domestic tourism, which is Chinese citizens travelling within China, existed in special social circumstances.

In the second historical period (1978-the present), tourism has been considered as a comprehensive economic activity including transportation, accommodation, food services, shopping, travel arrangements and activities for tourists, such as historical, cultural, adventure, sports, recreational entertainment, and other similar activities.<sup>12</sup> The transformation of Chinese society since reform and opening up in 1978 - from a traditional society to a modern one, from an agricultural country to an industrial one and from the planned economy to the socialist market economy - contributed to the development of domestic and international tourism.<sup>13</sup> Reform and opening up has substantially altered the political and economic structure of China and has fundamentally changed the deep-rooted traditional consumer concepts and lifestyle of the Chinese as well. The rapidly increasing disposable incomes and more available leisure time as a result of the economic growth and prosperity, motivated the Chinese to pursue high-level cultural recreation: tourism.<sup>14</sup>

During the period of 1978 and 2005, according to China National Tourism Administration (CNTA), the official tourism organization directly regulated by the State Council of China, international visitor arrivals rose from 1.8 million to 120.3 million; international tourist arrivals from 0.7 million to 46.8 million (Figure 2. 1).

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<sup>11</sup> G. Zhang, China's Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 14; H. Qiu Zhang en V. C. S. Heung, Guest Editorial: special issues on China, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 5.

<sup>12</sup> C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 78.

<sup>13</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 3.

<sup>14</sup> D. Liu, An Analysis and Forecast of the Development of Domestic Tourism in China, in TRCCASS, *Green Book of China's Tourism 2001-2003*, <http://www.lianghui.org.cn/chinese/zhuanti/234746.htm>, 2002-11-09.

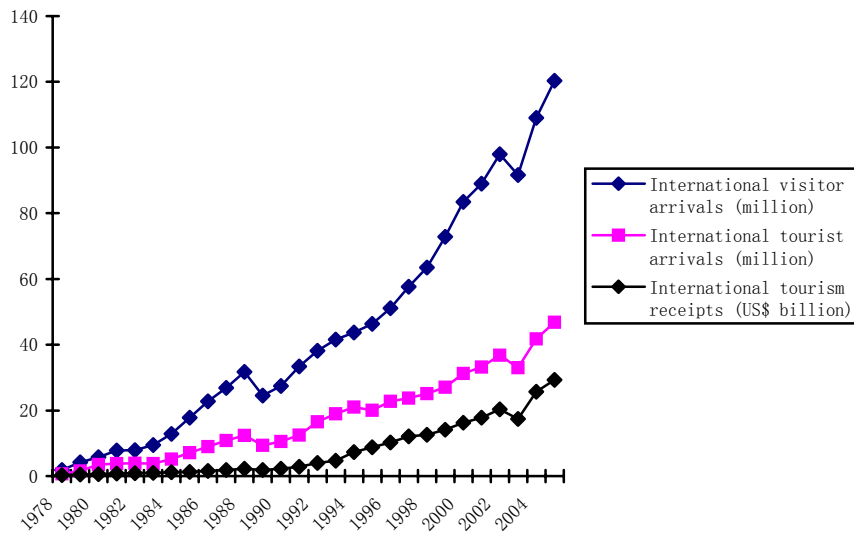


Figure 2. 1 International visitor arrivals, tourist arrivals and tourism receipts 1978-2005

Adapted from: CNTA, *The Outline of China Tourism Statistics 2005*, <http://www.cnta.com/tongjibanlan/index.htm>; the 2005 Statistics of the Tourism Industry of China, <http://www.cnta.com/32-lydy/2005/2005lytj.htm>.

According to tourism statistics of the CNTA, from 1984 to 2005, domestic visitor arrivals increased from 200 million to 1.2 billion (Figure 2. 2).

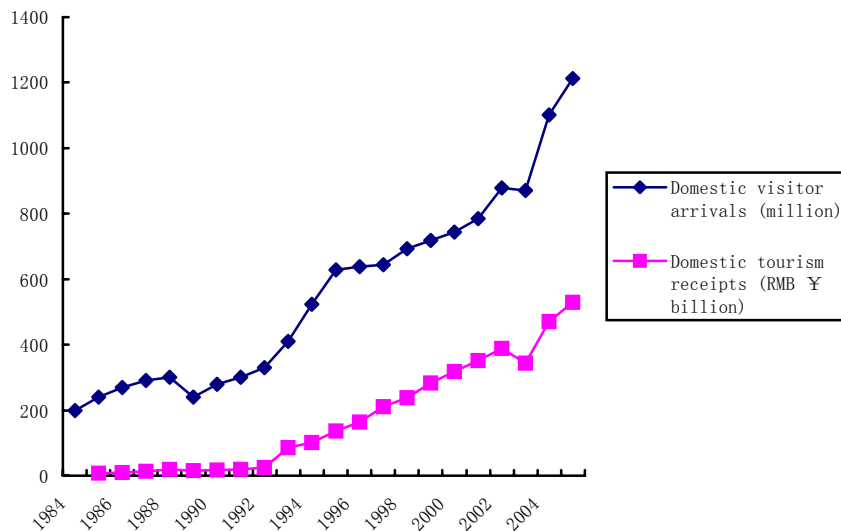


Figure 2. 2 Domestic visitor arrivals and tourism receipts 1984-2005

Adapted from: G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, (Beijing, 1999), Chapter 4; China.com.cn, China 2003: facts and figures, <http://www1.china.com.cn/chinese/china-shuzi2003>; CNTA, *The Outline of China Tourism Statistics 2002-5*, <http://www.cnta.com/tongjibanlan/index.htm>; CNTA, the 2005 Statistics of the Tourism Industry of China, <http://www.cnta.com/32-lydy/2005/2005lytj.htm>.

The number of outbound travellers went from 3.7 million in 1993 to 31.0 million in 2005 (Figure 2. 3).

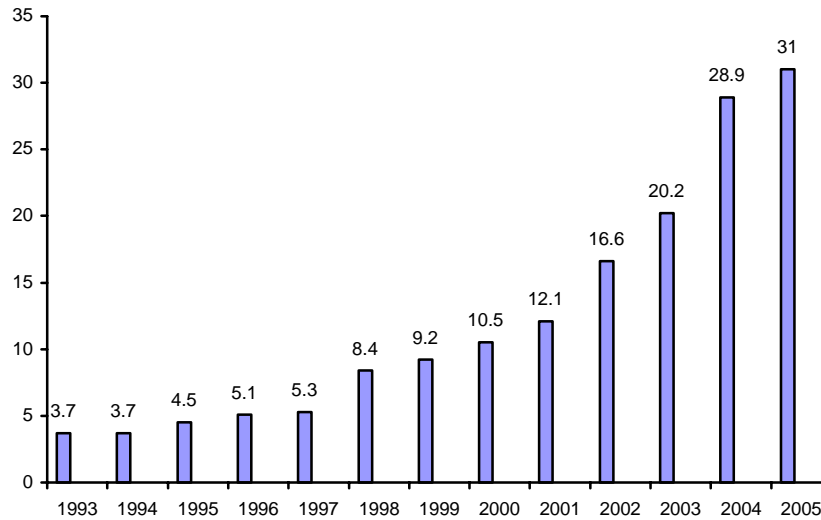


Figure 2. 3 Chinese outbound travellers (million) 1993-2005

Adapted from: China National Tourist Office, United States, China Tourism Statistics, <http://www.cnto.org/chinastats.asp#>; CNTA, the Convening of the 2005 Working Conference of Chinese Outbound Tourism, [http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz\\_view.asp?id=15093](http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz_view.asp?id=15093), 2005-06-29; CNTA, the 2005 Statistics of the Tourism Industry of China, <http://www.cnta.com/32-lydy/2005/2005lytj.htm>.

This chapter will consider the trends reflected in these statistics and present some explanations for the dramatic change in tourism figures in China.

## II. An overview of travel in China to 1949

Travel, in any age, occurs within a broader environment that embraces a number of important cultural, social, economic, political and technological conditions.<sup>15</sup> Economic prosperity and social stability have been the main factors of the development of travel in ancient China. In ancient times, the Chinese travelled domestically and abroad to see the world, obtain

<sup>15</sup> J. Towner en H. Evans, The History and Development of Tourism, in P. Callagham (ed.), *Travel and Tourism*, Tyne and Wear, 1989, p. 9.

knowledge and trade, at first overland and then by sea.<sup>16</sup> From the very outset, travel was regarded as extremely high intellectual value among Chinese scholars. They valued knowledge about their land and the landscapes in their culture<sup>17</sup> and they journeyed to “seek ultimate truth from the landscape”.<sup>18</sup> This section will trace the nature and development of travel in China. It will consider travel from ancient times, through the various dynasties to the Republican period.

### **Travel in the Xia, the Shang and the Zhou (2070 -221BC)**

The documented history of travel in China can be dated back to the periods of the Shang and the Zhou.<sup>19</sup> Numerous records regarding the ancestors’ travels are prevalent in ancient works. These works include *The Classic of Mountains and Rivers*, the earliest geographical record in China; *the Books of Songs*, the first anthology of Chinese poetry compiled by Confucius (551-479BC), the founder of the Confucianism; and *Historical Records*, written by Sima Qian (145-85BC), the first great historian in China.<sup>20</sup> In these works, the Great Yu, one of the reputed founders of the Xia Dynasty, was regarded as one of the greatest explorers and travellers in ancient China. It was recorded that he journeyed throughout the country to monitor the control of water. He illustrated what he saw - customs, topography and landforms - on the surface of nine dings.<sup>21</sup> These illustrations became the earliest tour guide in the history of travel in China.<sup>22</sup>

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<sup>16</sup> W. Guo en L.W. Turner, Entry Strategies into China for Foreign Travel Companies, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 49; T. Chen, *Emigrant communities in South China*, p. 1, as cited by K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 59-60.

<sup>17</sup> W. Guo, *Strategies for Entering the Chinese Outbound Travel Market*, p. 19.

<sup>18</sup> X. Ge, *The Transformation of Xuan Nature toward Landscape Aesthetics in East Chin Dynasty*, unpublished paper, 1991, as quoted by T. H. B. Sofield en F. M. S. Li, *Tourism Development and Cultural Policies in China*, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(2), 1998, p. 366.

<sup>19</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 52.

<sup>20</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 52-3.

<sup>21</sup> Ding, a three or four legged vessels with two upstanding handles and columnar legs. See also B. Hook en D. Twitchett (eds.), *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of China*, p. 382.

<sup>22</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 25-7.

In the Shang period, travel for trade became popular owing to the economic growth of slavery.<sup>23</sup> In the Zhou Dynasty, King Mu (962-908BC) was connected with a famous historical romance, *Travelling of the King Mu*, which embroidered on his journey to the far west to visit the Queen Mother of the West, a goddess in Chinese mythology.<sup>24</sup> In the Spring and Autumn Period (770-476BC) and the Warring State Period (475-221BC), the Confucian ethics implored the Mandarins, a dominant scholarly class assuming a central role in the administration of the imperial affairs, to travel extensively to broaden their academic fields.<sup>25</sup> Confucius was an educationist, philosopher, political theorist as well as one of the greatest travellers in the history of China. In order to implement his ideas of reform, he travelled in many states in the Eastern Zhou (770-221BC), including current Shandong, Henan, Anhui and Hubei.<sup>26</sup> He left many records of these travels.

### **Travel in the Qin and the Han (221BC-220AD)**

In the period of the Qin and the Han, a period of the establishment and development of the centralized feudal nations in the history of China, Qin Shihuang (259-210BC), the first emperor of the Qin Dynasty, unified the other six states - Chu, Qi, Wei, Han, Zhao, Yan - and established the first centralized feudal nation in the history of China in 221 BC.<sup>27</sup> With the completion of a great road-building programme, the principal trunk roads ran from the capital Xianyang (current Xianyang, Shaanxi province) to the main areas of the empire. In his reign of twelve years, Qin Shihuang travelled throughout the country with his five imperial inspection tours. These tours covered about 14 000 kilometers. He also went to offer

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<sup>23</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 52; H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 25.

<sup>24</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 59-62; F. Shen, *Cultural Flow between China and outside World throughout History* translated by J. Wu, pp. 18-21; W. Rodzinski, *A History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 22.

<sup>25</sup> X. Ge, *The Transformation of Xuan Nature toward Landscape Aesthetics in East Chin Dynasty*, unpublished paper, 1991, as cited by T. H. B. Sofield en F. M. S. Li, *Tourism Development and Cultural Policies in China*, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(2), 1998, p. 366.

<sup>26</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 75-7, 80.

<sup>27</sup> P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, pp. 60-1.

sacrifices to gods and ancestors and proclaimed titles for the Buddhist temples in Mount Tai, Shandong province.<sup>28</sup> Here again travel records were left for posterity.

In the period of the Han, Emperor Wu (141-87BC) travelled more than thirty times throughout the territory of the Han.<sup>29</sup> He, meanwhile, dispatched Zhang Qian (?-113BC) twice as his envoy to the Western Regions (current Xinjiang and Central Asia). Zhang Qian pioneered the Silk Road, a famous trade route from Chang'an (current Xi'an, Shaanxi) through Xinjiang and Central Asia, and on to the east coast of the Mediterranean Sea. Through the Silk Road, China began to communicate with the countries in central Asia and the eastern coast of the Mediterranean Sea.<sup>30</sup> There is a popular Chinese belief that scholars should "read ten thousand volumes of books and travel ten thousand li".<sup>31</sup> At the age of twenty, in order to compile his *Historical Records*, Sima Qian started his journey throughout the Han Empire to collect the first-hand historical records, verify the ancient rumours and legends and visit ancient monuments.<sup>32</sup>

### **Travel in the period of division (220-581)**

In the period of division - the Three Kingdoms (Wei, Shu and Wu 220-265), the Western Jin (265-316), the Eastern Jin (317-420) and the South and North Dynasties (420-581) - numerous senior officials were keen on natural sightseeing and religion. In order to escape social conflicts, they focused on Xuan philosophy, a mystical school characterized by metaphysical speculations seeking to adopt Taoist theories into a Confucian milieu during the third and the fourth centuries.<sup>33</sup> They also travelled to famous landscapes. Their works laid a

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<sup>28</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp.110-3; X. Yu, *Cultural Tradition of Chinese Travel*, Chapter 2.

<sup>29</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 114-5.

<sup>30</sup> Ibid, pp. 125-9; C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 53; New Star Publishers, *China 2002*, p. 4.

<sup>31</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. vii. Li is Chinese unit of length. One li is equivalent to 0.5 kilometers or 0.31 mile.

<sup>32</sup> W. Rodzinski, *A History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 77-8; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 120-5.

<sup>33</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 53; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 146; D. Wei et al (eds.), *A Chinese-English Dictionary (Revised edition)*, p. 1412.

foundation for “travel literature” in Chinese writings.<sup>34</sup> The main figures were Tao Yuanming (365-427) and Xie Lingyun (385-433) in the Eastern Jin. Tao was the first great poet of poetry of “fields and gardens”. In his “On Returning to My Garden and Fields”, he expressed his “instinctively loving the mountains and hills” in his youth and described his joy upon his return to home.<sup>35</sup> Xie, the founder of poetry of “mountains and streams”, travelled to famous mountains and rivers and composed many fantastic poems.<sup>36</sup>

During this period, pilgrimage was another popular form of travel. In 399, Fa Xian (337-422), a Buddhist monk in the Eastern Jin, set out from current Xi’an via today’s Xinjiang and Central Asia to go to India overland to obtain original Buddhist scriptures. He returned by sea via Sri Lanka and Sumatra in 414. Upon his return, he translated Buddhist texts and wrote *Fuo Guo Ji (A Record of Buddhist Kingdoms)*. In this book, he recounted history, customs, and geography in about thirty countries he visited. He also described routes between China and countries such as Sri Lanka and Sumatra.<sup>37</sup>

### **Travel in the Sui and the Tang (581-907)**

The Sui and the Tang were two prime feudal dynasties in China. During this period, the advanced land and water communications provided an important premise for the development of travel. The land networks reached Persia (current Iran), the Mediterranean areas in the west, and India and the Malay Archipelago in the south.<sup>38</sup> The Grand Canal, the dredging of which began in 587, covered 1 801 kilometers from Tongzhou, Beijing in the north to

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<sup>34</sup> N. Feng et al, *Selected Works of Ancient Travelling Literature in China*, pp. 31-3.

<sup>35</sup> K. Kuiper et al (eds.), *Merriam-Webster’s Encyclopedia of Literature*, p. 1092; P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, pp. 100-1; W. Rodzinski, *A History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 108; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 156-8.

<sup>36</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 158-9; K. Kuiper et al (eds.), *Merriam-Webster’s Encyclopedia of Literature*, p. 1219.

<sup>37</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 189-92; P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, p. 97; W. Rodzinski, *A History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 105; F. Shen, *Cultural Flow between China and outside World throughout History* translated by J. Wu, pp. 103-4.

<sup>38</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 53.

Hangzhou, Zhejiang in the south. It connected the south and the north of China by river. Emperor Yang (569-618) of the Sui Dynasty conducted two inspection tours by river to Jiangdu (current Yangzhou, Jiangsu) in 605 and 610 respectively. He was the first emperor to travel by ship during the imperial tours.<sup>39</sup>

In the Tang Dynasty, economic prosperity created numerous opportunities for trade, cultural exchanges and diplomatic affairs. Inbound and domestic travel was booming. Travel for business, religion and sightseeing constituted the most popular forms of travelling.<sup>40</sup> Ambassadors, businessmen, monks and scholars from home and abroad came to Chang'an, the capital of the Tang, for business, religion and academic research.<sup>41</sup> Chang'an, celebrated as "the supreme metropolis of the medieval world, unrivaled by Baghdad and surpassing Rome", was an international business center as well as a preferred destination at that time.<sup>42</sup> Luoyang, Yangzhou and Guangzhou also became the hub of business and communication.<sup>43</sup> Moreover, travel was regarded as a source of inspiration by ancient Chinese poets, especially the Tang poets. The creative talents of scholars inspired by landscapes were exhibited in poetry, paintings and calligraphy, with vivid presentations and fabulous imagination of these great ancient experiences.<sup>44</sup> In travelling to the famous mountains and rivers throughout the country, the great poets Li Bai (701-762), Du Fu (712-770) and others composed numerous poems, developing "travel literature".<sup>45</sup> During this period, one of the most famous outbound travels was pilgrimage of a Buddhist monk, Xuan Zang (602-664). He travelled to India through Central Asia to visit the holy places of Buddhism in search of new Buddhist texts between 629 and 645. He finished his works of twelve volumes *Da Tang Xi Yu Ji (Records of*

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<sup>39</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 219-23; C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 53.

<sup>40</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 53.

<sup>41</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 239.

<sup>42</sup> J. D. Brown, *Digging to China: Down and Out in the Middle Kingdom*, New York, 1991, as quoted by T. H. B. Sofield en F. M. S. Li, *Tourism Development and Cultural Policies in China*, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(2), 1998, p. 369.

<sup>43</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 239-40.

<sup>44</sup> *Ibid*, p. vii; T. H. B. Sofield en F. M. S. Li, *Tourism Development and Cultural Policies in China*, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(2), 1998, p. 366.

<sup>45</sup> W. Guo, *Strategies for Entering the Chinese Outbound Travel Market*, p. 21; N. Feng et al, *Selected Works of Ancient Travelling Literature in China*, pp. 34-8.

*the Western Regions in the Tang Dynasty*) in 646. In his works, he accounted 110 countries he visited and another twenty eight countries he heard about during his sixteen years' travelling abroad.<sup>46</sup>

### **Travel in the Song, the Yuan and the Ming (960-1644)**

During the periods of the Song and the Yuan, the growth of travel can be ascribed to the greater achievements in science, technology, medicine and literature. Four inventions in China - making paper, printing, the compass and gunpowder - spread to Western countries. The compass advanced navigation and the flourishing of the "Maritime Silk Road".<sup>47</sup> In the fifth century, the "Maritime Silk Road" started in Quanzhou, Fujian. During the Song Dynasty, it had the reputation of "the biggest port of the Orient" owing to its role in trade between the Eastern and Western countries.<sup>48</sup>

International travel played an important role during the Yuan Dynasty. The Yuan government sent Chinese citizens to foreign countries and also employed foreigners in its administration.<sup>49</sup> Marco Polo (1254-1324), a Venice merchant, travelled to China from Italy and lived in China in the thirteenth century. He travelled throughout the Mongolian realm, much of China in his seventeen-year service for the Mongolian Emperor Kubilai Khan (1215-1294). He was the first Western explorer to introduce China to the world. *Travels of Marco Polo* aroused the curiosity and interests of numerous Westerners and awakened a strong desire to travel to "mysterious China".<sup>50</sup> The great navigator Wang Dayuan (1311-?), who travelled to the Indian Ocean, will be discussed in Chapter Three.

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<sup>46</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 272-4; F. Shen, *Cultural Flow between China and outside World throughout History* translated by J. Wu, pp. 104-8.

<sup>47</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 53.

<sup>48</sup> R. Song, A Famous Historical Site can't be a Top Tourism Destination: tourism development in Quanzhou, Fujian, <http://www.people.com.cn/GB/41570/41636/41640/3044669.html>, 2004-12-09; N. Rui, Quanzhou: start of the maritime silk road, *China Today* XLVII(1), 1998, p. 35.

<sup>49</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 312-3.

<sup>50</sup> Ibid, pp. 317-20; W. Rodzinski, *A History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 186; H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 30.

During the period of the Ming Dynasty, business and academic achievements were obtained through international and domestic travel. The most famous international and domestic travellers were Zheng He (Cheng Ho 1371-1435), Li Shizhen(1518-1593), Xu Xiake(1587-1641).<sup>51</sup> Li Shizhen was an expert on Chinese medicine and the author of the *Great Compendium of Herbs*, which was completed in 1578. In order to collect information, he travelled extensively and consulted experts in each area of interest, finding individuals who worked daily with field plants, water animals, snakes and birds.<sup>52</sup> Xu Xiake was one of the greatest geologists, travellers and writers in ancient China. In thirty four years, he travelled to as many as nineteen provinces and regions in China. His journey covered approximately 4 500 kilometers.<sup>53</sup> He recorded his observations, which included geology, geography, hydrology, organisms and the scenic environment, in *Travels of Xu Xiake*. His book was one of the greatest contributions to the research on geology in China,<sup>54</sup> while containing much information relevant to travel and tourism. The seven maritime expeditions of Zheng He will also be discussed in Chapter Three.

### **Travel in the Qing and the Republican period (1644-1949)**

In the Qing Dynasty, the reigns of Emperor Kangxi (1654-1722, reigned 1661-1722), Emperor Yongzheng (1678-1735, reigned 1722-1735) and Emperor Qianlong (1711-1799, reigned 1736-1796) were prosperous between the seventeenth and the eighteenth centuries.<sup>55</sup> China was probably the strongest, wealthiest and most populous nation on earth, with rich and diverse domestic and international trade and a rapidly growing population of over 200 million.<sup>56</sup> During their reigns, Emperor Kangxi and Emperor Qianlong respectively took six inspection tours to the south of the Yangtze River, a region in the lower Yangtze Valley

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<sup>51</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 343-51.

<sup>52</sup> Ibid, pp. 343-5; S. Dharmananda, Scholar Worthy of Emulation, <http://www.itmonline.org/arts/lishizhen.htm>.

<sup>53</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 347. G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 229.

<sup>54</sup> J. Bao en Y. Chu, *Tourism Geography*, p. 17; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 347-51.

<sup>55</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 365; P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, p. 220; B. Hook en D. Twitchett, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of China*, p. 207.

<sup>56</sup> B. Hook en D. Twitchett, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of China*, p. 207.

including current Jiangsu, Anhui and northern Zhejiang.<sup>57</sup> In the nineteenth century, however, the conditions in China began to deteriorate. Travel was not as popular as it had been due to the Qing's "closed-door policy", political corruption, economic depression, natural disasters, internal rebellions and successive wars against foreign powers.<sup>58</sup>

After the Opium War in 1840, with the Western invasion and the breaking of the "closed-door policy", businessmen, missionaries, scholars and adventurers from Western countries came to China for business, missionary work, sightseeing and recreation. Chinese diplomats were also dispatched to the Western countries for diplomatic tours and inspection. Moreover, the young people went abroad to study Western science and technology from the 1870s. European countries and the USA became preferred destinations.<sup>59</sup>

### **Modern tourism in China**

Although travel has a long history in China, it was not until the 1920s that modern tourism in the full sense of the word began in China.<sup>60</sup> There was a debate as regards the beginning of modern tourism in China, some authors and researchers believed that reform and opening up in 1978 marked the beginning of modern tourism in China.<sup>61</sup> However, it has been pointed out that the Tourism Department, under the jurisdiction of Shanghai Commercial Bank directed by General Manager Chen Guangfu, was established in Shanghai in 1923.<sup>62</sup> It dealt with both domestic and international travel. It also sent the first shipload of students to the USA, organized the first domestic package tour, as well as the first outbound package tour,

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<sup>57</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 366-9

<sup>58</sup> See Chapter 3, pp. 78-9.

<sup>59</sup> S. Wang en T. Zhang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. II)*, p. ii; H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 47; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>60</sup> S. Wang en T. Zhang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. II)*, p. 208.

<sup>61</sup> S. Wang en H. Qu, Impacts of Accession to WTO on China's Travel Industry, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 12(1), 2002, p. 64; WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 6.

<sup>62</sup> H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 85; S. Wang en T. Zhang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. II)*, p. 209; H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, pp. 47-8; C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*. p. 56; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

and issued the first traveller's cheque.<sup>63</sup> In 1927, the Tourism Department was developed into the China Travel Agency (CTA), the first travel agency in China. In the same year, CTA published *Travelling Magazine*, the first magazine on travel in China.<sup>64</sup> The CTA developed rapidly from 1928 to 1938, setting up branches in more than twenty cities in China and in other Southeast Asian countries.<sup>65</sup> In addition, during the 1920s, Thomas Cook and Sons, among other early international travel companies, opened an office in Shanghai and later moved to Beijing, the then capital.<sup>66</sup> However, wars such as those among the warlords (1916-1928), the Anti-Japanese War (1937-1945) and the Civil War (1946-1949) between the Chinese Communist Party (CCP) and the Guomindang (the Nationalist Party) of China, generally retarded the growth of modern tourism in China.<sup>67</sup>

### **III. Tourism in China (1949-1978)**

#### **International tourism as political activity in the diplomatic arena**

During the first period from the foundation of the PRC in 1949 to the implementation of reform and opening up in 1978, inbound tourism was a major form of travel. It revolved around receiving guests and tourists for diplomatic activities.<sup>68</sup> Tourism scholars W. S. Chow, L. E. Hudman and D. E. Hawkins believed that domestic and international tourism in China

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<sup>63</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*. p. 56.

<sup>64</sup> Ibid, pp. 6-7; H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 48; S. Wang en T. Zhang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. II)*, pp. 208, 212.

<sup>65</sup> H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 48; H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, pp. 85-6; C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*. pp. 56-7.

<sup>66</sup> G. Zhang, China's Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 13.

<sup>67</sup> P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, p. 267; B. Hook en D. Twitchett, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of China*, pp. 246-7, 250-1; H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 86.

<sup>68</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 6; G. Zhang, China's Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 14.

were almost non-existent.<sup>69</sup> W. Guo also claimed that the development of tourism in China before 1978 was non-existent.<sup>70</sup> Chinese tourism scholar Zhao Changhua also argued that tourism in China was stunted under the influence of the “ultra-left” trend of thought, which focused mainly on “self-reliance” and the “overthrow of the new bureaucratic bourgeoisie” and became rampant in the Cultural Revolution (1966-1976).<sup>71</sup> During this period, tourism in China became an instrument of political propaganda in the change from socialism to communism.<sup>72</sup> It was seen as a “diplomatic activity” or “people’s diplomacy”, with the political purpose of representing the achievements of socialist China, expanding China’s political influence and promoting international understanding and friendship through receiving invited guests and tourists.<sup>73</sup> Visits to China were strictly controlled by the Chinese government, including visas, price, destination and tourist guides.<sup>74</sup> The selected international tourists were shown material achievements of socialism such as factories, communes and revolutionary peasant and worker communities. Independent contacts between tourists and locals were not allowed.<sup>75</sup> As a result, G. Zhang believed that tourism prior to 1978 was only of an exclusively political nature.<sup>76</sup>

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<sup>69</sup> W. S. Chow, Open Policy and Tourism between Guangdong and Hong Kong, *Annals of Tourism Research* 15, 1988, pp. 205-218; L. E. Hudman en D. E. Hawkins, *Tourism in Contemporary Society*, Prentice Hall, 1989, as cited by T. H. B. Sofield en F. M. S. Li, Tourism Development and Cultural Policies in China, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(2), 1998, p. 369.

<sup>70</sup> W. Guo, Strategies for Entering the Chinese Outbound Travel Market, p. 43.

<sup>71</sup> S. Lien, Whither China?, <http://www.marxists.de/china/sheng/whither.htm>; C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 60.

<sup>72</sup> Y. Qiao, Domestic Tourism in China: policies and development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, p. 122.

<sup>73</sup> H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 88; G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 24; H. Qiu Zhang en V. C. S. Heung, Guest Editorial: special issues on China, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 5.

<sup>74</sup> G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, pp. 25-6; C. L. Jenkins en Z. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People’s Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, p. 104.

<sup>75</sup> T. H. B. Sofield en F. M. S. Li, Tourism Development and Cultural Policies in China, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(2), 1998, p. 369.

<sup>76</sup> G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 24.

From 1949 to 1978, inbound tourism met the diplomatic needs of the “new” China, as well as played a positive role in showcasing the Chinese achievements in socialist construction and international communication between China and the world.<sup>77</sup> In the 1950s, tourists were mainly overseas Chinese, visiting friends and relatives in the Mainland; and invited “foreign friends and guests”, who came primarily from socialist countries.<sup>78</sup> They were members of the so-called “international brethren of socialists”, who was known as “political pilgrims” in American author Paul Hollander’s monograph *Political Pilgrims*.<sup>79</sup> In 1952, the Peace Conference of the Asian and Pacific Region, initiated by Song Qingling and Guo Moruo, two prominent democrats and peace lovers, was convened in Beijing. For the first time, after 1949, China received 378 delegates from thirty seven countries including Japan, Australia, USA, Mexico and Chile. This conference greatly stimulated the development of inbound tourism in China.<sup>80</sup> In 1954, China International Travel Service (CITS), the first national travel agency in the “new” China, was established to receive overseas Chinese, compatriots and foreigners of non-Chinese origin. It signed cooperation agreements with the Soviet Union and some eastern European countries and also connected with travel agencies in France and other Western countries. From 1956 to 1958, it received 10 649 foreign visitors, of which 80% came from the former Soviet Union and other Eastern European countries.<sup>81</sup>

In the early 1960s, with the breakdown of the Sino-Soviet relations and the establishment of diplomatic relations with Western countries, China began to receive Western tourists.<sup>82</sup> In

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<sup>77</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Preface, Chapter 1.

<sup>78</sup> Y. Qiao, Domestic Tourism in China: Policies and Development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, p. 122; G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 24; C. L. Jenkins en Z. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People’s Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, p. 104.

<sup>79</sup> P. Holland, *Political Pilgrims*, New York, 1981, as quoted by T. H. B. Sofield en F. M. S. Li, Tourism Development and Cultural Policies in China, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(2), 1998, p. 369.

<sup>80</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 3.

<sup>81</sup> Ibid; H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, pp. 86-7.

<sup>82</sup> C. L. Jenkins en Z. H. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People’s Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, p. 104; H. Wang et al *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 50.

1964, the government decided to establish the China State Administration for Travel and Tourists Affairs to reach the goals of “expanding the political influence” as well as “creating free foreign currency”.<sup>83</sup> During this period, there were great achievements in the diplomatic field as well as in inbound tourism of the “new” China. This resulted from the visit of the late Chinese Premier Zhou Enlai to ten African countries - Egypt, Algeria, Morocco, Tunisia, Ghana, Mali, Guinea, Sudan, Ethiopia and Somalia - in 1964; the establishment of diplomatic relations with France; and the direct air traffic links between China and Pakistan.<sup>84</sup> In 1965, the CITS received 12 877 foreign tourists in groups and 8 358 independent tourists. Visitor arrivals were 21 235 and tourism receipts was US\$ 2 million, the highest record since 1949.<sup>85</sup>

In the mid 1960s, however, when tourism was developing at an unprecedented rate in the rest of the world, China suffered greatly from the turmoil caused by the Cultural Revolution. This stunted the growth of tourism in China so that China missed a range of opportunities for developing tourism along with the global trend.<sup>86</sup> Under the influence of the “ultra-left” trend of thought, tourism was banned due to the belief that it was “representative of a bourgeois capitalist lifestyle”<sup>87</sup>. Inbound travel meant that “the beautiful landscapes in China are enjoyed by foreign bourgeois”.<sup>88</sup> Rather than enjoying landscapes, tourists to China were shown so-called “fruits” of the Cultural Revolution, such as acupuncture anaesthesia in hospitals, achievements of “Learning from Dazai”, an agricultural model in Xiyang County, Shanxi during the Cultural Revolution.<sup>89</sup> Visitor arrivals decreased dramatically: just over 500 in the first half of 1966 and only 303 in 1968.<sup>90</sup>

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<sup>83</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1, Chapter 6.

<sup>84</sup> Ibid, Chapter 3; H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 87.

<sup>85</sup> H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 51; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1, Chapter 3.

<sup>86</sup> H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 51; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1, Chapter 3; G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 14; H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 88.

<sup>87</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 60; G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 15.

<sup>88</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 6.

<sup>89</sup> G. Zhang, Questions in Tourism in China: reply, 2004-08-02.

<sup>90</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1, Chapter 3.

After 1949, China joined the socialist bloc and adopted the diplomatic principle of “to lean one side”, which implied closer relationship with the Soviet Union and other socialist countries, while distinguishing themselves from developed Western countries. As a result, China was generally isolated by the international community.<sup>91</sup> Confronting international isolation and the later deterioration of Sino-Soviet relations, the Chinese government proposed the policy of “self-reliance” to emphasize the development independent of foreign influence. Based on “self-reliance”, China sought to find its own way to achieve the socialist development from 1958 to 1971.<sup>92</sup> It was not until the early 1970s that China was presented with a more favourable international environment. This was as a result of the restoration of China’s legitimate seat in the United Nations (UN) in 1971 at the 26<sup>th</sup> General Assembly, the issue of the “Joint Communiqué between the People’s Republic of China and the United States of America”, also referred to as the “Shanghai Communiqué”, and normalization of the Sino-Japanese relations in 1972. These three significant historical events put tourism in China on the road to development.<sup>93</sup> Moreover, China resumed exchanges in tourism with Romania, Yugoslavia and other East European countries. Visitor arrivals were 1 599 including thirty invited Americans in 1971 and 50 000 in 1976, doubling that of 1975.<sup>94</sup>

### **Domestic tourism (1950s-1970s)**

During the period of 1949 and 1978, most Chinese had little disposable income and no long holidays under the communist dispensation.<sup>95</sup> Domestic tourism was regarded as being “against the doctrine of communism”<sup>96</sup> Leisure travel was seen as “creating social

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<sup>91</sup> R. T. Phillips, *China since 1911*, pp. 162, 200.

<sup>92</sup> Ibid, pp. 229-30.

<sup>93</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 60; H. Wang et al *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 51.

<sup>94</sup> H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 88; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1, Chapter 3.

<sup>95</sup> C. L. Jenkins en Z. H. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People’s Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, p. 118.

<sup>96</sup> H. Qiu Zhang en V. C. S. Heung, Guest Editorial: special issues on China, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 5.

inequality” contrary to the communist ideology,<sup>97</sup> and was prohibited for all but a favored few.<sup>98</sup> This so-called “socialist ideology” held back the development of tourism in China in all senses of the word for nearly three decades. During this period, domestic tourism included three major forms: political travel, travel as an incentive for work achievements and travel for family reunions. Political travel focused on communist ideological education such as patriotism and the revolutionary history of the CCP. It concluded visits to historical sites, memorial museums and old base areas of the Chinese revolution between 1921, when the CCP was founded, and 1949, when the PRC was established.<sup>99</sup> Visitors were proletarian revolutionists who took part in the Chinese revolution, staff in the CCP and governmental institutions, model workers and students. The travel costs were always paid by the government.<sup>100</sup> The second form of travel was seen by the government as a spiritual and material incentive for model workers, the sick and the injured at work. Family reunions, visiting friends and relatives in the period of the Spring Festival (the Chinese New Year) and school holidays, became another popular form of domestic travel at that time.<sup>101</sup>

#### **IV. The “Great Leap Forward”: tourism in China since 1978**

As early as 1975, the framework for the Chinese development programme - the “Four Modernizations” of agriculture, industry, national defence and science and technology - was proposed by the late Premier Zhou Enlai at the First Session of the Fourth National People’s Congress of the People’s Republic of China.<sup>102</sup> Based on the principle of “Four

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<sup>97</sup> W. Guo en L. W. Turner, Entry Strategies into China for Foreign Travel Companies, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 50.

<sup>98</sup> T. H. B. Sofield en F. M. S. Li, Tourism Development and Cultural Policies in China, *Annals of Tourism Research* 25(2), 1998, p. 366.

<sup>99</sup> Anonymous (Anon.), The Embryo of “Red Tourism”, <http://www.2020china.com/news/56/20041027155332.htm>; Anon., Definition of “Red tourism” and Tourist Resource of “Red Tourism”, <http://www.chinayingmo.com/news/read.asp?id=7583> 2005-01-15.

<sup>100</sup> Anon., The Embryo of “Red Tourism”, <http://www.2020china.com/news/56/20041027155332.htm>.

<sup>101</sup> W. Guo en L. W. Turner, Entry Strategies into China for Foreign Travel Companies, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 50.

<sup>102</sup> The First Session of the Fourth National People’s Congress of the People’s Republic of China, *Report on the Work of the Government*. p. 45.

Modernizations”, at the Third Plenum of the Eleventh Central Committee Congress in 1978, the CCP made an epoch-making decision to shift emphasis from political struggles to economic growth.<sup>103</sup> After 1978, China entered a new historical period of reform and opening up in the construction of modernization. The “bamboo curtain” of the past three decades was finally raised to strengthen the country, reconstruct Chinese national identity and catch up with other developed countries in the world. The political environment began to shift from the old Chinese paradigm of “social stability comes from economic equality” to the new theory of “China’s political stability can only be maintained if economic prosperity is achieved”.<sup>104</sup> As the economic impacts of tourism began to be recognized in economic circles, tourism was promoted to the forefront of reform and opening up.<sup>105</sup>

As to the development of tourism in China since 1978, it was believed that it underwent two stages: a “nurturing” stage (1978-1991) and a “maturing” stage (1992 - the present). Tourism in China emerged from the traditional planned economy in the first stage and was incorporated into a socialist market economy in the second stage.<sup>106</sup> Another view held by H. Qiu Zhang and others identified that tourism experienced three stages: the first stage (1978-1985), the second stage (1986-1991) and the third stage (1992 - the present).<sup>107</sup> On the basis of these classifications, three stages in the development of tourism in China are to be analyzed in detail. The first stage (1978-1985) was an initial stage of inbound tourism. In the second stage (1986-1991), tourism was regarded as an industry. Inbound tourism began to take shape while domestic tourism rose. In the third stage (1992-the present), tourism became an economic activity in the socialist market economy and a new national economic growth

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<sup>103</sup> G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 14.

<sup>104</sup> Anon., *Business Review Weekly*, 1993-04-09, as quoted by W. Guo en L. W. Turner, Entry Strategies into China for Foreign Travel Companies, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 50.

<sup>105</sup> W. Guo, en L. W. Turner, Entry Strategies into China for Foreign Travel Companies, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 50.

<sup>106</sup> Business Watchman, Tourism has Changed China: starting with the 5<sup>th</sup> in the world, *Business Watch Magazine*, <http://www.businesswatch.com.cn/ArticleShow.asp?ArticleID=216,2004-02-06>.

<sup>107</sup> H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, pp. 471-485.

point. Inbound tourism has developed steadily; domestic tourism rapidly and ultimately outbound tourism emerged. During this latter period, inbound tourism, domestic tourism and outbound tourism began to develop simultaneously.<sup>108</sup>

### **Inbound tourism: a beginning stage (1978-1985)**

During the first stage, tourism was regarded as a part of both diplomatic and economic activities, but political goals still outweighed the economic benefits.<sup>109</sup> In a national conference on tourism in 1979, a milestone - the transformation of tourism from a political activity to an economic activity - was reached for the first time.<sup>110</sup> It would, in socialist terms, advance the economic reform and opening up. It would also strengthen friendships and mutual understandings between China and the world to contribute to world peace and national unity. It was therefore seen as a means to achieve a “double harvest” in both political and economic spheres.<sup>111</sup> At the beginning of the development of tourism, the government adopted the principle of “actively developing inbound tourism, vigorously developing domestic tourism and appropriately developing outbound tourism”.<sup>112</sup> It also adopted the policy of “appropriately faster growth”, which implies that tourism should develop at a pace slightly quicker than other industries.<sup>113</sup> Moreover, a decision of developing inbound tourism first was made as a result of a number of factors.<sup>114</sup>

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<sup>108</sup> H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, pp. 471-485. G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1, Chapter 5.

<sup>109</sup> G. Zhang, China's Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, pp. 24-5; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 6.

<sup>110</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>111</sup> K. H. Han, China: tourism industry, Beijing, 1994, as cited by H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, p. 473.

<sup>112</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>113</sup> G. Zhang, China's Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al., *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 30.

<sup>114</sup> W. Zhang, China's Domestic Tourism: impetus, development and trends, *Tourism Management* 18(8), 1997 p. 565.

Firstly, China was in a deep need of foreign revenue to revitalize its lagging economy. The purpose of developing inbound tourism was to attract international tourists from outside China to generate foreign exchange revenue, which would increase national foreign exchange earnings and balance foreign exchange receipts and expenditures.<sup>115</sup> Between 1978 and 1985, a large amount of foreign exchange revenue was created. International tourism receipts of US\$ 0.3 billion rose to US\$ 1.3 billion, which led to China being ranked from the 41<sup>st</sup> up to the 21<sup>st</sup> in the world (Figure 2. 4).

Secondly, as already mentioned, China is a country with a 5 000-year-old documented history. It has a territory of 9.6 million square kilometers and a population of 1.29 billion consisting of fifty six nationalities. The rich cultural and natural tourism resources became a great appeal to foreign tourists. The various natural resources - mountains, rivers, lakes, hot springs, waterfalls, caves, grottoes, beaches and various climatic types - provide favourable conditions for diversified tourist activities. Numerous historical sites, long cultural traditions and colourful folk customs in a united multinational nation aroused the interest of the people in the world.<sup>116</sup> By 2004, thirty one world heritage sites had been proclaimed by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO). Among them, twenty three are cultural heritage sites, four natural heritages sites and four natural and cultural heritage sites.<sup>117</sup>

Thirdly, on the one hand, the isolation of China from the outside world for three decades created a mystery in the minds of Westerners, who had a strong desire to see what China behind the “bamboo curtain” was like. They were keen to see the achievements of reform and

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<sup>115</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 6; Y. Qiao, Domestic Tourism in China: policies and development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, p. 122; W. Zhang, China’s Domestic Tourism: impetus, development and trends, *Tourism Management* 18(8), 1997, p. 565; H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, p. 473.

<sup>116</sup> C. L. Jenkins en Z. H. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People’s Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, pp. 108-9; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 2.

<sup>117</sup> UNESCO, “World Heritage List”, <http://whc.unesco.org/nwhc/pages/doc/mainf3.htm>, see also Appendix 2.

opening up in areas such as politics, economy, culture and education. They also wished to investigate the investment fields and seek potential partners for cooperation.<sup>118</sup> On the other hand, deep-rooted Chinese blood ties, a strong sense of belonging and nostalgia greatly motivated overseas Chinese to visit their native land, ancestral villages, friends and relatives in the Mainland.<sup>119</sup>

Between 1978 and 1985, international visitor arrivals went from 1.8 million to 17.8 million, tourist arrivals went from 0.7 million to 7.1 million. China's ranking in terms of tourist arrivals went from the 48<sup>th</sup> to the 13<sup>th</sup> in the world (Figure 2. 4). From 1981 to 1985, the two biggest tourist sources were Japan and the USA. Tourists from these two countries comprised 51.2% of the foreign visitor arrivals. The other tourist sources were Australia, the United Kingdom (UK), the Philippines, Singapore, Germany, France, Canada and Thailand. These ten countries represented 80.7 % of foreign visitor arrivals in China (Figure 2. 5).

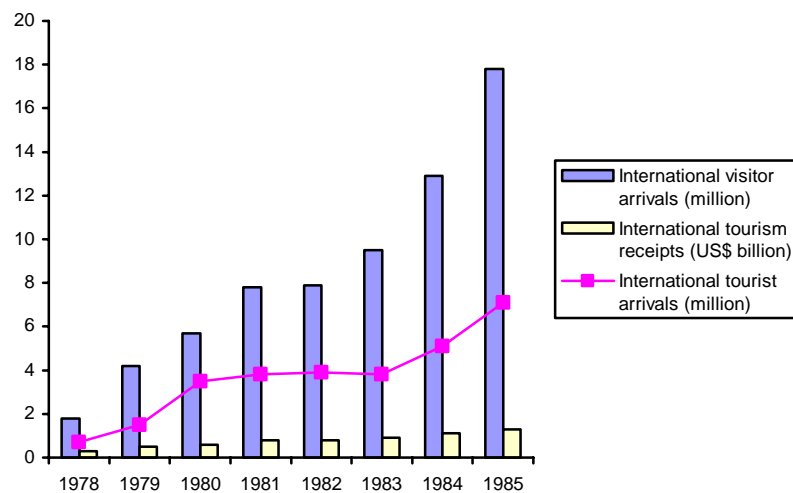


Figure 2. 4 International visitor arrivals, tourist arrivals and tourism receipts 1978-1985

Adapted from: CNTA, *The Outline of China Tourism Statistics 2005*, <http://www.cnta.com/tongjibanlan/index.htm>.

<sup>118</sup> H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, pp. 150, 152.

<sup>119</sup> A. A. Lew, Overseas Chinese and Compatriots in China's Tourism Development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, pp. 155, 158; H. Xiao, Tourism and Leisure in China: a tale of two cities, *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2), 1997, p. 361.

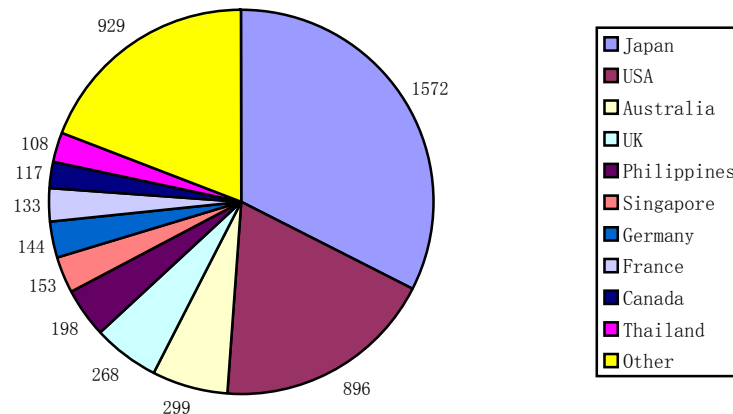


Figure 2. 5 Top ten foreign visitor arrivals (thousand) 1981-1985

Adapted from: G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, (Beijing, 1999), Chapter 3.

In this period when major efforts were being made to develop tourism, there were numerous problems regarding travelling conditions. These included government structure, tourism infrastructure and facilities. They were not able to meet the development of tourism as an economic activity because of demand exceeding the supply of facilities and services.<sup>120</sup> Facing the problems of hospitality, transportation and communication, Deng Xiaoping, the then Chairman of the Advisory Commission of the Central Committee of the Chinese Communist Party and architect-in-chief of reform and opening up in China, declared that the funds from foreigners and overseas Chinese should be used to develop tourism.<sup>121</sup> As a result, the construction of hotels sped up on the basis of an ideal financing model - a combination of self-reliance and foreign funds. An example of this was the four-star Jianguo Hotel Beijing, the first Sino-US joint-venture hotel in China, which was completed in 1982.<sup>122</sup> In addition, before 1978, the sectors relevant to tourism, such as civil aviation, travel agencies and hotels, were financed and operated by the government. In 1984, decentralization occurred. This

<sup>120</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1; H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, p. 473.

<sup>121</sup> X. Deng, *Deng Xiaoping on Tourism*, <http://www.cnta.com/ziliao/den/index.asp>; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>122</sup> H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 99; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

implied that the central government, localities, government departments, collectives and even individuals could operate and invest in tourism development projects. The number of travel agencies increased to 1 245 in 1987; and the number of hotels from 137 to 710 from 1978 to 1985.<sup>123</sup> However, due to a too rapid introduction to foreign funds, decentralization and an over-emphasis on quantity regardless of quality, so-called “disordered tourism” resulted mainly from the lack of proper planning, coordination and central control.<sup>124</sup>

### **Inbound and domestic tourism: a developing stage (1986-1991)**

The second stage is the period when inbound tourism developed steadily and domestic tourism rose. The position of tourism as an industry was confirmed in the mid 1980s. Some ambivalent issues in the first stage, such as industry, market, image, were clarified.<sup>125</sup> Tourism experienced a great change in emphasis from one in which both politics and economics played an equal role to one in which economics predominated over politics.<sup>126</sup>

After many heated debates, among government leaders and academicians, over the nature of tourism, tourism began to be considered as a comprehensive economic activity with the main function of earning foreign exchange revenue for China’s modernization. In 1985, for the first time, tourism as an industry was incorporated in the “Seventh Five-Year National Plan (1986-1990)”, which was a significant milestone in the development of tourism as an industry in China.<sup>127</sup> In the same year, the government adopted the “National Tourism Plan 1986-2000”. Two steps were set up in this plan. The first step (1986-1990) was to enter the ranks of advanced tourist receiving countries in terms of service, quality and infrastructure, reaching a target of 5 million tourist arrivals and US\$ 2.7-3.0 billion tourism receipts. The second step (1991-2000) was to become an advanced tourist country, reaching a target of

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<sup>123</sup> H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, pp. 476-7.

<sup>124</sup> Ibid, p. 477.

<sup>125</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>126</sup> Ibid, Chapter 6; G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al. *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 25.

<sup>127</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1, Chapter 6.

10-12 million tourist arrivals and US\$ 8-10 billion tourism receipts.<sup>128</sup> In the first step, neither targets were met as a result of the June 4<sup>th</sup> Tiananmen Square incident in 1989. In 1991, foreign tourist arrivals were less than three million, far short of the goal of five million for 1990.<sup>129</sup> The second goal was however achieved. In 2000, international visitor arrivals were 83.4 million; international tourist arrivals were 31.2 million; international tourism receipts US\$ 16.2 billion (Figure 2. 6).

The statistics for the period of 1986-1991 can be divided into two phases (1986-1988, 1989-1991) due to the fluctuation of tourist arrivals in China as a result of the Tiananmen Square incident. From 1986 to 1988, international visitor arrivals increased from 22.8 million to 31.7 million; international tourist arrivals rose from 9.0 million to 12.4 million. International tourism receipts were US\$ 1.5 billion up to US\$ 2.3 billion. Tourism experienced a decline in 1989 and was fully recovered two years later. From 1989 to 1991, international visitor arrivals went from 24.5 million to 33.4 million, international tourist arrivals from 9.4 million to 12.5 million and international tourism receipts went from US\$ 1.9 billion to US\$ 2.8 billion (Figure 2. 6).

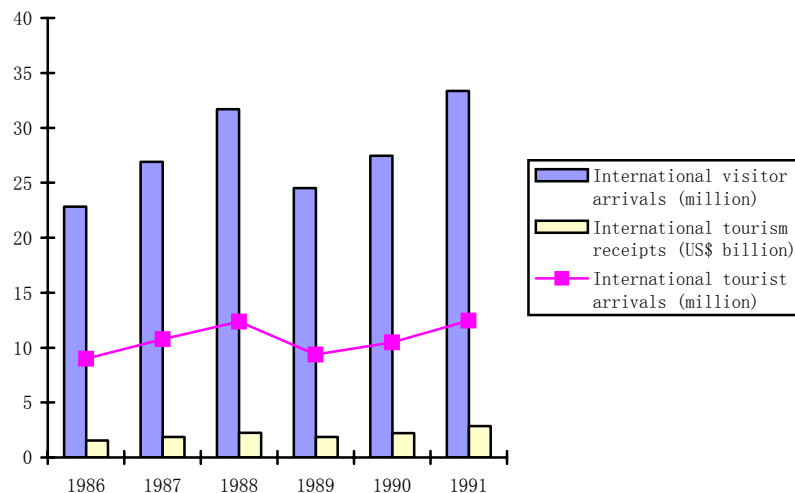


Figure 2. 6 International visitor arrivals, tourist arrivals and tourism receipts 1986-1991

Adapted from: CNTA, *The Outline of China Tourism Statistics 2005*, <http://www.cnta.com/tongjibanlan/index.htm>.

<sup>128</sup> H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, p. 479.

<sup>129</sup> *Ibid*, p. 480.

During this period, it was regulated that no further foreign investments in hotels would be permitted in the major tourist cities.<sup>130</sup> In 1987, “Provisional Regulations on Administration of Tourist Guides” were introduced to develop service quality and competence of tourist guides. In 1988, “Regulations on the Star Standard and Star Rating of Hotels in the People’s Republic of China” were issued to fill in the gap between service quality and rating of the facilities to meet international standards. In the same year, the National Tourism Commission was established to develop tourism and overcome the “disorder” in the first period.<sup>131</sup> A framework of tourism management was formed and the prevalence of “disordered tourism” decreased.<sup>132</sup> Meanwhile, the rapid economic growth and the acceleration of urbanization led to the improvement of the living standard and cultural appetite of the Chinese. In the mid 1980s, leisure travel began to become fashionable among the newly emerging wealthier people in prosperous coastal and metropolitan areas.<sup>133</sup>

### **Inbound, domestic and outbound tourism: a mature stage (1992-the present)**

In the third and final stage, tourism entered a new period, in which it was ranked as a part of the socialist market economy, a key industry in the tertiary industry and regarded as a new economic growth point. Inbound tourism and domestic tourism remained robust while outbound tourism rose. Significant events, such as the return of Hong Kong in 1997 and Macao in 1999 to China, China’s access to the WTO<sub>1</sub> in 2001 and the successful bidding for hosting of the 2008 Summer Olympics in Beijing, promoted the development of tourism.

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<sup>130</sup> J. Zhao, Overprovision in Chinese Hotels, *Tourism Management* 10(1), 1989, pp. 63-6; EIU Travel & Tourism Analyst, Occasional Studies: tourism in China - the cost of collapse, *EIU Travel and Tourism Analyst* 4, 1989, pp. 77-97, as cited by H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, p. 480.

<sup>131</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1, Chapter 6; H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, pp. 479-80.

<sup>132</sup> H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, p. 480.

<sup>133</sup> W. Zhang, China’s Domestic Tourism: impetus, development and trends, *Tourism Management* 18(8), 1997, p. 566.

In 1992, a speech, made by Deng Xiaoping in his tour to Guangdong, deepened reform and opening up. Afterwards, at the “Fourteenth Central Committee Congress of the Chinese Communist Party” in October 1992, a policy of market economy under socialism was put forward to allow the market itself to determine resource allocation within the guidelines of socialism.<sup>134</sup> This contributed greatly to tourism development. In 1993, tourism was emphasized as a key industry in the tertiary industry sector in the “Decision of the Central Committee of the CCP and the State Council on Speeding up the Development of Tertiary Industries”. As an important service industry, tourism was seen to “require less investment, yet have quicker results, better efficiency, large employment potential, and a greater potential to improve people’s livelihood than many other tertiary service sectors”.<sup>135</sup> At a central conference on economy in 1998, tourism, together with real estate and information, was identified as a new growth point of the national economy for the first time.<sup>136</sup>

Since the 1990s, the Chinese government has implemented various measures to stimulate the development of tourism. Firstly, in order to make tourist attractions adaptable to the needs of the international market, enrich and diversify the tourist activities and combine traditional sightseeing with contemporary recreation and holidaymaking, the State Council decided to build twelve national holiday resorts and fifty four provincial resorts in 1992.<sup>137</sup> The twelve national holiday resorts are Yalong Bay in Sanya, Hainan; Shilaoren (Old Stone Man) in Qingdao, Shandong; Jinshi (Golden Stone) Beach in Dalian, Liaoning; Silver Beach in Beihai, Guangxi; Meizhou Island in Putian, Fujian; Zhijiang River in Hangzhou, Zhejiang; The Nanhu (South Lake) in Guangdong; and Sheshan in Shanghai.<sup>138</sup> Secondly, in 1991, the

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<sup>134</sup> Y. Qiao, Domestic Tourism in China: policies and development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, p. 123; H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, pp. 480-1.

<sup>135</sup> The Central Committee of the CCP and the State Council, Decision of the Central Committee of the CCP and the State Council on Speeding up the Development of Tertiary Industries, 1993-06-16, as quoted by G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al. *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 25; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>136</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>137</sup> Ibid; H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 158.

<sup>138</sup> Anon., China Landscape: holiday resort tour, <http://www.asia-planet.net/china/holiday-resorts.htm>.

CNTA formulated the “Theme Years” strategy. Various themes have been launched for domestic and international tourists. They were “Friendly Sightseeing - China 1992”, “Travel to Mountains and Rivers - China 1993”, “Travel to Cultural Relics - China 1994” and “Folklore Travel - China 1995”.<sup>139</sup> At the beginning of the twenty-first century, a series of new themes were introduced. For example, “Health & Fitness - China 2001”, “Folk Art - China 2002”, “Culinary Kingdom - China 2003”, “Catch the Lifestyle - China 2004” and “Visit China 2005”.<sup>140</sup> Thirdly, the CNTA launched “red tourism” in the second half of 2004. It will designate ten “red tourism bases”, twenty “red tourism cities” and a hundred “red tourism classic scenic spots” as the core of the campaign. Nostalgic tourists will be able to choose from themes like “re-experience the Long March,” “revisit the battlefield”, “heroic city tour” and “tours to famous personage hometown” for the seventieth anniversary of the Long March (1934-1935).<sup>141</sup> He Guangwei, the former Director of the CNTA, declared that “red tourism” would be “a need to eulogize the brilliant cause of the Party, inspire and carry forward China’s national spirits” and would “help people in old revolutionary base areas overcome poverty and get rich”.<sup>142</sup> Fourthly, carnivals were launched in internationalized metropolises in China in 2004.<sup>143</sup> Carnival, a pagan celebration, started in ancient Rome or Greece 1 000 years before Christ, spread to other countries in Europe, and finally to America.<sup>144</sup> The carnival in China refers to the entertainment sites, which depend on a series of mobile entertainment facilities and colourful cultural activities. It preserves the styles of the traditional carnivals, as well as takes in modern entertainment styles. A mobile park in Wulihe, Shenyang, Liaoning, pioneered the carnival of China in July 2004.<sup>145</sup>

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<sup>139</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>140</sup> G. He, Congratulation in 2004, <http://www.cnta.com/1-lyjg/ldzc.asp>; Q. Shao, Chinaman’s Words, <http://www.cnta.com/lyen/2cnta/chairman.htm>.

<sup>141</sup> CNTA, China To Tout “Red Tourism” in Anniversary Year, [http://english.china.com/zh\\_cn/tourism/news/11020847/20040730/11808725.html](http://english.china.com/zh_cn/tourism/news/11020847/20040730/11808725.html), 2004-07-30.

<sup>142</sup> Ibid.

<sup>143</sup> TRCCASS, Comments on Heated Tourism Issues in 2004(5): carnival in urban tourism in China, <http://travel.people.com.cn/GB/41636/41890/3130127.html>, 2005-01-19.

<sup>144</sup> Anon., Carnival in Rio de Janeiro, <http://ipanema.com/carnival/home.htm>, 2001-07; Anon., Carnival New Orleans: history, <http://www.icorp.net/carnival/histroy.htm>.

<sup>145</sup> TRCCASS, Comments on Heated Tourism Issues in 2004(5): carnival in urban tourism in China, <http://travel.people.com.cn/GB/41636/41890/3130127.html>, 2005-01-19.

In 2002, international visitor arrivals were 979.1 million, international tourist arrivals 368.0 million and international tourism receipts US\$ 20.4 billion, increasing 10 %, 10.9 % and 14.5%, compared with that of 2001 respectively. In 2003, tourism received setbacks as a result of the Iraq conflict at first, and then the outbreak of the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS). International visitor arrivals, tourist arrivals and tourism receipts were reduced by 6.4 %, 10.4% and 14.1 % in comparison with that of 2002 respectively. By 2004, tourism had thoroughly recovered, and a new breakthrough in terms of figures was made. Compared to that of 2003 and 2002 respectively, international visitor arrivals went up to 108 million, rising 18% and 10 % respectively; international tourist arrivals to 41 million, rising 24.4 % and 11.4 % respectively (Figure 2. 7).

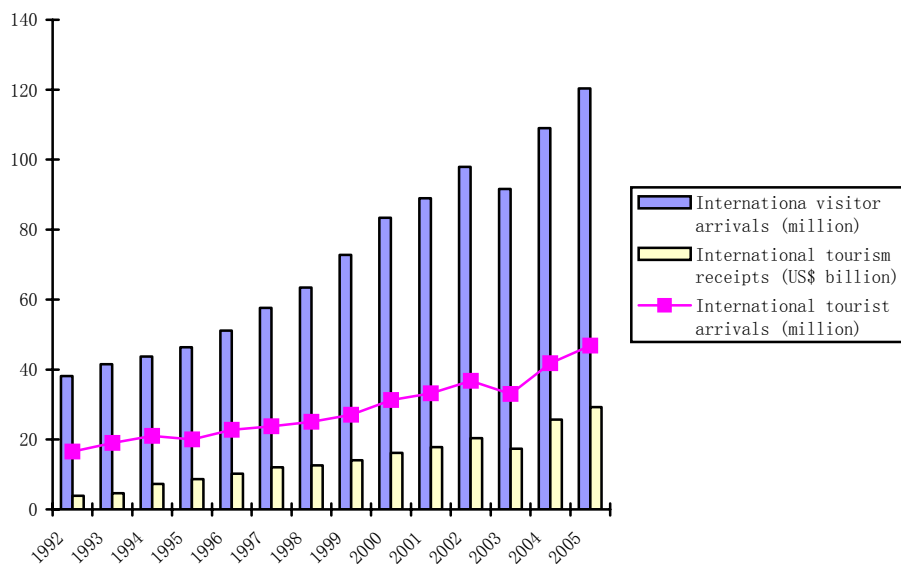


Figure 2. 7 International visitor arrivals, tourist arrivals and tourism receipts 1992-2005

Adapted from: CNTA, *The Outline of China Tourism Statistics 2005*, <http://www.cnta.com/tongjibanlan/index.htm>; CNTA, the 2005 Statistics of the Tourism Industry of China, <http://www.cnta.com/32-lydy/2005/2005lytj.htm>.

In 2004, the top ten tourist source countries were Japan, the Republic of Korea (ROK), Russia, USA, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, Mongolia, Thailand and UK. Foreign visitor arrivals of these ten countries made up 74.7 % of the total foreign visitor arrivals (Figure 2. 8).

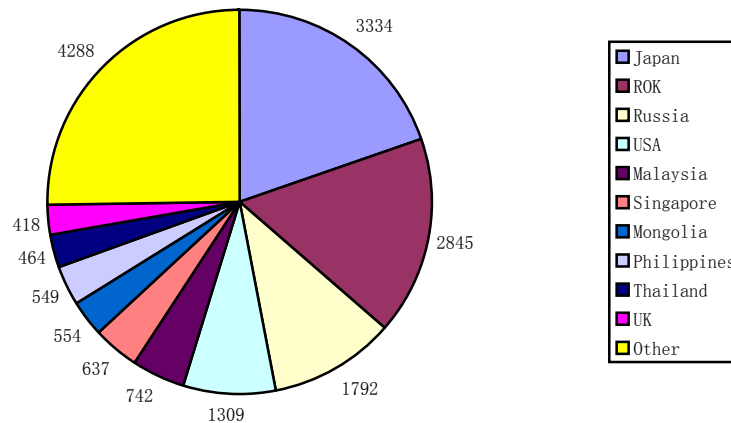


Figure 2. 8 Top ten foreign visitor arrivals 2004 (thousand)

Adapted from: CNTA, *The Outline of China Tourism Statistics 2005*, <http://www.cnta.com/tongjibanlan/index.htm>.

### The dramatic development of domestic tourism

Poor economic and physical conditions in China, such as low living standards, an inadequate supply of commodities, a shortage of food and accommodation facilities and a limited transportation system, were serious barriers to the development of domestic tourism.<sup>146</sup> Thus, the development of domestic tourism received little attention in the early period of reform and opening up. China did not devote any efforts to the development of domestic tourism.<sup>147</sup> In the 1990s, the government began to realize the importance of domestic tourism as an important way of withdrawing currency from circulation and stimulating consumption. It began to consider domestic tourism as the foundation of China's tourism and a new key economic sector. The attention began to switch from inbound tourism to both inbound and domestic tourism.<sup>148</sup> The rapid growth of domestic tourism attributed mainly to an increasing

<sup>146</sup> W. Zhang, China's Domestic Tourism: impetus, development and trends, *Tourism Management* 18(8), 1997, p. 565.

<sup>147</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 4.

<sup>148</sup> Ibid; Y. Qiao, Domestic Tourism in China: policies and development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, p. 125; K. B. Ghimire en L. Zhou, The Economic Role of National Tourism in China, in K. B. Ghimire (ed.), *The Native Tourist: mass tourism with developing countries*, p. 96.

disposable income, increased leisure time, the improving physical and intellectual quality of the average Chinese nationals.<sup>149</sup>

According to the Human Development Index (HDI) of the UN, social development depends primarily on three factors: a long and healthy life, as measured by life expectancy at birth; knowledge, as measured by the adult literacy rate and the combined gross enrolment for primary, secondary and tertiary schools; and a decent standard of living, as measured by the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita in the purchasing power parity (PPP) US dollars.<sup>150</sup> In order to speed up the economic growth and improve the living standard of people, the economic reconstruction of China since 1978 was to be achieved in three stages: firstly, doubling the size of the 1980 Gross National Product (GNP) and attempting to solve the problems in feeding and clothing the population by the end of the 1980s; secondly, by the year 2000, further doubling the GNP in the first stage and affording the Chinese people a life of “xiaokang (well-off)”;<sup>151</sup> thirdly, taking several decades to reach a level compatible with the middle class in developed countries and essentially achieving modernization by the mid twenty first century.<sup>152</sup> The first objective was obtained and the second was achieved in 1995, five years ahead of the scheduled time. In 1990, the GNP was Renminbi (RMB) ¥ 1.9 trillion, which quadrupled that of 1980. In 2000, the GNP was RMB¥ 8.8 trillion, nearly quintupled that of 1990.<sup>153</sup> The income per capita reached US\$ 854 in 2000. According to Deng’s

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<sup>149</sup> D. Liu, An Analysis and Forecast of the Development of Domestic Tourism in China, in TRCCASS, *Green Book of China’s Tourism 2001-2003*, <http://www.lianghui.org.cn/chinese/zhuanti/234746.htm>, 2002-11-09.

<sup>150</sup> UN, Human Development Report 2004, [http://hdr.undp.org/reports/global/2004/pdf/hdr04\\_complete.pdf](http://hdr.undp.org/reports/global/2004/pdf/hdr04_complete.pdf).

<sup>151</sup> The life of “xiaokang (well-off)” is regarded as being less affluent than “well-off” but better off than freedom from want in Chinese terms, see also J. Li, How to Understand Building a Well-off Society in All-round Way: an interview with Wu Shuqing, a professor at Beijing University, *Guangzhou Daily*, 2002-11-09.

<sup>152</sup> Y. Rong, China: moving towards the twenty-first century, in F. Itoh (ed.), *China in the Twenty-first Century: politics, economy, and society*, Tokyo, 1997, p. 5.

<sup>153</sup> Ibid; Anon., List of GDP and GNP in China 1952-2001, [http://www.cdjsw.gov.cn/new/Article\\_Show.asp?ArticleID=475](http://www.cdjsw.gov.cn/new/Article_Show.asp?ArticleID=475).

standard, an income per capita US\$ 800 was “xiaokang”. The Chinese had thus reached “xiaokang” standard of living in 2000.<sup>154</sup>

The rapid and sustainable development of the national economy produced more disposable income and improved the living standard of most of the Chinese. Before reform and opening up in 1978, and particularly in the early period of reform and opening up, besides maintaining daily expenses, most Chinese families devoted their limited disposable income to building or purchasing houses, to children’s education, to the marriage of children and buying durable products such as TV sets, washing machines, refrigerators and air-conditioners, which were once only luxuries.<sup>155</sup> After a long struggle for basic necessities, such as food and shelter, the majority of the Chinese, particularly urban residents in the developed coastal and inland regions, had a decent standard of living - without worrying about food and clothing and having most of the necessities of life.<sup>156</sup> Between 1985 and 2000, the income per capita of the Chinese increased from RMB¥ 568.4(RMB¥ 739.1 for urban residents while RMB¥ 397.6 for rural residents) to RMB¥ 4 266.7 (RMB¥ 6 280 for urban residents and RMB¥ 2 253.4 for rural residents).<sup>157</sup> As a result, travel was regarded as an integral part to a decent standard of living - a way to improving the quality of their lives.<sup>158</sup> Sun Gang, the Deputy Director of the CNTA declared that “the development of China’s tourism industry constitutes an important part in the country’s process of building a ‘well-off’ society”.<sup>159</sup>

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<sup>154</sup> J. Li, How to Understand Building a Well-off Society in All-round Way: an interview with Wu Shuqing, a professor at Beijing University, *Guangzhou Daily*, 2002-11-09; Anon., Blueprint in the New Century: ten standards of “well-off” society, <http://www.people.com.cn/GB/jinji/222/9520/9522/20021129/877904.html>.

<sup>155</sup> L. Zhou et al, The China Outbound Market: an evaluation of key constraints and opportunities, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 4(2), 1998, p. 110; H. Xiao, Tourism and Leisure in China: a tale of two cities, *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2), 1997, p. 362.

<sup>156</sup> H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 133.

<sup>157</sup> China.com.cn, Per Capita and Index of Urban and Rural Residents in China, <http://www1.china.com.cn/chinese/china-shuzi2003/rm/biao/10-3.htm>.

<sup>158</sup> H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen, p. 133; D. Liu, An Analysis and Forecast of the Development of Domestic Tourism in China, in TRCCASS, *Green Book of China’s Tourism 2001-2003*, <http://www.lianghui.org.cn/chinese/zhuanti/234746.htm>, 2002-11-09.

<sup>159</sup> Anon., China Aims to Become World’s Leading Tourist Destination, <http://www.china-embassy.ch/eng/38032.htm>.

The rapid growth of the national economy accelerated urbanization. From 1978 to 2001, the urbanization rate rose from 17.9% to 37.7%.<sup>160</sup> Three major urban belts or economic regions were formed. These regions included Beijing and Tianjin Belt, which covers Beijing, Tianjin and other cities; the Yangtze River Delta, which covers Shanghai, Jiangsu and Zhejiang; and the Pearl River Delta, which includes Guangdong and the Special Administrative Regions of Hong Kong and Macao.<sup>161</sup> Under the influence of the contemporary concepts of consumption, recreation, health and education, residents with higher incomes in advanced coastal regions and major metropolises have come to enjoy travel as a modern way of life. They became a major force in the development of tourism.<sup>162</sup>

The development of the economy and tourism, in part, resulted in revamping the holiday system. Now, the Chinese enjoy 114 days of holiday annually, including the weekends and public holidays. The policy of a “five-day work week” introduced in 1995 provided the Mainland Chinese with more leisure time to travel and go on weekend outings. Since October 1999, annually, there have been three “Golden Weeks”, also known as “seven-day holidays”, namely, the Spring Festival, May Day (May 1<sup>st</sup>) as well as the National Day (October 1<sup>st</sup>), which specifically offered opportunities of long-haul travel for the Chinese.<sup>163</sup> Three “Golden Weeks” was a boom for national tourism including domestic and outbound tourism. Between October 1999 and October 2005, there were eighteen “Golden Weeks” (travel being banned on May Day in 2003 due to the outbreak of SARS, resulting in a total of domestic

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<sup>160</sup> China.com.cn, China Facts and Figures 2002, <http://www.china.com.cn/chinese/china-shuzi2003/gq-biao/4-1.htm>.

<sup>161</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 2.

<sup>162</sup> Ibid; D. Liu, An Analysis and Forecast of the Development of Domestic Tourism in China, in TRCCASS, *Green Book of China's Tourism 2001-2003*, <http://www.lianghui.org.cn/chinese/zhuanti/234746.htm>, 2002-11-09; Y. Qiao, Domestic Tourism in China: policies and development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, pp. 127-8.

<sup>163</sup> D. Liu, An Analysis and Forecast of the Development of Domestic Tourism in China, in TRCCASS, *Green Book of China's Tourism 2001-2003*, <http://www.lianghui.org.cn/chinese/zhuanti/234746.htm>, 2002-11-09; G. Zhang en A. A. Lew, Introduction: China's tourism boom, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 4.

tourists 1.27 billion and a total of RMB¥ 524 billion in tourism receipts (Figure 2. 9). Consequently, the holiday economy has become a new focus point in tourism in China.<sup>164</sup>

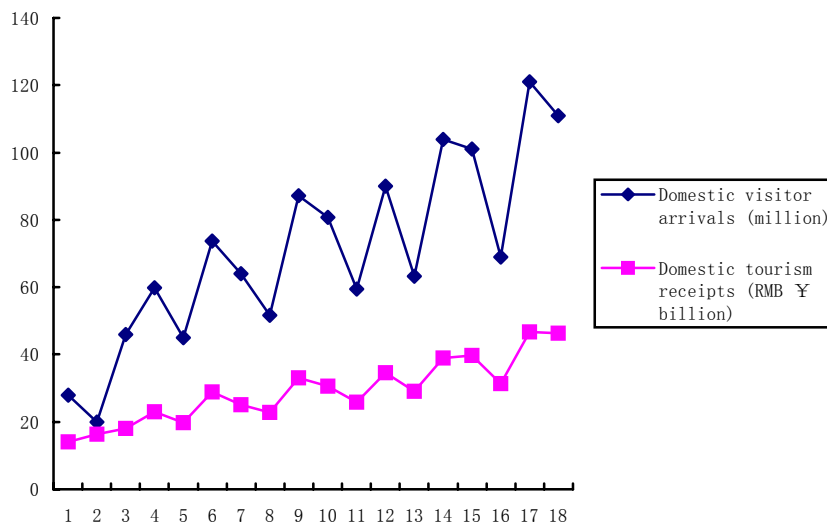


Figure 2. 9 Domestic visitor arrivals and tourism receipts in “Golden Weeks” between October 1999 and October 2005

Adapted from: CNTA, Tourism Statistics Report of “Golden Weeks”: October 1999-October 2005, <http://www.cnta.com/2006cjyb>.

Longer life span, higher educational attainment and smaller family size also stimulated the development of tourism in China.<sup>165</sup> By 2000, in a population of 1.27 billion of Mainland China, 45.7 million had attained university education (referring to junior college and above). Compared with the results of the 1990 population census, in every 100 000 people: the number of people with university education increased from 1 422 to 3 611, while senior secondary education increased from 8 039 to 11 146. In addition, the number of people reaching the age of sixty five and over was up by 1.4 percentage points.<sup>166</sup> Moreover, the “one-child policy” launched by the Chinese government since 1979 reduced the Chinese family size, which provided more disposable income and leisure time to improve the standard

<sup>164</sup> G. He, A Speech at the National Forum on Tourism, [http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz\\_view.asp?id=12317](http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz_view.asp?id=12317), 2004-07-21; Anon., China Aims to Become World’s Leading Tourist Destination, <http://www.china-embassy.ch/eng/38032.html>.

<sup>165</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 10.

<sup>166</sup> NBS, Major Figure of the 2000 Population Census (No.1), <http://www.cpic.org.cn/en/e5cendata1.htm>, 2001-03-28.

of living and intellectual quality of the people.<sup>167</sup> Furthermore, the Chinese ideology of “working for the next generation” began to be abandoned.<sup>168</sup>

In 2002, domestic travellers soared to a figure of 878 million, of which urban residents were 385 million and rural residents 493 million, quadrupling that of 1984. Domestic tourism receipts were RMB¥ 387.8 billion.<sup>169</sup> Due to the SARS in 2003, domestic arrivals and tourism receipts decreased by 0.9% and 11.3 %, compared to that of 2002. However, in 2004, domestic travellers were 1.1 billion, rising 26.4% and 25.3%, compared to that of 2003 and 2002 respectively (Figure 2. 2). With the development of inbound and domestic tourism, the economic growth and the improvement of living standards, G. Sun claimed that, “outbound tourism has become a must for the Chinese people in their well-to-do life”.<sup>170</sup>

### **The rise of outbound tourism**

Outbound tourism in China started in 1983, when China became a formal member of the WTO. As to the developmental phases of Chinese outbound tourism, H. Qiu Zhang and V. C. S. Heung believed that it experienced three distinct phases: outbound travel to Hong Kong, intra-Asia travel and travel beyond Asia to Australia.<sup>171</sup> On the other hand, R. Song also argued that it underwent three phases: travel to Hong Kong and Macao, travel to border areas and countries and travel to the countries outside China, such as Singapore, Malaysia and Thailand.<sup>172</sup> The WTO and the ETC classified it into three distinct phases, namely, travel to Hong Kong and Macao, travel in the border areas and travel to foreign countries.<sup>173</sup> Based on

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<sup>167</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 10; Anon., China’s so-called “One-Child” Policy was Officially Adopted as Law, [http://www.crlp.org/ww\\_asia\\_1child.html](http://www.crlp.org/ww_asia_1child.html).

<sup>168</sup> H. Xiao, Tourism and Leisure in China: a tale of two cities, *Annals of Tourism Research* 24(2), 1997, p.362.

<sup>169</sup> CNTA, *The Outline of China Tourism Statistics 2003*, <http://www.cnta.com/tongjibanlan/index.htm>.

<sup>170</sup> Anon., China Aims to Become World’s Leading Tourist Destination, <http://www.china-embassy.ch/eng/38032.html>.

<sup>171</sup> H. Qiu Zhang en V. C. S. Heung, The Emergence of the Mainland Chinese Outbound Travel Market and its Implications for Tourism Marketing, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 8.

<sup>172</sup> People.com.cn, Comments of Two Scholars Zhang Guangrui and Song Rui on Economy of Outbound Tourism in China, <http://www.people.com.cn/GB/14838/14839/34480/2959155.html>, 2004-11-02.

<sup>173</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, pp. 9-10.

a consideration of these above classifications, an outline of the development of Chinese outbound tourism in three phases will be considered in this section: travel to Hong Kong and Macao (1983-1987), travel to the countries and areas bordering China and Asian countries (1988-1998), and travel to Western countries (1999-the present).

Prior to 1978, the Chinese government strictly restricted outbound tourism because of the fear of the “contamination of Western ideologies”, the control of a floating population for social stability and the prevention of outflow of capital and foreign currency.<sup>174</sup> At the beginning of the development of outbound tourism, the Chinese government, based on the guiding principle of “appropriately developing outbound tourism”, encouraged it to develop in an “organized”, “planned” and “controlled” manner.<sup>175</sup> The “organized” development means that outbound travel will, in a certain period of time, mainly take the form of tourist groups organized by travel agencies in order to protect the rights and interests of tourists and to avoid the emergence of problems. The “planned” development implies that outbound travel is conducted in line with the development of tourism and the trend of the national foreign exchange controls. The “controlled” development refers to franchise operation which is adopted to guarantee the qualification of travel agencies of both China and countries with the ADS for Chinese outbound travellers.<sup>176</sup>

For Chinese outbound travellers, passports can be classified into two types: the public passport for official affairs and the private passport for individuals. According to the types of the passport issued, Chinese outbound travel is classified into four categories:

- self-funded travel - travel paid by overseas relatives of the travellers;
- visiting relatives travel - travel paid by relatives;
- private travel - travel to countries with the ADS at one’s expense; and

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<sup>174</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 20.

<sup>175</sup> Y. Yin, Chinese Tourism Market, a report on Budapest Business Journal Conference on Leisure, Tourism and Hotel, p. 6; D. Wang en X. Wei, *Tourism Economics (Revised edition)*, p. 352; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 5.

<sup>176</sup> D. Wang en X. Wei, *Tourism Economics (Revised edition)*, p. 352.

- official or business travel - travel for official or business affairs at the expense of a private organization or a state-owned enterprise employing travellers.<sup>177</sup>

The first phase of outbound tourism includes travel to Hong Kong and Macao, which took place from 1983 to the start of travel to the countries and areas bordering China and other Asian countries in 1987. In 1983, Guangdong Provincial Travel Corporation began to organize “tours for visiting relatives in Hong Kong and Macao”. Later, the Chinese government approved the VFRs travel of the Mainland Chinese to Hong Kong in 1983 and Macao in 1984.<sup>178</sup> As a result, Hong Kong and Macao became the first two destinations for Chinese outbound travellers. Travel to these “territories” of China was regarded as a trial for the further development of outbound tourism.<sup>179</sup>

In the second phase, despite a gradual and cautious relaxation of control over Chinese outbound travel, travel to border areas and countries, and to Asian countries close to China, developed in a dramatic way almost simultaneously.<sup>180</sup> China has fifteen neighbouring countries on land. To the north, there is the Russian Federation and Mongolia; to the west, there is Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Tajikistan, Afghanistan and Pakistan; to the south, China borders on Indian, Nepal, Sikkim, Bhutan, Myanmar, Laos and Vietnam; to the east, China borders on the Democratic People’s Republic of Korea (DPRK), to the east and south, across the Yellow Sea, the East Sea and South China Sea are Japan, the Philippines, Malaysia, Indonesia and Brunei.<sup>181</sup> In 1984, travel to border countries and areas started between Dandong, a border city of Liaoning, and Sinuiju in the DPRK in an unofficial way. In 1987, the first day trip to the border city of Sinuiju in the DPRK was organized by Dandong with approval of the CNTA and the Ministry of Foreign Trade and Economic Cooperation

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<sup>177</sup> M. Bailey, China Outbound. *Travel & Tourism Analyst* 3, 1998, pp. 23-4.

<sup>178</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 9; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 5.

<sup>179</sup> A. A. Lew, China: a growth engine for Asian tourism, in C. M. Hall en S. Page (eds.), *Tourism in South and South East Asia: issue and cases*, Oxford, pp. 268-85.

<sup>180</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 5.

<sup>181</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 2.

(MOFTEC). This trip marked the official beginning of travel to border countries and areas for the Chinese.<sup>182</sup> By 1998, seven border provinces and autonomous regions, including Heilongjiang, Inner Mongolia, Liaoning, Jilin, Xinjiang, Yunnan and Guangxi, were entitled to operate border travel with the Russia Federation, Mongolia, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan, Myanmar and Vietnam. Fifty six travel programs, ranging from one-day tours to eight-day tours, were approved by the Chinese government.<sup>183</sup> Within two decades, travel to the border countries and areas had changed dramatically. Visitors were not confined to the people living in the border countries and areas; the border travel routes were extended from the border to the inland; and the sojourning length was extended from one day to eight days or longer. Annually, there were about two million Chinese outbound travellers to the border countries and areas, and over three million visitor arrivals from the border countries and areas.<sup>184</sup>

Travel to the countries in Southeast Asia was a forerunner of travelling to Western countries. The reason why Southeast Asia became a destination of the Chinese for the VFRs was that Southeast Asia has been one of the settling areas of overseas Chinese since ancient times. Now, over 85% of some 25 million overseas Chinese are residing in Southeast Asia.<sup>185</sup> The Chinese have been allowed to visit Thailand since 1988, Singapore and Malaysia since 1990, mainly to visit their relatives who had to pay for their expenses and offer them guarantees.<sup>186</sup> Thailand, Singapore and Malaysia became the first destinations visited outside of Chinese sovereign territory. The Philippines was added in 1992 and the ROK in East Asia in 1998.<sup>187</sup> A dramatic change occurred in outbound tourism in the 1990s. Chinese outbound travellers were officially allowed to join leisure travel organized by the China Travel Service (CTS) to Hong Kong, Macao and several other Asian countries, including Thailand, Singapore and

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<sup>182</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 10.

<sup>183</sup> Ibid; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 5.

<sup>184</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 10.

<sup>185</sup> A. A. Lew, Overseas Chinese and Compatriots in China's Tourism Development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, p. 56; L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora (Volume II)*, p. vi.

<sup>186</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 10.

<sup>187</sup> G. W. Pan, A Theoretical Framework of Business Network Relationships Associated with the Chinese Outbound Tourism Market to Australia, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 14 (2), 2003, p. 89.

Malaysia.<sup>188</sup> In 1997, the “Provisional Regulations on the Management of Outbound Travel by Chinese Citizens at Their Own Expense” was declared by the CNTA. It stipulated that those with available funds could travel at their own expense to destinations with the ADS, rather than relying on relatives in overseas destinations to pay for their trips. This marked the beginning of outbound travel at one’s own expense in China. Trips to Hong Kong, Macao and Asian countries changed from the VFRs travel to leisure travel.<sup>189</sup>

The surge in outbound travel was stunted by two events for a brief period. One was a general government clampdown on corruption between the second half of 1993 and the first half of 1994. The CNTA cracked down on certain illicit travel practices of senior officials in the various government departments or administrative bodies. They were taking advantage of state money for leisure travels. The travels were claimed to be business trips but were actually leisure travels. The other restraint was that, on the return of Hong Kong to China, the Chinese government imposed certain restrictions on travel to Hong Kong in 1997 for security reasons.<sup>190</sup> In 2003, Hong Kong and Macao opened their doors to individual travellers from Mainland China. Gradually, the number of tourists from Mainland China increased.<sup>191</sup>

In the beginning of the third phase of outbound tourism, Australia and New Zealand became the first two Western countries to obtain the ADS in 1999. Chinese outbound tourism became a reality for Chinese travellers in a “Western sense”.<sup>192</sup> In 2002, the “Regulations on the Management of Outbound Travel by Chinese Citizens” was issued and carried out to improve the management of outbound tourism and stimulate its development.<sup>193</sup> The total number of

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<sup>188</sup> M. Bailey, China Outbound. *Travel & Tourism Analyst* 3, 1998, p. 22.

<sup>189</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 5; WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 10.

<sup>190</sup> M. Bailey, China Outbound. *Travel & Tourism Analyst* 3, 1998, pp. 20, 37-8; L. Zhou et al, The China Outbound Market: an evaluation of key constraints and opportunities, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 4(2), 1998, p. 111.

<sup>191</sup> Anon., Ups and Downs of China Tourism in 2003, <http://www.chinaembassy.org.au/eng/ly/t57294.htm>, 2003-12-31.

<sup>192</sup> G. W. Pan, A Theoretical Framework of Business Network Relationships Associated with the Chinese Outbound Tourism Market to Australia, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 14 (2), 2003, p. 89.

<sup>193</sup> CNTA, Regulations on the Management of Outbound Travel by Chinese Citizens, <http://www.cnta.com/32-lydy/2002/lydy-7-1.htm>.

Chinese outbound travellers grew rapidly from 9.2 million to 20.2 million between 1999 and 2003. Despite the Iraq conflict and the SARS in 2003, visitor and tourist arrivals of inbound and domestic tourism declined, outbound travellers increased 22% that of 2002 (Figure 2. 3).

Domestic tourism is the predecessor and basis of outbound tourism.<sup>194</sup> Some factors stimulating the development of domestic tourism become the basic stimulating factors in terms of the development of Chinese outbound tourism. Some concerned government policies, such as the increase of the number of countries with the ADS, the introduction of a single currency and the easing of travel restrictions, also contributed to the development of Chinese outbound tourism.

The ADS system, based on a bilateral tourism agreement whereby a government allows Chinese tourists to travel to its territories for personal and leisure purposes in groups or in all-inclusive package tours, was launched in 1995.<sup>195</sup> The objective of the ADS system is to guarantee the legal rights and safety of Chinese travellers and to supervise the service quality of travel agencies in both China and the countries with the ADS.<sup>196</sup> For a country with the ADS to qualify for Chinese tourists, it must

- be a tourist resource of China;
- be a country friendly to China;
- have attractive tourist resources and standard tourist facilities;
- have no discrimination or limitation in law and administration against Chinese tourists;

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<sup>194</sup> C. L. Jenkins en Z. H. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People's Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, p. 118; WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 15.

<sup>195</sup> G. W. Pan, A Theoretical Framework of Business Network Relationships Associated with the Chinese Outbound Tourism Market to Australia, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 14 (2), 2003, p. 89; WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 21.

<sup>196</sup> Y. Yin, Chinese Tourism Market: a report on Budapest Business Journal Conference on Leisure, Tourism and Hotel, p. 6.

- be safe for Chinese tourists; and
- have good accessibility.<sup>197</sup>

The Chinese government also laid down some specific rules for Chinese outbound travel to protect the legal rights of the Chinese outbound travellers:

- the outbound Chinese tourists should be part of a tourist group;
- the tourist groups should be organized by a travel agency, which has been qualified and authorized to organize outbound travel; and
- the Chinese tourists groups should be received by qualified and authorized travel agencies in the destination country.<sup>198</sup>

At the beginning of the twenty-first century, the number of countries with the ADS increased dramatically. In 2004, China and twelve nations of the European Community - Austria, Belgium, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Netherlands, Italy, Luxembourg, Portugal, Spain and Sweden - signed a milestone memorandum of understanding to facilitate Chinese group tourism to Europe.<sup>199</sup> This year, there were eleven African countries with ADS: Egypt, South Africa, Morocco, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Kenya, Tunisia, Seychelles, Zambia, Zimbabwe and Mauritius.<sup>200</sup> In the same year, Brazil and Argentina in South America signed a “Memorandum of Understanding on Approved Destination Status” with China,<sup>201</sup> and a “Memorandum of Understanding concerning Travel and Tourism Cooperation” was also

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<sup>197</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 5; Y. Yin, Chinese Tourism Market: a report on Budapest Business Journal Conference on Leisure, Tourism and Hotel, p. 6.

<sup>198</sup> Y. Yin, Chinese Tourism Market: a report on Budapest Business Journal Conference on Leisure, Tourism and Hotel, pp. 6-7.

<sup>199</sup> Anon., China, EC Sign Milestone Tourism Memo, <http://www.chinaembassy.org.au/eng/ly/t64487.htm>, 2004-02-13.

<sup>200</sup> CNTA, 8 More African States Become Approved Destinations for Chinese Tourists, [http://www.cnta.com/lyen/gl/1\\_view.asp?id=3349](http://www.cnta.com/lyen/gl/1_view.asp?id=3349), 2003-12-18, See also Appendix 3.

<sup>201</sup> CNTA, President Hu Jintao Attended the Ceremony of Signature of Memorandum of Understanding on the ADS between China and Brazil, [http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz\\_view.asp?id=13218](http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz_view.asp?id=13218), 2004-11-18; CNTA, President Hu Jintao Attended the Ceremony of Signature of Memorandum of Understanding on the ADS between China and Argentina, [http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz\\_view.asp?id=13220](http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz_view.asp?id=13220), 2004-11-19.

signed between China and the USA.<sup>202</sup> In January 2005, UK was granted the ADS by China.<sup>203</sup> By the end of 2005, there were seventy six countries and areas with the ADS in operation.<sup>204</sup> In 2000, the top ten tourist destinations for Chinese outbound travellers were Hong Kong, Macao, Thailand, Russia, Japan, ROK, USA, Singapore, DPRK, and Australia (Table 2. 1). Although this ranking varies annually, the difference is nominal.

Rank	Destination country/region	Outbound travellers (thousand)	Market share (%)	Growth rate (%)
1	Hong Kong, PRC	4 142	39.5	16.0
2	Macao, PRC	1 644	15.7	6.0
3	Thailand	707	6.8	-13.1
4	Russia	606	5.8	38.5
5	Japan	596	5.7	10.8
6	ROK	401	3.8	29.3
7	USA	395	3.8	19.2
8	Singapore	263	2.5	24.5
9	DPRK	195	1.9	10.8
10	Australia	127	1.2	23.9
	Total (1-10)	9076	86.7	
	Total	10 473	100	13.4

Table 2. 1 Top ten destinations for the Chinese outbound travellers in 2000

From: CNTA, the 2000 Annual Tourism Report of China, <http://www.cnta.com/ziliao/zglyyndbg/2000nndbg/index-2.htm>.

China continued to relax restrictions in the same way that destinations eased up on entry requirements. In 1995, the Chinese government relaxed its foreign exchange policy for outbound travel and implemented a single currency system to allow the transaction of purchasing travel package tours, other foreign goods and services.<sup>205</sup> Under the old dual-currency system, the Mainland Chinese had to purchase a “Foreign Exchange

<sup>202</sup> CNTA, A Memorandum of Understanding was signed between China and the United States, [http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz\\_view.asp?id=13367](http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz_view.asp?id=13367), 2004-12-07.

<sup>203</sup> CNTA, A Memorandum of Understanding on the ADS between China and Britain, [http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz\\_view.asp?id=13674](http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz_view.asp?id=13674), 2005-01-24.

<sup>204</sup> CNTA, Outbound Tourism in China, <http://www.cnta.com/chujing/chujing.htm>, see also Appendix 3.

<sup>205</sup> H. Qiu Zhang en T. Lam, An Analysis of Mainland Chinese Visitors’ Motivations to Visit Hong Kong, *Tourism Management* 20(5), 1999, p. 588; The School of Travel Industry Management of University of Hawaii, Identifying and Analyzing the Chinese Outbound Market for Hawaii, p. 2.

Certificate” with RMB before purchasing any foreign goods and travel services. The amount of RMB they could convert into foreign exchange currency was limited. Now, outbound tourists are free to convert RMB into foreign currency for travelling. Travel agencies have also been authorized to undertake currency transactions.<sup>206</sup>

In addition, after China’s access to the WTO<sub>1</sub> in 2001, exit and entry control was gradually converted to adapt to the new situation. In 2001, the quota system for travel to Hong Kong and Macao was abolished. Sixty seven travel agencies in Mainland China were entitled to operate outbound travel business. In 2002, the requirement that Chinese citizens should produce invitation letters from abroad when they apply for passports was discontinued. The practice of issuing exit registration cards with passports was also terminated. From 2005, residents in big and medium cities in China can apply for passports using their identity cards and residence booklets.<sup>207</sup>

Despite increasingly favourable political and economic factors, there still remain certain barriers for potential Chinese outbound travellers. Two major barriers are the obtaining of entry visas and the price issue.<sup>208</sup> In the first place, it was estimated that over the next ten years one of the major barriers to Chinese outbound travel would be the difficulty of the obtaining entry visas from those countries that Chinese tourists would most like to visit. A number of countries do not have tourist agreements with China and do not issue tourist visas for Chinese tourists unless the Chinese are claiming an alternative reason for travel. Moreover, the absence of any commitment between China and these countries without the ADS may lead to a perception that Chinese tourist are not protected.<sup>209</sup> In the second place, the cost of

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<sup>206</sup> H. Qiu Zhang en T. Lam, An Analysis of Mainland Chinese Visitors’ Motivations to Visit Hong Kong, *Tourism Management* 20(5), 1999, p. 588; L. Zhou et al, The China Outbound Market: an evaluation of key constraints and opportunities, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 4(2), 1998, p. 111.

<sup>207</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, pp. 9-11.

<sup>208</sup> L. Zhou et al, The China Outbound Market: an evaluation of key constraints and opportunities, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 4(2), 1998, p. 111; Anon., Outbound Tourism: more efforts needed in new areas, <http://www.linktrip.com/update/112903.htm>, 2003-11-29.

<sup>209</sup> L. Zhou et al, The China Outbound Market: an evaluation of key constraints and opportunities, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 4(2), 1998, p. 111.

travel is another barrier for the Chinese in long-haul outbound travel. For example, if a Chinese tourist travels to Cuba in the Caribbean, he or she has to pay about RMB¥ 20 000 (nearly US\$ 2 400), a sum that few Chinese can afford. With price obstructions like these, only some high-level consumers in coastal and developed regions can choose outbound travel as their preferred form of recreation.<sup>210</sup>

## V. Conclusion

After reform and opening up in 1978, the rapid development of tourism in China has had great impacts on both the growth of the economy and the improvement of Chinese lifestyle. On the one hand, in terms of the economic impacts, tourism contributed greatly to the increase of national revenue, the creation of employment as well as the diversification of the national and regional economy.<sup>211</sup> Firstly, the international tourism receipts rose from US\$2.6 million in 1978 to US\$ 29.3 billion in 2005 (Figure 2. 1); and domestic tourism receipts rose from RMB¥8 billion in 1985 to RMB¥ 528.6 billion in 2005 (Figure 2. 2). In 2005, the total of tourism income including international and domestic tourism receipts was RMB¥768.6 billion, amounting 4.2% of the 2005 GDP of China.<sup>212</sup> Secondly, tourism, as a labour-intensive industry, provides direct employment as regards jobs related to contact with tourists, such as attractions, hotels, restaurants, airlines and resorts, as well as indirect employment including jobs that provide goods and services to the direct employment divisions, such as aircraft manufacture, construction firms and restaurant supply.<sup>213</sup> According to the statistics of the World Travel and Tourism Commission (WTTC), between 1993 and 2003, tourism in China created 13.6 million direct jobs and 54.1 million indirect

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<sup>210</sup> Anon., Outbound Tourism: more efforts needed in new areas, <http://www.linktrip.com/update/112903.htm>, 2003-11-29.

<sup>211</sup> C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 76.

<sup>212</sup> NBS, Annual Report of the National and Social Development of the People's Republic of China 2005, <http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjgb>; CNTA, The 2005 Statistics of the Tourism Industry of China, <http://www.cnta.com/32-lydy/2005/2005lytj.htm>.

<sup>213</sup> C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, pp. 414-5.

jobs each year.<sup>214</sup> By 2003, the total employment in tourism was 38.9 million. Of this, direct employment amounted to 6.48 million and indirect employment to 32.4 million.<sup>215</sup> Thirdly, tourism stimulates the local economy to expand regional economic ties and alleviate poverty.<sup>216</sup> China has become one of the world leaders in eradicating poverty by means of tourism and related industries.<sup>217</sup> In the population of 1.27 billion of Mainland China, six million people increased their income as a direct result of the development of tourism.<sup>218</sup> A great number of people in poverty-stricken areas, such as Yunnan and Guangxi, overcame poverty as a result of developing regional tourism.<sup>219</sup>

On the other hand, tourism plays an important role in the improvement of physical and spiritual life of the Chinese as well as the promotion of better relations.<sup>220</sup> In the first place, travel can achieve good health and peace of mind because it helps people to escape from routine and a stressful environment.<sup>221</sup> It can also enrich the human experience after recognition and serves as an achievement.<sup>222</sup> The Chinese travelling tradition emphasizes expanding one's knowledge; raising one's understanding of the world; enhancing self-evaluation; making friends; and conducting cultural exchanges. An old Chinese saying -

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<sup>214</sup> WTTC, Capitalizing on China's Potential in Travel & Tourism, <http://www.wttc.org/News19.htm>.

<sup>215</sup> G. He, A Speech at Senior Forum on Development of Tourism and Improvement of Employment, <http://www.cnta.com/guanzhu/2004/jyjt/3.htm>, 2004-06-28.

<sup>216</sup> C. L. Jenkins en Z. H. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People's Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, pp. 113-4.

<sup>217</sup> Anon., China Aims to Become World's Leading Tourist Destination, <http://www.china-embassy.ch/eng/38032.htm>.

<sup>218</sup> G. Sun, Jointly Opening up New Fields of Cooperation and Development in the Asian Tourism Industry, a speech at Asian Tourism Conference of the Bo'ao Forum, 2002-11-18, <http://www.cnta.com/21-wxzw/2j/lydy-12-2.htm>.

<sup>219</sup> Anon., China Aims to Become World's Leading Tourist Destination, <http://www.china-embassy.ch/eng/38032.htm>.

<sup>220</sup> C. L. Jenkins en Z. H. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People's Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, pp. 113-4.

<sup>221</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, pp. 4-5.

<sup>222</sup> C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 278.

“He who travels far knows much” already reflects this.<sup>223</sup> In the second place, after 1978, tourism, as a window for reform and opening up, would also help people in the world to better understand China and hence improve international communication and exchanges.<sup>224</sup>

However, in the development of tourism, there are some negative environmental and social impacts. Despite the fact that tourism is known as a “smokeless industry”, pollution is inevitable because of the large amount of waste that tourists produce. In the promotion of “mass” eco-tourism, some tour operators bring tourists into fragile ecological systems in protected areas so that these areas are negatively impacted upon or destroyed.<sup>225</sup> Besides, tourism is a risky business, which is subject to negative influences such as natural disasters, economic fluctuations and political unrest. For example, the 1989 Tiananmen Square incident in China, the 1997-8 Asian financial crisis, the 2001 terrorist attack upon the USA, the 2003 Iraq conflict, the 2003 SARS and the 2004 Indian earthquake. Moreover, the increased influx of overseas tourists often causes problems such as prostitution, drug trafficking and over commercialization of traditional customs. Efforts are therefore being made to minimize the negative impacts caused by the rapid development of tourism in China.<sup>226</sup>

Over the past two-and-a-half decades since 1978, with the changes in both political and economic systems in China, tourism experienced great progress. It transformation from a political activity in the diplomatic arena to an all-orientated economic activity; from inbound tourism alone to the simultaneous development of inbound tourism, domestic tourism and outbound tourism and is now headed to its maturity. With the Chinese economy continuing its rapid growth in the twenty-first century, China has a more favorable national and international environment which can stimulate further development.

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<sup>223</sup> W. Zhang, China’s Domestic Tourism: impetus, development and trends, *Tourism Management* 18(8), 1997, p. 569.

<sup>224</sup> C. L. Jenkins en Z. H. Liu, China: economic liberation and tourism development - the case of the People’s Republic of China, in F. M. Go en C. L. Jenkins (eds.), *Tourism and Economic Development in Asia and Australasia*, London, 1997, pp. 113-4.

<sup>225</sup> G. Zhang, China’s Tourism since 1978: policies, experiences, and lessons learned, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, pp. 32-3.

<sup>226</sup> Ibid.

Firstly, China has enjoyed relative political stability and economic prosperity owing to its experimentation with the market economy as regards reform and opening up. The market economy dramatically increased the growth of China's economy and tourism. Between 1992 and 2005, the GDP in China went from RMB¥ 2.39 trillion to RMB¥ 18.23 trillion, an average increase of 9.5% (Table 2. 2).

Year	GDP ( ¥ billion)	Growth Rate (%)
1992	2393.8	12.8
1993	3138	13.4
1994	4380	11.8
1995	5773.3	10.2
1996	6779.5	9.7
1997	7477.2	8.8
1998	7955.3	7.8
1999	8205.4	7.1
2000	8940.4	8.0
2001	9593.3	7.3
2002	10239.8	8.0
2003	11669.4	9.1
2004	13651.5	9.5
2005	18232.1	9.9

Table 2. 2 The GDP of China 1992-2005

Adapted from: NBS, Annual Report of the National and Social Development of the People's Republic of China 1991-2005,

<http://www.stats.gov.cn/tjgb/>

Secondly, the stronger economy affords the further improvements in infrastructure as well as the existing tourism resources for the development of tourism. At the same time, it would also foster more tourists: inbound, domestic and outbound.<sup>227</sup> The further development of tourism resources - diversity of landscapes and traditional and modern cultures; cities with old and new structures; the world natural and cultural heritage sites; villages in lush tropical vegetations; grasslands and deserts; snow- and ice- covered mountains for “new tourists”, who enjoy challenging adventures; and resorts with world-class golf and other entertainment facilities - constitute a new potential for the development of tourism in China.<sup>228</sup> China has been regarded as one of the fastest developing and the safest tourist destination throughout

<sup>227</sup> G. Zhang en A. A. Lew, Introduction: China's tourism boom, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 4.

<sup>228</sup> Ibid, pp. 3-4.

Asia as well as throughout the world.<sup>229</sup> According to the WTO, by 2020, China will be the top international destination country with about 130 million international arrivals, 8.3% of the total world market share (Table 2. 3), and the fourth largest outbound tourism country with about 100 million outbound travellers, 6.4 % of the total world market share (Table 2. 4).

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Country/region</b>	<b>Tourist arrivals (million)</b>	<b>Market share(%)</b>	<b>Growth rate(%) 1995-2020</b>
<b>1</b>	China	130.0	8.3	7.8
<b>2</b>	France	106.1	6.8	2.3
<b>3</b>	United States	102.4	6.6	3.5
<b>4</b>	Spain	73.9	4.7	2.6
<b>5</b>	Hong Kong	56.6	3.6	7.1
<b>6</b>	United Kingdom	53.8	3.4	3.4
<b>7</b>	Italy	52.5	3.4	2.1
<b>8</b>	Mexico	48.9	3.1	3.6
<b>9</b>	Russian Federation	48.0	3.1	8.5
<b>10</b>	Czech	44.0	2.7	4.0
	Total (1-10)	716.2	45.9	
	Total of the world	1 561	100	

Table 2. 3 World's top ten tourism destinations 2020

From: WTO, *Tourism: 2020 Vision: executive summary* (Madrid, 1999), p. 5.

<b>Rank</b>	<b>Country/region</b>	<b>Total arrivals generated worldwide (million)</b>	<b>Market share (%)</b>
<b>1</b>	Germany	152.9	9.8
<b>2</b>	Japan	141.5	9.1
<b>3</b>	United States	123.3	7.9
<b>4</b>	China	100.0	6.4
<b>5</b>	United Kingdom	94.5	6.1
<b>6</b>	France	54.6	3.5
<b>7</b>	Netherlands	45.6	2.9
<b>8</b>	Italy	35.2	2.3
<b>9</b>	Canada	31.3	2.0
<b>10</b>	Russian Federation	30.5	2.0
	Total (1-10)	809.4	51.8
	Total of the world	1 561	100.0

Table 2. 4 World's top ten outbound tourism countries 2020

From: WTO, *Tourism 2020 Vision: executive summary* (Madrid, 1999), p. 5

<sup>229</sup> M. Zhang, An Analysis and Forecast of the Development of Inbound Tourism in China, in TRCCASS, *Green Book of China's Tourism 2001-2003*, <http://www.lianghui.org.cn/chinese/zhuanti/234829.htm>, 2002-11-19.

Thirdly, the CNTA developed “the 10<sup>th</sup> Five-Year Plan and Long-Term Goal Outlines up to 2015 and 2020 for Tourism Development in China”, which specifies the following quantitative goals:

- by 2020, inbound tourist arrivals will increase from 210 to 300 million, 2.5 to 3.6 times greater than the figure of 2000;
- international tourism earnings will increase from US\$ 58 to US\$ 82 billion, 3.6 times to 55 times above the figure of 2000;
- domestic tourism revenue will reach RMB¥ 2 100 billion, 6.6 times to 9.4 times that of 2000; and
- total output of inbound tourism and domestic tourism will be RMB¥ 3 600 billion, 8 times that of 2000, and be equivalent to 11% of China’s GDP by 2020.<sup>230</sup>

According to this plan, China will have been transformed from a “big tourism country” to a “powerful tourism country” by 2020.<sup>231</sup> However, China will also probably face challenges in the development of global tourism. On the one hand, with China entering the WTO<sup>1</sup>, global competition will most likely increase and intensify as multinational travel firms enter the Chinese market. The experienced firms will probably attract the best local professionals by means of better rewards and benefits.<sup>232</sup> On the other hand, some Asian countries and areas, such as Hong Kong, Taiwan and the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) (including Indonesia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore and Thailand) are even more competitive than China owing to their successful economies, well-developed tourism infrastructures, quick access to information, flexible business operations, wide international connections, and effective promotions as a result of powerful regional and tourist associations.<sup>233</sup> Thus, it is imperative for the Chinese tourism industry to gain

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<sup>230</sup> G. Zhang en A. A. Lew, Introduction: China’s tourism boom, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 8.

<sup>231</sup> Ibid.

<sup>232</sup> L. Yu et al, World Trade and China’s Tourism: opportunities, challenges, and strategies, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, pp. 299-300.

<sup>233</sup> Ibid, p. 300.

market-orientated business knowledge and skills, and to adopt sound management practices that promote the profitability and sustainability of tourism.<sup>234</sup>

Despite being a latecomer to global tourism development, China has done exceedingly well over the past five decades since 1949, particularly after reform and opening up in 1978. These successes can be used as valuable learning experiences for other developing countries with similar conditions to China. It is believed that as China continues with its efforts to develop tourism, tourism in China, known as the “sun in the morning in the twenty-first century”,<sup>235</sup> will be more glorious and splendid in a powerful contemporary China.

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<sup>234</sup> L. Yu et al, World Trade and China’s Tourism: opportunities, challenges, and strategies, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 301.

<sup>235</sup> Z. Gu, the Deputy Director of the CNTA, Tourism in China: the sun in the morning in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, a speech at a conference of identifying four-As scenic spots, <http://www.cnta.com/21-wxzw/2j/tq21.asp>.

## **Chapter 3**

### **The Chinese in South Africa: from convicts to tourists since 1652**

#### **I. Introduction**

This chapter presents a historical overview of the earliest Chinese contacts with Africa. It considers the first Chinese arrivals as convicts and their life at the Cape in the seventeenth century. This is followed by an account of the first coolies in the Cape in the eighteenth century, where it describes the Chinese indentured labour at the beginning of the twentieth century on the Witwatersrand gold mines. It reflects on the discrimination, inequality and inconsistency that the free Chinese settlers encountered in the Cape, Natal, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, in the Union and in the Republic of South Africa, particularly during the apartheid years. It depicts the strong opposition of the Chinese in the Transvaal to various pieces of legislation which discriminated against the Chinese and Asians. It traces the impact of the relations of Taiwan and the People's Republic of China with South Africa on the Chinese community in South Africa. It focuses on the Chinese in South Africa as well as their political, economic and social impact on South Africa after the establishment of the new democratic South Africa in 1994. It compares the differences between the old and the new Chinese in South Africa prior to, and after 1994. It deals with the Chinese tourists who were encouraged to come to South Africa after South Africa obtained the ADS from China. The aim of this chapter is to present an overview of the historical transformation of the Chinese in South Africa from convicts to coolie or indentured labour, to South African citizens and then to tourists, as a result of various contributing factors such as ancient encounters, the establishment of the new democratic South Africa and the normalization of the diplomatic relations between China and South Africa. In accordance with historical development, the Chinese in South Africa prior to 1994 are discussed in the four former provinces: the Cape, Natal, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, which dominated the country's regional division for an extended period of time. The Cape and the Transvaal were two areas where most of the Chinese settled.

The history of the Chinese in South Africa can be traced back to the mid seventeenth century, when China was under the rule of the Qing Dynasty.<sup>1</sup> The first Chinese arrived as convicts in South Africa in the period of the Dutch East India Company (DEIC 1652-1795)<sup>2</sup> and then as “coolies” or “indentured labour” in the first and the second British occupations (1795-1803, 1806-1910).<sup>3</sup> The term “coolies” or “indentured labour” refers to those who signed a contract and were transported to a colonial destination to undertake menial labour for a fixed period of time, before being repatriated.<sup>4</sup> In South Africa, this term particularly refers to Indian labour in the Natal sugar plantations and the 63 695 Chinese labour on the Witwatersrand gold mines between the 1860s and 1900s.<sup>5</sup>

The Chinese community in South Africa is a product of the social environment and history.<sup>6</sup> From their arrival in the 1650s, the Chinese, one of the smallest minorities in South Africa, occupied “a strange position in a strange society”,<sup>7</sup> lived in a “precarious no man’s land” between whites and blacks.<sup>8</sup> They experienced numerous direct and indirect discriminations

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<sup>1</sup> M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. xvii; C. Thomas, *From Underclass to Community Leaders: the Chinese experience in South Africa*, *Issues*, <http://publish.gio.gov.tw/FCJ/past/04042371.html>, 2004-04-23.

<sup>2</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 83; J. C. Armstrong, *The Chinese at the Cape in the Dutch East India Company Period 1652-1795*, pp. 8-9; K. L. Harris, *The Chinese in South Africa: a preliminary overview to 1910*, *Kleio*, xxvi, 1994, p. 16; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 6.

<sup>3</sup> K. L. Harris, *The Chinese in South Africa: a preliminary overview to 1910*, *Kleio*, xxvi, 1994, pp. 17-8, 20-2; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp. 9-12, Chapter 5.

<sup>4</sup> L. Mitchison, *The Overseas Chinese*, p. 17, as cited by K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 70.

<sup>5</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 112-3; K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 107; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 28.

<sup>6</sup> K. L. Harris en F. N. Pieke, *Integration or Segregation: the Dutch and South African Chinese compared*, in E. Sinn (ed.) *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, p. 115.

<sup>7</sup> F. Collins, *Perspective: it’s status quo for Wong Fung Ho*, *Personality*, 1970-10-08, p. 67, as quoted by K. L. Harris, *The Chinese in South Africa: a preliminary overview to 1910*, *Kleio*, xxvi, 1994, p. 9.

<sup>8</sup> Anon., *New History Has Been Well Reserved*, *Business Day*, 1996-12-02.

in a racially divided society.<sup>9</sup> In the Dutch period, Chinese convicts were initially treated as slaves, then as “free blacks”.<sup>10</sup> They were regarded as a “formidable unwelcome competitor” due to the competition with the whites and were consequently restricted by the legislation of the Cape.<sup>11</sup> In the British period, as free settlers, they were restricted by a spectrum of laws against the Indians or “Asiatics” in the four colonies. Because of the importation of Chinese labour to the Transvaal, they were singled out for discrimination by the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1904, the first and only discriminatory piece of legislation specifically directed against the Chinese in the Cape and in South Africa.<sup>12</sup> As indentured labour in the Transvaal, they were negatively affected by the lobbies of “financial ruin” and “moral ruin” as a result of strong feeling of orientalism and anti-Sinitic ideology.<sup>13</sup> They also suffered physically and psychologically as a result of the restrictions of the Labour Importation Ordinance of 1904 and the Transvaal policy.<sup>14</sup>

In the Union and the Republic of South Africa, despite no longer being a major discriminatory target, they were still discriminated against especially in the dark apartheid years between the 1940s and the 1960s.<sup>15</sup> From the 1970s to the 1980s, as a result of the close ties between Taiwan and South Africa, the two pariah states, many entrepreneurs came

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<sup>9</sup> K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 107; K. L. Harris en F. N. Pieke, Integration or Segregation: the Dutch and South African Chinese compared, in E. Sinn (ed.) *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, p. 120.

<sup>10</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 84; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp. 6-7.

<sup>11</sup> K. L. Harris, The Formidable Unwelcome Competitor: overseas Chinese merchants in South Africa, in G. Zhuang (ed.) *History and Perspective: ethnic Chinese at the turn of the centuries*, pp. 542-63; K. L. Harris, Chinese Merchants on the Rand, c.1850-1910, *South African Historical Journal* 33, 1995, pp. 157-8.

<sup>12</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, pp. 277-8.

<sup>13</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 122, 128.

<sup>14</sup> M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp. 108, 125.

<sup>15</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 335-6; K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 279.

to South Africa for business and investment purposes.<sup>16</sup> The status of the Chinese improved gradually. They were for the most part entitled to equal rights with the whites except for the franchise. However, they were still in a constant state of limbo and could not escape the rigours of discrimination and the impact of the apartheid policy.<sup>17</sup> Therefore, Karen L. Harris, a historian specializing on the Chinese in South Africa, concluded that the history of the Chinese in South Africa is a “legacy of inequality, inconsistency and interstitial existence”.<sup>18</sup>

The demise of apartheid and the establishment of the new democratic South Africa in 1994 resulted in the integration of South Africa into the mainstream of the international community. This paved the way for the normalization of fully diplomatic relations between China and South Africa. They began to communicate in an unofficial way in 1991 and established official ties in 1998.<sup>19</sup> The political transformation of South Africa and the diplomatic relations between China and South Africa changed the status of the Chinese in South Africa. They became South African citizens in the real sense of the word and are now playing an important role in every aspect of social development in South Africa.<sup>20</sup> In 2002, South Africa was granted the ADS by the Chinese government and became the first sub-Saharan African country to have this honour.<sup>21</sup> Chinese tourists have been encouraged to come to South Africa. They have become a dynamic factor within the South African tourism industry.

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<sup>16</sup> G. S. Lin, *The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998*, pp. 93, 147-156.

<sup>17</sup> *Ibid*; pp. 97-9; K. L. Harris, “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, pp. 121-2; K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, pp. 280, 290.

<sup>18</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 292.

<sup>19</sup> Department of Foreign Affairs (DFA), Profile of Bilateral Relations: People’s Republic of China (PRC), <http://www.dfa.gov.za/for-relations/bilateral/china.htm>; Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MOFA), China and South Africa, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/wjbj/zjjg/fzs/gjlb/3094/tl6576.htm>, 2003-10-12.

<sup>20</sup> M. Yap en D. L. Man, The Chinese Community in South Africa after 1994, in People’s Daily, *Celebrating Ten Years of Freedom in South Africa and the South Africa-China Partnership*, p. 95.

<sup>21</sup> G. Liu, China National Day: a message from the ambassador, *The Star*, 2003-10-01, p. 15; MOFA, China and South Africa, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/wjbj/zjjg/fzs/gjlb/3094/tl6576.htm>, 2003-10-12.

## II. The Chinese in the colonial period (1652-1910)

### Early contacts between China and Africa

Although separated by vast oceans, the relations between China and Africa can be traced back to the dynasties of Han, Tang and Ming.<sup>22</sup> As early as the first century BC, the city of Alexandria in Egypt first written about in *Historical Records* by Sima Qian. In the first century AD, Africa appeared in *the Book of Han* compiled by Ban Gu (32-92AD), a historian of the Han Dynasty.<sup>23</sup> After the Han Dynasty, the great Chinese travellers - Du Huan, Wang Dayuan and Zheng He - presumably travelled to Africa. Moreover, an African Muslim scholar and traveller Ibn Battutah (1304-1368) travelled to China in the Yuan Dynasty.

Du Huan, a Tang military officer, was regarded as the first Chinese who travelled to Africa. In 751 AD, after being captured during the conflicts between China and the Arabs, he was taken westward and travelled to Arabian and African countries such as Egypt, Sudan, Ethiopia and other African countries for more than eleven years. On his return to China, in 762 AD, he recorded his impressions of the Arabian and surrounding regions in his book *Jing Xing Ji* (*Travel with Kulan*), the first Chinese travels of West Asia and Africa. The book included detailed descriptions of a place called Molin, an African coastal country, which appears to be located in the dry desert lowlands in Sudan and Eritrea and was inhabited by the blacks.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>22</sup> Anon., China National Day: cultural ties since 220AD, *The Star*, 2003-10-01, p. 17; C. Thomas, From Underclass to Community Leaders: the Chinese experience in South Africa, *Issues*, <http://publish.gio.gov.tw/FCJ/past/04042371.html>, 2004-04-23; W. Mei en G. Zhang, *A History of the Overseas Chinese from Wuyi, China*, <http://wylib.jiangmen.gd.cn/jmhq/list.asp?id=302>.

<sup>23</sup> C. Hong, Africa in Chinese Ancient Publications, an unpublished paper presented at the Conference of Blacks and Asians in Time and Space, Boston University, April 2002, pp. 1-2, as cited by K. L. Harris, Early Encounters between China and Africa: myth or moment?, *South African Journal of Cultural History*, June 2003, p. 49.

<sup>24</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 276-8; P. Snow, *The Star Raft: China's encounter with Africa*, pp. 3-5; W. Smidt, A Chinese in the Nubian and Abyssinian Kingdoms (8<sup>th</sup> Century) - The Visit of Du Huan to Molin-guo and Laobosa, <http://cy.revues.org/document33.html>.

*Jing Xing Ji*, as “a first Chinese impression of Africa”, is so significant in the history of Sino-African relations that it was translated into English, French, German and Japanese.<sup>25</sup>

During the Yuan Dynasty, Wang Dayuan, known as the “Marco Polo of the Orient”, was regarded as the first Chinese visitor to the East African coast in the 1330s.<sup>26</sup> He travelled across the Indian Ocean on his two maritime journeys. In his second navigation (1334-1339), he travelled to Africa across the Indian Ocean. He conducted an in-depth commercial survey in Africa and visited places such as Cairo, the capital of Mameluke; Tangiers of Morocco; Mogadishu of Somali and the port of Lkilwa Kisiwani in Tanzania. In 1349, he recorded his experiences in his *Dao Yi Zhi Lue (Survey of Island Foreign countries)*.<sup>27</sup> His book was known as “the most valuable geography [ical] publication of China in the 14 (sic) century”.<sup>28</sup>

Ibn Battutah had also visited China in 1345, travelling extensively in its coastal areas. In 1355, he wrote *Rihlah (Travel Stories)*. He was deeply impressed with China’s well-developed political system, prosperous economy and social environment. He described the thriving agriculture, the well-developed irrigation system, plentiful sugar and fruits, as well as the well-developed mail road and transportation network. He also expressed great admiration for the talented skills of the Chinese people, describing them as “the most skilful and most talented in arts and crafts among all the nations.”<sup>29</sup>

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<sup>25</sup> P. Snow, *The Star Raft: China’s encounter with Africa*, p. 4; C. Hong, Africa in Chinese Ancient Publications, an unpublished paper presented at the Conference of Blacks and Asians in Time and Space, Boston University, April 2002, p. 2, as quoted by K. L. Harris, Early Encounters between China and Africa: myth or moment?, *South African Journal of Cultural History*, June 2003, p. 50.

<sup>26</sup> Anon., Wang Dayuan, the Great Yuan Navigator, <http://bbs.jxcn.cn/archive/index.php/t-31853.html>.

<sup>27</sup> S P. Snow, *The Star Raft: China’s encounter with Africa*, p. 11; F. Shen, *Cultural Flow between China and outside World throughout History*, pp. 180-7; Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 328-30; Anon., Wang Dayuan, the Great Yuan Navigator, <http://bbs.jxcn.cn/archive/index.php/t-31853.html>.

<sup>28</sup> C. Hong, Africa in Chinese Ancient Publications, an unpublished paper, as quoted by K. L. Harris, Early Encounters between China and Africa: myth or moment?, *South African Journal of Cultural History* 17(1), June 2003, p. 52.

<sup>29</sup> F. Shen, *Cultural Flow between China and Outside World throughout History*, pp. 176-80; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 320-1.

Zheng He, celebrated as the “Chinese Columbus”, conducted seven expenditures to apparently circumnavigate the globe between 1405 and 1433.<sup>30</sup> He was said to have visited the east African coast in the fifth, the sixth and the seventh voyages, in which he ventured down the coast of Africa as far as Malindi, Mombasa, Mafia Island off southern Tanzania and as far as Quitangonha Island off northern Mozambique.<sup>31</sup> It is quite probable that eighty years before the Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama (1460-1524) rounded the Cape of Good Hope from the West to discover the sea route to India, Zheng He had edged the southern tip of Africa from the east in the fifteenth century.<sup>32</sup>

Numerous relics were found in both China and Africa to testify to the early interactions between Africa and China. Porcelain in the form of grey green celadon and blue and white ware were found from Aidhab on the Red Sea in the north to the southern tip of Madagascar, as well as in the excavations of the stone ruins of Great Zimbabwe, and Mapungubwe in Limpopo province, South Africa.<sup>33</sup> In 1974, Chinese archaeologists discovered the wreck of an ocean-going junk with tortoiseshell, frankincense and ambergris from Africa dated approximately back to the 1270s off the Quanzhou coast, Fujian. This further confirmed the connections between China and Africa in the Song Dynasty.<sup>34</sup> One of the most important sources of evidence was the gift of a giraffe from the King of Bengal in Malindi for the Chinese emperor in 1414.<sup>35</sup> The 1389 Da Ming Hun Yi Tu (The Amalgamated Map of the

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<sup>30</sup> H. Chang, *Discovering China's Columbus: an academic perspective on Ming Dynasty voyager Zheng He*, [http://www.sinorama.com.tw/en/show\\_issue.php?id=200088908100e.txt&page=1](http://www.sinorama.com.tw/en/show_issue.php?id=200088908100e.txt&page=1).

<sup>31</sup> P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, p. 209; P. Snow, *The Star Raft: China's encounter with Africa*, p. 21; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 332-6; K. L. Harris, *Early Encounters between China and Africa: myth or moment?*, *South African Journal of Cultural History*, June 2003, pp. 66-8.

<sup>32</sup> P. Snow, *The Star Raft: China's encounter with Africa*, pp. xiii, 21, as cited by K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 78; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 336.

<sup>33</sup> K. L. Harris, *Early Encounters between China and Africa: myth or moment?*, *South African Journal of Cultural History*, June 2003, pp. 55-6.

<sup>34</sup> P. Snow, *The Star Raft: China's encounter with Africa*, p. 5, as cited by K. L. Harris, *Early Encounters between China and Africa: myth or moment?*, *South African Journal of Cultural History*, June 2003, p. 52.

<sup>35</sup> P. Snow, *The Star Raft: China's encounter with Africa*, p. 1; P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, p. 211; K. L. Harris, *Early Encounters between China and Africa: myth or moment?*, *South African Journal of Cultural History*, June 2003, pp. 68-9; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 3.

Great Ming Empire of China), arguably one of the oldest world maps in existence, also accurately reflects the African continent including the Nile River and the Drakensberg mountains (Figure 3. 1). In addition, in 1925, Raymond Dart (1893-1988), a renowned anthropologist drew attention to a rock painting, which portrayed men with Chinese features: “a man of light brown complexion, adorned with two necklaces, arrayed in sumptuous apparel and carrying on his head a Chinese hat”.<sup>36</sup> To further substantiate this view, he claimed that the early Dutch settlers called the Kei River people “Chinese Hottentots”.<sup>37</sup>



Figure 3. 1 The 1389 Amalgamated Map of the Great Ming Empire of China

From: A. Leithead, Africa's Oldest Map Unveiled, <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/africa/2446907.stm>, 2002-11-12.

### **The Chinese in the Dutch period (1652-1795)**

The first well-documented account of Chinese arriving and staying in South Africa can be dated back to the seventeenth century. In 1652, a refreshment station was founded in the Cape of Good Hope by the DEIC to supply provisions to the Dutch ships traversing the busy sea

<sup>36</sup> R. A. Dart, The Historical Succession of Cultural Impacts upon South Africa, *Nature* 115, 1925-03-21, pp. 427, as quoted by K. L. Harris, Early Encounters between China and Africa: myth or moment?, *South African Journal of Cultural History*, June 2003, p. 57.

<sup>37</sup> R. A. Dart, The Oriental Horizons of Africa, p. 13, as quoted by M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 4.

routes between Europe and Asia.<sup>38</sup> In order to develop intensive cultivation and solve the problem of insufficient labour, Jan van Riebeeck (1619-1677), the first Dutch commander of the Cape, made many requests for industrious Chinese to introduce agricultural and fishing skills.<sup>39</sup> He expressed his desire for “some industrious Chinese” and also wanted to import “a hundred industrious Chinese or other ambitious free families with a knowledge of cultivating Indian produce” to develop the Cape.<sup>40</sup> Van Riebeeck was so keen on Chinese labour that he pointed out that there were many capable Chinese in prison in Batavia, because of debts they owned the DEIC, who would make good workers because they were “by nature industrious” and had “skills useful for the Cape, knowledge of rice-and sugar-planting and the making of arak”.<sup>41</sup> Zacharias Wagenaar, Van Riebeeck’s successor, also proposed the importation of the Chinese as a solution to the labour shortage. In 1662, he asked to import twenty five or thirty impoverished Chinese with agricultural skills who would be equivalent to fifty lazy farmers in the Cape. In 1664, he reiterated his plea for voluntary or imprisoned Chinese who were good at the various trades such as farming, carpentry, earthenware or pottery.<sup>42</sup> Governor Simon van der Stel, reputed as the “second founder of the Cape”, also raised the idea of the importation of the Chinese during his rule from 1679 to 1699.<sup>43</sup> However, the DEIC neither conceded to these requests nor did they believe that any free Chinese could be attracted to

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<sup>38</sup> T. R. H. Davenport en C. Saunders, *South Africa: a modern history (5<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 21; L. Guelke, *Freehold Farmers and Frontier Settlers, 1652-1780*, in R. Elphick en H. Giliomee (eds.), *The Shaping of South African Society 1652-1840*, Cape Town, 1990, p. 66; H. J. van Aswegen, *History of South Africa to 1854*, p. 68.

<sup>39</sup> H. B. Thom (ed.), *Journal of Jan van Riebeeck (Vol. I 1651-1655)*, p. 33; R. Elphick en R. Shell, *Intergroup Relations: Khoikhoi, Settlers, Slaves and Free Blacks, 1652-1795*, in R. Elphick en H. Giliomee (eds.), *The Shaping of South African Society 1652-1840*, Cape Town, 1990, p. 214; H. J. van Aswegen, *History of South Africa to 1854*, p. 119; M. Wilson en L. Thompson (eds.), *The Oxford History of South Africa South Africa to 1870 (Vol. I)*, p. 66.

<sup>40</sup> H. B. Thom (ed.), *Journal of Jan van Riebeeck (Vol. I 1651-1655)*, pp. 33-4.

<sup>41</sup> J. C. Armstrong, *The Chinese at the Cape in the Dutch East India Company Period 1652-1795*, p. 7, as quoted by K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 80.

<sup>42</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 81.

<sup>43</sup> *Ibid*; J. D. Omer-Cooper, *History of Southern Africa*, p. 19.

“such a distant land and with such uncertain prospects”.<sup>44</sup> As a result, in the DEIC period, no Chinese labour was brought to the Cape officially.<sup>45</sup>

The first Chinese arriving in the Cape were not the farmers with knowledge of rice and sugar planting, the fishermen, carpenters, masons and craftsmen that both Van Riebeeck and his successors had sought. Instead, they were a few among the thousands of Indian, Singhalese, Japanese and Indonesian convicts, banished from the Dutch colony of Batavia in 1658, either for debts or for offences and crimes such as theft, assault, murder, counterfeiting, illegal immigration, extortion, rape and pandering or for political reasons.<sup>46</sup> In extensive research on the Chinese at the Cape during the Dutch period, historian J. C. Armstrong sketched a relatively vivid picture of the lives of these convicts and exiles. As convicts, they were treated as slaves. On expiry of their sentences, they either returned to Batavia or stayed in the Cape as free blacks.<sup>47</sup> During this period, the term “free black” referred to all free persons wholly or partially of African (not Khoikhoi) or of Asian descent, including the Chinese from Asia, India, Ceylon, Indonesia and China.<sup>48</sup> Almost all the Chinese in the free black community were ex-convicts. Although they “enjoy[ed] all privileges and rights of burghers” according to a proclamation of 1752, they were never regarded as the complete equals of the whites.<sup>49</sup>

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<sup>44</sup> I. D. MacCrone, *Race Attitudes in South Africa: historical, experimental and psychological studies*, p. 27, as quoted by K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 81.

<sup>45</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 82; K. L. Harris, *The Chinese in South Africa: a preliminary overview to 1910*, *Kleio*, xxvi, 1994, p. 16.

<sup>46</sup> J. C. Armstrong, *The Chinese at the Cape in the Dutch East India Company Period 1652-1795*, p. 8; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 83; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 6.

<sup>47</sup> J. C. Armstrong, *The Chinese at the Cape in the Dutch East India Company Period 1652-1795*, p. 20; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 84; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 6.

<sup>48</sup> R. Elphick en R. Shell, *Intergroup Relations: Khoikhoi, Settlers, Slaves and Free Blacks, 1652-1795*, in R. Elphick en H. Giliomee (eds.), *The Shaping of South African Society 1652-1840*, Cape Town, 1990, p. 184; H. J. van Aswegen, *History of South Africa to 1854*, pp. 131-2, as cited by K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 84, as cited by M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 7.

<sup>49</sup> H. J. van Aswegen, *History of South Africa to 1854*, pp. 131-4; R. Elphick en R. Shell, *Intergroup Relations: Khoikhoi, Settlers, Slaves and Free Blacks, 1652-1795*, in R. Elphick en H. Giliomee (eds.), *The Shaping of South African Society 1652-1840*, Cape Town, 1990, pp. 84, 215, 217.

The low status of the Chinese was clearly depicted in the official Dutch *opgaaff rolle*, in which they were listed last after the free blacks. As Armstrong pointed out, the Chinese were “a kind of unassimilated appendage of the free blacks.”<sup>50</sup> In addition to the ex-convicts and convicts, there were, according to Harris’s record, a few “free individuals [who] might have come ashore from passing ships or even migrated intentionally.”<sup>51</sup>

According to contemporary author O. F. Mentzel, the Chinese in the period of the DEIC lived “a humble, quiet and orderly life at the Cape.”<sup>52</sup> They engaged in a variety of small-scale trades. They also sold or bartered fresh produce to the crew of ships entering the harbour or cultivated their own private plots of lands. They practiced crafts as being the only candle makers at the Cape.<sup>53</sup> Harris has described them as the “formidable unwelcome competitor” in business activities such as baking, petty trading, shop-keeping and ship’s provisioning.<sup>54</sup> In 1727, an act, which prevented the Chinese from sending their children to sell cakes on the street, was announced with a penalty of a fifty rixdollar fine and suspension of their licenses. In 1740, another act was introduced against the Chinese disallowing them to sell products of flour on the street. In 1779, legislation to prohibit the Chinese from selling fresh fruit, vegetables and meat from small boats to ships in the Table Bay was passed.<sup>55</sup> However, some Chinese in the Cape were accused of making a living in rather less reputable ways. The Dutch settlers accused them of buying stolen goods from slaves and then reselling them, a venture

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<sup>50</sup> J. C. Armstrong, *The Chinese at the Cape in the Dutch East India Company Period 1652-1795*, p. 61, as cited and quoted by K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 88.

<sup>51</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 83.

<sup>52</sup> O. F. Mentzel, *A Geographical and Topographical Description of the Cape of Good Hope Part II*, p.150, as quoted by K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 87, as quoted by M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 8.

<sup>53</sup> C. Thunberg, *Travels in the Cape of Good Hope 1772-1775*, p. 22; O. F. Mentzel, *A Geographical and Topographical Description of the Cape of Good Hope Part II*, pp. 91-2; R. Elphick en R. Shell, *Intergroup Relations: Khoikhoi, Settlers, Slaves and Free Blacks, 1652-1795*, in R. Elphick en H. Giliomee (eds.), *The Shaping of South African Society 1652-1840*, Cape Town, 1990, pp. 223-4.

<sup>54</sup> K. L. Harris, *The Formidable Unwelcome Competitor: overseas Chinese merchants in South Africa*, in G. Zhuang (ed.) *History and Perspective: ethnic Chinese at the turn of the centuries*, p. 542.

<sup>55</sup> *Ibid*, p. 547; K. L. Harris, *Chinese Merchants on the Rand, c.1850-1910*, *South African Historical Journal* 33, November 1995, pp. 157-8.

which encouraged theft. Thus in 1779, a petition was put forward that, “no Chinese ... should live in among the burgers and trade or keep shops” due to encouraging slaves to thievery.<sup>56</sup>

### **Indentured Chinese in the British period (1795 -1910)**

During the British occupations, the British East India Company (BEIC) was aware of the Chinese skills as a result of their experiences in their Eastern colonies and so a small number of Chinese craftsmen began to be imported.<sup>57</sup> In 1814, Captain T. T. Harrington brought twenty three Chinese craftsmen to erect his new home and establish the gardens at “Seaforth” in Simons Town in the Cape. Later, Lord Charles Somereset, the Governor of the Cape, requested twenty five Chinese artisans to serve the Cape’s colonial government. In 1815, twenty four Chinese craftsmen signed a three-year agreement with the Royal Navy at Canton River at the Cape.<sup>58</sup>

In the later half of the nineteenth century, the discovery of diamonds in 1867 and gold in 1886 opened a way for South Africa to establish modern industry. A serious labour crisis after the South Africa War (Anglo-Boer War 1899-1902) resulted in the importation of Chinese labour to the Witwatersrand gold mines in the early twentieth century.<sup>59</sup> The 63 659 Chinese labourers on the gold mines between 1904 and 1911 (about 64 % of the total Chinese labour force in Africa from the 1860s to the 1930s) became the major labour force in South Africa.<sup>60</sup>

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<sup>56</sup> J. C. Armstrong, *The Chinese at the Cape in the Dutch East India Company Period 1652-1795*, p. 58; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 86-7.

<sup>57</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 90; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 10.

<sup>58</sup> B. B. Brock en B. G. Brock, *Historical Simon's Town*, p. 86; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 97-8; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 10.

<sup>59</sup> K. L. Harris, *Rand Capitalist and Chinese Resistance*, *Contree* 35, 1994, p. 19; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 104; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 108-9, 115.

<sup>60</sup> K. L. Harris, *The South African Chinese: a community record of a neglected minority*, *South African Historical Journal* 36, May 1997, p. 320; K. L. Harris en J. Ryan, *Chinese Immigration to Australia and South Africa: a comparative analysis of legislative control*, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, p. 374; W. Mei en G. Zhang; *History of Overseas Chinese from Wuyi, China*, <http://wylib.jiangmen.gd.cn/jmhq/list.asp?id=302>.

Before the South African War, the labour force, referred to the “indispensable base of the industrial pyramid” by historian Donald Denoon,<sup>61</sup> depended mainly on the cheap and unskilled contracted labour from southern and central Africa.<sup>62</sup> However, the South African War destroyed the flow of African labour and the recruiting mechanisms on the Rand. Being unsuccessful in trying to get labour from southern and central Africa, the mines had considered an alternative means of importing unskilled labour from beyond Africa as a reliable workforce to solve the “labour crisis”.<sup>63</sup> The conditions and suitability of Chinese labour employed in the Far East, California, British Columbia, the East Indies and China were investigated. Consequently, the Labour Importation Ordinance No. 17 of 1904 relating to the introduction of unskilled non-European labourers into the Transvaal was passed.<sup>64</sup>

By the end of the nineteenth century, China suffered a decline with the Qing Dynasty, a deteriorating political and economic situation and a series of natural disasters. The suppression of the Reform Movement of 1898, which was launched by Confucian scholar Kang Youwei (1858-1927), led the Qing regime into a domestic political impasse. In addition, during the last three years of the twentieth century, northern China suffered numerous natural calamities such as famine, drought, floods, typhoons, epidemics and locust plagues.<sup>65</sup> Moreover, China experienced what was probably the greatest wave of peasant movement in history. After the Taiping Rebellion (1850-1864), the Boxer Rebellion of 1900, a peasant movement against Manchu misrule and foreign penetration, began in Shantung (current

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<sup>61</sup> D. J. N., Denoon, The Transvaal Labour Crisis 1901-6, *Journal of African History* 7(3), 1967, p. 481, as quoted by K. L. K. L. Harris, A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912, p. 108.

<sup>62</sup> D. J. N., Denoon, The Transvaal Labour Crisis 1901-6, *Journal of African History* 7(3), 1967, p. 484; K. L. Thrope, The Origins and Early Years of a Multi-cultural Reef Labour Society, *Historia* 31(2), 1986, p. 41; P. Harris, *Work, Culture and Identity: migrant labourers in Mozambique and South Africa, c. 1860-1910*, p. 182.

<sup>63</sup> P. Richardson, *Chinese Mine Labour in the Transvaal*, p. 13; K. L. Harris, A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912, pp. 109, 115; L. Callinicos, *A People's History of South Africa (Vol. I): gold and workers 1886-1924*, p. 63.

<sup>64</sup> P. Richardson, *Chinese Mine Labour in the Transvaal*, pp. 22-3; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp. 104-5; K. L. Harris, A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912, pp. 113-4, 118.

<sup>65</sup> B. Hook en D. Twitchett, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of China*, pp. 227-8; W. Rodzinski, *A History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 86, 362, 374; K. L. Harris, A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912, pp. 152-3.

Shandong) spreading to Chili (current Hebei). Besides, there was also the constant and increasing pressure of the foreign powers after the Sino-Japanese War (1894-5) and the Russian-Japanese War (1904-5).<sup>66</sup> Facing this dire situation, the Chinese government eventually signed the Anglo-Chinese Labourer Convention with the British government in London in May 1904, on the basis of the Anglo-Chinese Convention of Peking of 1860.<sup>67</sup>

The presence of the Chinese in South Africa sparked off a debate amongst the whites, both locally and abroad. This led to strong xenophobic attitudes, which were, according to Harris, an anti-Chinese lobby which included the racists approach and the humanitarian one with blatant orientalism. The anti-Chinese lobby can be classified into two major stances: the “racists” approach and the “humanitarian” one.<sup>68</sup> The major concern of the racist approach was that of “financial ruin” and “moral ruin”. From the economic viewpoint, they were worried that the “hard-working and diligent” Chinese would “take the bread out of mouths of the white man”.<sup>69</sup> They also believed that the presence of the energetic and hardworking Chinese would contain a moral threat which would “ruin” or “overrun the country” in that they would corrupt and demolish the entire population and destroy the ideal of the development of South Africa as a “white man’s country”.<sup>70</sup> The anti-Chinese protagonists denounced the Chinese as being “morally pestiferous” for their loathsome habits such as “opium-smoking, gambling”. They argued that “nameless vices (would) be introduced among the sober, steady, pure-minded population of Johannesburg”.<sup>71</sup> Moreover, the physical appearance of the Chinese, cultural traditions, political structure and life style were depicted in negative ways. According to Harris, the contemporary literature was riddled with derogatory terminology, including “yellow peril”, “yellow scourge”, “almond-eyed”,

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<sup>66</sup> B. Hook en D. Twitchett, *The Cambridge Encyclopedia of China*, pp. 86, 229-30; W. Rodzinski, *A History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 375-7, 390-1; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 153.

<sup>67</sup> P. Richardson, *Chinese Mine Labour in the Transvaal*, pp. 32-5; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 109.

<sup>68</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 121.

<sup>69</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 122, 128; B. K. Long, *Drummond Chaplin: his life and times in Africa*, p. 107.

<sup>70</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 122-3, 224.

<sup>71</sup> *Ibid*, p. 128.

“slit-eyed”, “pig-tailed”, “turtle-eaters” and “Mongolian filth.”<sup>72</sup> Furthermore, the anti-Chinese lobbyists had negatively speculated that the absence of Chinese women would result in “moral and other evils”, one of which was an “unnatural vice”: homosexuality.<sup>73</sup>

On the other hand, the humanitarian position was concerned with the conditions of Chinese employment. They believed that the so-called “yellow slavery in South Africa” was “a regrettable necessity” and could not be tolerated. They regarded the Labour Importation Ordinance as “a charter of slavery”, described the restrictions as “unfair”, exaggerated the ill-treatment, the poor conditions and emphasized the negative nature of the Transvaal indenture system.<sup>74</sup>

According to the Labour Importation Ordinance of 1904, Chinese labourers were indeed restricted in many ways. They could only work as unskilled labour on the gold mines in the Rand; they had to live where they were employed and could not leave without a permit; they had no choice regarding their place of employment; they were not allowed to drink wine, nor could they engage in trade or hold landed property; the offences such as desertion, refusals to work, absence or changing employer and conducting trade or business were punished by imprisonment or a fine or immediate repatriation; they had to be repatriated to the country of their origin after the end of three-year contract or its renewal.<sup>75</sup>

In addition to the restrictions in the Labour Importation Ordinance, Chinese labour suffered corporal punishment, worked in bad conditions and obtained lower wages than other forms of unskilled labour. Despite the request of the Chinese authorities that corporal punishment be prohibited and the earlier assurances that it would be avoided, the Transvaal authorities and mine management believed that flogging was a deterrent the Chinese would understand and a

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<sup>72</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 131.

<sup>73</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 186-7.

<sup>74</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 129-30, 138, 141.

<sup>75</sup> The Labour Importation Ordinance of the Transvaal, No. 17 of 1904; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 108.

punishment to which the low-class Chinese had been accustomed.<sup>76</sup> They suffered bad working conditions: heavy underground work, long working hours and dangerous underground working conditions without any safety facilities. Under such bad working conditions, many Chinese labourers suffered from diseases such as beri-beri, dysentery, pneumonia, tuberculosis and other respiratory diseases.<sup>77</sup> Throughout the experiment, the Chinese earned less than the blacks. The average wages were 37s.7d a month for the Chinese and 51s.9d for Africans.<sup>78</sup>

In her PhD thesis, Harris has pointed out how Chinese labour in South Africa had far-reaching and profound political and economic impacts on South Africa and the Chinese community in South Africa.<sup>79</sup> Firstly, both Britain and the Transvaal made political capital from the debate about the importation of Chinese labour. It resulted in the fall from power of the Conservative government and elevated to power the Liberal Party in Britain, and the Het Volk party in the Transvaal respectively.<sup>80</sup> Secondly, the importation of the Chinese labour had immediate and long-term impacts on the economy and labour relations within South Africa. It assisted in revitalizing the South African economy after the South African War. In 1906, the mines were able to recapture their position as the world's largest single producer of gold and surpassed the pre-war record of 1898.<sup>81</sup> It was estimated that 26.2% of the total output of £ 85.6 million was created by the Chinese between 1904 and 1907.<sup>82</sup> In addition, the importation of Chinese labour made the mining industry curtail the rise of unskilled

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<sup>76</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 173; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp. 109, 125; D. J. N. Denoon, *The Transvaal Labour Crisis, 1901-6*; *Journal of African History* 7(3), 1967, p. 491.

<sup>77</sup> W. Mei and G. Zhang, *History of the Overseas Chinese from Wuyi, China*, <http://wylib.jiangmen.gd.cn/jmhq/list.asp?id=302>; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp. 117-8.

<sup>78</sup> D. J. N. Denoon, *The Transvaal Labour Crisis, 1901-6*, *Journal of African History* 7(3), 1967, p. 491; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 123.

<sup>79</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 143-7.

<sup>80</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 143-4; K. L. Harris en J. Ryan, *Chinese Immigration to Australia and South Africa: a comparative analysis of legislative control*, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, p. 375.

<sup>81</sup> P. Richardson, *Chinese Mine Labour in the Transvaal*, p. 180; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 144-6.

<sup>82</sup> P. Richardson, *Chinese Mine Labour in the Transvaal*, p. 180

wages on the basis of what the Chinese labourers were paid. In 1904, the wage for Africans peaked at 57s and fell sharply to 51s a month after 1905.<sup>83</sup> It not only perpetuated the migratory labour pattern, undermined the bargaining position of African labour and widened the ratio of the white to coloured labour so as to fragment the working class on the mines, but also bolstered the industrial colour bar.<sup>84</sup> Thirdly, although the negative impacts of Chinese labour on the Chinese community in South Africa exceeded the positive ones, the major contribution of the importation of Chinese labour was to establish the Chinese Consulate-General in Johannesburg in 1905. It played an important role in the affairs of the Chinese throughout the Transvaal, the Cape and Natal.<sup>85</sup>

### **The free Chinese in the Cape, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State**

By the end of the nineteenth century, in order to curb the rights of the Indians who had arrived in Natal from the 1860s and prohibit their further immigration, the Transvaal, the Orange Free State and Natal had enacted various categories of legislation which impacted negatively on the Chinese. Because of the restrictions of the various legislations, the Chinese in the four territories decreased dramatically. Harris argued that because they shared the same geographical origin with the Indians, the Chinese in South Africa were restricted by a spectrum of laws against the Indians or “Asiatics”.<sup>86</sup>

With the arrivals of refugees during and after the South Africa War, the Immigration Act of 1902 was introduced. In Cape parliamentary debates about the Immigration Restriction Act, the Chinese were not a major issue. However, the Transvaal Chinese labour experiment put the free Chinese in the Cape in the spotlight so that a widespread political outcry against the

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<sup>83</sup> L. Callinicos, *A People's History of South Africa (Vol. 1): gold and workers 1886-1924*, p. 70; D. J. N. Denoon, The Transvaal Labour Crisis, 1901-6, *Journal of African History* 7(3), 1967, pp. 491-2.

<sup>84</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 146; J. Simons en R. Siomos, *Class and Colour in South Africa 1850-1950*, p. 55.

<sup>85</sup> M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp.111,135.

<sup>86</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 336-7.

Chinese immigrants occurred and the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1904 was introduced.<sup>87</sup> The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1904 dealt with the immigration, the movement and rights of the Chinese in the Cape. It required that, the Chinese, who applied the Certificates of Exemption, submit all their fingerprints, be physically examined for distinguishing marks and sign their application forms in English and in Chinese.<sup>88</sup> It stipulated that it was illegal for any Chinese without a valid Certificate of Exemption to enter or reside in the Cape. It disenfranchised the Chinese who were not British subjects. To encumber them further, this legislation declared that all Chinese who were not British subjects and who left the country would not be permitted to re-enter and that their Certificates of Exemption would lapse from their date of departure. Harris argued that, for the Chinese who returned to fulfill filial duties, visit their ancestral villages, acquire wives, conceive children and take sons to be educated according to Chinese tradition, this proved to be extremely stringent and discriminatory.<sup>89</sup>

The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1904 culminated in the worst anti-Chinese agitation since the 1650s and had a detrimental impact on the Chinese community in the Cape and the Union of South Africa. As the Chinese in South Africa became the first people of all so-called “aliens”, to be singled out and discriminated against in such a blatant manner. The Act not only prohibited any Chinese without a valid Certificate of Exemption from entering and residing in the Cape but also instituted a comprehensive registration system to control 1380 Chinese in the Cape and within its borders. It was concerned with all classes of the Chinese and was therefore made applicable to the “whole of the Chinese race”.<sup>90</sup> According to Harris, although this legislation was a direct product of the introduction of the Chinese labour in the

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<sup>87</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 201-2, 214; The Chinese Exclusion Act No. 37 of 1904.

<sup>88</sup> The Chinese Exclusion Act No. 37 of 1904; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp. 62-3.

<sup>89</sup> The Chinese Exclusion Act No. 37 of 1904; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 243-4.

<sup>90</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 126, 259; K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, pp. 110-1; K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, pp. 277-8.

Transvaal gold mines, it was upheld in the statutes of South Africa for nearly three decades after the termination of the indentured system in 1910 and only repealed in 1933.<sup>91</sup> Chinese immigration was terminated and the growth of their community was stunted, not only at the Cape, but also in the Union and the Republic of South Africa.<sup>92</sup> In Harris's analysis, the statistics indicated the restrictive efficiency of the Act: the number of the Chinese decreased from 1 393 in 1904 to 711 in 1917.<sup>93</sup>

The first Chinese probably arrived in the Transvaal in the 1850s and there were about 1 000 Chinese residents by the end of nineteenth century in the Transvaal.<sup>94</sup> They suffered harsher and more discriminatory legislation as a result of the importation of the indentured Indians in the 1860s and Chinese labour at the beginning of the twentieth century.<sup>95</sup> In order to restrict "Asiatic" immigration and trade, the Transvaal government enacted an array of stringent laws at the end of the nineteenth century and at the beginning of the twentieth century. These included the Law 3 of 1885 and its Amendments; the Gold Law No.15 of 1898; the Precious and Base Metals Act No. 35 of 1908; the Bazaar Notice of 1903; and the Asiatic Law Amendment Act of 1907.

The Transvaal enacted Law 3 of 1885 to segregate Asians in separate areas and restrict their rights to avoid the "invasion" of Indian traders and ex-indentured Indians. It stipulated that "persons belonging to any of the native races of Asia" were prohibited from "obtaining burger rights", from "being owners of fixed property in the Republic[Transvaal]" and that "Asiatics" who settled in the Transvaal for "the purpose of carrying on any trade or otherwise shall be bound to have their names entered in a register to be separately kept for the purpose

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<sup>91</sup> The Immigration Amendment Act No. 19 of 1933; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 335-6.

<sup>92</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 259; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 69.

<sup>93</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 252; K. L. Harris, 'The Chinese South Africans': an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 278.

<sup>94</sup> K. L. Harris, 'The Chinese in South Africa: a preliminary overview to 1910', *Kleio* xxvi, 1994, p. 19.

<sup>95</sup> *Ibid*; K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 260.

by the Landdrosts of the various districts” and paid £ 25 (later reduced to £ 3) for the registration.<sup>96</sup> It was amended to allow them to own property only in “such streets, wards, and locations as the Government for purposes of sanitation shall assign them to live in”.<sup>97</sup> In 1893, the Volksraad passed a resolution that “every Chinaman shall be bound to provide himself with a special pass ... affixed with a stamp of £ 25 and renew it yearly”.<sup>98</sup>

After the discovery of gold, the Gold law No. 15 of 1898 was promulgated to prevent any coloured from being “a license holder” and being “connected with working of the diggings” except for being a “workman in the service of whites”.<sup>99</sup> The Precious and Base Metals Act No. 35 of 1908, referred to as the Gold Law, disallowed the coloured to “reside on proclaimed land in districts” to effectively bar the “Asiatics” from trading in the mining areas of the Witwatersrand.<sup>100</sup> In order to limit the rights of “Asiatics” and avoid the business threat, the Transvaal re-enacted law 3 of 1885 in government notice 356 of 1903, i.e. the Bazaar Notice to set up locations for the Asians to reside or trade so as to isolate them from the white business areas.<sup>101</sup> After the responsible government of the Boer Het Volk Party took power in the Transvaal in 1907, the Asiatic Law Amendment Act No. 2 of 1907, i.e., the Black Act, was ratified. It required that all Asians should be reregistered to obtain new registration certificates with detailed information as well as fingerprints, according to which the trading licenses were issued. This legislation symbolized the accumulation of increasing

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<sup>96</sup> Article 255, Law No.3, 1885, in *The Statute Law of the Transvaal* translated by S. H. Barber et al, p. 250; K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 277; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p. 76.

<sup>97</sup> C. Jeppe et al (eds.), Article 255, Law No.3, in C. Jeppe et al (eds.), *Statute of the Transvaal (Vol. I 1839-1900)*, p. 135; K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, pp. 107-8; K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 282.

<sup>98</sup> Article 1353, First Volksraad Resolution, 1893-09-08, in *The Statute Law of the Transvaal* translated by S. H. Barber et al, p. 436.

<sup>99</sup> Law No. 15 of 1898, in *The Statute Law of the Transvaal* translated by S. H. Barber et al, p. 932.

<sup>100</sup> A Precious and Base Metals Act No. 35 of 1908, in C. Jeppe et al (eds.), *Statute of the Transvaal (Vol. III 1907-1910)*, p. 2291.

<sup>101</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, p. 285.

hostility towards the Asians and their competition.<sup>102</sup> The numerous local and trading legislations between 1885 and 1907 in the Transvaal curtailed the livelihood of the Transvaal Chinese, restricted their growth and kept them on the economic, social and political fringes of the country.<sup>103</sup>

The hardships, inconveniences and degradation that the Chinese endured psychologically and physically led to what Harris has termed their unprecedented and uncharacteristic involvement in political activities. The participation in Mahatma Gandhi's passive resistance between 1906 and 1911 was a unique political occurrence and represented a milestone in opposition action of the Chinese in South Africa against racial discrimination in the history of the community.<sup>104</sup> With the promulgation of the Draft Asiatic Law Amendment Ordinance No 29 of 1906, both the Chinese and Indian communities collaborated on occasion to resist the Act for the first time. The Asiatic Law Amendment of 1907 inaugurated a new phase in the resistance movement, in which the relationship between Gandhi, the Chinese and the passive resistance was forged.<sup>105</sup> In the passive resistance campaign, the Chinese, under the leadership of Leung Quinn, the chairman of the Transvaal Chinese Association, were not only accomplices of the Indians but also acted independently on their own terms. They sent numerous petitions to various authorities, dispatched a delegation to the British government to address unjust treatment, humiliations and indignities that the oppressive and unjust laws

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<sup>102</sup> Asiatic Law Amendment Act No. of 1907, in C. Jeppe et al (eds.), *Statute of the Transvaal (Vol. III 1907-1910)*, pp. 165- 72; K. L. Harris, The Formidable Unwelcome Competitor: overseas Chinese merchants in South Africa, in G. Zhuang (ed.) *History and Perspective: ethnic Chinese at the turn of the centuries*, p. 552; K. L. Harris, Chinese Merchants on the Rand, c.1850-1910, *South African Historical Journal* 33 November 1995, p. 163; K. L. Harris "Whiteness", "Blackness", "Neitherness" - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, pp. 112-3.

<sup>103</sup> K. L. Harris, Chinese Merchants on the Rand, c.1850-1910, *South African Historical Journal* 33 November 1995, p. 163.

<sup>104</sup> K. L. Harris, A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912, pp. 330-2; K. L. Harris, Gandhi, the Chinese and Passive Resistance, in J. Brown and M. Prozesky (eds.), *Gandhi and South Africa: principles and politics*, p. 70.

<sup>105</sup> K. L. Harris, A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912, pp. 336-7.

in the Transvaal caused.<sup>106</sup> According to Harris, Chinese passive resistance was an unprecedented political activity and reflected a determined but independent commitment to the passive resistance movement. Their actions were significant because the Chinese were placed at the center of an internationally important political movement, Gandhi's satyagraha. Their participation in passive resistance broke the non-political stereotype of overseas Chinese community throughout the countries.<sup>107</sup>

### III. The Chinese in the Union of South Africa (1910-1961)

#### The Chinese in South Africa prior to 1948

In 1910, the four states including the Cape, Natal, the Transvaal and the Orange Free State in South Africa were amalgamated to form the Union of South Africa under one central government. The first Union immigration act - the Immigrants Regulation Act No. 22 of 1913 - incorporated all "the salient features of the provincial legislations such as the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1904 in the Cape, Chapter XXXIII of the Orange Free State, and the Language Test in Natal".<sup>108</sup> In the Union, the Chinese were however no longer a major target of South African immigration legislation and the number of the Chinese in South Africa began to increase marginally (Figure 3. 2).<sup>109</sup> In 1931, as a result of expedient economic

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<sup>106</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 260, 292-3; K. L. Harris, Gandhi, the Chinese and Passive Resistance, in J. Brown and M. Prozesky (eds.), *Gandhi and South Africa: principles and politics*, pp. 69-89; K. L. Harris "Whiteness", "Blackness", "Neitherness" - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 112.

<sup>107</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 331-2.

<sup>108</sup> Immigrations Regulation Act No. 22 of 1913; K. L. Harris, The Chinese "South Africans": an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 279; K. L. Harris en J. Ryan, Chinese Immigration to Australia and South Africa: a comparative analysis of legislative control, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, p. 375; K. L. Harris "Whiteness", "Blackness", "Neitherness" - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 111.

<sup>109</sup> K. L. Harris, *A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912*, pp. 334-6; K. L. Harris, "Whiteness", "Blackness", "Neitherness" - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 113; K. L. Harris, The Chinese "South Africans": an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 279.

considerations with the purpose of looking for trading partners outside Europe, the Union government reached an agreement with China. Afterwards, the Chinese Exclusion Act was repealed in 1933.<sup>110</sup> However, these developments did not mean the Chinese were no longer subjected to racist legislation. They were included in a broad non-European category and continued to suffer discrimination, segregation and later the impacts of apartheid.<sup>111</sup>

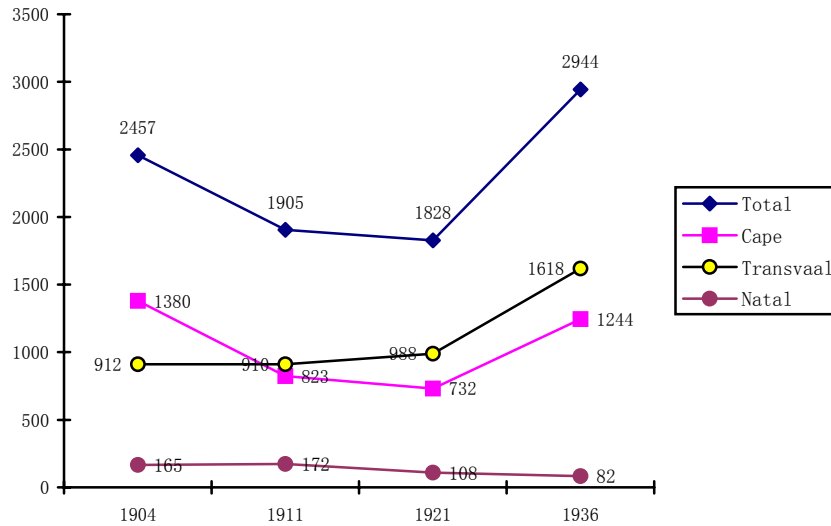


Figure 3. 2 The Chinese distribution in South Africa 1904-1936

Adapted from: M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa* (Hong Kong, 1996), p. 177.

### The Chinese in the apartheid period (1948-1961)

In 1948, the National Party (NP) took power and introduced the policy of apartheid through legislation. Since 1948, a series of statutes, which epitomized the essential nature of the apartheid policy in politics, residence, social and cultural affairs were introduced to enforce the separation on the basis of race.<sup>112</sup> The apartheid laws, including the 1950 Population

<sup>110</sup> K. L. Harris, A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912, p. 336, K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 279.

<sup>111</sup> K. L. Harris, “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, pp. 113-4.

<sup>112</sup> J. D. Omer-Cooper, *History of Southern Africa*, pp. 196-202; M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp. 315-6; C. F. J. Muller (ed.), *Five Hundreds Years: a history of South Africa (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp. 371-2, 457-60.

Registration Act, the 1950 Group Areas Act, the 1951 Separate Representation of Voters Act, the 1953 Reservation of Separate Amenities Act and the 1956 Extension of University Education Act, greatly affected the Chinese in South Africa.<sup>113</sup> Between the 1950s and the 1970s, the Chinese in South Africa were subjected to prohibitive and restrictive regulations in trade, education, public transport, property rights, freedom of movement and hospitalization.<sup>114</sup> They had to accept apartheid as a system and an ideology and make the best of it. Their tiny size, together with their colour and cultural heritage, gave them a precarious and ambiguous political and legal status. However, this did not exempt them from the discriminatory structures of a government bent on racial division.<sup>115</sup>

The Population Registration Act No. 30 of 1950, a cornerstone of apartheid, classified the population into three groups in terms of skin colour: the white, the coloured and the native. In an amendment of 1959, the Chinese were classified into the “coloured group” together with “Cape coloured, Cape Malay, Griqua, Indian and other Asiatic and other Coloured”. At the reiterated requests of the Chinese, the government acknowledged the Chinese as a separate group instead of being classified into the coloured group or other Asian groups. At some level this benefited them to negotiate alleviation from some of the discriminatory laws.<sup>116</sup>

The Group Areas Act, known as “the essence of the apartheid” by D. F. Malan the then Prime Minister,<sup>117</sup> provided “for the establishment of group areas, for the control of acquisition of immovable property and occupation of land and premises, and for matters incidental thereto” for specific racial groups.<sup>118</sup> According to Harris’s research on this particular legislation, the Chinese rejected their area designation and asked to be classified as

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<sup>113</sup> M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, p.316.

<sup>114</sup> G. S. Lin, *The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998*, p.53.

<sup>115</sup> K. L. Harris en F. Pieke, *Integration or Segregation: the Dutch and South African Chinese compared*, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, pp. 120, 131.

<sup>116</sup> Population Registration Act No. 30 of 1950; Proclamation No. 46 of 1959; K. L. Harris, “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 115.

<sup>117</sup> K. Kirkwood, *The Group Areas Act*, p. 5.

<sup>118</sup> Statute of the Union, Group Areas Act No. 41 of 1950.

Europeans because they regarded themselves as closer to white than “non-white”. They claimed that their small number and advanced culture could not constitute a threat to “white civilization”.<sup>119</sup> They requested that they “should be a separate group, but not allocated a definite area”.<sup>120</sup> It was not until 1969 that the government conceded this request.<sup>121</sup>

In 1953, the Reservation of Separate Amenities Act was promulgated to further enforce the separation between the racial groups at a social level. It provided “for the reservation of public premises and vehicles or portions thereof for the exclusive use of persons of a particular race or class”. The “public premises” referred to “any land, enclosure, building, structure, hall, room, office or convenience to which the public had access, whether on the payment of an admission fee or not”. A “public vehicle” included “any train, tram bus, vessel or aircraft used for the conveyance of the public”.<sup>122</sup> According to this act, it was impossible for the Chinese to get a meal or have a hair cut in white restaurants or white hair dresser. The Taiwan Consul-General and other diplomats were, for example, not allowed to have lunch in white facilities and were chased out of “white” restaurants twice.<sup>123</sup>

The 1951 Separate Representation of Voters Act effectively removed non-Europeans including the Chinese from various provincial voters’ roles. Franchise qualifications were exclusive to all Africans, Asians and the coloureds.<sup>124</sup> Only in 1994, some forty three years

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<sup>119</sup> K. L. Harris, “Accepting the Group, but Not the Area”: The South African Chinese and the Group Area Act, *South African Historical Journal* 40, May 1999, pp. 179, 188-9.

<sup>120</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, p. 284.

<sup>121</sup> K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 118.

<sup>122</sup> Reservation and Separate Amenities Act No. 49 of 1953, as quoted by K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 291.

<sup>123</sup> M. Yap en D. L. Man, *Colour, Confusion and Concession: the history of the Chinese in South Africa*, pp. 273-4, 356, as cited and quoted by G. S. Lin, *The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998*, p. 53.

<sup>124</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, p. 287; K. L. Harris en F. Pieke, Integration or Segregation: the Dutch and South African Chinese compared, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, p. 121.

later, did the new Electoral Act stipulate provision for Chinese citizens participation in the election procedure.<sup>125</sup>

According to the 1959 Extension of the University Act, most faculties in the formerly “open universities” that had previously accepted “non-whites” were closed to black and coloured students. If “non-white” students wanted to enrol for courses not offered at the “non-white” institutions, they had to apply for a permit from the government. Therefore, the Chinese in South Africa had to depend on the stipulations of the permits system for access to white institutions in the tertiary education sector. In the 1980s permits were issued to allow the Chinese to enrol at these places of learning.<sup>126</sup>

#### **IV. The Chinese in the Republic of South Africa (1961-1997)**

##### **The relations between Taiwan and South Africa (1971 -1997)**

After 1948 and prior to the 1970s, South Africa had no diplomatic ties with both Mainland China and Taiwan. In 1971, Taiwan lost its seat in the UN Security Council and suffered serious diplomatic adversity.<sup>127</sup> South Africa also suffered international sanctions, firstly as a result of its apartheid policy, and then as a result of a series of international and national events in the 1970s.<sup>128</sup> The shared pariah status, international ostracism and pragmatic

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<sup>125</sup> K. L. Harris en F. Pieke, Integration or Segregation: the Dutch and South African Chinese compared, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, pp. 121-2; K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 287.

<sup>126</sup> K. L. Harris, Confucian Education: a case study of the South African Chinese, in M. W. Charney et al, *Asian Migrants and Education*, Dordrecht, 2003, p. 112; K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 291.

<sup>127</sup> K. L. Harris en J. Ryan, Chinese Immigration to Australia and South Africa: a comparative analysis of legislative control, K. L. Harris en F. Pieke, Integration or Segregation: the Dutch and South African Chinese compared, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, pp. 377; G. S. Lin, The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998, pp. 50, 72.

<sup>128</sup> G. S. Lin, The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998, pp. 81-2. See also Chapter 4, pp. 117-8.

considerations led to closer ties between Taiwan and South Africa. They began to move closer in 1971 and established formal diplomatic relations in 1976.<sup>129</sup>

With the close ties between Taiwan and South Africa, more Taiwanese immigrants poured into South Africa for business and investment purposes.<sup>130</sup> The South African government was obliged to reconsider the status of the 8 000 Chinese in South Africa at the request of Taiwan.<sup>131</sup> It agreed to do away with the chronic discrimination against the Chinese through the amendment of the legislation. According to the Group Areas Amendment Act of 101 of 1984, the provisions of the Group Areas Act ceased to apply to the Chinese community. They had the right to own and occupy property, live, socialize and trade in white areas without permits.<sup>132</sup> For this, Harris claimed that the Chinese in South Africa became “one of the first ‘non-white’ groups to straddle the apartheid divide”.<sup>133</sup> However, she argued that they were in a constant state of limbo. They still lived at the behest of others due to no legal acknowledgment of their being recognized as “full white”; and negotiated the permit system and unofficial exemption. She concluded that they were often more inconvenienced due to

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<sup>129</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 280; G. S. Lin, The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998, pp. 87, 93; K. L. Harris en J. Ryan, Chinese Immigration to Australia and South Africa: a comparative analysis of legislative control, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, pp. 377-8.

<sup>130</sup> G. S. Lin, The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998, pp. 145-157.

<sup>131</sup> Ibid, pp. 97-8; K. L. Harris en J. Ryan, Chinese Immigration to Australia and South Africa: a comparative analysis of legislative control, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, p. 378; The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 285; K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 121.

<sup>132</sup> The Group Areas Amendment Act No. 101 of 1984; G. S. Lin, The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998, p. 98; K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 285; K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 118.

<sup>133</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 285.

dependence on the privilege of government decree, permits, concessions, white forbearance and official blind-eye.<sup>134</sup>

### **The relations between China and South Africa (1991- 1997)**

The political situation in South Africa was rapidly changing by the year 1989, when F. W. de Klerk became the Executive State President. After the release of Nelson Mandela and other political prisoners in 1990, apartheid legislation was gradually being dismantled. South Africa began to shake off the international isolation of the apartheid years and to reintegrate with the mainstream of the international community.<sup>135</sup> In 1991, China and South Africa agreed on the establishment of unofficial representations in Beijing and Pretoria respectively to be true channels of communication between the two governments. The semi-official representative offices - the Chinese Centre for South African Studies and the South Africa Centre for Chinese Studies - were established in Pretoria and in Beijing respectively in 1992.<sup>136</sup> The inauguration of President Nelson Mandela on May 10<sup>th</sup> 1994 marked the beginning of a new democratic South Africa. In reshaping its foreign policy, the new South African government faced the dilemma of the official recognition of Mainland China or Taiwan.<sup>137</sup> In addition to the historical allegiance, China is a major world power: the most populous state in the world, a nuclear power, a permanent member of the UN Security Council and one of the world's fastest growing economies. Between 1991 and 1995, China was the fastest growing economy in the world with the average GDP of 12.2%. The return of Hong Kong in 1997 and Macao in 1999 increased the importance and global influence of

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<sup>134</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese "South Africans": an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 290; K. L. Harris "Whiteness", "Blackness", "Neitherness" - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 122.

<sup>135</sup> G. S. Lin, The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998, pp. 119-121.

<sup>136</sup> Ibid, p. 123; DFA, Profile of Bilateral Relations: People's Republic of China (PRC), <http://www.dfa.gov.za/for-relations/bilateral/china.htm>.

<sup>137</sup> G. S. Lin, The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998, pp. 120, 286.

China. From 1991 to 1994, trade between China and South Africa had gone from US\$14.6 million to US\$ 900 million. From 1995 onwards, China became South Africa's sixth largest trade partner.<sup>138</sup> However, the government inherited formal diplomatic relations with Taiwan.<sup>139</sup> In line with the international trends, however, on November 27<sup>th</sup> 1996, President Mandela finally announced that South Africa had decided to sever diplomatic ties with Taiwan and establish full diplomatic relations with the PRC from January 1<sup>st</sup> 1998.<sup>140</sup>

## **V. The Chinese in the new South Africa (1994-the present)**

### **The relations between China and South Africa (1998-the present)**

With the signing of the “Joint Communiqué between the Government of the People’s Republic of China and the Government of the Republic of South Africa on the Establishment of Diplomatic Relations” in 1998;<sup>141</sup> “the Pretoria Declaration on the Establishment of the Partnership between the People’s Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa” in 2000;<sup>142</sup> and “the Exchange of Notes on the Establishment of Bi-National Commission between the Government of the People’s Republic of China and the Government of the Republic of South Africa” in 2001,<sup>143</sup> on the basis of the principle of “sincere friendship; equality and sovereignty; common development on the basic mutual benefit”,<sup>144</sup> a strategic partnership and the Sino-South African bi-national commission was launched. This guided

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<sup>138</sup> G. S. Lin, *The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998*, pp. 286-7, 306-7.

<sup>139</sup> *Ibid*, p. 286.

<sup>140</sup> *Ibid*, p. 318; D. Burger, *South Africa Yearbook 1998*, p. 199.

<sup>141</sup> MOFA, Joint Communiqué between the Government of the People’s Republic of China and the Government of the Republic of South Africa on the Establishment of Diplomatic Relations, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/wjb/zzjg/fzs/gjlb/3094/3095/t16577.htm>, 2002-04-25.

<sup>142</sup> MOFA, Pretoria Declaration on the Partnership between the People’s Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/gjhdq/dqzzywt/2633/2639/t15595.htm>, 2002-04-25.

<sup>143</sup> D. Burger, *South Africa Yearbook 2002/03*, p. 297; MOFA, China and South Africa, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/wjb/zzjg/fzs/gjlb/3094/t16576.htm>, 2003-10-12.

<sup>144</sup> Pretoria Declaration on the Partnership between the People’s Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/gjhdq/dqzzywt/2633/2639/t15595.htm>, 2002-04-25.

and coordinated bilateral cooperation in various areas.<sup>145</sup> China has become South Africa's fifth largest global trading partner and South Africa became China's most important trading partner on the African continent. According to Chinese customs statistics, the volume of bilateral trade between China and South Africa has maintained an annual growth of 29% since 1998. In 2003, bilateral trade volume reached US\$3.9 billion, 20.9 % of the total trade volume of US\$ 18.6 between China and Africa. In addition, South Africa is regarded as one of the most attractive investment destinations for Chinese enterprise.<sup>146</sup> On the occasion of the celebration of the third democratic election and ten-year celebration of freedom in South Africa in 2004, the "Bravo, ChinAfrica: Chinese Cultural Tour of Africa", one of the largest and most comprehensive Chinese art festivals in Africa, made its debut in South Africa. A Centre for Chinese Studies was also opened at Stellenbosch University in 2004.<sup>147</sup>

### **The new Chinese in the new democratic South Africa**

The unofficial figure of the Chinese in South Africa is approximately 100 000.<sup>148</sup> They can be roughly divided into two groups: the "old" or "established" Chinese, referring to the Chinese who came to South Africa before 1949 and their descendents; the "new" Chinese who immigrated from Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao after 1980 and Mainland China in the late 1980s.<sup>149</sup> With the advent of the non-racist democracy in 1994 and the recognition of human rights, democracy and peaceful co-existence and development opportunities for all

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<sup>145</sup> MOFA, China and South Africa, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/wjw/zjzg/fzs/gjlb/3094/tl6576.htm>, G. Liu, China-Africa Relations: equality, cooperation and mutual development: speech at the Seminar on Sino-African Relations, 2004-11-09, <http://www.Chinese-embassy.org.za/eng/67621.html>.

<sup>146</sup> D. Jackson, High-profile Visits Set Stage for Economic Co-operation, *Business Day*, 2004-10-01, p. 20.

<sup>147</sup> Ibid.

<sup>148</sup> M. Yap en D. L. Man, The Chinese Community in South Africa after 1994, in People's Daily, *Celebrating Ten Years of Freedom in South Africa and the South Africa-China Partnership*, p. 95.

<sup>149</sup> Anon., Sceneries and Customs of Foreign Lands Series 3: Exploring "Rainbow Nation", <http://qglt.people.com.cn/bike/viewnews.html?id=292>; A Ministry of Chinese Coordination Centre of World Evangelization (CCCOWE), The Story of the Chinese in South Africa in Chinese around The World, <http://huaren.org/diaspora/africa/safrica/doc/0395-02.html>.

South Africans, irrespective of colour, race, class, belief or sex,<sup>150</sup> the Chinese residents in South Africa were given the right to vote. It was the most significant political development for them, representing formal recognition that they were entitled to full rights as South Africa citizens. This cleared the way for the Chinese to participate in local, regional and national government.<sup>151</sup> Moreover, they have the right to live and trade wherever they wished, quite different from the days when they had to apply for special permits, issued or rejected at the whim of governmental officials.<sup>152</sup> Some of them have attained significant academic, professional and entrepreneurial success and have sustained a comfortable way of life in South Africa.<sup>153</sup> They make significant contributions to the new South Africa in various fields, such as politics, the economy, culture and education.

In the political sphere, Sherry Su-Huei Chen, a highly successful businesswoman, became the first Chinese-South African Member of Parliament (MP) in 2004. It was a historic moment for the Chinese in South Africa and a watershed achievement for a people who have had a long and troubled history in South Africa.<sup>154</sup> On first coming to South Africa in 1981, Chen encountered numerous prejudices because of being a Chinese. These experiences placed her in a good position to understand the challenges faced by the Chinese in South Africa. Over the past two decades, she established herself as one of the Chinese community leaders, active in cultural, religious and community-based organizations.<sup>155</sup> She has won a number of prestigious business awards in South Africa, including the 1994 Randburg Business Person of the Year Award, the 1994 Gauteng Business Person of the Year Award and the 2001 Top 19 Global Chinese Businesswoman Award.<sup>156</sup> She was elected as a Johannesburg Metropolitan

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<sup>150</sup> C. Saunders, the Transition in Context, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, Pretoria, 2004, p. 14.

<sup>151</sup> M. Yap en D. L. Man, The Chinese Community in South Africa after 1994, in People's Daily, *Celebrating Ten Years of Freedom in South Africa and the South Africa-China Partnership*, pp. 95-6.

<sup>152</sup> Ibid.

<sup>153</sup> E. Mai, The Woman Writes History of Chinese in South Africa, *People's Daily*, 2002-10-11.

<sup>154</sup> C. Thomas, From Underclass to Community Leaders: the Chinese experience in South Africa, *Issues*, 2004-04-23, <http://publish.gio.gov.tw/FCJ/past/04042371.html>.

<sup>155</sup> Ibid.

<sup>156</sup> Ibid; S. Adams, Chinese MPs, Set Precedent, *Daily News*, 2004-05-10, p. 6; S. Adams, SA Comes First, Say Country's Chinese MPs, *Saturday Weekend Argus*, 2004-05-08, p. 7.

Councillor in 2000<sup>157</sup> and was nominated by the Democratic Alliance (DA), the second biggest party in South Africa, to be a permanent representative for the province of Gauteng on the National Council of Provinces (NCOP) in 2004 whereafter she became an MP.<sup>158</sup>

As to the reason why she took part in politics, she explained that there were many factors. Prior to 1994, as a businesswoman, she had close links with the political field, but was initially indifferent to politics being more of an “outsider” and “criticizer” of South Africa.<sup>159</sup> With closer ties developing between China and South Africa, more and more Chinese came to South Africa for business reasons or to settle. The predicaments that the Chinese confronted in South Africa encouraged her to break the old Chinese stereotype of running businesses to participate in politics.<sup>160</sup> She believed that the Chinese must participate in politics to establish roots in South Africa and change the fate of the Chinese in South Africa.<sup>161</sup> She wished to represent the interests of all the Chinese in South Africa so that both the government and South African people could “hear the voice of the Chinese” and knew what the Chinese wished. She also wished to be an ambassador of friendship between the Chinese

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<sup>157</sup> Y. Pan, Footmarks of the Overseas Chinese - South Africa, Opened the South African Political Door, Su-Huei Chen, the Chinese Johannesburg Metropolitan Women Councillor, *Sinchew Daily*, 2002-04-27; X. Li, The Chinese in South Africa Began to be Keen on Politics, Sherry Sue-Huei Chen Participates in Politics, *Globe Times*, 2000-12-08, p. 15, <http://www.people.com.cn/GB/paper68/2151/343125.html>.

<sup>158</sup> C. Thomas, From Underclass to Community Leaders: the Chinese experience in South Africa, *Issues*, 2004-04-23, <http://publish.gio.gov.tw/FCJ/past/04042371.html>; Q. Wang, I Wish I were a Butterfly: an interview of Su-Huei Chen, the first Chinese South African MP, *China Express*, 2004-03-09, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>; N. A, the First Chinese Woman Su-Huei Chen Sworn in as South African MP, <http://www.china.org.cn/chinese/MATERIAL/512458.htm>; Citizen Reporter, Chinese MP, a First in South Africa, *Citizen*, 2004-03-05, p. 4.

<sup>159</sup> X. Li, The Chinese in South Africa Began to be Keen on Politics, Sherry Sue-Huei Chen Participates in Politics, *Globe Times*, 2000-12-08, p. 15, <http://www.people.com.cn/GB/paper68/2151/343125.html>.

<sup>160</sup> Q. Wang, I Wish I were a Butterfly: an interview of Su-Huei Chen, the first Chinese South African MP, *China Express*, 2004-03-09, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>.

<sup>161</sup> Anon., Chinese Woman Su-Huei Chen Run for Johannesburg Metropolitan Councillor, *People Daily (Overseas edition)*, 2000- 11- 08, <http://www.china.org.cn/chinese/TCC/10183.htm>; Y. Pan, Footmarks of the Overseas Chinese - South Africa, Opened the South African Political Door, Su-Huei Chen, the Chinese Johannesburg Metropolitan Women Councillor, *Sinchew Daily*, 2002-04-27.

and the government and between the Chinese and the South African people.<sup>162</sup> As regards the diverse nature and origin of the South African Chinese community, she claimed that “as a Chinese South African governmental official, I am looking forward to the unification of the Chinese in South Africa from Mainland China and Taiwan and depending on each other just like mouth and teeth.” She added that “I respect everyone’s political ideology. In my opinion, the regional ideologies should not be brought to a foreign land.”<sup>163</sup> She also argued that there was no point in building “a fence around a small area, because then you exclude all those outside the fence.”<sup>164</sup>

In the business realm, Chen pointed out that Chinese investors in South Africa were beginning to leave because “the Chinese community is being driven away by xenophobic attitudes and repeated violent attacks, while also facing endless complications, communication problems and red tape from the Department of Trade and Industry.” She wrote that “[t]his will cost us thousands of jobs and billions of rand of investment, and it will send out a bad message to prospective investors from China and elsewhere.” and “[t]he blatant xenophobia being directed against Chinese communities also reflects badly on South Africa, given its past struggle to overcome racial divides and embrace diversity.” Chen suggested that communication between municipal departments and Chinese businesses should be improved; red tape reduced; and prompt replies be given to all applications and enquiries by prospective businesses and investors. Moreover, she emphasized that the government also needed to send out a clear message to all South Africans that Chinese businesses were welcomed in South Africa and that xenophobia was totally unacceptable, not

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<sup>162</sup> C. Thomas, From Underclass to Community Leaders: the Chinese experience in South Africa, *Issues*, 2004-04-23, <http://publish.gio.gov.tw/FCJ/past/04042371.html>; Y. Pan, Footmarks of the Overseas Chinese - South Africa, Opened the South African Political Door, Su-Huei Chen, the Chinese Johannesburg Metropolitan Women Councillor, *Sin Chew Daily*, 2002-04-27; Z. Liu, The Chinese Community in South Africa Supported the Election of Su-Huei Chen for MP, <http://www.epochtimes.com/gb/4/2/18/n469197.htm>; Anon., the First Chinese South African MP Su-Huei Chen, “From This Moment, I Serve All the Chinese, <http://chinaqw.com.cn/node2/node116/node119/node153/userobject6ai158311.html>, 2004 -03-15.

<sup>163</sup> Anon., the First Chinese South African MP Su-Huei Chen, “From This Moment, I Serve All the Chinese, <http://chinaqw.com.cn/node2/node116/node119/node153/userobject6ai158311.html>, 2004 -03-15.

<sup>164</sup> C. Thomas, From Underclass to Community Leaders: the Chinese experience in South Africa, *Issues*, 2004-04-23, <http://publish.gio.gov.tw/FCJ/past/04042371.html>.

only from an economic point of view, but also an ethical one. Furthermore, “we encourage the South African Police Service to spare no effort in arresting the culprits of attacks on the Chinese community, and in preventing further harassment.”<sup>165</sup>

Besides Chen, there are three other Chinese South African MPs: Christopher Wang of the Independent Democrat Party (IDP), Eugenia Shi-Chia Chang of Inkatha Freedom Party (IFP) and Shiaan-bin Huang of the African National Congress (ANC).<sup>166</sup> These four Chinese South African MPs, representing different political parties, have been playing an important role in both protecting the legal rights of the Chinese in South Africa and stimulating the economic and social development of South Africa. Among the issues they have focused on included whether Chinese South Africans were included under the term “blacks” and enjoyed benefits of Black Economic Empowerment (BEE).<sup>167</sup> They have also been concerned about Chinese as an elective language in South African middle schools. They have encouraged South African born Chinese (SABC) to study Chinese to avoid the birth of the “banana baby”. “Banana baby” refers to the young generation of the overseas Chinese in Western countries who have Chinese appearance but adapt to the Western lifestyle and thinking pattern.<sup>168</sup> Through joint efforts, it was stipulated that the South Africans born in South Africa before 1959 could enjoy the benefits of BEE,<sup>169</sup> and Chinese was served as an elective language in South African middle schools.<sup>170</sup>

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<sup>165</sup> S. Chen, Future Chinese Investment at Risk, *Citizen*, 2004-11-20, p. 10; Anon., Future Chinese Investment at Risk, Chen Writes, *China Express*, 2004-11-23, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>, Anon., Business: ‘SA Red Tape Pushing Away Investors’, <http://www.george.co.za/main/modules.php?name=News&file=article&sid=3515>.

<sup>166</sup> S. Adams, Chinese MPs, Set Precedent, *Daily News*, 2004-05-10, p. 6; S. Adams, SA Comes First, Say Country’s Chinese MPs, *Saturday Weekend Argus*, 2004-05-08, p. 7.

<sup>167</sup> Anon., Chen’s Questions for Ministers on the Chinese Beneficiaries of BEE and Chinese Teaching, *China Express*, 2004-09-21, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>.

<sup>168</sup> Ibid; Anon., The Chinese South African MP Sherry Chen Visited Shanteng Chinese School, *Overseas Chinese Gazette*, <http://www.chinaqw.com/node2/node116/node514/node516/userobject6ai228906.html>.

<sup>169</sup> Anon., Eugenia Shi-Chia Chang Explains BBE, *China Express*, 2004-10-10, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>.

<sup>170</sup> Anon., Chen’s Questions for Ministers on the Chinese Beneficiaries of BEE and Chinese Teaching, *China Express*, 2004-09-21, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>.

In the social development, the Chinese also made a mark. After apartheid, one of the major tasks of the new government under the leadership of President Nelson Mandela was to solve the problem of housing of the blacks. In the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP), a transformation plan, the government intended to build one million low-cost houses for the blacks by the year 2000.<sup>171</sup> Wang Wei, a manager of a construction firm in Shaanxi, China, and a laureate of China May First Labour Medal (the highest honour for Chinese workers in various fields), came to South Africa and established the Golden Nest Construction Firm in 1995. With a loan of 40% interest, his company built eight sample houses, each 30 m<sup>2</sup> equipped with water and electricity. Because of the high quality and larger area of the houses they built, Wang was approved to join the Mpumalanga Project of low-cost housing.<sup>172</sup> By 2004, Golden Nest had completed 20 000 houses and 2 000 were under construction. It contributed to improving the housing conditions of the blacks, as his method increased the building area from 22 m<sup>2</sup> to 40 m<sup>2</sup>. It was Golden Nest under the leadership of Director Wang Wei that broke the monopoly of the white construction firms and introduced competition mechanism in the South African construction market.<sup>173</sup> The locals call the houses built by Golden Nest as “China Village”<sup>174</sup> and hope that “Golden Nest, build more houses for us”.<sup>175</sup>

More recently, the Golden Nest Construction Firm has developed into Golden Nest International, from a small enterprise to an international corporation concerned with a diversified field, including construction, mining, metallurgy, light industry, medicine, finance, culture, science, technology, education and tourism. In 2004, its profit was US\$ 20 million while fixed assets reached US\$ 15 million. The total amount of annual projects was US\$ 30 million. It has twenty-four sections including Golden Nest Science and Technology, Golden Nest Culture, China News South Africa, Golden Nest Angola International, Golden Nest Hong

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<sup>171</sup> E. Maloka, the Fruits of Freedom, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, Pretoria, 2004, p. 55.

<sup>172</sup> Y. Xu, Golden Nest Built on Honesty and Faithfulness, *Economy Daily*, 2004-04-01, p. 11, <http://www.goldennest.net/default5.htm>.

<sup>173</sup> Ibid.

<sup>174</sup> Y. Li, Building Golden Nest in South Africa, a Gold Country, *People's Daily*, 2000-04-21, p. 7, <http://www.goldennest.net/default4.htm>.

<sup>175</sup> O. Nwajah, Overcoming Qualified Citizenship, *Mail & Guardian*, 2000-10-05, p. 16.

Kong International and has offices in Beijing, Shanghai and Xiamen.<sup>176</sup> As far as the key to success is concerned, Director Wang Wei said, “In building house, it is essential to lay a solid foundation. Honesty is the first option. Honesty implies a down-to-earth working style, keeping promises and perseverance. We should adhere to this principle to establish a successful enterprise and to promote good interpersonal relationships.”<sup>177</sup>

In the educational sphere, there are various Chinese scholars and professors who work in a range of fields in South African tertiary institutions. One of them is Professor Xia Xiaohua in the Department of Electrical, Electronic and Computer Engineering of the University of Pretoria (UP). Professor Xia came to South Africa and joined the UP in 1998, first as an associate professor then was promoted to a full professor.<sup>178</sup> Before coming to South Africa, he obtained his PhD degree of engineering at the Beijing University of Aeronautics and Astronautics in 1989. He won many national and ministerial awards in China and was elected as a distinctive talent in the Trans-Century Talents Programme by the Ministry of Education of China in 1993. He went to the University of Stuttgart in Germany as an Alexander von Humboldt fellow, to Ecole Centrale de Nantes of France and the National University of Singapore as a post-doctoral fellow between 1994 and 1996. He has also been a guest lecturer at universities and institutes in Germany, France, Singapore, Switzerland, China and Hong Kong.<sup>179</sup> Owing to his contribution to scientific research in non-linear feedback control, complex systems, sampled-data feedback control, observer design, heavy-haul trains, time-delay systems and hybrid systems, he has been rated as a B scientist by the National Research Foundation of South Africa and received many prestigious awards.<sup>180</sup>

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<sup>176</sup> Golden Nest International, Golden Nest Introduction, <http://www.goldennest.net/aboutus.htm>; Y. Xu, Golden Nest Built on Honesty and Faithfulness, *Economy Daily*, 2004-04-01, p. 11, <http://www.goldennest.net/default5.htm>.

<sup>177</sup> Golden Nest International, Words of Director Wang Wei, <http://www.goldennest.net/aboutus.htm>.

<sup>178</sup> UP, Xiaohua Xia, Curriculum Vitae, <http://www.ee.up.ac.za/profiles/cv.pdf>; UP, Xiaohuan Xia, <http://www.ee.up.ac.za/profiles/bio.pdf>.

<sup>179</sup> Ibid.

<sup>180</sup> UP, Xiaohua Xia, Curriculum Vitae, <http://www.ee.up.ac.za/profiles/cv.pdf>; UP, Personnel - Professor X. Xia, <http://www.ee.up.ac.za/profiles/xia.html>; UP, Xiaohuan Xia, <http://www.ee.up.ac.za/profiles/bio.pdf>.

Younger Chinese educated in South Africa are also making their mark. This is a far cry from the Dutch and British periods, when the Chinese offspring in South Africa had to be sent back to China to be educated according to Chinese tradition.<sup>181</sup> During the early period of the Union and the Republic of South Africa and particularly during the apartheid years, Chinese children were denied access to white schools. They had to attend the Chinese schools or the coloured or Indian schools in “Coloured group areas” according to the 1950 legislation, in which the Chinese were defined as “part of the Coloured group”.<sup>182</sup> After 1994, the new democratic South Africa provided open access to education. Examples of South African educated Chinese include MP Christopher Wang Yiru who came to South Africa in 1991 at the age of fourteen. He graduated from the Department of Information Systems at the University of Cape Town and continued his postgraduate studies there. He attributed his achievements in politics to his education in South Africa, which was quite different from in Taiwan.<sup>183</sup> Another Chinese citizen, Huang Guanxiang, came to South Africa in 1993. In an unfamiliar language and cultural surroundings, after finishing his high school with eight distinctions, he began his seven-year medical studies at Faculty of Health Sciences of the University of Witwatersrand. In 2004, he was awarded a Rhodes scholarship (equal to R3000000) and enrolled at the University of Oxford.<sup>184</sup> Chen Zijun, who came to East London in 1992, was enrolled by Yale University of the USA because of her distinctive academic record. As to her success, she appreciated her teachers in the Stirling Primary School. She believed it was due to their unselfish help that she quickly overcame her language barrier.<sup>185</sup>

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<sup>181</sup> K. L. Harris, Confucian Education: a case study of the South African Chinese, in M. W. Charney et al, *Asian Migrants and Education*, Dordrecht, 2003, p. 107.

<sup>182</sup> Ibid, pp. 110, 112.

<sup>183</sup> Q. Ouyang, Christopher Yiru Wang: the Youngest MP in South Africa, *China Express*, 2004-10-02, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>.

<sup>184</sup> Anon., Huang Guanxiang Obtaining Rhodes Scholarship, *China Express*, 2004-03-04, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>.

<sup>185</sup> D. An, A Chinese Girl in South Africa: Chen Zijun enrolled by Yale University of the USA, *China Express*, 2003-12-23, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>.

## VI. Conclusion

Over the past three centuries, the Chinese have been part of South Africa, arriving first as convicts, then later as settlers, indentured labourers and entrepreneurs. They experienced numerous discriminations and restrictions in the racially stratified society of South Africa.<sup>186</sup> In the new democratic South Africa, they became South African citizens and have three major characteristics quite different from the old ones.

Firstly, after the end of the passive resistance movement in 1912, the Chinese had not wished to become a political target, claiming that despite their ambiguous legal position, they “preferred to remain invisible.”<sup>187</sup> Prior to 1994, the old and new Chinese in South Africa including Sherry Chen were indifferent to politics because of the psychology of being guests and the belief that “it is more important to make money”.<sup>188</sup> They had been excluded from the franchise or any official representation and generally, had been ignored.<sup>189</sup> As regards the fact that the Chinese community was inactive in politics and “preferred to maintain a low profile”, both Harris and Chen argued that this was not because they had no political aspirations, but rather because they were conservative.<sup>190</sup> According to Harris, the Chinese believed that if they drew attention to their status, “they might be dislodged from their precarious position on the periphery of society and be established irrevocably as

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<sup>186</sup> K. L. Harris en F. N. Pieke, Integration or Segregation: the Dutch and South African Chinese compared, in E. Sinn (ed.) *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, p. 117.

<sup>187</sup> K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 122.

<sup>188</sup> Q. Wang, I Wish I were a Butterfly: an interview of Su-Huei Chen, the first Chinese South African MP, *China Express*, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>; X. Li, The Chinese in South Africa Began to be Keen on Politics, Sherry Sue-Huei Chen Participates in Politics, *Globe Times*, 2000-12-08, p. 15, <http://www.people.com.cn/GB/paper68/2151/343125.html>; Y. Pan, Footmarks of the Overseas Chinese - South Africa, Opened the South African Political Door, Su-Huei Chen, the Chinese Johannesburg Metropolitan Women Councillor, *Sinchew Daily*, 2002-04-27.

<sup>189</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 286.

<sup>190</sup> S. Adams Chinese MPs Set Precedent, *Daily News*, 2004-05-10, p. 6; S. Adams, SA Comes First, Say Country’s Chinese MPs, *Saturday Weekend Argus*, 2004-05-08, p. 7; S. Adams, ‘Chinese People Need a Channel so They Can Have a Say’, *The Star*, 2004-05-10, p. 7; K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 106.

non-white'.<sup>191</sup> After 1994, the Chinese in South Africa no longer confined themselves to the business fields. They have broken the old apolitical stereotype of the old Chinese in South Africa and stepped on the political stage of the new South Africa so that the misconception of their “political disabilities” was corrected.<sup>192</sup>

Secondly, the old Chinese in South Africa were often regarded as “formidable economic competitors” and restricted by the various governmental legislations. They accepted the status quo and tried to avoid situations that could lead to problems.<sup>193</sup> Now, the new Chinese in South Africa, who are well educated with professional qualification and economic status, were welcomed to South Africa, first by the private business, and then by the government.<sup>194</sup> Moreover, they have communicated effectively with the government to protect their own rights. Chen believed that “communication in a genial way is much better than harsh words and blaming”.<sup>195</sup>

Thirdly, prior to 1994, the political reasons - China’s diplomatic principle of “to lean one side” after 1949 and South Africa’s anti-communist policy as a result of the enactment of the 1950 Suppression of Communism Act - not only cut off the links between China and South Africa, but also alienated the Chinese in South Africa from China.<sup>196</sup> Now, a strong and increasingly prosperous China supports all overseas Chinese including the Chinese in South Africa. In 2004, the Chinese in South Africa suffered repeated violent attacks in South Africa.

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<sup>191</sup> K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 106.

<sup>192</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese “South Africans”: an interstitial community, in L. Wang en G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 288.

<sup>193</sup> K. L. Harris “Whiteness”, “Blackness”, “Neitherness” - The South African Chinese 1885-1991: a case study of identity politics, *Historia* 47(1), May 2002, p. 119.

<sup>194</sup> K. L. Harris en J. Ryan, Chinese Immigration to Australia and South Africa: a comparative analysis of legislative control, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, pp. 379-80.

<sup>195</sup> Q. Wang, I Wish I were a Butterfly: an interview of Su-Huei Chen, the first Chinese South African MP, *China Express*, 2004-03-09, <http://www.sa-cnet.com>; Y. Lu. en Y. Han, A Butterfly Flying in the Rainbow (II), *China News SA*, 2005-05-04.

<sup>196</sup> R. T. Phillips, *China since 1911*, pp. 162, 200; K. L. Harris en J. Ryan, Chinese Immigration to Australia and South Africa: a comparative analysis of legislative control, K. L. Harris en F. Pieke, Integration or Segregation: the Dutch and South African Chinese compared, in E. Sinn (ed.), *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, pp. 377; K. L. Harris en F. N. Pieke, Integration or Segregation: the Dutch and South African Chinese compared, in E. Sinn (ed.) *Last Half Century of Overseas Chinese, 1945-1995*, p. 118; Anon., New History Has Been Well Reserved, *Business Day*, 1996-12-02.

The Chinese government dispatched a special representative to South Africa to hold in-depth discussions on safety of the Chinese in South Africa with the South African government, demanding South Africa to take concrete and effective measures to ensure safety and the legitimate rights of the Chinese in South Africa.<sup>197</sup> Indeed, when China was weak, the Chinese in South Africa were in an invidious position. As China prospers, the Chinese in South Africa fly in a “boundless democratic sky”. They, together with the South Africans, are creating a better future. Moreover, they are also building a bridge of friendship between China and South Africa, as well as between the Chinese and the South Africans.

In pace with the historical transformation of the status of the Chinese in South Africa, from convicts to South African citizens, another historical transformation has been realized. Although the Chinese were welcomed as “bona fide tourists” in the Union in 1931,<sup>198</sup> it was after the normalization of diplomatic ties between China and South Africa in 1998 that the Chinese become tourists in the real sense. The South African government has formulated many measures to promote Chinese tourism in South Africa. The obtainment of the ADS; the appointment of a tourism diplomat to China; and the recruitment of a Chinese teacher to conduct training courses for local tourist guides are all indicative of this stance.<sup>199</sup> In the wake of the two waves of Chinese to South Africa, namely the 63 695 Chinese indentured labour in the Transvaal between 1904 and 1911, and the Chinese immigrants and investors because of closer ties between Taiwan and South Africa after 1976, the third wave of Chinese investors and tourists arrived after 1994, and particularly after 1998. In the new democratic South Africa, with its “rainbow nation” spirit, the situation has come what Harris has termed “full circle” as the Chinese have been encouraged to immigrate and visit once again after having been excluded in the interim since the 1650s.<sup>200</sup>

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<sup>197</sup> Embassy of the PRC in the Republic of Lithuania, Special Representative of Chinese Foreign Minister Visits South Africa to Discuss Protection of the Rights and Interests of Chinese Citizens, <http://www.chinaembassy.lt/eng/xwdt/t156536.htm>, 2004-09-07; Embassy of the PRC in South Africa, Special Representative of Chinese Foreign Minister Visits South Africa to Discuss Protection of the Rights and Interests of Chinese Citizens, <http://www.chinese-embassy.org.za/chn/znj1/t177515.htm>, 2004-12-30.

<sup>198</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese in South Africa: an interstitial community, in L. Wang and G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 279; K. L. Harris, A History of the Chinese in South Africa to 1912, p. 336.

<sup>199</sup> See Chapter 5, pp. 161-2, 194-6.

<sup>200</sup> K. L. Harris, The Chinese in South Africa: an interstitial community, in L. Wang and G. Wang (eds.), *The Chinese Diaspora: selected essays*, Singapore, 1998, p. 281.

## Chapter 4

### South Africa: a preferred tourism destination

#### I. Introduction

This chapter is an overview of the historical development of tourism in South Africa. It reviews travel and tourism in South Africa in the pre-colonial and colonial periods (to 1910), the Union of South Africa (1910-1961), the Republic of South Africa (1961-1994) and the new democratic South Africa (1994 - the present). It considers the rise of modern tourism, as well as the negative effects of the apartheid policy on the development of tourism in South Africa. It also analyzes the ebb and flow in the development of tourism as a result of the economic growth in the 1960s and a series of significant events between the 1970s and the early 1990s. It specifically investigates the incredible escalation of tourism, including both international and domestic tourism, since 1994, when the new democratic South Africa was inaugurated. It considers the system of a destination as a unit by analyzing the primary attractions including the natural and social-cultural elements which reflect South Africa's inherent, distinctive and unique characteristics, as well as other attractions of a secondary and tertiary nature. Based on this system, the chapter focuses on identifying and evaluating aspects relevant to developing South Africa as a preferred, quality, value-for-money international tourism destination in quantitative, qualitative and comparative ways. Finally, it considers the economic and social effects of tourism on South Africa, and the future prospect of South African tourism in regional and global tourism development.

Travel and tourism in South Africa can be traced back many centuries, long before the arrival of the European settlers.<sup>1</sup> The historical events that occurred for thousands of years not only formed the history of South Africa, but also moulded the development of travel and tourism in South Africa.<sup>2</sup> It has experienced boom and decline in various periods: the pre-colonial,

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<sup>1</sup> T. V. Bulpin, *Discovering Southern Africa (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 2; G. Rosenthal, *Walking Cape Town*, p. 6.

<sup>2</sup> B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 13.

the colonial, the Union of South Africa, the Republic of South Africa and the new South Africa. It has developed from the early trading and the maritime exploration of the Europeans<sup>3</sup> to various modern forms of tourism.<sup>4</sup> Moreover, it has also developed from a very small scale of domestic tourism to an extensive level of domestic tourism and international tourism, particularly inbound tourism.<sup>5</sup>

In the pre-colonial and colonial periods, travelling to South Africa by the Europeans, especially the Portuguese, the British and the Dutch, focused mainly on marine exploration to discover sea routes for trading with the East.<sup>6</sup> After the establishment of the Dutch settlement at the Cape in 1652, travelling to the coastal regions was transformed to the exploration of the interior of the Cape.<sup>7</sup> In the early years of the Union and the Republic of South Africa, tourism experienced a boom with the development of the economy and transportation.<sup>8</sup> However, the apartheid policy launched in 1948, and its pariah status as a result of international sanctions between the 1970s and the 1980s, hampered the development of tourism in South Africa.<sup>9</sup>

The first democratic election of 1994 ushered in the demise of apartheid and became a turning point for the development of tourism in South Africa. In the first decade of democracy (1994-2004), South Africa has been attracting global attention and has become one of the most sought-after tourist destinations in the world as a result of its new policy and

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<sup>3</sup> B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 13; D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, p. 32.

<sup>4</sup> H. Keyser, *Tourism Development*, p. 246. See also Chapter 2, p. 15.

<sup>5</sup> G. Visser en C. M. Rogerson, Researching the South African Tourism and Development Nexus, *GeoJournal* 60(3), 2004, p. 202.

<sup>6</sup> D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, p. 32; G. Rosenthal, *Walking Cape Town*, pp.6-7.

<sup>7</sup> V. S. Forbes, *Pioneer Travellers of South Africa*, pp. 3-6.

<sup>8</sup> T. Keegan, Imperialism and the Union in South Africa, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.4): migration, land and minerals in the making of South Africa*, Pretoria, 2004, p. 36; B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 24.

<sup>9</sup> Z. U. Ahmed et al, Tourism in South Africa: uneven prospects, *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 39(6), December 1998, pp. 80-1; J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 181; B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 27.

new relations with the international community.<sup>10</sup> According to the statistics of the WTO, between 1994 and 2004, international visitor arrivals to South Africa rose from 3.7 million to 6.8 million (Figure 4. 1).<sup>11</sup> International tourism receipts rose from US\$ 1.4 billion to US\$5.6 billion.<sup>12</sup> Domestic tourism is also comparable with international tourism in terms of size and value. According to the statistics of the SAT, between 1994 and 2003, domestic tourist arrivals rose from 17.3 million up to 49.3 million and tourism receipts from R 12.4 billion up to R 47 billion.<sup>13</sup>

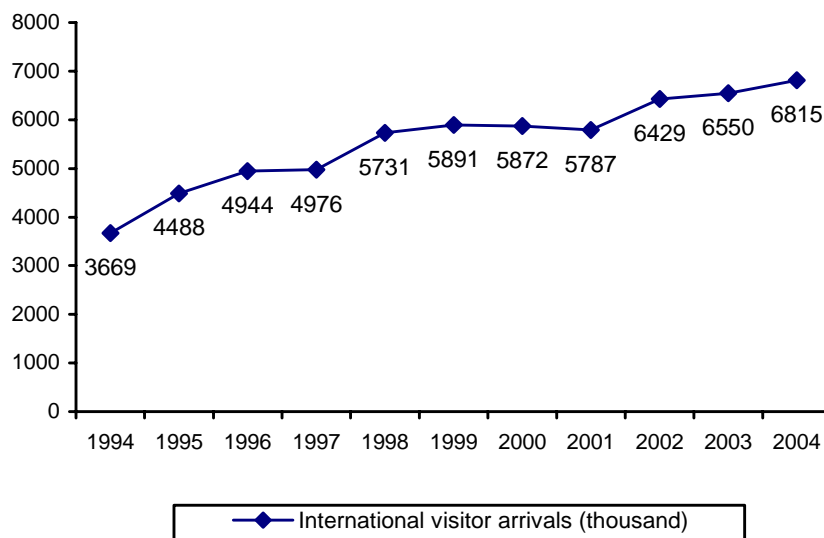


Figure 4. 1 International visitor arrivals in South Africa 1994-2004

Adapted from: WTO, *Tourism Market Trends: Africa 1985-1995*, p. 40; M. Saayman, *Tourism in South Africa: a future perspective*, p. 4; WTO, *Tourism Highlight (2004 edition)*, p. 7; WTO, *Tourism Highlight (2005 edition)*, p. 9.

<sup>10</sup> C. Saunders, The Transition in Context, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, Pretoria, 2004, p. 14; C. M. Rogerson, Editorial: towards reconstruction and development in Southern Africa, *GeoJournal* 39, 1996, p. 1; B. Mike en C. Denis, Consumer Perception of a Perilous Product: international tourism in South Africa, *South African Journal of Business Management* 27(4), December 1996, p. 71.

<sup>11</sup> The statistics of WTO for South Africa is according to arrivals of visitors including tourists and same-day visitors (excursionists).

<sup>12</sup> WTO, *Tourism Market Trends: Africa 1985-1995*, p. 40; WTO, *Tourism Highlight (2004 edition)*, p. 7; WTO, *Tourism Highlight (2005 edition)*, p. 9.

<sup>13</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 12; SAT, 2003 Domestic Tourism Report, p. 1; SAT, *A Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy 2004 -2007*, p. 3; E. Koch en P. J. Massyn, South Africa's Domestic Tourism Sector: promises and problems, in K. B. Ghimire(ed.), *The Native Tourist: mass tourism within developing countries*, London, 2001, p. 148.

In tourism research, South African tourism scholar, Melville Saayman, divided the development of tourism in South Africa into two distinct phases: pre- and post-1994. He labeled them the “Kerzner Era” and “Mandela Era” owing to their significant influence on tourism in South Africa in a direct and indirect way.<sup>14</sup> In the first phase, Sol Kerzner, the former Chairman of Kerzner International and founder of the Sun City and Lost City resorts, developed the hotel and casino industry of South Africa at an international level. He established the Sun International hotel group and created the first five-star hotel in South Africa in 1960 so as to change the tourism industry in South Africa dramatically.<sup>15</sup> In the second phase, under the leadership of the former President Nelson Mandela, the South African government set in place new tourism policies and strategies and has devoted much effort to build South Africa as an internationally competitive tourism destination.<sup>16</sup>

This next section outlines the historical development of tourism in South Africa in four parts. The first part reviews the earliest travel and the rise of modern tourism in South Africa. In the second part, the development of modern tourism and negative effects of the apartheid policy on South African tourism are analyzed. The third part revolves around the ebb and flow in the development of tourism between the 1960s and the 1990s as a result of the economic growth and a series of significant historical events. The fourth part investigates the phenomenal development of tourism due to the guidance and active involvement of the government after 1994, when the new democratic South Africa was established.

## **II. Tourism in South Africa**

### **Early travel and tourism in South Africa (to 1910)**

Perhaps as early as 2 000 years ago, when the Phoenician and Arab sailors apparently arrived at the Cape, the recorded travel history of South Africa probably started.<sup>17</sup> Despite his

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<sup>14</sup> M. Saayman, *Tourism in South Africa: a future perspective*, pp. 5-8.

<sup>15</sup> Ibid, pp. 6-7; Anon., Sol Kerzner, [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sol\\_Kerzner](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sol_Kerzner).

<sup>16</sup> M. Saayman, *Tourism in South Africa: a future perspective*, pp. 7-8.

<sup>17</sup> T. V. Bulpin, *Discovering Southern Africa (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 2; G. Rosenthal, *Walking Cape Town*, p. 6; P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 156.

skepticism about the story, the Greek historian Herodotus recounted a voyage that Phoenician sailors circumnavigated Africa and the Cape about 600 BC from east to west to search for a way around the southern-most point of the African continent.<sup>18</sup> They were said to have landed at the foot of Table Mountain to rest, repair their ships as well as replenish their food by planting and reaping crops of wheat. It was said that the Arab sailors explored the east coast of Africa for an extension of their slave, ivory and gold trading enterprises.<sup>19</sup> These travels in legends can be said to constitute an embryo of international travel and tourism, particularly inbound travel and tourism in South Africa.

From the second half of the fifteenth century, groups of European explorers travelled to eastern and southern African coasts for trading of gold, precious stones, ivory, amber, spices and other less exotic commodities. These travels not only resulted in the discovery of the South African coastal areas and the establishment of the Dutch refreshment station by Jan van Riebeeck in the Cape in 1652,<sup>20</sup> but also laid a foundation for the later development of travel and tourism in South Africa, particularly in the Cape. In 1434, when the Portuguese prince Infante Dom Henrique (1394-1460), known as “Henry the Navigator”, instructed the first European pioneers to make their way along the ocean paths to the Cape, the story of South Africa as a so-called “destination” started.<sup>21</sup> On pioneering sea routes to India to establish a trade monopoly with the East, Portuguese pioneer explorers and travellers Batholomeu Dias de Novaes (1450-1500) and Vasco da Gama unlocked the “secret” of a sea route to India via the Cape.<sup>22</sup> In 1487, Batholomeu Dias, the first European to round the tip of Africa, dropped anchor in what he called Aguado de Sao Bras (current Mossel Bay), continued eastwards and

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<sup>18</sup> G. Rosenthal, *Walking Cape Town*, p. 6; H. E. Hockly, *The Story of the British Settlers of 1820 in South Africa (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 1; M. Boucher, The Age of Exploration, in T. Cameron en S. B. Spies (eds.), *A New Illustrated History of South Africa*, Johannesburg, 1991, p. 55.

<sup>19</sup> T. V. Bulpin, *Discovering Southern Africa (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, pp. 2, 33.

<sup>20</sup> D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, p. 32; G. Rosenthal, *Walking Cape Town*, pp. 6-9; M. Boucher, The Age of Exploration, in T. Cameron en S. B. Spies (eds.), *A New Illustrated History of South Africa*, Johannesburg, 1991, p. 55.

<sup>21</sup> S. R. Welch, *Europe's Discovery of South Africa*, p. 2; G. Rosenthal, *Walking Cape Town*, p. 6; D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, p. 33.

<sup>22</sup> D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, p. 32; P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 156.

reached de Lagoa (current Algoa Bay).<sup>23</sup> He discovered the Cape and named it “The Cape of Storms”. Later King John changed the name to “Cabo de Boa Esperanca” (the Cape of Good Hope), which implied “the great hope it gave of discovering the Indies”.<sup>24</sup> Another Portuguese explorer Vasco da Gama began his expedition to search for a sea route to India round the Cape in 1497. He reached St Helena Bay on the Cape west coast in 1497, landed in Mossel Bay and then continued to Terra do Natal and India.<sup>25</sup>

From the seventeenth century to the nineteenth century, with the development of the Cape colony, travels in South Africa were not limited to the exploration of the coastal areas. Travellers journeyed to the interior to determine the potential of the unexplored regions of South Africa. They travelled for geographical expeditions, social investigation, discovery of zoological and botanical phenomena, anthropological studies, exploration of the interior regions.<sup>26</sup> Their extensive travelling and records about their routes and observations contributed to the development of natural and social science.

As early as 1685, Simon van der Stel (1639-1712), the Commander and later Governor of the Cape from 1679 to 1699, travelled the countryside immediately eastwards of Cape Town. He explored the Copper Mountain of the Nama country on the west coast and discovered copper, precious metals and gemstones. On the way back to Cape Town, he also explored the west coast to find a harbour which could be used for the shipment of copper ore.<sup>27</sup> In order to ascertain the potential of the interior regions for the development of the Eastern Cape, the first officially sponsored expedition led by Ensign Beutler, a servant of the DEIC, started in 1752. He set off from Cape Town and travelled to Port Elizabeth and East London and

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<sup>23</sup> D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, p. 32; H. J. van Aswegen, *History of South Africa to 1854*, p. 69.

<sup>24</sup> H. E. Hockly, *The Story of the British Settlers of 1820 in South Africa (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 3.

<sup>25</sup> D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, p. 34; H. J. van Aswegen, *History of South Africa to 1854*, p. 69.

<sup>26</sup> B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 26.

<sup>27</sup> T. V. Bulpin, *Discovering Southern Africa (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, pp. 28-9.

eventually penetrated beyond the Kei River. This expedition laid a strong foundation for further European exploration.<sup>28</sup>

A Swedish botanist Carl P. Thunberg (1743-1828), reputed as the “father of Cape botany”, visited the eastern Cape, the Calvinia district and the Roggeveld in 1772. The chapter *Travel in Europe, Africa and Asia* in his four volumes focused on the geographical significance of South Africa and chiefly dealt with geography, relief, hydrography, weather, climate and natural vegetation.<sup>29</sup> The Swedish observant Anders Sparrman (1748-1820) travelled from the shores of Table Bay through the coastal regions as far as present Somerest East between 1775 and 1776. He was one of the first people to comment on the characters, manners and outlook of the settlers near the frontier. *A Voyage to the Cape of Good Hope*, his two volumes about travels in the far interior of South Africa, was published in Swedish in 1783 and was later translated into German, English, Dutch and French.<sup>30</sup> A private traveller, Hendrik Swellengrebel, carried out three journeys with economic purpose from Cape Town to beyond the Great Fish River in 1776 to obtain knowledge of the interior and investigate the possibilities of land utilization by colonists.<sup>31</sup>

Royalty, politicians and missionaries also visited South Africa. A Chinese missionary Fan Shouyi (Louis Fan, 1682-1753) accompanied Antonio Francesco Giuseppe Provana (1662-1720), a special envoy of Emperor Kangxi, to Europe in 1707. They sailed across the Indian Ocean and the Atlantic Ocean through Batavia (current Djakarta). On their return, they visited the Cape in South Africa in 1711.<sup>32</sup> After returning back to China, he wrote *Shen Jian Lu (The Records of My Experience)*. In his book, he described the sea routes from the Indian Ocean to the Atlantic Oceans and mentioned the Cape of Good Hope in South Africa. Fan was also probably the first Chinese to have actually visited South Africa according to the

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<sup>28</sup> V. S. Forbes, *Pioneer Travellers of South Africa*, pp. 4, 7.

<sup>29</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 4, 25.

<sup>30</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 4-5, 46.

<sup>31</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 5, 59, 80.

<sup>32</sup> A. Li, *A History of Chinese Overseas in Africa*, pp. 76-7; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p.387.

Chinese historical record.<sup>33</sup> In 1860, Prince Alfred (1844-1900), the sixteen-year-old second son of the British Queen Victoria (1819-1901), started a tour of the Cape and Natal. In 1867, when he became the Duke of Edinburgh, he visited the Cape again and laid the foundation stone of the Alfred Dock.<sup>34</sup>

In the nineteenth century, the development of travel greatly stimulated the growth of passenger travel in South Africa. John Thompson Rennie, the first tour booking agent in South Africa, became a travel business in 1849. It mainly involved passenger and cargo shipping, which was the only form of transport available to passengers travelling overseas at that time. He formed a passenger line with fourteen sailing ships, known as the “Aberdeen Direct Line of Clippers” to Port Natal. The agency “Rennies Travel” started in Cape Town in 1858, and Rennies Travel in Durban commenced business serving this shipping line in 1874.<sup>35</sup> In 1857, the mail ship service had already started to carry passengers and cargo between South Africa and the UK. At that time, two shipping lines - the Union Line and the Castle Line - were the major contenders in this lucrative contract.<sup>36</sup> With the discovery of diamonds and gold, railways were constructed at an incredible rate. The first railway started from the Cape to Johannesburg in 1892, followed by lines from Delagoa Bay (current Maputo) and Durban. Railways substituted ox wagons so as to transport people and goods in an easier and faster way.<sup>37</sup>

During this period, South Africa acquired a tourist reputation as a “health resort”. Cape Town began to establish itself as the “health tourism capital” of South Africa. In order to promote tourism in South Africa, the South African Railways, which was regarded as the most

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<sup>33</sup> A. Li, *A History of Chinese Overseas in Africa*, p. 77; T. Ye, China can't be Closed: travelling literature to Europe and America in the early China, <http://www.xslx.com/htm/shgc/sxzh/2003-8-3-14467.htm>, 2003-08-03; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 388.

<sup>34</sup> T. V. Bulpin, *Discovering Southern Africa (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, pp. 34-5; Reader's Digest, *South Africa's Yesterday*, p. 32.

<sup>35</sup> B. A. Lubbe, *Tourism Distribution: managing the travel intermediary*, p. 26.

<sup>36</sup> *Ibid*, p. 26.

<sup>37</sup> T. Keegan, Imperialism and the Union in South Africa, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.4): migration, land and minerals in the making of South Africa*, pp. 43-4.

prominent tourism institution during the period of 1906-1938, established a publicity department in 1906. The department soon opened an office in London to market the Cape Colony as “the health resort of Europe”.<sup>38</sup> With the surge of international tourism, domestic tourism emerged with farming communities going on holiday by ox wagon. British civil servants working for the Empire in South Africa also took their holidays in Cape Town and Port Elizabeth. Moreover, there were various attractions to visit in the early 1900s, such as the Cango Caves opened to tourists in 1891, the Port Elizabeth Snake Park, which was started in 1906, and various museums.<sup>39</sup>

### **Tourism in the Union of South Africa (1910-1961)**

The foundation of the Union of South Africa in 1910 was one of the most important turning points in the history of South Africa. It fused two Boer republics - the Zuid-Afrikaansche Republiek and the Oranje-Vrijstaat Republiek - and two British colonies - the Cape and the Natal - into a single and unified state. The growth of infrastructure in towns, industries, railways and seaports stimulated the mobility of people. The huge cultural and material changes greatly improved the life of people.<sup>40</sup> In 1914, parliament set £ 25 000 aside for overseas marketing, but the campaign was hampered because of the outbreak of World War I (WWI 1914-1918).<sup>41</sup> In 1919, a year after the end of WWI, an overseas advertising conference, with the aim of advertising all South Africa’s industries and attracting more tourists to South Africa, was held in Johannesburg. In 1927, the South African Railways established a separate Tourist Department, the only national tourism promoting organization

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<sup>38</sup> E. T. Heath, *The Nature and Extent of Regional Tourism Marketing and Planning in South Africa*, University of Port Elizabeth, 1988; E. Sheridan, *Cape Town Bedding down as SA Centre for Health Tourism*, *Travel Now*, 2001-02-28, as cited and quoted by B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 26; E. T. Heath, *The Need for and the Development of a Strategic Marketing Planning Framework for Regional Tourism in South Africa*, unpublished D. Comm - thesis, University of Port Elizabeth, 1987, p. 61, as cited by M. J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, p. 8.

<sup>39</sup> B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 26.

<sup>40</sup> T. Keegan, *Imperialism and the Union in South Africa*, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.4): migration, land and minerals in the making of South Africa*, p. 36.

<sup>41</sup> B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 26.

both within the Union and overseas to arrange itineraries and all-inclusive tours for tourists. It was merged with the Publicity and Travel Department of the South African Railways and Harbours in 1930.<sup>42</sup> The Tourist Development Corporation Act, the first South African statute related to tourism, was promulgated in 1938. The aim of this act was to establish a corporation to encourage persons who reside elsewhere to visit Southern Africa by means of advertisement and dissemination of information about Southern Africa.<sup>43</sup> After World War II (WWII 1939-1945), in order to develop the tourism industry; encourage persons to visit the Union and improve both travel services and accommodation for travellers, the Tourist Corporation Act 54 was promulgated in 1947, and the South Africa Tourist Corporation was established.<sup>44</sup> This year, there were 54 361 visitors to South Africa: 11 098 for business and 43 263 for holiday. In 1950, permanent offices were opened in London and New York, and subsequently, the South Africa Tourist Corporation opened offices throughout the world.<sup>45</sup>

In 1948, the apartheid policy launched by the NP promulgated a series of statutes on politics, residence, social and cultural affairs. As already mentioned in Chapter 3, various laws were introduced to separate the people in forms of so-called “race” or “colour”.<sup>46</sup> Later, provincial ordinances extended the definition to cover the places such as offices, beaches, parks, bus stops, benches, service counters and lifts. The Native Law Amendments Act of 1952 strengthened the Native Laws Amendment Act of 1937 on influx control. The movement control for Africans included travel, labour, residence and curfews.<sup>47</sup> Apartheid legislation circumscribed the potential of domestic tourism because Africans were prohibited from staying in hotels or other forms of accommodation reserved for the whites, and the majority

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<sup>42</sup> B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, pp. 26-7.

<sup>43</sup> Ibid, p. 27; the Union of South Africa, The Tourist Development Corporation Act 15 of 1938; P. H. G. Vrancken, The National Legal Framework of Tourism: past, present and future, *Stellenbosch Law Review* 11, 2000, p. 85.

<sup>44</sup> The Union of South Africa, the Tourist Corporation Act 54 of 1947; M. J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, p. 49; P. H. G. Vrancken, The National Legal Framework of Tourism: past, present and future, *Stellenbosch Law Review* 11, 2000, p. 85.

<sup>45</sup> M. J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, p. 50.

<sup>46</sup> See Chapter 3, pp. 88-91.

<sup>47</sup> D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, pp. 376-8.

black population could not enjoy access to certain facilities especially selected beaches, which were deemed the exclusive reservations of South Africa's privileged white population. Places available to them were often very limited and of poor quality.<sup>48</sup> The apartheid policy also caused embarrassment for the government in the rest of the world. Some black overseas visitors, such as politicians and sportsmen, were not allowed to stay in hotels or visit attractions and beaches reserved for the whites.<sup>49</sup> As a result, in 1958, only 887 tourists visited South Africa.<sup>50</sup>

### **Tourism in the Republic of South Africa (1961-1994)**

The Republic of South Africa was founded in 1961. Despite the separation from the British Commonwealth, its economic growth had ranked as one of the best in the world in the 1960s. The economic growth and the global development of tourism stimulated the development of tourism in South Africa.<sup>51</sup> In 1963, the Department of Tourism was established to promote international and domestic tourism.<sup>52</sup> In 1965, an amendment to the 1947 legislation was passed to grant the Minister of Tourism the power to delegate certain powers to the administrators of provinces. In addition, the Hotel Board was founded to supervise and improve the hotel industry and accommodation standards.<sup>53</sup> Moreover, the year 1967 was declared as the International Year of Tourism.<sup>54</sup>

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<sup>48</sup> G. Visser en C. M. Rogerson, Researching the South African Tourism and Development Nexus, *GeoJournal* 60(3), 2004, p. 201; J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 181.

<sup>49</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 181; B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 27.

<sup>50</sup> The South Africa Tourist Corporation, 1958 Annual Report, p. 33, as cited by J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, p. 8.

<sup>51</sup> D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, pp. 420-1; E. Maloka, The Fruit of Freedom, in B. Nasson(eds.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, p. 54.

<sup>52</sup> B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 27.

<sup>53</sup> M. J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, p. 9.

<sup>54</sup> B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 27.

As already mentioned, it was during the 1960s that Sol Kerzner opened a new era for the South African tourism industry. He developed the Beverly Hills Hotel into the first five-star hotel in South Africa in 1960. He also gained international recognition for Sun City. The current Sun City is quite different from the one that was open in 1979. It is the most ambitious resort development in Africa featuring four hotels and also including the Palace of the Lost City, a man-made lake, two golf courses, an entertainment center with an indoor 6000-seat arena, more than 1 million trees, a casino and a series of water attractions.<sup>55</sup> It became the second most visited destination for international tourists after the Kruger National Park, which was founded in 1926, and rapidly acquired a world-wide reputation, attracting more than three million visitors annually.<sup>56</sup>

However, in the early 1970s, the growth of tourism in South Africa began to decline, falling into a recession in the late 1980s and the early 1990s. South Africa was disturbed by a range of events: economic stagnation as a result of the rise of the oil price; the South African government's apartheid policies and specifically the harsh repression of the Soweto Uprising of 1976, the conflicts with its African neighbours and the friction between South Africa and the international community because of its intervention in Angola.<sup>57</sup> This resulted in economic and other sanctions from the international community, one of which was to discourage citizens of foreign countries to visit South Africa and deny the opportunities of South Africans to visit certain foreign countries.<sup>58</sup> South African tourism scholars Gustav Visser and Christian M. Rogerson believed that, of all the sectors of the South African economy, tourism was probably the most adversely affected by apartheid and subsequent

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<sup>55</sup> Anon., Sol Kerzner, <http://www.hrm.uh.edu/?PageID=734>; Anon., Sol Kerzner, Chairman of the Board of Kerzner International, Named Corporate Hotelier of the World by HOTELS Magazine, [http://www.hotel-online.com/News/PR2004\\_4th/Nov04\\_SolKerzner.html](http://www.hotel-online.com/News/PR2004_4th/Nov04_SolKerzner.html).

<sup>56</sup> Anon., Sol Kerzner, <http://www.hrm.uh.edu/?PageID=734>.

<sup>57</sup> D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, p. 448; S. Jaster, *The Defense of White Paper: South Africa foreign policy under pressure*, pp. 145-6, as cited by G. S. Lin, *The Relations between the Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, 1948-1998*, pp. 81-2; E. Maloka, *The Fruit of Freedom*, in B. Nasson(eds.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, p. 54.

<sup>58</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 181.

international sanctions. South Africa was restricted in many activities and tourism offices in some countries had to be closed.<sup>59</sup>

During this period, the only progress in tourism was that, in 1983, the tourism branch of the Department of Trade, Commerce and Industry, the South African Tourism Board (foreign) and the Hotel Board were amalgamated to form a new state subsidised South African Tourism Board (SATOUR), and the South African Tourism Board Act was passed. From then on, the tourism industry in South Africa formally started to function in a structured manner.<sup>60</sup> However, tourism received limited acknowledgement and recognition from the government and was only confined to domestic tourism. Major focuses were on coastal and marine tourism. The international marketing focus was primarily on the theme of “Sun, Sea and Sand” with a slogan of “A World in One Country”.<sup>61</sup>

The political situation in South Africa was rapidly changing after 1989. With the apartheid legislation gradually being abolished, South Africa moved to a democratic non-racial dispensation. Overseas tourists were once again encouraged to visit South Africa, and South African citizens were free to visit overseas destinations that had been closed to them.<sup>62</sup> With the transformation from apartheid to democracy, from white minority rule to liberation, the major challenge facing the new democratic South Africa was to reinforce the political achievement with a social and economic miracle.<sup>63</sup> South Africa confronted what President Thabo Mbeki referred to as “two nations”- one white and privileged with a standard of living comparable to that of the industrialized countries, and the other black and poor with a

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<sup>59</sup> G. Visser en C. M. Rogerson, Researching the South African Tourism and Development Nexus, *GeoJournal* 60(3), 2004, p. 201.

<sup>60</sup> M. J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, p. 9; B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 27; P. H. G. Vrancken, The National Legal Framework of Tourism: past, present and future, *Stellenbosch Law Review* 11, 2000, p. 85.

<sup>61</sup> SATOUR, Position Paper on Cultural Tourism, p. 9; M. Saayman, *Tourism in South Africa: a future perspective*, p. 7.

<sup>62</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 182.

<sup>63</sup> C. M. Rogerson, Editorial: towards reconstruction and development in Southern Africa, *GeoJournal* 39, 1996, p. 1; C. Saunders, The Transition in Context, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, p. 14.

standard of living comparable to that of the developing countries.<sup>64</sup> A major task of the new ANC government was then to focus on eradicating the legacy of racial division and inequality on one hand, and economic growth, job creation and improving quality of life for all South Africans, especially the poor, on the other.<sup>65</sup> One of the core legislative programmes of the government was the RDP, a strategy for the fundamental transformation of the country into “democratic, non-racial and non-sexist future”.<sup>66</sup> The RDP, as “a policy framework for integrated and coherent socio-economic progress”, was based on the integration of growth, development, reconstruction, redistribution and reconciliation into a unified programme. It was regarded as a starting point of eradicating poverty, inequality and economic stagnation and a destination of an economically strong and prosperous South Africa.<sup>67</sup> It included a series of objectives to improve the life of people, of which was to create 2.5 million jobs in ten years.<sup>68</sup> In 1996, the national macro-economic policy Growth, Employment and Redistribution (GEAR) was released as a strategy to be employed in the implementation of the RDP goals. The essence of the GEAR lay in an attempt to find a balance between meeting the basic needs of the people and finding the resources to finance those needs. It aimed to strike the necessary relationship between accelerating economic growth, as well as social delivery and job creation.<sup>69</sup> It set a target of 6% economic growth per annum and employment creation of 400 000 new jobs per annum by the year 2000.<sup>70</sup> Moreover, as part of a larger strategy to reduce levels of poverty among the previously disadvantaged South

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<sup>64</sup> E. Maloka, The Fruit of Freedom, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, p. 54.

<sup>65</sup> C. M. Rogerson, Editorial: towards reconstruction and development in Southern Africa, *GeoJournal* 39, 1996, p. 1; D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2002/03*, p. 45.

<sup>66</sup> C. M. Rogerson, Editorial: towards reconstruction and development in Southern Africa, *GeoJournal* 39, 1996, p. 1.

<sup>67</sup> Ibid, J. Naidoo, Taking the RDP Forward: report to Parliament, 1995-06-08, p. 2.

<sup>68</sup> E. Maloka, The Fruit of Freedom, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, p. 55.

<sup>69</sup> Ibid, pp. 55-6; D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2002/03*, p. 46.

<sup>70</sup> DEAT, *Tourism in Gear: tourism development strategy 1998-2000*, p. 1.

Africans, the government under the leadership of President Mbeki introduced the BEE and began to attach importance to supporting small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs).<sup>71</sup>

It was not until 1991 that the government began to pay attention to tourism as a national priority and implemented the Strategic Framework for Tourism Development in South and Southern Africa.<sup>72</sup> The government promulgated the 1991 White Paper on Tourism. It also established the national tourism policy and strategy, tourism objectives and an action plan on the basis of two official reports on tourism in South Africa. One was “Investigation into the Tourism Industry”, Report No 2937 by the Board of Trade and Industry at the request of the South African Tourism Board. The other was “A Strategic Framework for Tourism Development in South and Southern Africa”, jointly produced by the South African Tourism Board and the Development Bank of Southern Africa.<sup>73</sup> In 1993, the Tourism Act was passed to repeal the South African Tourist Corporation and the South African Tourism Board Act and establish the new SATOUR, with the somewhat different objects to the former one.<sup>74</sup>

### **Tourism in the new democratic South Africa (1994 - the present)**

South Africa enhanced its status as the most advanced economy on the African continent for its sound and prudent economic policies since 1994. However, it experienced slow and unstable economic growth.<sup>75</sup> The growth rate of the GDP between 1994 and 1995 was about 3%.<sup>76</sup> According to the 1990 figures, the tourism industry created 300 000 jobs and R 2 500 million in foreign exchange.<sup>77</sup> The government gradually realized that tourism was a major

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<sup>71</sup> E. Maloka, *The Fruit of Freedom*, in B. Nasson (ed.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, p. 59; D. Burger(ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2002/03*, pp. 46-7.

<sup>72</sup> Z. U. Ahmed et al, *Tourism in South Africa: uneven prospects*, *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 39(6), December 1998, p. 82.

<sup>73</sup> The Ministry for Administration and Tourism (MAT), *White Paper on Tourism 1991*, p. 1.

<sup>74</sup> P. H. G. Vrancken, *The National Legal Framework of Tourism: past, present and future*, *Stellenbosch Law Review* 11, 2000, pp. 87, 92.

<sup>75</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2002/03*, p. 46.

<sup>76</sup> Statistics South Africa, *Stats in Brief: ten years of democratic governance*, p. 47.

<sup>77</sup> MAT, *White Paper on Tourism 1991*, p. 1.

factor in the macro-economic strategy. According to the government, “perhaps more than any other sector, [tourism] has the potential to achieve the objectives of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) of the new government” because of its massive potential to create jobs, generate foreign exchange and contribute to the GDP.<sup>78</sup> As a result, an Interim Tourism Task Team was appointed in 1994 to draft a discussion paper as a basis for a future national tourism policy. The White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa, on the basis of the 1995 Tourism Green Paper, was approved in 1996 as tourism policy of the new government.<sup>79</sup>

The 1996 White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism strongly complimented the micro-economic policy GEAR, provided a policy framework and guidelines for the development of tourism and confirmed the priorities and potential in the development of tourism in South Africa.<sup>80</sup> It also identified a number of constraints in the development of tourism:

- tourism has been inadequately resourced and funded;
- myopic private sector;
- limited integration of local communities;
- previous neglect;
- poor service as result of inadequate tourism education, training and awareness;
- inadequate protection of the environment;
- lack of infrastructure, particularly in rural areas; and
- lack of inclusive, effective national, provincial and local structures in ground transportation.<sup>81</sup>

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<sup>78</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 4; DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, pp. 1, 9, 14.

<sup>79</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. vii. P. H. G. Vrancken, The National Legal Framework of Tourism: past, present and future, *Stellenbosch Law Review* 11, 2000, pp. 90-1.

<sup>80</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. vii.

<sup>81</sup> *Ibid*, p. 5.

In addition, it set specific targets for the development of tourism between 1996 and 2005:

- to increase the contribution of tourism to the GDP to 8% by 2000 and 10% by 2005;
- to sustain a 15% increase in visitor arrivals over the next ten years;
- to create 1 million additional jobs in tourism by 2005;
- to increase foreign exchange earnings of tourism, from approximately R 10 billion in 1996 to R 40 billion per annum in 2005; and
- to welcome 2 million overseas visitors and 4 million visitors from the rest of Africa by 2000.<sup>82</sup>

In order to identify barriers and issues in the development of tourism and make a new tourism economy, the government formulated the concept of “responsible tourism” in the 1996 White Paper for the first time. According to the 1996 White Paper, “responsible tourism” was regarded as “an absolute necessity if the country has to build a successful and sustainable tourism industry” and “an absolute necessity if South Africa has to emerge as a successful international competitor”.<sup>83</sup> The 1996 White Paper defined responsible tourism as “a proactive approach by tourism industry partners to develop, market and manage the tourism industry in a responsible manner, so as to create a competitive advantage.”<sup>84</sup> It further “recognises the responsibility of the government and private sector to involve the previously neglected in the tourism industry.”<sup>85</sup> It also specified key elements of responsible tourism and confirmed guiding principles in implementing responsible tourism practices in economic, environmental and social sustainability.<sup>86</sup>

The key elements of responsible tourism are:

- avoid waste and over-consumption;
- use local resources in a sustainable way;

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<sup>82</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 27.

<sup>83</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 9, 20.

<sup>84</sup> *Ibid*, p. 19.

<sup>85</sup> *Ibid*, p. 20.

<sup>86</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 20, 23.

- maintain and encourage natural, economic, social and cultural diversity;
- be sensitive to the host culture;
- involve the local community in planning and decision-making;
- assess environmental, social and economic impacts as a prerequisite to developing tourism;
- ensure communities are involved in and benefit from tourism;
- market tourism that is responsible, respecting local, natural and cultural environments; and
- monitor impacts of tourism and ensure open disclosure of information.<sup>87</sup>

The guiding principles of the development of responsible tourism in South Africa are:

- tourism will be private sector driven;
- government will provide the enabling framework for the industry to flourish;
- effective community involvement will form the basis of tourism growth;
- tourism development will be underpinned by sustainable environmental practices;
- tourism development is dependent on and the establishment of cooperation and close partnerships among key stakeholders;
- tourism will be used as a development tool for the empowerment of previously neglected communities and should particularly focus on the empowerment of women in such communities;
- tourism development will take place in the context of close cooperation with other states within Southern Africa; and
- tourism development will support the economic, social and environmental goals and policies of the government.<sup>88</sup>

In 2002, the government published *The Responsible Tourism Guidelines*, which has subsequently been reworked into *the Responsible Tourism Handbook: a guide to good*

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<sup>87</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 20.

<sup>88</sup> *Ibid*, p. 23.

*practice for tourism operators* in 2003. These important guidelines include a spectrum of qualified targets for the tourism sector to address the objectives in the 1996 White Paper in relation to the triple bottom line of sustainable development i.e. economic, environmental and social sustainability.<sup>89</sup> It took major steps forward with the inception of the annual Imvelo Awards for Responsible Tourism in the hospitality industry in 2002, as well as with the introduction of the Fair Trade in Tourism South Africa trademark in 2003.<sup>90</sup> South Africa has been one of the few countries in the world that has responsible guidelines set out by the government and industry stakeholders. Julian Matthews, a global expert on responsible tourism, identified South Africa as a “world leader in fair and responsible tourism”.<sup>91</sup>

In 1997, the Cabinet approved Tourism in GEAR: Tourism Development Strategy 1998-2000 as a national strategy of tourism development. Tourism in GEAR, strove to create a framework for implementing the policies contained in the 1996 White Paper on Tourism within the context of the GEAR on the basis of the following facts:

- the comparative advantage offered by our natural and cultural resource base;
- the fact that our tourism attractions compliment global market trends;
- the ability to accommodate SMME development;
- the labour intensive nature of the sector;
- its potential to act as a catalyst for major infrastructure investment;
- its ability to stimulate the development of the tradable goods sector (jewellery, curios, etc.); and
- its value as a non-primary export earners.<sup>92</sup>

The GEAR in Tourism further revealed the key findings in the development of tourism in South Africa such as strengths, opportunities, weakness and threats.

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<sup>89</sup> G. Visser en C. M. Rogerson, Researching the South African Tourism and Development Nexus, *GeoJournal* 60(3), 2004, p. 203.

<sup>90</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 11.

<sup>91</sup> S. Naidoo, Era of Green Tourism Draws in Africa, *Business Day*, 2004-03-04, p. 3.

<sup>92</sup> DEAT, *Tourism in Gear: tourism development strategy 1998-2000*, p. 2.

Strengths lay in:

- diversity of attractions and unique selling features;
- well-developed core tourism infrastructure that has been able to absorb and accommodate high growth;
- largely deregulated, privately operated;
- competitive airspace policy; and
- offers a good value for money due to a favourable currency.<sup>93</sup>

The opportunities South African tourism was facing:

- growing world tourism market to tap into;
- our product base complements global trends and market needs;
- increasing freedom of airspace introduces competition and affordable access;
- availability of community resources (e.g. land) in many areas with tourism potential;
- many underdeveloped areas with tourism potential where economic growth is most needed;
- major new markets opening up after elections;
- tourism sector conducive to SMME development; and
- major opportunities for human resource development.<sup>94</sup>

The weaknesses were identified as:

- absence of a clear product branding and fresh marketing strategy;
- poor international promotion coverage due to major lack of marketing funds and a weakening currency;
- poor product diversification;
- lack of institutional capacity at all tiers;
- fragmentation and lack of partnerships;

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<sup>93</sup> DEAT, *Tourism in Gear: tourism development strategy 1998-2000*, p. 3.

<sup>94</sup> Ibid.

- lack of access and tourism activity in many areas due to past policies;
- lack of ownership and spread of benefits to disadvantage communities;
- poor service ethic and cultures;
- lack of skilled manpower;
- poor perception of safety; and
- lack of sustainable management practices.<sup>95</sup>

There were also various threats in the development of tourism:

- increasing incidence of crime against tourists may have a severely negative impact on the industry;
- danger of becoming unknown in the market place due to lack of marketing funds;
- potential irreparable damage and over-development of resource base;
- danger of overpricing by some industries; and
- potential degradation of service and product quality.<sup>96</sup>

As already mentioned, an overall goal was set up in Tourism in the GEAR to increase the contribution of the tourism sector from 4.7% to 8% of the GDP by 2000. The following specific growth targets for the period 1998-2000 were set up:

- increase tourism foreign exchange earnings at an average normal growth target of 15% per annum, from R 14 billion per annum to R 23 billion per annum;
- increase tourism arrivals from overseas by an average rate of 17% per annum to 2.2 million arrivals from the continent by 6% per annum to 4.8 million and domestic holidays trips by 2.5% to 19.5 million trips per annum;
- increase direct sustainable employment opportunities in the sector from 550 000 to 860 000; and
- increase by 15% per annum the number of tourism ventures owned and/or operated by disadvantaged entrepreneurs.<sup>97</sup>

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<sup>95</sup> DEAT, *Tourism in Gear: tourism development strategy 1998-2000*, p. 3.

<sup>96</sup> Ibid.

<sup>97</sup> Ibid, p. 4.

Aware of the economic significance of international tourism, especially inbound tourism, the new government carried out a series of strategies to develop it. Firstly, South Africa became a member of the WTO and thereby officially re-entered the international tourism arena in 1994.<sup>98</sup> It has also been an active member of the other tourism organizations such as the Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa (RETOSA), the Indian Ocean Tourism Organization (IOTO) and Africa Travel Association (ATA).<sup>99</sup> Secondly, the Parliament passed the Tourism Amendment Act 105 of 1996, in which SATOUR was restructured as South Africa Tourism and a 21-member board was announced by the DEAT.<sup>100</sup> The SAT is responsible for the marketing of South Africa as a preferred tourism destination and the implementation of international and domestic tourism growth strategies.<sup>101</sup> Thirdly, during the 1998-1999 financial year, the government allocated R 10 million to establish the International Tourism Marketing Scheme, which aimed at assisting tourism entrepreneurs to market their products internationally.<sup>102</sup> Fourthly, the Tourism Development Protocol of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) was ratified to strengthen regional tourism cooperation between member countries including South Africa, Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, Namibia, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, Malawi, Mauritius, Tanzania and Zambia.<sup>103</sup> Fifthly, South Africa signed tourism international agreements with about twenty countries, which included the signing of a Memorandum of Understanding between South Africa and China in 2002, which accorded South Africa the ADS.<sup>104</sup> Moreover, the SAT has established international offices for long-haul destinations: UK, Germany, Netherlands, France and Italy in Europe; China, India, Japan and Australia in Asia and the Pacific regions; and the USA.<sup>105</sup> Sixthly, the Cabinet approved the Tourism Growth Strategy and the International Tourism Growth Strategy in 2002. The strategy analyzed core markets and their segments, and focused

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<sup>98</sup> M. J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, p. 51.

<sup>99</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, pp. 8, 11.

<sup>100</sup> M. J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, p. 52.

<sup>101</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 68; SAT, *Tourism Growth Strategy*, pp. 3, 31.

<sup>102</sup> P. Jordan, Speech by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism at the Parliamentary Media Briefing Week, <http://www.info.gov.za/speeches/1999/990319514p1032.htm>, 1998-02-10.

<sup>103</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 11; P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 175.

<sup>104</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, pp. 11, 14.

<sup>105</sup> SAT, Contact Details, <http://www.southafrica.net/index.cfm?SitePageID=109>.

on a marketing strategy, visa arrangements, security and local transport infrastructure. Priority markets have been identified in Europe, Asia and Africa.<sup>106</sup> The strategy was not only about increasing arrivals, but also underpinned by other core principles:

- increasing the length of time tourists spend in South Africa;
- increasing the spending of tourist;
- ensuring that tourists travel throughout the country, and not just in a few provinces; and
- facilitating transformation and BEE in the local tourism industry.<sup>107</sup>

The developmental trends of the international tourism market in South Africa can be analyzed in three respects: regional, long-haul and global. Firstly, the regional tourist source countries of South Africa included all African countries. Visitors from these countries have been described as the “backbone” of the South African tourism economy because they comprise the majority of all foreign tourism arrivals to this country.<sup>108</sup> According to the 2003 Annual Tourism Report by the SAT, the “Big Six” regional destinations were Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, Zimbabwe, Mozambique and Namibia. Tourist arrivals from these six countries were about 4.1 million, 62.7% of the total international arrivals in South Africa and tourism receipts were R 24.2 billion, approximately 44.8% of the total tourism receipts of the country (Figure 4. 2).<sup>109</sup> Chief executive officer (CEO) of the SAT Cheryl Carolus drove home the point: “The economic impact of tourism from, and between, South Africa’s neighbours is of inestimable importance and it is crucial that we work together to maintain an increase in tourist arrivals in the Southern African Development Community region.”<sup>110</sup> Secondly, South Africa has been regarded as a long-haul destination for various international tourists.<sup>111</sup> In

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<sup>106</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 537.

<sup>107</sup> Ibid, pp. 537-8.

<sup>108</sup> W. Mjekula, Africa is SA Tourism’s Gold Mine, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 2003-12-18, p. 30.

<sup>109</sup> SAT, 2003 Annual Tourism Report, p. 77.

<sup>110</sup> W. Mjekula, Africa is SA Tourism’s Gold Mine, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 2003-12-18, p. 30.

<sup>111</sup> F. Botha, Opportunities for the Tourist Industry, travel Conference, 1993; E. T. Heath, International Travel to South Africa 1993, as cited by D. Cronson, *Tourism to Post-apartheid South Africa: an international perspective*, p. 16.

2003, the “Big Six” long-haul tourist source countries were UK, Germany, USA, France, Netherlands and Australia. Tourist arrivals from these six countries were 0.8 million, 12.5% of the total tourist arrivals, and tourism receipts were R 13.6 billion, 25.3% of the total tourism receipts of the country (Figure 4. 3). Thirdly, in 2003, the top ten tourist source countries of South Africa were Lesotho, Swaziland, Botswana, Zimbabwe, UK, Mozambique, Germany, Namibia, USA and France. International tourist arrivals were 5.1 million, comprising 78.5% of international arrivals of South Africa (Figure 4. 4).

The analysis of the regional, long-haul and global markets indicated that major tourist source countries of South Africa were limited to its bordering African countries and certain European countries. Despite high tourist arrivals from six major regional tourist source countries: five times those of the six long-haul tourist source countries, their spending was low: only less than twice those of the six long-haul tourist source countries.<sup>112</sup> Therefore, South Africa should focus mainly on two major efforts to quicken the development of tourism: maintaining its existing important tourist markets; and developing new tourist markets in some developed and fast developing countries and regions such as Canada and Argentina in the Americas; Japan, China, ROK, Australia and New Zealand in Asia and the Pacific regions.<sup>113</sup>

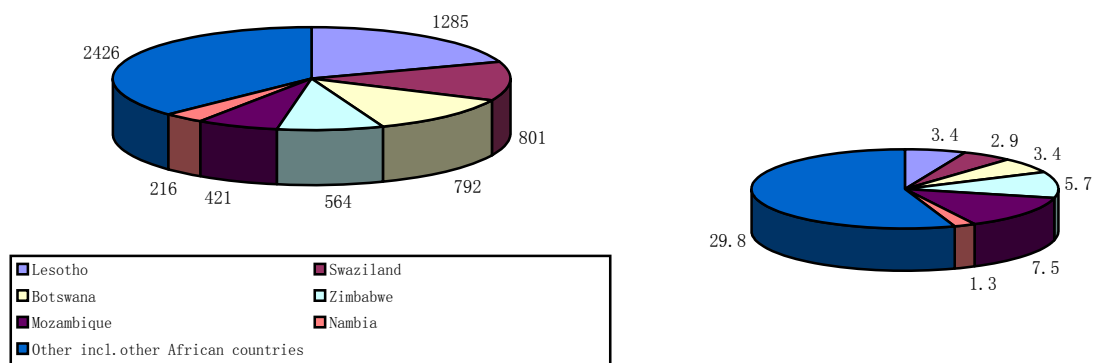


Figure 4. 2 Tourist arrivals (thousands) and tourism receipts (R billion) of six regional countries

Adapted from: SAT, the 2003 Annual Tourism Report, pp. 77, 91.

<sup>112</sup> SAT, the 2003 Annual Tourism Report, pp. 77, 91.

<sup>113</sup> A. Saayman, International and Africa Tourism Markets for South Africa: an economic analysis, *Africa Insight* 33(1-2), 2003, p. 94; SAT, Tourism Growth Strategy, p. 18.

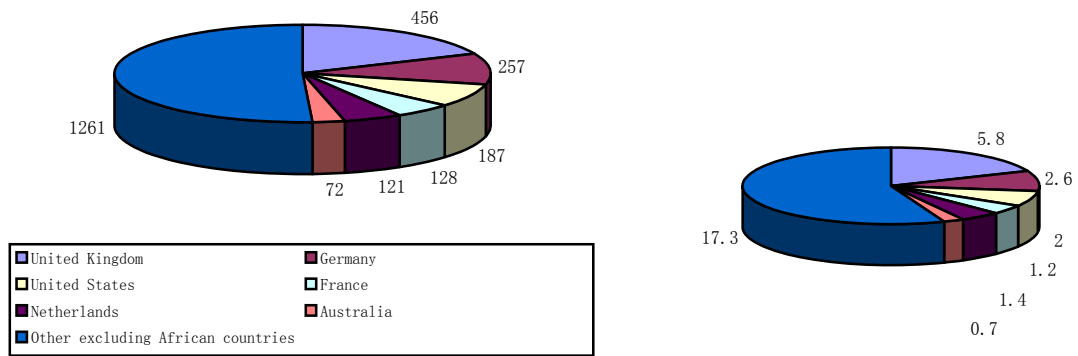


Figure 4.3 Tourist arrivals (thousands) and tourism receipts (R billion) of six long-haul countries

Adapted from: SAT, the 2003 Annual Tourism Report, pp. 77, 91.

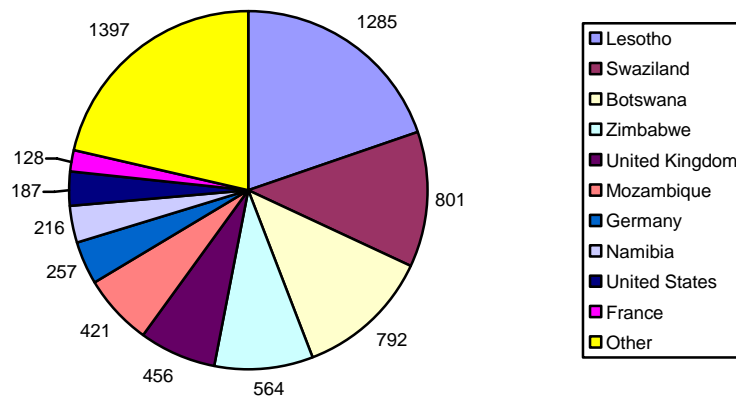


Figure 4.4 Top ten international tourist arrivals 2003 (thousands)

From: SAT, the 2003 Annual Tourism Report, p. 77

Domestic tourism, that is travelling of South Africans inside the border of South Africa, known as the “bread and butter” of the South African tourist industry, is very important in the development of tourism. The reason is that a vibrant domestic tourism can defuse the exposure of the tourism industry to fluctuations in international demand, particularly when international tourism is affected by global political and economic factors.<sup>114</sup>

<sup>114</sup> SAT, *A Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy 2004 -2007*, pp. 3-4; DEAT, DEAT and SA Tourism Unveil Plans to Boost Domestic Tourism - Tourism Indaba, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 2004-05-10.

Prior to 1994, domestic tourism in South Africa was traditionally dominated by the white affluent population having the greatest mobility and access to amenities.<sup>115</sup> As Themba Khumalo, chief marketing officer of the SAT put it, “Most black South Africans have no tradition of experiencing this country as tourists because of apartheid.”<sup>116</sup> Chrispian Olver, Director General of the DEAT argued that “...under the apartheid system, most South Africans were not encouraged to travel.”<sup>117</sup> Indeed, apartheid, and its accompanying regulation, made travel almost impossible for 80% of the population to move around the country.<sup>118</sup> In addition, despite the largest population group in South Africa, the black market had not been developed to its full tourism potential due to a lack of private transport, disposable income and promotion of holiday opportunities to the “non-white” market.<sup>119</sup> Cheryl Carolus believed that “[u]nder apartheid many people did not have the money to travel or were barred from entering certain sites.”<sup>120</sup> Moreover, during the years of apartheid, there were beliefs among the blacks that “[t]ourism is a white man’s thing and not for us” and “tourism is what whites do when they go to the Kruger Park or the beach in Durban”. Tourism was thus seen as catering for the white upper and middle class only. As a result, the majority of South Africans had never been exposed to the tourism industry and have not benefited from the diverse resources.<sup>121</sup> A 1994 survey suggested that the whites were responsible for 84.5% of all holiday expenditure, followed by blacks (10.6%), Asians (2.5%) and coloureds (2.4%).<sup>122</sup> “For too long tourism in South Africa has been something that most South African communities have heard about but had little first-hand experience of,” said the Minister of the DEAT, Marthinus van Schalkwyk.<sup>123</sup>

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<sup>115</sup> E. Koch en P. J. Massyn, South Africa’s Domestic Tourism Sector: promises and problems, in K. B. Ghimire (ed.), *The Native Tourist: mass tourism within developing countries*, London, 2001, p. 144.

<sup>116</sup> S. Jobes, New Minister Promises Tourism Growth, *Natal Witness*, 2004-05-10, p. 6.

<sup>117</sup> B. Cole, South Africa ‘should be a tourism nation’, *Daily News*, 2004-05-11, p. 5.

<sup>118</sup> K. Penstone, SA Tourism Opens to Domestic Travel, *Citizen*, 2004-07-10, p. 12.

<sup>119</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 166.

<sup>120</sup> A. Kassien, “Discover the world in your own country”, *Cape Times*, 2004-06-11, p. 5.

<sup>121</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 8.

<sup>122</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 166.

<sup>123</sup> S. Russouw, State Drives Domestic Tourism Campaign, *This Day*, 2004-06-11, p. 3.

After the general elections of 1994, the black majority in South Africa, who had been subjected first to colonial oppression and then to apartheid from 1948, have become increasingly mobile. Their disposable income was increasing and with discriminatory legislations abolished, more tourist facilities became accessible to black tourists.<sup>124</sup> In order to encourage domestic tourism and make every South African aware of the fact that they can discover and enjoy the rich natural, cultural and historical heritage in their own country, “Tourism Month”, in recognition of World Tourism Day of September 27<sup>th</sup>, was first launched in 1998 and is now held annually in September.<sup>125</sup>

“A Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy 2004-2007” was launched at the 2004 Tourism Indaba, as a guide to the domestic tourism industry on the strategic plans for the next three years (2004 – 2007).<sup>126</sup> The objectives of the Strategy are to contribute to and increase the growth of the GDP, create jobs and transform the tourism industry through:

- increasing expenditure (more trips, length of stay, average trip expenditure);
- reducing seasonality (encourage year round travel);
- improving the geographic spread of tourism (more destinations and activities); and
- increasing volumes (convert, exploit, grow and develop).<sup>127</sup>

To support the growth of the domestic industry, the national government will

- promote the domestic tourism brand greatly;
- promote a set of experiences that relate to South African consumers;

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<sup>124</sup> E. Maloka, The Fruit of Freedom, in B. Nasson (eds.), *Turning Point in History (Vol.6): negotiation, transition and freedom*, p. 52; J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 166.

<sup>125</sup> DEAT, Moosa Celebrate National Day and Encourage South Africans to Travel in Their Own Country, <http://www.environment.gov.za>; Anon., Tourism Month 2000: a journey of discovery, <http://www.info.gov.za/speeches/2000/000825340p1004.htm>; Anon., South Africa Celebrate Tourism Month, <http://www.info.gov.za.innopac.up.ac.za/speeches/1998/9907021043a1003.htm>, 1998-07-14.

<sup>126</sup> DEAT, DEAT and SA Tourism Unveil Plans to Boost Domestic Tourism - Tourism Indaba, <http://www.environment.gov.za>.

<sup>127</sup> SAT, *A Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy 2004 -2007*, p. 4; D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 539.

- distribute appropriate information in specific places;
- facilitate the development of co-operative product packages;
- develop marketing and distribution channels; and
- promote repeat visitation.<sup>128</sup>

Out of the so-called “Big Five” reasons for domestic tourism in South Africa: VFRs, holiday, religious, business and medical purpose, the VFRs has become the most popular form.<sup>129</sup> According to “A Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy 2004-2007”, between 2002 and 2003, nearly two thirds of all domestic trips were the VFRs. Although holiday travel accounted for only 16% of trips, it constituted 44% of all expenditure and constituted the major part of domestic tourism receipts (Figure 4. 5).

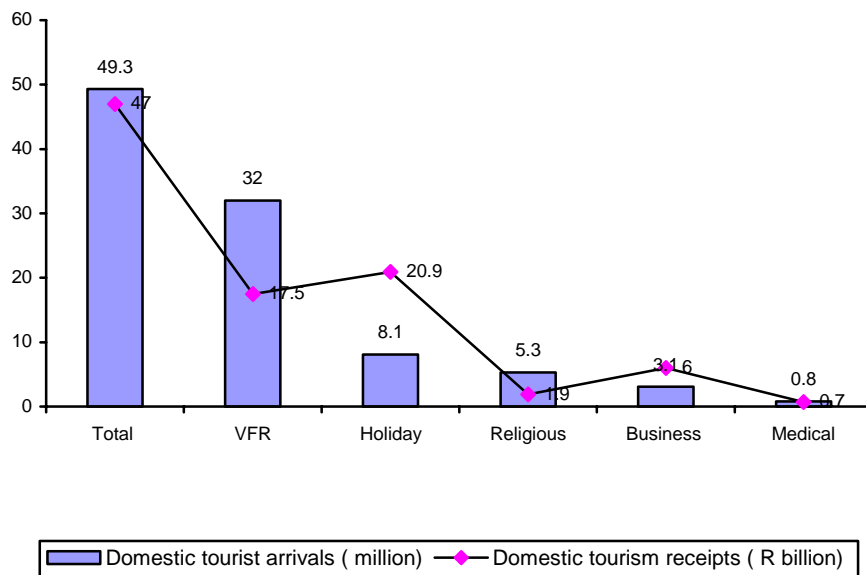


Figure 4. 5 Domestic tourist arrivals and receipts 2002-2003

From: DEAT, A Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy 2004 –2007 (Pretoria, 2004), pp. 3, 5.

<sup>128</sup> SAT, *A Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy 2004 -2007*, p. 14; D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 539.

<sup>129</sup> S. Rule et al, Visiting Friends and Relatives (VFR): South Africa’s most popular form of domestic tourism, *Africa Insight* 33(1-2), 2003, p. 99.

### III. South Africa: a preferred tourism destination

#### The system of a destination

A destination is described as a combination of elements, known as a “destination mix”. Natural and cultural tourist attractions are the core of a destination and form the powerful elements of tourism. They can be categorized in various ways.<sup>130</sup> American tourism scholar Clare A. Gunn divided attractions into two types:

- short-stay touring-circuit attractions that satisfy touring markets for travellers on tours involving many separate locational stops; and
- longer-stay focused attractions at or near longer-stay destinations.<sup>131</sup>

American tourism scholar Charles R. Goeldner and his fellow authors categorized attractions into three categories:

- cultural attractions;
- natural attractions; and
- events, recreations and entertainment attractions.<sup>132</sup>

British tourism scholar V. T. C. Middleton distinguished four categories of attractions:

- natural attractions;
- built attractions;
- cultural attractions; and
- social attractions.<sup>133</sup>

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<sup>130</sup> H. Keyser, *Tourism Development*, pp. 168-70; E. Inskeep, *Tourism planning: an integrated and sustainable development approach*, p. 77.

<sup>131</sup> C. A. Gunn, *Tourism Planning: basic concepts cases*, as cited by E. Inskeep, *Tourism planning: an integrated and sustainable development approach*, p. 77.

<sup>132</sup> C. R. Goeldner et al., *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, pp. 216-7.

<sup>133</sup> V. T. C. Middleton, *Marketing in Travel and Tourism*, p. 247.

British tourism scholar Edward Inskeep organized attractions into three categories:

- natural attractions that are based on features of the natural environment;
- cultural attractions that are based on man's activities; and
- special types of attractions that are artificially created.<sup>134</sup>

British tourism scholar John Swarbrooke divided attractions into four types:

- features within the natural environment;
- human-made buildings, structures and sites for not attracting visitors;
- human-made buildings, structures and sites for attracting visitors; and
- special events.<sup>135</sup>

South African tourism scholar, J. A. Bennett, listed three types of attractions:

- natural attractions;
- man-made attractions; and
- social cultural attractions.<sup>136</sup>

South African tourism scholar Heidi Keyser believed that attractions could be evaluated in two major ways:

- natural and cultural (human-made) attractions on the basis of natural and cultural resources; and
- the influence sphere of attractions at international, national and local levels.<sup>137</sup>

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<sup>134</sup> E. Inskeep, *Tourism planning: an integrated and sustainable development approach*, p. 77.

<sup>135</sup> J. Swarbrooke, *The Development and Management of Visitor Attractions (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 5.

<sup>136</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 9.

<sup>137</sup> H. Keyser, *Tourism Development*, p. 171.

According to South African tourism scholar Berendien A. Lubbe, a destination depended on three major attributes:

- primary attractiveness - the uniqueness that lies in its natural and cultural attractions;
- secondary attractiveness - tourism infrastructure consisting of the accommodation, transport and other facilities and services used by the typical tourists; and
- tertiary attractiveness - the destination marketing and price.<sup>138</sup>

Combing these various classifications of attractions, but relying heavily on Lubbe’s categorization of natural and cultural attractions in primary, secondary and tertiary attractiveness, and Keyser’s classification of attractions in a destination according to their sphere of influence at international, national and local levels, the system of a destination was compiled (Figure 4. 6). According to this system, the remainder of this section identifies, evaluates and considers South Africa as a preferred, quality, value-for-money international tourism destination. It focuses on quantitative and qualitative analysis for the natural and socio-cultural attractions in primary attractiveness, which reflects South African inherent, distinctive and unique natural and cultural characteristics. It then considers the secondary and tertiary attractiveness.

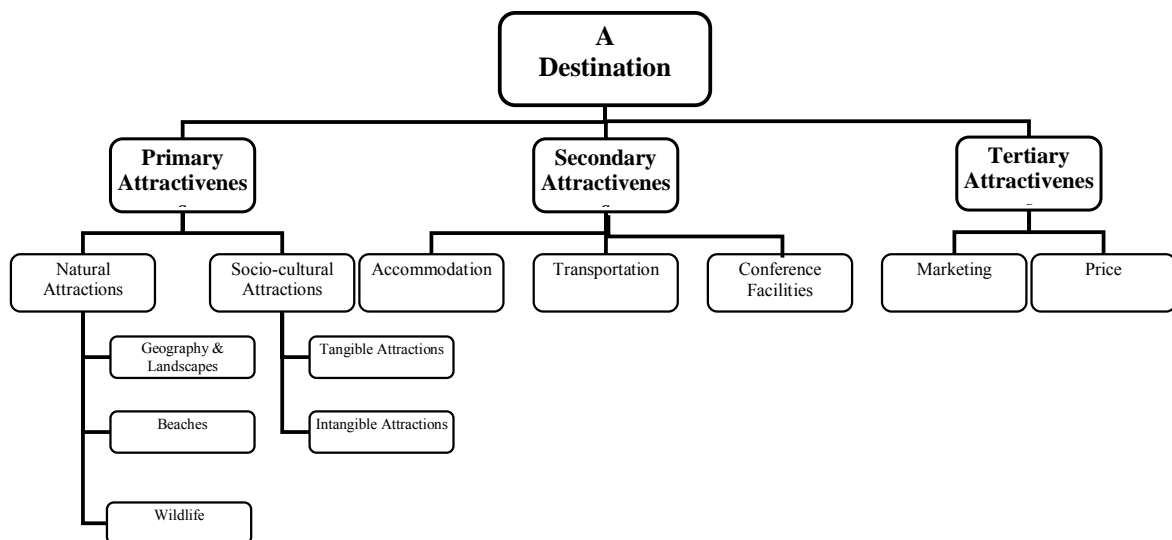


Figure 4. 6 A system of a destination

<sup>138</sup> B. A. Lubbe (ed.), *Tourism Management in Southern Africa*, p. 6.

## Primary attractiveness

South Africa has a land area of 1.22 million square kilometers and is surrounded by the Atlantic and the Indian Oceans to the east, the south and the west.<sup>139</sup> The rich natural resources - excellent beaches, accessible wildlife, varied and impressive scenery, unspoiled wilderness areas, sunny and hot climate - provide it with the opportunities of becoming one of the internationally preferred world-class destinations.<sup>140</sup> As a result, its natural environment has been described as the country's "unique selling feature".<sup>141</sup>

South Africa has a coastline of about 3 000 km, which is swept by two major ocean currents - the warm south-flowing Mozambique-Agulhas and the cold Benguela.<sup>142</sup> In 2001, South Africa joined the Blue Flag Campaign and became the first country outside Europe to win Blue Flag accreditation.<sup>143</sup> The Blue Flag Campaign, which originated in France in 1985, is a European-based international annual award given to beaches that meet excellence in the areas of safety, amenities, cleanliness and environmental standards. In 2005, among 2 472 beaches that were awarded the Blue Flag in the world, South Africa had twenty beaches that qualified (Figure 4. 7):<sup>144</sup>

- Eastern Cape - Dolphin Beach, Jeffrey's Bay; Gonubie Beach, East London; Humewood Beach, Port Elizabeth; Kelly's Beach, Port Alfred; Wells Estate, north of Port Elizabeth;
- KwaZulu-Natal - Addington Beach, Durban/eThekweni; Anstey's Beach, Durban/eThekweni; Bay of Plenty, Durban/eThekweni; Hibberdene Beach, south coast;

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<sup>139</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 7.

<sup>140</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 1.

<sup>141</sup> DEAT, *Tourism in Gear: tourism development strategy 1998-2000*, p. 3.

<sup>142</sup> P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 137; D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 7.

<sup>143</sup> DEAT, International Blue Flag Awarded to Top SA Beaches, <http://www.environment.gov.za>; DEAT, South African Beaches Acquire Blue Flag Status, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 2001-10-19.

<sup>144</sup> Blueflag.org, Blue Flag Campaign: history, <http://www.blueflag.org/BlueFlagHistory>; Wildlife and Environment Society of South Africa (WESSA), Blue Flag Campaign: South Africa flies the blue flag, <http://www.wildlifesociety.org.za/natprojectsblueflag.htm>.

Lucien Beach, south coast; Marina/San Lameer Beach, south coast; Ramsgate Beach, south coast; South Beach, Durban/eThekweni; Umhlanga Rocks Main Beach; Uvongo Beach, south coast; and

- Western Cape - Bikini Beach, Gordon’s Bay; Clifton 4th Beach, Cape Town; Grotto Beach, Hermanus; Lappiesbaai Beach, Stilbaai; Mnandi Beach, Strandfontein.



Figure 4. 7 Twenty beaches of the Blue Flag in South Africa 2005

From: WESSA, Blue Flag Campaign: South Africa flies the blue flag, <http://www.wildlifesociety.org.za/natprojectsblueflagmap.htm>

South Africa has been known as “the greatest wildlife show on earth” for its abundance and variety of wildlife.<sup>145</sup> Despite an area of 2% of the land surface of the world, it is home to 7.5% of the planet’s plants, 5.8% of its mammals, 8% of its bird species, 4.6% of its reptiles and 5.5% of its insects. In terms of biological heritage, it is recognized as one of the richest nations in the world. It has an incredibly rich biodiversity, third only after Brazil and Indonesia. Its diverse plant life comprises about 22 000 different species, many of which are native. Seven biomes within 440 distinct vegetation types can be found: Forest, Thicket, Savanna, Grassland, Fynbos, succulent Karoo and Nama Karoo.<sup>146</sup>

<sup>145</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 178.

<sup>146</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, pp. 41-2, 45; J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 178.

South Africa is one of only a few countries which has an entire plant kingdom within its national confines, that is, the Cape Floral Kingdom.<sup>147</sup> The Cape Floral Region Protected Areas on the Cape Peninsula is one of the two natural world heritage sites in South Africa and is one of the earth's six richest floral kingdoms in the world. It occupies only 4% of the area of the southern African continent, but has 45% of the subcontinent's plant species. Its uniqueness lies in its outstanding ecological and biological processes associated with the unique Fynbos vegetation, which is a particularly favorite attraction for botanists.<sup>148</sup> It is also home of the protea, an evergreen shrub which is South Africa's national flower.<sup>149</sup>

South Africa boasts not only the three biggest territorial animals on earth, but also the largest and smallest animals. There are approximately 325 mammal species in South Africa and more than 136 reptile species.<sup>150</sup> Numerous large mammals such as zebras, monkeys, baboons, hippopotamuses, rhinoceroses and antelope are indigenous to South Africa.<sup>151</sup> It is home to the "Big Five": elephant, rhino, lion, leopard and buffalo. The cheetah and wild dog were added to form the new "Big Seven" by nature lovers.<sup>152</sup> The Kruger National Park, the largest and oldest game reserve in South Africa, includes nearly every species of indigenous wildlife. Other notable reserves are the Kalahari Gemsbok National Park in Northwest; the Greater Addo Elephant National Park and the Mountain Zebra National Park in Eastern Cape; the Blyde River Canyon in Mpumalanga and the Richtersveld National Park in Northern Cape.<sup>153</sup> In addition, South Africa has more than 100 important bird areas and five endemic bird areas. Among the abundance of bird life, the larger birds - ostrich, francolin (a type of

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<sup>147</sup> P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 189.

<sup>148</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 45; UNESCO, World Heritage List: Cape Floral Region Protected Areas, [http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id\\_site=1007](http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id_site=1007).

<sup>149</sup> P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 135.

<sup>150</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 178.

<sup>151</sup> Anon., "South Africa", [http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia\\_761557321/South\\_Africa.html](http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_761557321/South_Africa.html); D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2002/03*, p. 1.

<sup>152</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2002/03*, p. 1; P. van Dyk en Johan van der Walt, Wildlife and Conservation, in P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, Pretoria, 2003, p. 193.

<sup>153</sup> P. van Dyk en Johan van der Walt, Wildlife and Conservation, in P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, Pretoria, 2003, pp. 187-9; D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, pp. 553, 557, 560; Anon., "South Africa", [http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia\\_761557321/South\\_Africa.html](http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_761557321/South_Africa.html).

partridge), quail, guinea fowl and grouse - are readily found in conservation areas.<sup>154</sup> There are also the “Big Six” of birds: martial eagle, lappet-faced vulture, ground hornbill, Kori Bustard, saddle-billed stock and Pel’s fishing owl.<sup>155</sup> Moreover, African Penguins, formerly known as Jackass Penguins, can be found within the Table Bay National Park and at Betty’s Bay in the Western Cape.<sup>156</sup>

Among the 325 registered natural heritage sites in South Africa, the first natural world heritage in South Africa, Greater St. Lucia Wetland Park, is a natural site with ecological linkages between the five ecosystems, which provide a habitat for a significant diversity of African wildlife.<sup>157</sup> It contains extraordinary cultural and ecological treasures. It has 220 kilometers of coastline and beaches; 100 species of coral; eight inter-linking ecosystems; the only major swamp forests left in South Africa; three major lake systems, including Kosi Bay, Lake St Lucia and Lake Sibayi; and eight major game reserves within the broader Maputaland.<sup>158</sup> It also contains the old St Lucia Park, the oldest protected area in Africa, declared 105 years ago: only three years after America’s Yellowstone National Park, the first such protected area in the world. It has become one of the largest protected wildlife areas in South Africa and the largest estuarine system in Africa.<sup>159</sup> The Park also drew international attention because a rare fossil fish, the coelacanth, was spotted in deep waters off Sodwana Bay. This ‘living fossil’ marine species, once thought to be extinct, was caught as a live specimen in a trawler net off the coast of Eastern Cape in 1938.<sup>160</sup>

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<sup>154</sup> Anon., “South Africa”, [http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia\\_761557321/South\\_Africa.html](http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_761557321/South_Africa.html); DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 45.

<sup>155</sup> P. van Dyk en Johan van der Walt, Wildlife and Conservation, in P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, Pretoria, 2003, p. 197.

<sup>156</sup> Anon., “South Africa”, [http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia\\_761557321/South\\_Africa.html](http://encarta.msn.com/encyclopedia_761557321/South_Africa.html).

<sup>157</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 49; UNESCO, World Heritage List: Greater St. Lucia Wetland Park, [http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id\\_site=914](http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id_site=914).

<sup>158</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 76.

<sup>159</sup> Ibid; DEAT, South Africa has Three World Heritage Sites, <http://www.environment.gov.za>.

<sup>160</sup> Anon., Our Piece of Paradise, *Sowetan*, 2003-01-21, p. 15; UNESCO, Intangible Heritage, [http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL\\_ID=2225&URL\\_DO=DO\\_TOPIC&URL\\_SECTION=201.html](http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL_ID=2225&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html).

Vredefort Dome, the most recently declared natural world heritage site in South Africa, is part of a meteorite impact structure. Dating back 2 023 million years, it is the oldest, largest, and most deeply eroded complex meteorite impact structure in the world.<sup>161</sup> According to the Minister of Arts and Culture Pallo Jordan, Vredefort Dome has huge marketing potential as it would become both a tourist and educational destination. He believed that “[t]he inscription of the Dome will make a huge difference to people in the area. It will also stimulate the economic activity in the tourism industry.” After people come to know this meteor site, “[t]he curiosity factor will draw scholars, students and scientists” to engage in geological research and explore and understand the rich culture of the Basotho and Khoi-San tribes.<sup>162</sup> The Minister of the DEAT, Van Schalkwyk, said that R 18 million had been allocated to aid with the eradication of alien plants, construction of a tourism centre and hiking trails “[bringing] job opportunities and tourism to the area.”<sup>163</sup>

South Africa also has great climatic diversity influenced by elevation, latitude and coastal position. The dry climate with lots of sunshine and a moderate climate without distinctive seasons offer unlimited opportunities for a variety of outdoor sport activities such as whale-watching, white water rafting, hiking, bird-watching, bush survival, deep-sea fishing, hunting and diving.<sup>164</sup>

In the development of tourism in South Africa, one of the greatest strengths is its diversity of people and the richness of their cultural heritage, which fall into two types of attractions: tangible and intangible cultural attractions.<sup>165</sup> The tangible attractions, known as man-made attractions, are tourist attractions that have been created by the invention of man. They include ancient and modern architecture such as archaeological or palaeontological sites, historical buildings, battlefields, ruins, monuments, museums, galleries, statues, cathedral

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<sup>161</sup> UNESCO, World Heritage List, <http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/1162>; S. Packree, SA Crater a Heritage Site: Redefort Dome gets glory, *Daily News*, 2005-07-15, p. 2.

<sup>162</sup> S. Packree, SA Crater a Heritage Site: Redefort Dome gets glory, *Daily News*, 2005-07-15, p. 2.

<sup>163</sup> Ibid.

<sup>164</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 1.

<sup>165</sup> H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 86; DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 13.

and churches, homes and historic houses, urban areas, cinemas and theatres.<sup>166</sup> A variety of tangible attractions, representing 11% of all tourism resources, constitute a foundation of cultural tourism in South Africa.<sup>167</sup>

Among seven natural and cultural world heritage sites in South Africa approved by the World Heritage Committee of the UNESCO (Table 4. 1), there are three cultural world heritage sites and one natural and cultural heritage site. They are Robben Island; the Fossil Hominid Sites of Sterkfontein, Swartkrans, Kromdraai, and Environs; Mapungubwe Cultural Landscape; and uKhahlamba/Drakensberg Park.<sup>168</sup> The former Minister of the DEAT Valli Moosa believed that the world heritage recognition that South Africa has achieved was of great importance because “it also contributes immensely to the building of the new South African nation. It serves to bolster our pride in ourselves and in the wondrous country in which we live” as well as “help us to market our country as a world-class tourist destination.”<sup>169</sup>

No	World Heritage Sites	Location	Nature	Year
1	Greater St. Lucia Wetland Park	KwaZulu-Natal	Natural	1999
2	Robben Island	Western Cape	Cultural	1999
3	The Fossil Hominid Sites of Sterkfontein, Swartkrans, Kromdraai, and Environs	Gauteng and North West	Cultural	1999
4	uKhahlamba / Drakensberg Park	KwaZulu-Natal	Cultural and natural	2000
5	Mapungubwe Cultural Landscape	Limpopo	Cultural	2003
6	Cape Floral Region Protected Areas	Western and Eastern Cape	Natural	2004
7	Vredefort Dome	Northwest and Free State	Natural	2005

Table 4. 1 Natural and cultural world heritage sites in South Africa

Adapted from : UNESCO, World Heritage List, <http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31>.

<sup>166</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 9; C. R. Goeldner et al., *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 217; E. Inskeep, *Tourism planning: an integrated and sustainable development approach*, pp. 80-9; J. Swarbrooke, *The Development and Management of Visitor Attractions (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 6; H. Keyser, *Tourism Development*, pp. 175-6.

<sup>167</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 13.

<sup>168</sup> UNESCO, World Heritage List, <http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31>.

<sup>169</sup> DEAT, South Africa Has Three World Heritage Sites, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 1999-12-01.

Robben Island was a well-known prison used for political prisoners in the late twentieth century, where the former President Nelson Mandela was imprisoned for eighteen years. It witnesses the triumph of the human spirit, of freedom and of democracy over hardship and adversity so as to become a global icon of human rights and reconciliation.<sup>170</sup> In 1996, the Cabinet decided that Robben Island Museum (RIM) must be developed into a “World Heritage Site, National Monument and National Museum, which can become a cultural and conservation showcase for the new South African democracy, while at the same time maximizing the economic, tourism and educational potential of the island and so encouraging its multi-purpose usage.”<sup>171</sup> Since its inception in 1997 to 2002, the RIM had received 1.3 million tourists from both home and abroad.<sup>172</sup>

The Fossil Hominid Sites of Sterkfontein, Swartkrans, Kromdraai, and Environs in the Sterkfontein area, known as the “cradle of humankind”, is a complex of palaeo-anthropological sites. It contains abundant scientific information on the evolution of human beings over the past three and a half million years, their way of life, and the animals with which they lived and on which they fed.<sup>173</sup> The 2.5 million-year-old skull of “Mrs Ples”, the 3.3-million-year-old set of bones of “Little Foot” and other remains are displayed in the museum.<sup>174</sup> “Mrs Ples” was discovered by a scholar of zoology and geology, Robert Broom in 1947, after Raymond Dart (1893-1988), a brilliant physical anthropologist and paleontologist in South Africa, discovered the Taung child in North-West province in 1936.<sup>175</sup>

The Mapungubwe Cultural Landscape, on the confluence of the Limpopo and Shashe rivers, consists of the archaeological sites of Schroda, K2, Mapungubwe and more than 100 San

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<sup>170</sup> UNESCO, World Heritage List: Robben Island, [http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id\\_site=916](http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id_site=916).

<sup>171</sup> RIM, Robben Island Museum: directorate, <http://www.robben-island.org.za/departments/directorate/directorate.asp>.

<sup>172</sup> RIM, Visitor Numbers on a Steady Increase, <http://www.robben-island.org.za/news/view.asp>.

<sup>173</sup> UNESCO, World Heritage List: The Fossil Hominid Sites of Sterkfontein, Swartkrans, Kromdraai, and Environs, [http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id\\_site=915](http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id_site=915).

<sup>174</sup> P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 152; Anon., South Africa Has Three World Heritage Sites, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 1999-12-01.

<sup>175</sup> P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 152; D. Oakes et al, *Illustrated History of South Africa: the real story*, pp. 14-6; Anon., C. Duhn, Raymond Dart, [http://www.mnsu.edu/emuseum/information/biography/abcde/dart\\_raymond.html](http://www.mnsu.edu/emuseum/information/biography/abcde/dart_raymond.html).

shelters and rock arts sites, which constitute a remarkable testimony of the growth and decline of the Mapungubwe Kingdom. The Mapungubwe Kingdom, reputed as the “First Southern African Kingdom”, was the largest kingdom in the African sub-continent between 900 and 1300 and a trade hub with Arabia and India through the East African ports.<sup>176</sup> As Valli Moosa stated, the historical significance of Mapungubwe lies in the fact that “[t]he history of Mapungubwe will play a key role in the African Renaissance, and the rewriting of Southern African history, thereby promoting regional partnership.”<sup>177</sup>

The uKhahlamba - Drakensberg Park is the only natural and cultural world heritage site in South Africa. It boasts exceptional natural beauty in its soaring basaltic buttresses, incisive dramatic cutbacks and golden sandstone ramparts.<sup>178</sup> The diversity of habitats protects a high level of endemic and globally threatened species, especially birds and plants. It also embraces many caves and rock-shelters with the largest and most concentrated group of paintings made by the San people over a period of 4 000 years. The San people lived in the mountainous Drakensberg area for more than four millennia. The rock paintings are outstanding in quality, diversity of subject and their depiction of animals and human beings, generally regarded as a “treasure chest” of prehistoric art. They throw light on the way of life and the spiritual life of the San people who no longer live in this region.<sup>179</sup>

Among numerous national and local attractions, there are some internationally renowned attractions, such as the Union Buildings, Gold Reef City and the Hector Peterson Museum. The Union Buildings on Meintjieskop is one of landmarks of Pretoria, the administrative

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<sup>176</sup> DEAT, Minister Moosa Welcomes the Declaration of Mapungubwe as a World Heritage Site, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 2003-07-04; UNESCO, World Heritage List: The Mapungubwe Cultural Landscape, [http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id\\_site=1099](http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id_site=1099).

<sup>177</sup> DEAT, Minister Moosa Welcomes the Declaration of Mapungubwe as a World Heritage Site, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 2003-07-04.

<sup>178</sup> DEAT, South Africa Gets Fourth World Heritage Site, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 2000-11-29; UNESCO, World Heritage List, uKhahlamba / Drakensberg Park, [http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id\\_site=985](http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id_site=985).

<sup>179</sup> DEAT, South Africa Gets Fourth World Heritage Site, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 2000-11-29; UNESCO, World Heritage List, uKhahlamba / Drakensberg Park, [http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id\\_site=985](http://whc.unesco.org/pg.cfm?cid=31&id_site=985).

capital of South Africa. It is a masterpiece of Sir Herbert Baker's architectural accomplishments.<sup>180</sup> In 1910, when the Union of South Africa was formed, there was a dire need to cure the wounds left by the Anglo-Boer War between the Afrikaans and English speaking sections of the white population.<sup>181</sup> Two wings of the building symbolized these two groups linked as reconciled equals by a colonnade. Now, the Union Buildings has become a symbol for all South Africans particularly after the first black President, Nelson Mandela, inaugurated the new democratic South Africa there in 1994.<sup>182</sup> Cheryl Carolus claimed that "[t]he Union Buildings are a fitting end as it is emblematic of the new South Africa, which is home to black and white, Asian and Christian, Hindu, Muslim and Jew."<sup>183</sup> The Union Buildings, together with its memorials and statutes in the gardens, has become a preferred destination for tourists especially the international tourists.<sup>184</sup> Gold Reef City is a theme park with gold mining as its central concern. It is the old Johannesburg Gold Mine, which used to be the richest gold mine in the area. It features a museum, rides on a vintage steam train and African tribal mine dancers. The biggest attraction is the 220-meter-deep historic underground shaft that tourists can experience. It held the World Shaft Sinking record in 1916 and was one of the richest gold mines in the world during its heydays.<sup>185</sup> The Hector Peterson Memorial Square is dedicated to Hector Peterson, a fourteen-year-old schoolboy who was one of the first fatalities of the Soweto Uprising in 1976. It has become one of the most important heritage sites in South Africa and a first choice destination for foreign dignitaries and tourists.<sup>186</sup>

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<sup>180</sup> P. van Dyk, *Explore Gauteng (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, p. 220; H. Heydenrych en A. Swiegers, *Discover Pretoria*, pp. 76-7.

<sup>181</sup> H. Heydenrych en A. Swiegers, *Discover Pretoria*, p. 80.

<sup>182</sup> Ibid; P. van Dyk, *Explore Gauteng (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, p. 221.

<sup>183</sup> Anon., Marketing "World Miracle" SA, *The Herald*, 2004-08-17, p. 6.

<sup>184</sup> H. Heydenrych en A. Swiegers, *Discover Pretoria*, p. 80; P. van Dyk, *Explore Gauteng (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp. 220-1.

<sup>185</sup> P. van Dyk, *Explore Gauteng (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)* p. 80; Anon., Johannesburg, [http://www.travellershub.com/destination\\_guide/africa/jhannesburg.html](http://www.travellershub.com/destination_guide/africa/jhannesburg.html); Anon., South Africa Tourism Destinations, <http://www.iexplore.com/dmap/South+Africa/Where+to+Go>.

<sup>186</sup> P. van Dyk, *Explore Gauteng (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp. 99-100; DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 107; DEAT, Moosa Officially Opens the Hector Peterson Museum, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 2002-05-16.

In recent years, campuses of some famous and old universities in the world have become significant attractions in the development of tourism.<sup>187</sup> In South Africa, universities, such as the University of Cape Town,<sup>188</sup> the University of Witwatersrand,<sup>189</sup> the University of Pretoria,<sup>190</sup> the University of Fort Hare (UFH),<sup>191</sup> have become cultural attractions for their long history, unique historical and modern buildings and a wide range of art collections. For example, Van Tilburg Collection on the main campus of the University of Pretoria was bequeathed in 1976 by Jacob Abraham van Tilburg (1888-1980), one of the greatest private collectors in the world. Van Tilburg Collection, known as “a window of Chinese culture”,<sup>192</sup> is regarded as one of the most complete Chinese ceramics collections in the southern hemisphere, covering a range of the imperial dynasties: Qin, Han, Tang, Song, Ming and Qing.<sup>193</sup> The University of Fort Hare is famous not only for its collection of black African culture, but also for its strong and celebrated alumni. From its foundation in 1916, it was in the forefront of resistance to the NP government. It fully deserves its reputation as the “cradle of black leadership and resistance” because it produced many national leaders including the first black President, Nelson Mandela and the Nobel Peace Prize laureates, such as Nelson Mandela and Albert Lutuli, the former ANC President.<sup>194</sup> When tourists step on the “Footsteps of the President” on the campus of the alma mater of Nelson Mandela, they can

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<sup>187</sup> J. Connell, A Study of Tourism on Campus Sites, *Tourism Management* 17(7), 1996, p. 541.

<sup>188</sup> T. V. Bulpin, *Discovering Southern Africa (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, pp. 57-8.

<sup>189</sup> P. van Dyk, *Explore Gauteng (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp. 55-7; N. Musiker en R. Musiker, *Historical Dictionary of Greater Johannesburg*, pp. 416-7.

<sup>190</sup> P. van Dyk, *Explore Gauteng(3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp. 228-9; E. H. Bolsmann, *Pretoria: artists' impression 1857-2001*, pp. 257-65; H. Heydenrych en A. Swiegers, *Discover Pretoria*, pp. 86-7.

<sup>191</sup> J. Pillai, Brainstorming Concrete Proposal for Cultural and Heritage Tourism in South Africa, in the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology (DACST), Cultural Tourism in South Africa: papers presented at a conference of the Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology, Pretoria, 1997, pp. 126-9.

<sup>192</sup> The Chinese Embassy in South Africa, A Window of Chinese Culture: Van Tilburg Collection at University of Pretoria, <http://www.chinese-embassy.org.za/chn/nfgk/default.htm>; UP, University of Pretoria 2003, p. 30; Van Tilburg Collection, The J. A. Van Tilburg Collection, p. 1.

<sup>193</sup> Van Tilburg Collection, The J. A. Van Tilburg Collection, p. 1.

<sup>194</sup> J. Pillai, Brainstorming Concrete Proposal for Cultural and Heritage Tourism in South Africa, in DACST, Cultural Tourism in South Africa: papers presented at a conference of Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology, Pretoria, 1997, p. 126-7; UFH, The Liberation Archive at the University of Fort Hare, <http://www.liberation.org.za>; UFH, A Chronological History of the ANC, <http://www.ufh.ac.za/index.asp>.

get a glimpse of the history of black education in the old days and the history of the struggle for a just, non-racial democratic society in South Africa.<sup>195</sup>

Intangible attractions include attractions relating to history, religion, science, art, administration, economy, politics and way of life of a community. These attractions comprise oral traditions, expressions and language; performing arts including music and dance; traditional dress and customs, rituals and festivals; religion; cuisine; traditional craftsmanship; and cultural villages.<sup>196</sup>

According to Statistics South Africa (SSA), South Africa had a population of 46.4 million in 2003. Of these, 36.9 million were Black, 4.1 million Coloured, while some 1.1 million classified themselves as Indian and 4.2 million as White.<sup>197</sup> The population consists of the following groups: the Nguni (consisting of the Zulu, Xhosa, Ndebele and Swazi people); the Sotho-Tswana including the Southern, Northern and Western Sotho (Tswana people); the Tsonga; Venda; Afrikaners; English; Coloureds; Indians; and those who have immigrated to South Africa from the rest of Africa, Europe and Asia; and a small number of KhoiSan.<sup>198</sup> South Africa is the only country with eleven official languages in the world. The South African Constitution of 1996 (Act 108 of 1996) recognized Afrikaans, English, isiNdebele, isiXhosa, isiZulu, Sepedi, Sesotho, Setswana, siSwati, Tshivenda and Xitsonga as official languages.<sup>199</sup> Diverse nationalities with various cultural backgrounds contribute to the

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<sup>195</sup> J. Pillai, Brainstorming Concrete Proposal for Cultural and Heritage Tourism in South Africa, in DACST, Cultural Tourism in South Africa: papers presented at a conference of Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology, Pretoria, 1997, p. 127.

<sup>196</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, pp. 9, 12; DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 13; UNESCO, Intangible Heritage, [http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL\\_ID=2225&URL\\_DO=DO\\_TOPIC&URL\\_SECTION=201.html](http://portal.unesco.org/culture/en/ev.php-URL_ID=2225&URL_DO=DO_TOPIC&URL_SECTION=201.html).

<sup>197</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 1.

<sup>198</sup> *Ibid*, p. 2.

<sup>199</sup> *Ibid*; P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 139; S. Naidoo, Land of Diversity, but the Real Heart of SA is its People, *Business Day*, 2003-10-31, p. 5.

reputation of a “rainbow nation”, as well as offer a combination of the Western, African and Eastern cultural traditions for the development of tourism in South Africa.<sup>200</sup>

Every year, there are numerous colourful cultural festivals which reflect the characteristics of the different races in South Africa. They provided unique and novel opportunities for leisure, entertainment, social and cultural experiences.<sup>201</sup> The two annual significant national cultural festivals are the Klein Karoo National Arts Festival held in Oudtshoorn in March or April; and the Grahamstown National Arts Festival held in June or July.<sup>202</sup> In addition, traditional and modern African arts, such as craft, leatherwork, paintings, weaving and knitting, pottery, glass and ceramics, jewellery and woodcarving, also become important tourist magnets.<sup>203</sup> Moreover, traditional Zulu and Shangaan dancing are prevalent in Soweto. There is a unique style of dancing known as Gum Boot dancing developed on the gold mines around Johannesburg.<sup>204</sup> Some of the living musical legends in the world such as Miriam Makeba, Brenda Fassie and Hugh Masekela also shot to fame in Johannesburg’s townships.<sup>205</sup>

### **Secondary attractiveness**

South Africa has excellent tourism infrastructure, including accommodation, transport and other facilities and services for tourists, as well as conference and exhibition facilities, a wide range of sporting facilities and good communication and medical services.<sup>206</sup> These constitute key elements in the assessment of the tourism potential of a destination.

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<sup>200</sup> Anon., South Africa Welcome the Chinese Tourists, <http://www.chinasa.co.za/show.aspx?id=1494&cid=263>; L. Mtshali, Cultural Tourism: a departmental perspective, in DACST, Cultural Tourism in South Africa: papers presented at a conference of Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology, Pretoria, 1997, pp. 6-7, 13-4;

<sup>201</sup> M. J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, pp. 128-30.

<sup>202</sup> P. Kakaza, It’s always the Festive Season, *Art*, 1999, pp. 32-3. M. Neethling, To Fund or not to Fund, *South African Theatre Journal*, September 2000, pp. 202, 205.

<sup>203</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 13; P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 181.

<sup>204</sup> P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 181.

<sup>205</sup> S. Naidoo, Land of Diversity, but the Real Heart of SA is its People, *Business Day*, 2003-10-31, p. 5.

<sup>206</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 1.

Accommodation encompasses a variety of facilities and is a dynamic part of the global travel and tourism industry.<sup>207</sup> The tourist accommodation in South Africa provides a wide spectrum of accommodation from formal hotels to informal holiday flats and cottages, game lodges and reserves, guest-houses, youth hostels and bed-and-breakfast (B&B) establishments. In 2000, the Tourism Grading Council of South Africa (TGCSA) was appointed to inspect the standards in the hospitality and accommodation industry.<sup>208</sup> The National Star Grading Scheme, which was officially launched in 2001, used internationally recognized star insignia to rate accommodation establishments.<sup>209</sup> So far, 2 409 accommodation establishments in South Africa have been voluntarily graded, representing 55% of all hotel rooms and 68% of all B&B and Guest House rooms.<sup>210</sup>

Transportation, known as the “heart of the tourism industry”, provides both access to and from a destination and mobility within a destination. Its efficiency, comfort, and safety determine the quality of the tourism experience to a large extent.<sup>211</sup> The road and transport network of South Africa has been described as the best in Africa. The country boasts modern highways, airports, luxury coaches and railway networks and a more deregulated transport policy.<sup>212</sup> Airport facilities and modern road networks make most parts of the country easily accessible to tourists. Three major international airports are Johannesburg, Cape Town and Durban.<sup>213</sup> Johannesburg is the air transport hub of South Africa, catering for more than ten million passengers annually.<sup>214</sup> Luxury bus coaches travel throughout the country and accommodate a range of tour options. South Africa’s Blue Train is one of the most luxurious railways services in the world. It runs between Cape Town and Pretoria, to Hoedspruit in

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<sup>207</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 69.

<sup>208</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 542.

<sup>209</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 71.

<sup>210</sup> The Office of Marthinus van Schalkwyk, Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Completing the Golden Circle: ensuring tourism in South Africa, [http:// www.environment.gov.za](http://www.environment.gov.za), 2004-09-27.

<sup>211</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 45.

<sup>212</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 13.

<sup>213</sup> P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 145.

<sup>214</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 57.

Mpumalanga, and along a section of the Garden route between Cape Town and Port Elizabeth. A trip to the Victoria Falls in Zimbabwe is also offered.<sup>215</sup>

The South African convention and conference industry enjoyed a reasonably strong decade from 1994 to 2004, and has begun to grow at a phenomenal rate. There are about 1 700 conference venues including international convention centres in Cape Town, Durban, Sandton and Gallagher. The Cape Town International Conference Centre, which opened in July 2003, hosted over 290 000 visitors at 196 events during its first four months in operation, including sixteen international and twelve national conventions. The International Conference Centre in Durban received “Africa’s Leading Conference Centre Award” from the “World Travel Awards” for the third consecutive year. South Africa hosts approximately 1 500 conferences and exhibitions ever year.<sup>216</sup> So far, South Africa has become one of the leading conference destinations in Africa, attracting more than 63% of the continent’s total conference market. According to the International Convention and Conference Association (ICCA), South Africa ranked the 22<sup>nd</sup> on its World Top Convention Country ratings.<sup>217</sup> The Minister of the DEAT, Van Schalkwyk claimed that “[w]e aim, by 2010, to break into the top ten global conference destinations - an ambitious target, but one which we believe is highly achievable.”<sup>218</sup>

A number of high-profile global gatherings were hosted by South Africa. They were the 2002 World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) of the UN in Johannesburg; the 2003 World Parks Congress in Durban; and the 8<sup>th</sup> ICC Cricket World Cup in 2003.<sup>219</sup> In 2004, South Africa was granted the honour of hosting the 2010 Soccer World Cup, the biggest event on the African continent. According to Van Schalkwyk, hosting the 2010 Soccer World Cup has become a critical milestone for the South African tourism industry for 2010 and beyond. It was estimated that it would attract over 400 000 visitors and 40 billion viewers from 204

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<sup>215</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 546.

<sup>216</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 70.

<sup>217</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 69-70.

<sup>218</sup> Anon., Minister Happy about SA’s Tourism Ranking, *Star*, 2004-10-26, p. 5; H. Hagen, We Aim to be in Top 10: Van Schalkwyk, *Citizen*, 2004-10-26, p. 9.

<sup>219</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 70.

countries for South Africa. There would be 32 teams from Europe, North America, Latin America, Asia and Africa and 128 warm-up matches and 64 competition matches with revenue from ticket sales and taxes in the billions of Rand. The World Cup would not only open major new tourism markets for South Africa in the soccer-playing nations of the Spanish, Japanese and Portuguese-speaking world, but also positioned South Africa at the cutting-edge of global competitiveness in the tourism industry beyond the World Cup.<sup>220</sup> President Mbeki went as far as saying that the World Cup in Africa would “reaffirm common humanity and offer Africa a journey of hope”.<sup>221</sup>

These global conferences and events held in South Africa not only considerably enhanced the reputation of South Africa and Africa, but also fostered and stimulated the conference economy of South Africa. For example, 37 000 international delegates attended the WSSD in 2002, the average spending was between R 27 000 and R 39 000 in South Africa, including accommodation, transport, food and beverages and other products. The WSSD contributed R 8 billion to the South African economy.<sup>222</sup> It was estimated that conference tourism could inject some R 20 billion to the South African economy every year.<sup>223</sup>

### **Tertiary attractiveness**

Tertiary attractiveness is concerned with the promotional dimension of the tourism industry. It includes both marketing and price which are determining in this context. On the one hand, effective marketing home and abroad is one of the key elements for maximizing a country’s success of the development of international and domestic tourism.<sup>224</sup> SATOUR, later SAT, guided by the government tourism policy, launched a range of theme marketing campaigns in

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<sup>220</sup> M. van Schalkwyk, Gearing up for 2010: single greatest tourism opportunity ever, an opening address at the Third Annual National Tourism Conference, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 2004-10-13.

<sup>221</sup> Ibid.

<sup>222</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2002/03*, p. 530.

<sup>223</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 536.

<sup>224</sup> M Saayman en A. Saayman, International and Africa Tourism Markets for South Africa: an economic analysis, *Africa Insight* 33(1-2), 2003, p. 94.

line with the characteristics of unique natural and cultural resources in South Africa. Firstly, in 1994, a national tourism awareness campaign “Tourism: Share the Reward” was launched to position tourism as a major force in the economic future of South Africa and educate the members of disadvantaged communities about the economic and social benefits of tourism. Later, campaigns with various themes - “Explore South Africa 1995”, “Explore South Africa - Go Wild in 1996” and “Explore South Africa - Culture” in 1997” - were launched.<sup>225</sup> Secondly, in order to increase South African awareness about the importance of tourism in the economic growth and turn every South African into a tourism ambassador who makes visitors feel safe and welcome, the “Welcome Campaign” was inaugurated in 1999 to spearhead the building of a tourism nation.<sup>226</sup> In 2004, the government launched a R 7 million domestic tourism marketing campaign - the “Sho’t Left Campaign”, a television show. It focused on showcasing affordable and accessible holiday opportunities in nine provinces of South Africa. This campaign was aimed at promoting travel of South Africans; encouraging locals, especially those who have never travelled before, to tour South Africa, as well as changing perceptions that travelling was expensive and impossible particularly during off-season holidays.<sup>227</sup> Thirdly, specific global marketing campaigns for core international markets were launched between 2002 and 2004: “Sunsation Campaign” in the UK, the “Woza Campaign” in Germany”, “My South African Story” Campaign, the “Upscale Wanderlusters” and “Next Stop South Africa” in the USA, the ‘Live the Moment’ campaign in India, and the “Great Urban Getaway” in Kenya and Tanzania. In addition, the “Call of South Africa Campaign” was also launched in 2004 to target senior explorers and international travellers.<sup>228</sup> Fourthly, “Indaba”, the African premier annual travel and trade exhibition initiated in 1979, becomes an annual significant event both in the South African tourism industry and in South Africa. It

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<sup>225</sup> M. J. S. Jordaan, *Tourism in South Africa*, p. 51; Z. U. Ahmed et al, *Tourism in South Africa: uneven prospects*, *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*39(6), December 1998, p. 83.

<sup>226</sup> DEAT, SA Welcome Campaign, <http://www.environment.gov.za>; DEAT, SA Welcome Campaign: consents, <http://www.environment.gov.za>; DEAT, South Africa’s Welcome Campaign Finds New Home, <http://www.environment.gov.za>, 2000-02-23.

<sup>227</sup> P. Hlahla, Learn to Love and Know SA, *Pretoria News*, 2005-08-18, p. 5; Anon., Tourism Campaign is a Huge Success, *Express*, 2004-11-24, p. 6.

<sup>228</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 68; C. Hooper-box, New Holiday Deals to Lure US, *Sunday Independent*, 2003-01-26, p. 4; D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 536.

revolves around effectively marketing South Africa as a preferred international tourism destination and promoting high quality tourism products to the international market.<sup>229</sup>

On the other hand, price has always been a major issue to develop South Africa as a long-haul destination. There has been an old perception that South Africa was an expensive destination.<sup>230</sup> Didi Moyle, the Chief research officer of the SAT, also believed that, over the last two years, South Africa had been seen by the international market as more expensive than Botswana, which was traditionally a luxury destination.<sup>231</sup> Moreover, in recent years, the weak rand made South Africa a cheap destination for those paying in foreign currencies.<sup>232</sup>

#### **IV. Conclusion**

Tourism has had a great impact on the South African social development since the establishment of the new democratic South Africa in 1994. On the one hand, over the past decade, tourism has grown from a “Cinderella” industry to one of the most vibrant economic sectors in South Africa.<sup>233</sup> According to the statistics of the SAT, between 1994 and 2003, the international tourism receipts rose from R 6.9 billion to R53.9 billion; and domestic tourism receipts from R 12.4 billion up to R 49.3 billion.<sup>234</sup> In 2003, international tourism receipts outstripped the foreign receipts of gold mining of R 35.3 billion. For this, tourism obtained a reputation as the “new gold mine” in South Africa. In addition, it was estimated by the WTTC that one job was created for every eight tourists travelling to South Africa, a significant figure for South Africa with an unemployment rate of 30 %.<sup>235</sup> According to the

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<sup>229</sup> Anon., Indaba: proudly exhibiting South Africa’s synergy, from then to now, <http://www.indaba-southafrica.com>.

<sup>230</sup> E. T. Heath, International Marketing of South Africa as a Tourist Destination: results of strategic work sessions held with key members of the trade in the UK, Europe and the USA, as cited by D. Cronson, *Tourism to Post-apartheid South Africa: an international perspective*, p. 27.

<sup>231</sup> N. Moodley, Price Seen as a Major Issue, *Star*, 2005-06-07, p. 5.

<sup>232</sup> S. Graham, Tourists Escape into “Safe” SA, *Star*, 2003-03-17, p. 14.

<sup>233</sup> Anon., Entrepreneurs Flock to Tourism Sector, *Business Day*, 2005-09-21, p. 11.

<sup>234</sup> SAT, 2003 Annual Tourism Report, p. 1; S. van Wyk, Playing Fair, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 2005-06-30, p. 13; P. Lawlor, Tourism may End up being the New Gold Mine SA Needs, *Star*, 2003-02-10, p. 12.

<sup>235</sup> S. Graham, Tourists Escape into ‘Safe’ SA, *Star*, 2003-03-17, p. 14.

SAT, the tourism industry provided about 539 017 direct jobs in 2004.<sup>236</sup> The DEAT foresees that tourism will create more than 67 300 direct jobs opportunities by the year 2007<sup>237</sup> and 1.2 million direct and indirect jobs by the year 2010.<sup>238</sup>

Tourism can also help the people, particularly those in the poorest areas, alleviate poverty, a major challenge for the new government after 1994. Cheryl Carolus said that “[t]ourism has been identified as one of South Africa’s top five leading growth industries for its ability to contribute towards the eradication of poverty and closing the gap between rich and poor through the sharing of an expanding tourism cake.”<sup>239</sup> In South Africa, most of the conservation areas are located in isolated areas, where the people are generally hampered by poverty. The growth of tourism creates jobs and income for these people, who benefit from their traditional lands and wildlife. For instance, in St. Lucia Wetland, there are five cultural groups - Zulu, Swazi, Shangaan, Tonga and a relict group of Gonda speakers. As the former Deputy President Jacob Zuma put it, “It is the co-existence of beauty and poverty that constitutes the great challenge of Maputaland: to use the natural beauty of the place to bring reconstruction and development to the people of the region.”<sup>240</sup> Moreover, the manufacture of art and crafts also creates SMMEs, BEE and self-employment, which includes the poorest groups in the metropolitan centers to remote rural areas.<sup>241</sup>

On the other hand, tourism can promote cultural awareness as well as understanding between South Africa and other countries.<sup>242</sup> Niagara College Director Jos Nolle stated that “[p]eople visit other places, meet people from different backgrounds and cultures and develop an understanding of other ways of life that should make them more tolerant.”<sup>243</sup> Tourism can also induce a renaissance of a national culture and arouse a new awareness of old cultural

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<sup>236</sup> 2004 Annual Tourism Report, p. 1.

<sup>237</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 2.

<sup>238</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 535.

<sup>239</sup> Anon., Viva, 2010, *Star*, 2004-06-18, p. 12.

<sup>240</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 77.

<sup>241</sup> *Ibid*, p. 2.

<sup>242</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 373; L. Elias, SA “Set to Benefit from Tourism”, *Daily Dispatch*, 2005-09-23, p. 6.

<sup>243</sup> L. Elias, SA “Set to Benefit from Tourism”, *Daily Dispatch*, 2005-09-23, p. 6.

traditions and dying local arts and crafts. Once local inhabitants realize that their indigenous culture has the potential to attract tourists, they will try to preserve it.<sup>244</sup>

However, every coin has two sides. Tourism results in a series of social problems, such as crime, prostitution, HIV/AIDS and changing social norms.<sup>245</sup> Firstly, South Africa is one of the world's most violent countries with more than 20 000 murders in 1995 as a result of massive poverty and unemployment as well as wide disparities between whites and blacks.<sup>246</sup> With the arrivals of tourists, crime increases because some residents perceive tourists as being wealthy soft targets. Criminal incidents against tourists, such as thefts and muggings, doubled from 1995 to 1996 in downtown Cape Town.<sup>247</sup> Secondly, South Africa is currently the country with the fastest growing HIV/AIDS epidemic in Africa. In 1999, 250 000 South Africans died of AIDS. In June 2002, there were 4.2 million South African adults infected with HIV, about 20% of the adult population.<sup>248</sup> Tourism is also believed to stimulate prostitution, which is one of the most important sources to spread HIV/AIDS.<sup>249</sup> Thirdly, tourism can lead to negative effects on host communities. When the locals have contacts with tourists, they are aware of the differences between themselves and the tourists and become dissatisfied with their own standard of living or way of life. They begin to imitate or emulate fashion, lifestyles and behaviour of tourists. As a result, traditional dress and lifestyle are discarded so that traditional cultural characteristics are lost.<sup>250</sup>

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<sup>244</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 373.

<sup>245</sup> F. Hanekom, Cultural Tourism, a departmental perspective, in DACST, *Cultural Tourism in South Africa: papers presented at a conference of Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology, Pretoria, 1997*, p.11.

<sup>246</sup> Z. U. Ahmed et al, Tourism in South Africa: uneven prospects, *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 39(6), December 1998, pp. 83-4; J. Bloom, A South African Perspective of Effects of Crime and Violence on the Tourism industry, in A. Pizam en Y. Mansfeld, *Tourism, Crime and International Security Issues*, Chichester, 1996, pp. 91, 93.

<sup>247</sup> H. Keyser, *Tourism Development*, p. 351; J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 373; Z. U. Ahmed et al, Tourism in South Africa: uneven prospects, *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 39(6), December 1998, p. 83.

<sup>248</sup> P. van Dyk, P. van Dyk, *Introduction to Tourist Guiding*, p. 216.

<sup>249</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 374.

<sup>250</sup> *Ibid*; H. Keyser, *Tourism Development*, p. 349.

It was stated in the 1996 White Paper that “[t]ourism development in South Africa has largely been a missed opportunity. Had its history been different, South Africa would probably have been one of the most visited places in the world.”<sup>251</sup> Although the development of tourism in South Africa has been a “missed opportunity” as a result of apartheid and subsequent international sanctions in its complicated history, freedom and democracy brought a boom to tourism. Van Schalkwyk argued that South Africa has developed from “a nation on the margins of global tourism” into “the fastest-growing tourism destination” through “[t]en years of hard work”.<sup>252</sup> He added that “South Africa transformed itself from a tourism indifferent country to one of the world’s greatest must-see destinations and a world leader in responsible, sustainable tourism initiatives.”<sup>253</sup> The rapid growth of tourism indicated that South Africa had a realistic opportunity to establish itself as an international destination.<sup>254</sup> It has great strengths of a tourism destination in line with world-class standards including unique scenery; diverse wildlife; a kaleidoscope of cultures and heritages; endless opportunities to explore the outdoors through sport and adventure activities; and a wide range of developed infrastructures.<sup>255</sup> The 1995 review on African tourism by the WTO considered South Africa as “one of the most promising tourism destinations of the African continent”. The Horwath 1995 Worldwide Hotel Industry Review also concluded that South Africa’s tourism potential “is outstanding, providing peace and harmony remain”.<sup>256</sup> In 2003, although global tourist arrivals declined by 1.3% to 694 million as a result of the Iraq conflict, the SARS and a persistently weak world economy, international arrivals to South Africa were considered robust with South Africa managing to outperform most of its main competitors.<sup>257</sup> According to the WTO, the overall annual growth rate in international tourism for the period

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<sup>251</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 4.

<sup>252</sup> N. Jenvey, Van Schalkwyk Hails SA Tourism’s Successes, *Business Day*, 2004-05-10, p. 1; J. Gowans, Tourism “growth giant wakens”, *Citizens*, 2005-05-09, p. 6.

<sup>253</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 2.

<sup>254</sup> L. Padayachy, SA can be Top of the Pops, says Carolus, *Sunday Times Business Times*, 2002-01-27.

<sup>255</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook. 2004/05*, p. 535; DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 1.

<sup>256</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 1.

<sup>257</sup> Anon., SA Tourism Achieved Growth Compared to Global Markets, *Natal Witness*, 2004-03-22, p. 5; Anon., SA Tourism Bucks the Global Trend, *Star*, 2004-03-23, p. 9; Anon., Tourism on the Move, *Daily News*, 2004-05-10, p. 5.

from 1995 to 2020 will be above the overall African and global average, at 8.0%. By 2020, there will be 30.5 million international arrivals, 39.5 % and 2% of the total African and global international arrivals respectively. 7.2 % of annual growth rate (Table 4. 2).<sup>258</sup>

Origin markets	1995 arrivals (thousand)	Forecasts (thousand)		Growth Rates (% p.a.)		
		2010	2020	1995-2020	2000-2010	2010-2020
<b>Lesotho</b>	1 054	1 489	1 906	2.4	3.0	2.5
<b>Zimbabwe</b>	724	1 653	2 567	5.2	5.0	4.5
<b>Swaziland</b>	648	1 479	2 297	5.2	5.0	4.5
<b>Botswana</b>	352	1 918	4 140	10.4	10.0	8.0
<b>United Kingdom</b>	244	1 327	2 865	10.4	10.0	8.0
<b>Namibia</b>	212	401	565	4.0	4.0	3.5
<b>Germany</b>	168	1 195	2 829	12.0	12.0	9.0
<b>Mozambique</b>	128	911	2 157	12.0	12.0	9.0
<b>United States</b>	104	735	1 740	12.0	12.0	9.0
<b>France</b>	54	494	1 169	13.1	14.0	9.0
<b>Other</b>	802	3 665	8 287	9.8	10.0	8.5
<b>Total</b>	4 488	15 267	30 523	8.0	8.1	7.2

Table 4. 2 Top ten international arrivals in South Africa 2020

From: WTO, *Tourism 2020 Vision (Vol.1): Africa* (Madrid, 2000), p. 63.

Van Schalkwyk attributed these great achievements to concerted efforts of the government, tourism private sectors and all South Africans.<sup>259</sup> Firstly, in the earlier period of the development of tourism, the government set the key guiding principles for “responsible tourism” as being government-led, private sector-driven and community-based.<sup>260</sup> At the beginning of the twenty-first century, the government focused on two major goals in the development of tourism: integrating historically disadvantaged communities into the mainstream of the tourism economy and building a world-class tourism destination.<sup>261</sup> As a result, a corpse of specific strategies emerged. On the one hand, the government issued the new Tourism Second Amendment Act No. 70 of 2000. This amendment not only professionalized the tourist guide sector in all provinces with the appointment of the national and provincial registrar, but also ensured that the majority of the people were in the

<sup>258</sup> WTO, *Tourism 2020 Vision (Vol.1): Africa*, pp. 23, 45, 63.

<sup>259</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 2.

<sup>260</sup> DEAT, *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa 1996*, p. 23.

<sup>261</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 15.

mainstream of tourist guiding.<sup>262</sup> The Cabinet also approved the Tourism Transformation Strategy in 2001 with the main aim of changing the nature of the South African tourism industry from one that was predominately white owned to one that is owned equitably by the majority of South Africans. The strategy identified four subsections of the industry that offer significant economic opportunities for black business: catering, transport, accommodation and conferencing.<sup>263</sup> In 2005, the Tourism Black Economic Empowerment Charter was unveiled at the Tourism Indaba. The Charter incorporated an industry scorecard and demonstrated a firm commitment on the part of the industry to make tourism “everybody’s business”.<sup>264</sup> It proposed empowerment targets for ownership, management, employment equity, skills development, enterprise development, preferential procurement and social development. The tourism industry became the first industry to come up with its own BEE charter.<sup>265</sup> Secondly, private sectors contributed greatly to the development of tourism in South Africa. Sol Kerzner, known as “Sun King”, who has greatly influenced the tourism industry of South Africa for nearly half a century, made new contributions in the new democratic South Africa. In 2003, the Kerznerns announced a luxurious six-star resort to be built at the Victoria & Alfred Waterfront in Cape Town. This new 150-room one and only luxury hotel with the investment of more than R 450 million will be one of the most expensive hotel developments in Africa.<sup>266</sup> They also donated R 20 million for the construction of a new School of Tourism and Hospitality at the Technikon Witwatersrand campus, which is the current University of Johannesburg.<sup>267</sup> In addition, Kerzner and

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<sup>262</sup> DEAT, Government Committed to Greater Equity in the South Africa Tourism Industry, Says Moosa, <http://www.environment.gov.za>.

<sup>263</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, pp. 11, 15.

<sup>264</sup> J. Gowans, Tourism “growth giant wakens” *Citizens*, 2005-05-09, p. 6; S. van Wyk, Playing Fair, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 2005-06-30, p. 13.

<sup>265</sup> S. Njobeni, Lucrative Business Tourism Takes off, *Business Day*, 2005-08-23, p. 9.

<sup>266</sup> Anon., South African Hotelier, Sol Kerzner Likely to Hand Control of Kerzner International Over to Son, Butch by End of Year, [http://www.hotel-online.com/News/PR2003\\_3rd/Sep03\\_SolKerzner.html](http://www.hotel-online.com/News/PR2003_3rd/Sep03_SolKerzner.html); Anon., Sun King Setting SA Tourism Aglow, *Saturday Star*, 2003-11-15, p. 1; Anon., Sun King Setting SA Tourism Aglow, *Saturday Star*, 2003-11-15, p. 1; J. Gordin, Kerzner Invests Heart and Sol into Local Tourism, *Saturday Star*, 2003-11-15, p. 5.

<sup>267</sup> Anon., Sun King Setting SA Tourism Aglow, *Saturday Star*, 2003-11-15, p. 1; Anon., Kerzner Contribution Reflects Commitment to South Africa, *Star*, 2005-08-31, p. 4.

Kerzner International were dedicated to assisting the School to link up with the New York School of Hospitality Management and other international hospitality training institutions.<sup>268</sup> Thirdly, all South Africans must become one of the key elements which stimulate the development of tourism. Valli Moosa already attributed the growth of the tourism industry to the hospitality that local people have shown to visitors.<sup>269</sup>

However, South Africa has as yet not been able to realize its full potential in tourism. Some specific targets in the 1996 White Paper and the 1998 GEAR in Tourism about the contribution to employment, income and foreign earnings have not been realized. Small business development in the tourism industry remains limited. There is still red tape making it difficult for small businesses to be set up in the tourism industry and contribute to its growth.<sup>270</sup> Moreover, the development of outbound tourism, a key indicator of an advanced tourism country, despite its existence, has not been put into the schedule of the development of tourism. According President Mbeki, South Africa is “in that period of time which the Setswana-speaking people of Southern Africa graphically described as ‘Mahube a naka tsa Kgomo’ - the dawning of the dawn, when only the tips of the horns of cattle can be seen etched against the morning sky”. “As the sun continues to rise to banish the darkness of the long years of colonialism and apartheid, what the new light over our land must show is a nation diligently at work to create better life for itself.”<sup>271</sup> A decade is too short a time for South Africa to eradicate so many deep-rooted historical and social problems. The South African government is currently devoting its greatest efforts to realize its goals of social, economic and cultural development in the second decade of democracy, a strategy which includes tourism. South Africa, as a young democratic country, is on the way to becoming a world-class destination and a strong tourism nation.

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<sup>268</sup> Anon., Kerzner Contribution Reflects commitment to South Africa, *Star*, 2005-08-31, p. 4; J. Gordin, Kerzner Invests Heart and Sol into Local Tourism, *Saturday Star*, 2003-11-15, p. 5.

<sup>269</sup> V. Ndlovu, Moosa Attributes Tourism Growth to Locals, *Sowetan*, 2003-11-19, p. 7.

<sup>270</sup> B. Stuart, “Open Skies” Policy to Help Tourism: DA, *Citizen*, 2003-04-30, p. 9.

<sup>271</sup> T. Mbeki, A Message from President, in People’s Daily, *Celebrating Ten Years of Freedom in South Africa and the South Africa-China Partnership*, p. 1.

## Chapter 5

### Chinese outbound tourism to South Africa since 1998

#### I. Introduction

This chapter presents the recent rapid development of Chinese outbound tourism to South Africa. It considers the reason for this, as well as the Chinese travel characteristics formed by Chinese cultural ecology; psychological theories (including psychocentric-alloentric approach, the travel career ladder and push-pull factors); and a market survey of Chinese tourists in South Africa. It focuses mainly on an analysis of factors that motivate Chinese tourists to come to South Africa. It also investigates Chinese perceptions of South Africa prior to and after visiting South Africa. It explores the barriers experienced by Chinese tourists coming to South Africa as well as the competition South Africa is facing as a destination. The strategies and efforts that the South African government has made in the development of the Chinese outbound tourism market will also be considered along with the economic and cultural impacts of Chinese tourists on South Africa. According to the increase of the arrivals of Chinese tourists in South Africa between 1998 and 2003, it finally develops a model to forecast Chinese tourist arrivals to South Africa between 2006 and 2010.

As was discussed in Chapter Two, with the rapid growth of the Chinese economy, the increase of disposable income and leisure time, the improvement of the physical and intellectual quality of the Chinese lifestyle, the transformation of the conception of consumption and the favourable and flexible government tourism policies, tourism in China has developed in a phenomenal way.<sup>1</sup> Since the 1990s, in order to develop China from a “big tourism country” to a “powerful tourism country”,<sup>2</sup> the Chinese government has carried out

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<sup>1</sup> W. Zhang, China's Domestic Tourism: impetus, development and trends, *Tourism Management* 18(8), 1997, p. 566; The School of Travel Industry Management of University of Hawaii, Identifying and Analyzing the Chinese Outbound Market for Hawaii, pp. 1-2; WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, p. 17; D. Liu, An Analysis and Forecast of the Development of Domestic Tourism in China, in TRCCASS, *A Green Book of China's Tourism 2001-2003*, <http://www.lianghui.org.cn/chinese/zhuanti/234746.htm>, 2002-11-09.

<sup>2</sup> G. Zhang en A. A. Lew, Introduction: China's tourism boom, in A. A. Lew et al (eds.), *Tourism in China*, New York, 2003, p. 8.

an array of policies to quicken the development of Chinese outbound tourism. These policies include the introduction of a single currency; the relaxation of travel restrictions; and the increase of the number of countries with the ADS.<sup>3</sup>

The milestones - reform and opening up launched in China in 1978 and the establishment of a new democratic South Africa in 1994 - resulted in the dramatic development of tourism in both China and South Africa. The normalization of the diplomatic relations in 1998 contributed greatly to the cooperation between the two countries in various areas, in which much was achieved in tourism.<sup>4</sup> In December 2001, during the state visit of South African President Thabo Mbeki to China to launch the “China - South Africa Bi-National Commission”, the then Chinese President Jiang Zemin announced the granting of the ADS to South Africa for Chinese tourists. This decisive move, for the first time ever, enabled designated travel agents to do direct destination marketing in China, thus significantly boosting travel to South Africa by Chinese tourists.<sup>5</sup> President Mbeki hailed the announcement as “an unquestioning expression of confidence by the government of the People’s Republic of China about the quality of the tourism product and the people of South Africa. This recognizes that we are a leading destination that has all it takes to satisfy the expectations of the Chinese tourists.”<sup>6</sup> Valli Moosa believed that “[i]t will give South Africa access to a huge market and a very competitive edge in the tourism world.”<sup>7</sup> Owen Leed, CEO of the SAT, also believed that it is “fantastic news for the South African tourism market” and “it will mean a dramatic increase in the number of Chinese commercial travellers visiting the country.”<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> The School of Travel Industry Management of University of Hawaii, Identifying and Analyzing the Chinese Outbound Market for Hawaii, p. 1; H. Qiu Zhang en T. Lam, An Analysis of Mainland Chinese Visitors’ Motivations to Visit Hong Kong, *Tourism Management* 20(5), 1999, p. 588; WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, pp. 9-11, 21.

<sup>4</sup> MOFA, China and South Africa, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/wjlb/zjzg/fzs/jlb/3094/tl6576.htm>, 2003-10-12; G. Liu, China-Africa Relations: equality, cooperation and mutual development: speech at the seminar on Sino-African relations, 2004-11-09, <http://www.Chinese-embassy.org.za/eng/67621.html>.

<sup>5</sup> DEAT, Chinese Government Grants SA “Approved Destination Status”, <http://www.environment.gov.za>; The Office of the President of the PRC, China Grants South Africa an Approved Destination Status, <http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/pr/2001/pr1210.html>, 2001-12-10.

<sup>6</sup> The Office of the President of the PRC, China Grants South Africa an Approved Destination Status, <http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/pr/2001/pr1210.html>.

<sup>7</sup> S. Graham, A Great Wall Crumbles as SA Lays out Red Carpet, *Sunday Times*, 2002-10-20, p. 9.

<sup>8</sup> K. Maughan, Flood of Chinese Visitors can be Expected thanks to Beijing Deal, *Cape Argus*, 2001-12-12, p.9.

In November 2002, China and South Africa signed the “Memorandum of Understanding on the Implementation Plan for Organized Group Travel by Chinese Citizens to South Africa”, making South Africa officially the first sub-Saharan African country and the second country in Africa (the first being Egypt in the earlier 2002) to have been granted the ADS by the Chinese government for self-financed Chinese tourists.<sup>9</sup> In April 2003, the Memorandum was formally implemented.<sup>10</sup> This agreement not only contributed to millions of rands worth of foreign exchange flowing into South Africa from China, one of the fastest-growing markets in the world, but also was another boost for the South African already thriving tourism industry.<sup>11</sup> Between 1998 and 2003, the number of Mainland Chinese tourists coming to South Africa has increased from 11 755 to 30 753, the CAGR of 17.2% (Figure 5. 1).<sup>12</sup> After receiving the ADS, in 2003, Chinese tourist arrivals increased 26.8% compared with that of 2002.

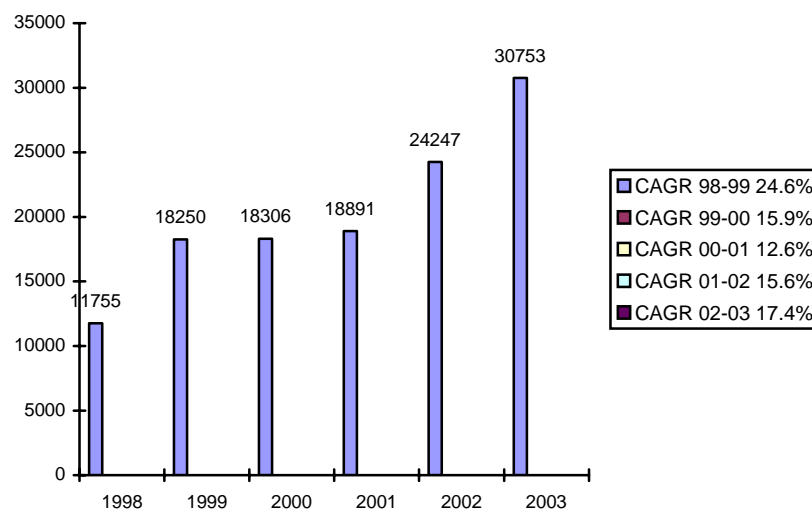


Figure 5. 1 Mainland Chinese arrivals to South Africa 1998-2003

Adapted from: South African Embassy of the PRC, Chinese Tourist Arrivals in South Africa 1998-2004, Email, 2005-02-17.

<sup>9</sup> MOFA, China and South Africa, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/wjw/zzjg/fzs/gjlb/3094/tl6576.htm>, 2003-10-12; Li Zhaoxing, Building on Past Success and Working Together for a Better Tomorrow, in People’s Daily, *Celebrating Ten Years of Freedom in South Africa and the South Africa-China Partnership*, p. 6; DEAT, Off to China to Sign a MOU for ADS, <http://www.satsa.com/news/messages/108.html>, 2002-11-13.

<sup>10</sup> G. Liu, China National Day: a message from ambassador, *Star*, 2003-10-01, p. 15; Li Zhaoxing, Building on Past Success and Working Together for a Better Tomorrow, in People’s Daily, *Celebrating Ten Years of Freedom in South Africa and the South Africa-China Partnership*, p. 6.

<sup>11</sup> S. Graham, A Great Wall Crumbles as SA Lays out Red Carpet, *Sunday Times*, 2002-10-20, p. 9.

<sup>12</sup> South African Embassy of the PRC, Chinese Tourist Arrivals in South Africa 1998-2004, Email, 2005-02-17.

## II. Motivation of Chinese tourists to South Africa

Motivation relates to the inner desire for satisfaction, which is manifested in a number of ways.<sup>13</sup> The WTO classified tourist motivation into three categories: leisure, recreation and holidays; business and professional; and other, including visiting friends and relatives, health treatment, religion, pilgrimages and further unspecified groupings.<sup>14</sup> A group of tourism scholars of the USA classified tourist motivation in various ways. John L. Crompton argued that tourists' motivations were multiple and people have different reasons to take their travels.<sup>15</sup> He classified motivation into two types: socio-psychological and cultural. The socio-psychological motivation included escape from a perceived mundane environment, exploration and evaluation of self, relaxation, prestige, regression, enhancement of kinship relationships, and facilitation of social interaction. Cultural motivation comprised novelty and education.<sup>16</sup> Lloyd E. Hudman and Donald E. Hawkins argued that motivations can be classified into nine categories: health, curiosity, sports, pleasure, spiritual or religious, professional and business, friends and relatives, roots syndrome and esteem.<sup>17</sup> Robert W. McIntosh and Charles R. Goeldner argued that basic travel motivators could be divided into four categories: physical motivators, cultural motivators, interpersonal motivators and status and prestige motivators.<sup>18</sup> However, Chinese tourism scholars, Zhao Changhua and Wang Hongbin, indicated that, in addition to the above four motivators, economic motivators should be added.<sup>19</sup> In combining the theories of the above, the following motivations for Chinese tourists coming to South Africa can be identified:

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<sup>13</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp. 73-4.

<sup>14</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 139.

<sup>15</sup> J. L. Crompton, Motivations for Pleasure Vacation, *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(4), 1979, pp. 408-24, as cited by M. Kozak, Comparative Analysis of Tourist Motivation by Nationality and Destinations, *Tourism Management* 23(3), 2002, p. 222.

<sup>16</sup> J. L. Crompton, Motivations for Pleasure Vacation, *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(4), 1979, pp. 408-24, as cited by D. Fodness, Measuring Tourist Motivation, *Annals of Tourism Research* 21(3), 1994, p. 557.

<sup>17</sup> L. E. Hudman en D. E. Hawkins, *Tourism in Contemporary Society: an introductory text*, pp. 38-42.

<sup>18</sup> R. W. McIntosh en C. R. Goeldner, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, pp. 131-2.

<sup>19</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 12; H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 75.

- physical motivators - these are related to physical rest, sports participation, beach recreation, relaxing entertainment, and other motivations directly connected with health. These motivations are to reduce tension through physical activities;
- cultural motivators - these are associated with the desire to know about other people's culture such as their food, music, art, folklore, dances, painting, religion, inhabitants, customs and lifestyles;
- interpersonal motivators - these include a desire to meet new people, visit friends and relatives, escape from routine or from family and neighbours, or make new friends;
- status and prestige motivators - these concern ego needs and personal development. In this context, trips are related to business, conventions, study, and the pursuit of hobbies and education. The desire for recognition, attention, appreciation, knowledge, and good reputation can be fulfilled in travel;<sup>20</sup> and
- economic motivators - these include shopping and business purposes. Shopping trips are highly consuming behaviors while business trips are for business investigation, negotiations and transactions.<sup>21</sup>

As far as information on tourist motivation is concerned, American tourism scholar, Chuck Y. Gee, the Dean of the School of Travel Industry Management at the University of Hawaii, and Eduardo Fayos-Sola, the Director of Education and Training of the WTO, believed that there were three sources:

- the history of tourism and sociological commentaries on the changing needs of travellers in different eras;
- systematic theories of tourist motivation on a long history of psychology and motivation; and
- the practice of market research and survey studies.<sup>22</sup>

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<sup>20</sup> R. W. McIntosh en C. R. Goeldner, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, pp. 131-2.

<sup>21</sup> C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 12.

<sup>22</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 148.

Australian tourism scholar, Philip L. Pearce, also believed that there were three main sources of ideas to assist in answering questions concerning travel motivation:

- historical and literary accounts of travels and travellers;
- discipline of psychology and its long history of trying to understand and explain human behaviours; and
- current practices of tourism industry researchers.<sup>23</sup>

Based on the above theories, factors forming travel motivation of Chinese tourists will be analyzed according to three aspects: Chinese travel characteristics, psychology of Chinese tourists and a market survey of Chinese tourists coming to South Africa.

### **Chinese travel characteristics**

The national characteristics refer to the common psychology of a community, which shares common language, common region, common economic life, and common psychology manifested in their national culture as a result of historical development.<sup>24</sup> The formation of the national characteristics and the travel characteristics depends mainly on the cultural ecology of a nation, comprising four factors: natural or geographical settings, economy, social system and ideology.<sup>25</sup> In general, national travel characteristics can be categorized as primary and secondary travel characteristics. The primary travel characteristics, formed in alienated geographical and social settings, are basic travel characteristics of a nation. The secondary travel characteristics, formed in multicultural international settings, become a supplement to the primary travel characteristics.<sup>26</sup> For Chinese travellers, the primary travel characteristics are steady and reserved, while the secondary travel characteristics are

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<sup>23</sup> P. L. Pearce, *Pleasure Travel Motivation*, in C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, New York, 2000, p. 255.

<sup>24</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 143; Z. Cai en W. Li, *Chinese Cultural Heritage (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, p. 7; E. Bao et al (eds.), *Encyclopedia of China: nationality*, pp. 1, 306.

<sup>25</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, pp. 137-8, 144.

<sup>26</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 144-5, 172-3.

adventurous.<sup>27</sup> This section will explore Chinese travel characteristics formed in Chinese cultural ecology: a semi-closed continent surrounded by mountains and oceans; an economy based on agriculture; the hieratical social system of the monarchy and the patriarchy; and the ideologies dominated by the Confucian ideology.<sup>28</sup>

According to Sun Zhongshan (Sun Yatsen 1866-1925), the founder of the Republic of China (1911-1949), “[a] nation or race is formed by natural forces.”<sup>29</sup> China is located in the east of the Asia continent, on the western shore of the Pacific Ocean. To the northwest, there is the Pamirs; to the southwest, the Himalayas, the highest mountain in the world; in the north, the Taklamakan Desert, the largest desert in China; from the east to the south coast, the Pacific Ocean. It is therefore argued that China is a semi-closed continent surrounded by mountains, deserts and oceans and this contributed to an uninterrupted and self-centred Chinese civilization in the history of China.<sup>30</sup> The natural setting prevented ancient Chinese travels due to the inconvenience of transportation. It also culturally alienated the Chinese cultural exchange with Central Asia and Europe in the west as well as India in the southwest.<sup>31</sup> As a result, by the first millennium BC, the Chinese thought of China as “All-Under-Heaven” (Tianxia) or “the center of countries” (Zhongguo).<sup>32</sup>

The terrain of China, descending from west to east like a staircase, can be divided into four steps: Qinghai-Tibet Plateau, known as the “roof of the world”; Inner Mongolia Plateau, the Loess Plateau, the Yunnan-Guizhou Plateau, the Tarim Basin, the Junggar Basin and the Sichuan Basin; Greater Hingan, Taihang, Wushan and Xuefeng mountain ranges extending eastwards to the coast of the Pacific Ocean; and Northeast Plains, the North China Plain and

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<sup>27</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, pp. 144-5.

<sup>28</sup> Ibid, pp. 139, 151-60; Z. Cai en W. Li, *Chinese Cultural Heritage (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp. 16-30.

<sup>29</sup> L. Chen, *An Introduction to Chinese Culture*, p. 4.

<sup>30</sup> New Star Publishers, *China 2002*, p. 12; L. Wang, *China Tourism: 999 questions and answers*, p. 2; Z. Cai en W. Li, *Chinese Cultural Heritage (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, p. 16; C. Liou et al, *Lonely Planet: China*, p. 46.

<sup>31</sup> Z. Cai en W. Li, *Chinese Cultural Heritage (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, p. 16; G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, pp.152-3.

<sup>32</sup> P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, p. 13; L. Wang, *China Tourism: 999 questions and answers*, p. 1.

the Middle-Lower Yantze Plain.<sup>33</sup> These geographical settings formed two major economic types of ancient China: agriculture and animal husbandry.<sup>34</sup> Since the Xia Dynasty, agriculture has been a dominant factor in the ancient Chinese economy. The old principle of “founding the country on agriculture” persisted until the end of the Qing Dynasty. The “farming culture” was regarded as the economic foundation and the mainstream of Chinese culture.<sup>35</sup> As a result, farmers were generally entrenched in the lands and lived a stable and static farming life of “beginning to work at sunrise and resting at sunset.” This life formed the psychology of Chinese farmers: loving to live in one place and wishing for stability and peace, neither going to extremes nor being short of harmony.<sup>36</sup> In addition, under the influence of the Chinese farming ideology of “no pains, no gains”, a pragmatic spirit was formed among the Chinese. In ancient Chinese ideologies, travellers were regarded as “idlers” and travelling as not being pragmatic.<sup>37</sup>

The patriarchal social structure and monarchical political institutions remained unchanged from the Han Dynasty until the end of the Qing Dynasty in 1911.<sup>38</sup> This social system deterred mass travel in ancient China. The patriarchy stressed the importance of both blood ties and native lands. The people of the same clan liked to live together. A man could not leave his family and clan to work alone, even when he was engaged in business and manufacturing.<sup>39</sup> Their kinship and the attachment to their native lands led to the belief that the native lands were the terminal of their life journey, as well as the Chinese psychology of “loving one’s homeland and not wishing to leave”.<sup>40</sup> Moreover, travel was regarded as “hard

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<sup>33</sup> New Star Publishers, *China 2002*, pp. 12-4; C. Liou et al, *Lonely Planet: China*, pp. 47-8.

<sup>34</sup> Z. Cai en W. Li, *Chinese Cultural Heritage (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp. 18-20.

<sup>35</sup> W. Hou et al (eds.), *Encyclopedia of China: history (Vol. I)*, p. 2; Z. Cai en W. Li, *Chinese Cultural Heritage (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp. 20, 22; L. Chen, *An Introduction to Chinese Culture*, p. 98.

<sup>36</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 154; Z. Cai en W. Li, *Chinese Cultural Heritage (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, pp.18,23.

<sup>37</sup> Z. Cai en W. Li, *Chinese Cultural Heritage (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, p. 18, 22-3; G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 29.

<sup>38</sup> Y. Wu, China, in J. Kopstein en M. Lichbach (eds.), *Comparative Politics: interests, identities, and institutions in a changing global order*, Cambridge, 2000, p. 232.

<sup>39</sup> L. Chen, *An Introduction to Chinese Culture*, p. 99.

<sup>40</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 7.

travel (Ji lu)”<sup>41</sup> Poor facilities including accommodation, food and transport resulted in physical discomforts and risks of lives.<sup>42</sup> As a result, the Chinese became “the people who fear travelling most,” as Liang Shiqiu (1903-1987), one of the greatest Chinese contemporary writers and scholars, wrote in his work *Essays of the Elegant House*.<sup>43</sup>

On the other hand, in order to prohibit flux, reduce the number of idlers and keep the society in order, the government of various dynasties discouraged the Chinese to travel, particularly travel among people of low social status.<sup>44</sup> In the Zhou Dynasty, curfew was introduced and travelling at night was prohibited. It was regulated that “no pass, no travel”.<sup>45</sup> In the Qin Dynasty, the central government promulgated a corpse of legislation: Law of Travellers, Law of Garrisons, Law of Capturing Thieves and Robbers and Law of Travel.<sup>46</sup> However, the government encouraged the upper class including royal members, officials and scholars to travel. Imperial inspection tours, scholar-official travels and academic travels became major forms of travel in ancient China.<sup>47</sup> As already mentioned in Chapter Two, the various imperial tours played an important part in the unification of the feudal centralized nation and the territorial integrity.<sup>48</sup> In addition, the Chinese emperors introduced a system which officials were constantly relocated or promoted or demoted in order that they did not remain in one place for too long. This “flow” official system was to avoid the officials lording over one particular district. These scholarly and official travels contributed to the development of academic ideas, aesthetics, ideologies, art including painting and calligraphy.<sup>49</sup> Moreover, the

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<sup>41</sup> X. Yu, *Cultural Tradition of Chinese Travel*, Chapter 1; Z. Shen, *Travel and Chinese Culture*, p. 3; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 85.

<sup>42</sup> Z. Shen, *Travel and Chinese Culture*, p. 46.

<sup>43</sup> S. Liang, Travelling, in S. Yi, *Selection of Essays of Liang Shiqiu*, Shanghai, 1998, p. 112.

<sup>44</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, pp. 29, 155; Z. Cai en W. Li, *Chinese Cultural Heritage (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, p. 24.

<sup>45</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, pp. 28, 155.

<sup>46</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 29, 155.

<sup>47</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, pp. 43-4.

<sup>48</sup> *Ibid*, p. 43.

<sup>49</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 43-4; X. Yu, *Cultural Tradition of Chinese Travel*, Chapter 2.

Chinese imperial examination system<sup>50</sup> led numerous scholars to travel for their studies, examinations and taking up of official posts.<sup>51</sup> In general, one of the distinct ancient Chinese travel characteristics was that the upper class was active in travels, while the masses in the lower social status, seldom participated in travel.<sup>52</sup>

In ancient China, Confucianism was enshrined as the state dominant ideology that emphasized filial piety and loyalty to the father and the emperor as the ultimate virtues.<sup>53</sup> In their wide travelling, Confucius proposed doctrines of travelling nearby, travelling far and travel ethics.<sup>54</sup> These ideas laid a foundation for the formation of Chinese travel characteristics.

Confucius emphasized filial piety and loyalty to the father and the emperor as the ultimate virtues.<sup>55</sup> According to him, “[f]ilial piety begins with serving one’s parents, leads to serving one’s king, and ends in establishing one’s character...”<sup>56</sup> This idea ran through his travelling theory. On the one hand, he argued that “[w]hen your parents are alive, do not travel far. If you do travel, be sure to have a regular destination.” This could see that they may feel at ease and would be able to summon you back in the event of an emergency.<sup>57</sup> Guided by his

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<sup>50</sup> The Chinese imperial examination system started in the Sui Dynasty to select officials from intellectuals for governmental services through regular written, competitive examinations, open to all candidates of good character, and was only terminated in the Qing Dynasty in 1905. See also N. Jin et al, *A Hundred Questions on the Chinese Culture* translated by X. Lu et al. pp. 180-2; W. Hou et al (eds.), *Encyclopedia of China: history (Vol. I)*, pp. 527, 531.

<sup>51</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 156; S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 232-3.

<sup>52</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 156.

<sup>53</sup> Y. Wu, China, in J. Kopstein en M. Lichbach (eds.), *Comparative Politics: interests, identities, and institutions in a changing global order*, Cambridge, 2000, p. 232.

<sup>54</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 86; X. Yu, Cultural Tradition of Chinese Travel, Chapter 2; Z. Shen, *Travel and Chinese Culture*, pp. 17-8; Y. Wu, China, in J. Kopstein en M. Lichbach (eds.), *Comparative Politics: interests, identities, and institutions in a changing global order*, Cambridge, 2000.

<sup>55</sup> Y. Wu, China, in J. Kopstein en M. Lichbach (eds.), *Comparative Politics: interests, identities, and institutions in a changing global order*, Cambridge, 2000.

<sup>56</sup> Y. Lin, *My Country and My People*, p. 171.

<sup>57</sup> Confucius, *The Analects* translated by C. Huang, p. 70, as quoted by S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 86; by Z. Shen, *Travel and Chinese Culture*, p. 18; by G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 146; by X. Yu, *Cultural Tradition of Chinese Travel*, Chapter 2, Chapter 5.

ideologies, a Chinese contemporary writer Lin Yutang (1895 - 1976), believed that, in ancient China, the best form of travel - travel without destination and without hoping to arrive anywhere - was therefore theoretically impossible.<sup>58</sup> On the other hand, despite his insistence on travelling nearby, Confucius encouraged scholars to travel widely and far away for serving one's emperor and one's nation. He argued that, "[f]ine men should have the aspiration to travel in the world"<sup>59</sup> and that, "[t]he gentleman cherishes virtue; the small man cherishes the land."<sup>60</sup> He regarded it as important for a man to cultivate himself through medication in his wide travels to realize his ambitious aspirations of "rectifying mind, regulating families, governing state, and making the world peaceful." As a result, many outstanding figures blended natural settings and their aspirations for the nation and the people in their travels.<sup>61</sup>

Confucius also compared natural scenery to ethics of gentlemen.<sup>62</sup> He argued that, "the man of wisdom delights in water; the man of humanity delights in mountains."<sup>63</sup> A man delights in exercising his talents to achieve a good government, like water flowing incessantly; he also delights in staying peaceful and firm like a mountain that, sitting motionless, allows things to grow exuberantly.<sup>64</sup> His ideas led scholar-officials in various dynasties to travel. In "delighting in mountains" and "delighting in rivers," they made their efforts to become "the man of wisdom" and "the man of humanity".<sup>65</sup>

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<sup>58</sup> Y. Lin, *My Country and My People*, p. 169.

<sup>59</sup> The Book of Rites, as quoted by S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 87; by Z. Shen, *Travel and Chinese Culture*, p. 18; by X. Yu, *Cultural Tradition of Chinese Travel*, Chapter 5.

<sup>60</sup> Confucius, *The Analects* translated by C. Huang, p. 68, as quoted by S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 87.

<sup>61</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 87-8; B. Xu, Travelling View of the Confucian and the Taoist, <http://www.esgweb.net/wenxue/go.asp?id=1204>.

<sup>62</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 87.

<sup>63</sup> Confucius, *The Analects* translated by C. Huang, p. 84, as quoted by S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 87; by X. Yu, *Cultural Tradition of Chinese Travel*, Chapter 2 and Chapter 4; B. Xu, Travelling View of the Confucian and the Taoist, <http://www.esgweb.net/wenxue/go.asp?id=1204>.

<sup>64</sup> Confucius, *The Analects* translated by C. Huang, p. 84.

<sup>65</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, pp. 87-8.

The primary travel characteristics for the Chinese are stable beyond time, space and individuality.<sup>66</sup> Despite the outbound and domestic travels of various outstanding figures in the history of China, their travels did not change the primary Chinese travel characteristics. However, these travels laid a foundation for the development of the secondary travel characteristics.<sup>67</sup> With the social transformation from ancient times to modern times, the secondary Chinese travel characteristics of adventurous nature developed from the primary characteristics.<sup>68</sup> In the Yuan and the Ming Dynasties, with the social economy developing, restrictions of the government were broken through and traders began to travel for profit. The negation of Wang Dayuan and Zheng He also greatly contributed to this transformation.<sup>69</sup>

At the beginning of the Qing Dynasty, the government carried out the “closed-door policy” and prohibited Chinese nationals from travelling, particularly travelling abroad.<sup>70</sup> However, the policy of exclusion or isolation ended as a result of the gunfire of Western powers after the Opium War.<sup>71</sup> Under the influence of Western culture, the deep-rooted Chinese travel concepts and travel patterns changed greatly. Chinese scholars were not limited to travelling to mountains and rivers domestically and began to travel abroad for the future of the Chinese nation.<sup>72</sup> For example, after the failure of the Reform Movement of 1898, Kang Youwei travelled widely and visited overseas Chinese communities to disseminate the ideas of national salvation.<sup>73</sup> In order to establish a democratic and republic nation, Sun Zhongshan travelled to the USA, England, Japan and Southeast Asia to win financial and political support for his cause.<sup>74</sup>

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<sup>66</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, p. 144.

<sup>67</sup> Ibid, p. 145; X. Yu, *Cultural Tradition of Chinese Travel*, Chapter 2.

<sup>68</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, pp. 144, 172-3.

<sup>69</sup> Ibid, pp. 95, 145.

<sup>70</sup> S. Wang, *A Travel History of China (Vol. I)*, p. 354.

<sup>71</sup> W. Hou et al (eds.), *Encyclopedia of China: history (Vol. I)*, p. 88; L. Chen, *An Introduction to Chinese Culture*, p. 21.

<sup>72</sup> G. Xie en G. Hua, *Tourism Culture*, pp. 180-6.

<sup>73</sup> P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, p. 264.

<sup>74</sup> P. B. Ebrey, *The Cambridge Illustrated History of China*, pp. 265-6; W. Hou et al (eds.), *Encyclopedia of China: history (Vol. II)*, p. 1064.

As discussed in Chapter Two, the primary Chinese travel characteristics became dominant characteristics between 1949 and 1978. However, after reform and opening up in 1978, the secondary characteristics resurfaced. The Chinese government has not only developed inbound tourism, but also encouraged the Chinese nationals to participate in domestic travel and outbound travel.<sup>75</sup> Based on the traditional and modern ideologies, the primary and secondary Chinese travel characteristics have been interwoven in the current development of tourism in China.

According to an Australian tourism scholar, Philip L. Pearce, the rich tapestry of ideas about travel motivation from historical accounts and literary sources can be supplemented by theories of motivation from the discipline of psychology.<sup>76</sup>

### **Psychological theories regarding tourist motivations**

The question “Why do people travel?” seeks to understand the individual psychology of a traveller.<sup>77</sup> In this section, three major approaches to tourist motivation are to be considered. These include the psychocentric-allocentric approach of an American tourism scholar, Stanley C. Plog;<sup>78</sup> the travel career ladder of Philip L. Pearce;<sup>79</sup> and the push-pull factors of a group

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<sup>75</sup> W. Zhang, China’s Domestic Tourism: impetus, development and trends, *Tourism Management* 18(8), 1997 pp. 565-6; H. Qiu Zhang en V. C. S. Heung, The Emergence of the Mainland Chinese Outbound Travel Market and Its Implications for Tourism Marketing, *Journal of Vacation Marketing* 8(1), 2001, p. 9; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>76</sup> P. L Pearce, Pleasure Travel Motivation, in C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, New York, 2000, p. 257.

<sup>77</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 148.

<sup>78</sup> S. C. Plog, Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity, *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 14(4), February 1974, pp. 55-8; S. C. Plog, Understanding Psychographics in Tourism Research in J. R. B. Ritchie en C. Goeldner (eds.), *Travel Tourism and Hospitality Research*, New York, 1987, pp. 203-14.

<sup>79</sup> P. L. Pearce, *The Ulysses Factor: evaluating visitors in tourist settings*, New York, 1988; P. L. Pearce, Fundamentals of Tourist Motivation, in D. G. Pearce en R. W. Butter (eds.), *Tourism Research: critiques and challenges*, London, 1993, pp. 124-5; P. L Pearce, Pleasure Travel Motivation, in C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies(8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, New York, 2000, pp. 262-4; R. A. Cook et al, *Tourism: the Business of Travel (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, pp. 37-8.

of American tourism scholars, such as John. L. Crompton,<sup>80</sup> Mustafa Uysal, L. Hagan<sup>81</sup> and Kye-Sung Chon.<sup>82</sup>

According to personality, choice of destination, travel types and income, Stanley C. Plog classified tourists along a psychographic continuum - ranging from the psychocentric at one extreme to the allocentric at the other. However, few people are entirely psychocentric or allocentric, most lie between the two extremes. As a result, Plog went further, classifying tourists into near-allocentrics, mid-centrics and near psychocentrics (Figure 5. 2).<sup>83</sup>

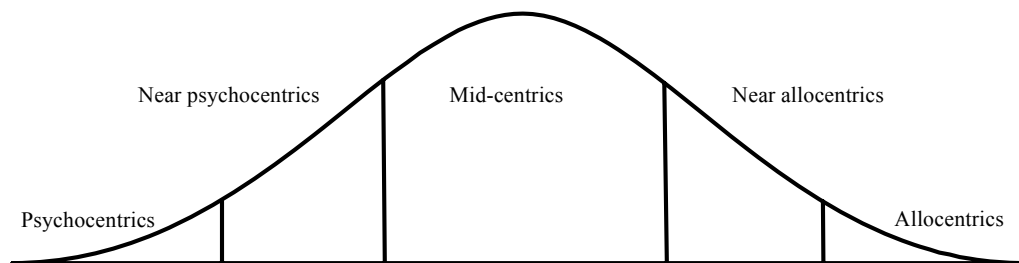


Figure 5. 2 The Plog's psychocentric-allocentric model

From: P. L. Pearce, Fundamentals of Tourist Motivation, in D. G. Pearce en R. W. Butter (eds.), *Tourism Research: critiques and challenges* (London, 1993), p. 123; R. A. Cook et al, *Tourism: the Business of Travel (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*( New Jersey, 2002 ) p. 40.

Allocentric people are outgoing, self-confident, inquisitive, curious and adventurous. They enjoy a sense of discovering new experiences, derive a great deal of satisfaction from new places and activities, and fulfill their inquisitive and curious motives. They prefer new and exotic destinations where they can meet people from diverse cultures. They like independent

<sup>80</sup> J. L. Crompton, Motivations of Pleasure Vacation, *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(4), 1979, pp. 408-24.

<sup>81</sup> M. Uysal en L. Hagan, Motivations of Pleasure and Tourism, in M. Khan et al (eds.), *Encyclopedia of Hospitality and Tourism*, New York, 1993, pp. 798-810.

<sup>82</sup> K. Chon, Understanding Recreational Traveller's Motivation, Attitude and Satisfaction, *The Tourists Review* 1, 1989, pp. 3-7.

<sup>83</sup> S. C. Plog, Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity, *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 2(2), February 1974, pp. 55-8, as cited by R. A. Cook et al, *Tourism: the Business of Travel (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, pp. 38-9; by R. W. McIntosh en C. R. Goeldner, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies*(6<sup>th</sup> edition), pp 142-3; by J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, pp. 82-3; by L. E. Hudman en D. E. Hawkins, *Tourism in Contemporary Society: an introductory text*, p. 44.

tourist arrangements and are more likely to fly to destinations. For them, tour arrangements should include accommodation with basic facilities, but not necessarily modern or chain hotels, and transport with considerable freedom and flexibility.<sup>84</sup> In contrast, psychocentric people are anxious, nervous, unadventurous, self-inhibited and cautious. They are interested in customary and traditional activities. They also like to drive to familiar and close destinations with typical tourist accommodation, such as established hotels, family-type restaurants and tourist shops, familiar entertainment and an absence of a foreign atmosphere. They have an affinity for complete tour packaging and strong scheduling of activities.<sup>85</sup> Moreover, Plog also discovered a relationship between the extremes and income. He found that those with lower income tend to be psychocentric, while those with higher income tend to be allocentric. The travel pattern of those families with low income and college students were constrained by income and fall into the psychocentric group.<sup>86</sup> When their life changes, they will gradually become allocentric.<sup>87</sup>

According to Plog's psychocentric-allocentric model, Chinese tourists can be analyzed in the historical context, according to the economic situation and geographical differences. In terms

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<sup>84</sup> S. C. Plog, Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity, *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 2(2), February 1974, pp. 55-8, as cited by L. E. Hudman en D. E. Hawkins, *Tourism in Contemporary Society: an introductory text*, pp. 44-5; by J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, pp. 82-3; by P. L. Pearce, Fundamentals of Tourist Motivation, in D. G. Pearce en R. W. Butter (eds.), *Tourism Research: critiques and challenges*, London, 1993, pp. 122-3.

<sup>85</sup> S. C. Plog, Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity, *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 2(2), February 1974, pp. 55-8, as cited by L. E. Hudman en D. E. Hawkins, *Tourism in Contemporary Society: an introductory text*, pp. 44-5; by J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 83; by P. L. Pearce, Fundamentals of Tourist Motivation, in D. G. Pearce en R. W. Butter (eds.), *Tourism Research: critiques and challenges*, London, 1993, p. 123.

<sup>86</sup> S. C. Plog, Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity, *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 14(4), February 1974, pp. 55-8, as cited by L. E. Hudman en D. E. Hawkins, *Tourism in Contemporary Society: an introductory text*, pp. 44-5; by J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 83; by R. W. McIntosh en C. R. Goeldner, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies(6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 143.

<sup>87</sup> S. C. Plog, Why Destination Areas Rise and Fall in Popularity, *The Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly* 2(2), February 1974, pp. 55-8, as cited by C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, pp. 150-1.

of the historical context, most of Chinese travellers fall into the psychocentric category in ancient China and several closed periods in the history of China, such as the Qing Dynasty and after the establishment of the PRC between 1949 and 1978. After reform and opening up in 1978, some Chinese travellers tend to be allocentric because of their high income. In 2004, the income per capita of urban residents was RMB ¥9 422, and the income per capita of rural residents was RMB ¥ 2 936. The “Engel coefficient”, which refers to the population expenditure on food to the total consumption expenditure of households, was 47.7 % for the rural households and 37.7 % for urban household.<sup>88</sup> As a result, urban residents tend to be allocentric, while rural residents to be psychocentric. On the other hand, there are great geographical differences between the southern Chinese and the northern Chinese. Lin Yutang believed that “[a]part from the cultural unity which binds the Chinese people as a nation, the southern Chinese differ probably as much from the northerners, in temperament, physique and habits, as the Mediterraneans differ from the Nordic peoples in Europe.”<sup>89</sup> As regards the economic developmental trends and transportation, the southern Chinese tourists tended to be allocentric, while the northern and inland Chinese tourists tend to be psychocentric.

American psychologist, Abraham H. Maslow, postulated a hierarchy of human needs. This hierarchy begins at the bottom with basic psychological needs and progresses upward through safety, belongings, esteem and self-actualization needs (Figure 5. 3). Maslow further grouped these needs into broader categories: lower-order and higher-order needs. Lower needs consist of basic physiological and safety needs, and the higher needs of belongingness, esteem and self-actualization. Lower needs have to be satisfied before higher needs are met.<sup>90</sup> Based on Maslow’s hierarchy of needs, P. L. Pearce and others developed a leisure ladder model (Figure 5. 4). The leisure ladder model specified tourist behaviours. According to him, tourists must first satisfy physiological and safety needs before they could move up to the

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<sup>88</sup> New Star Publishers, *China - Facts and Figures 2005*, p. 84.

<sup>89</sup> Y. Lin, *My Country and My People*, p. 16.

<sup>90</sup> A. H. Maslow, *Motivation and Personality*, pp. 15-23, as cited by R. A. Cook et al, *Tourism: the Business of Travel (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 35-7; by P. L Pearce, *Pleasure Travel Motivation*, in C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies(8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, New York, 2000, pp. 263-4.

higher rungs of needs: relationship, self-esteem and fulfillment on the leisure ladder.<sup>91</sup> By expanding and extending the range of specific needs at each ladder level, a comprehensive and rich catalogue of different psychological needs and motives could be realized.<sup>92</sup> In this model, destinations were seen as settings where tourists could select activities and holiday experiences to suit their personal psychological and motivational needs.<sup>93</sup>

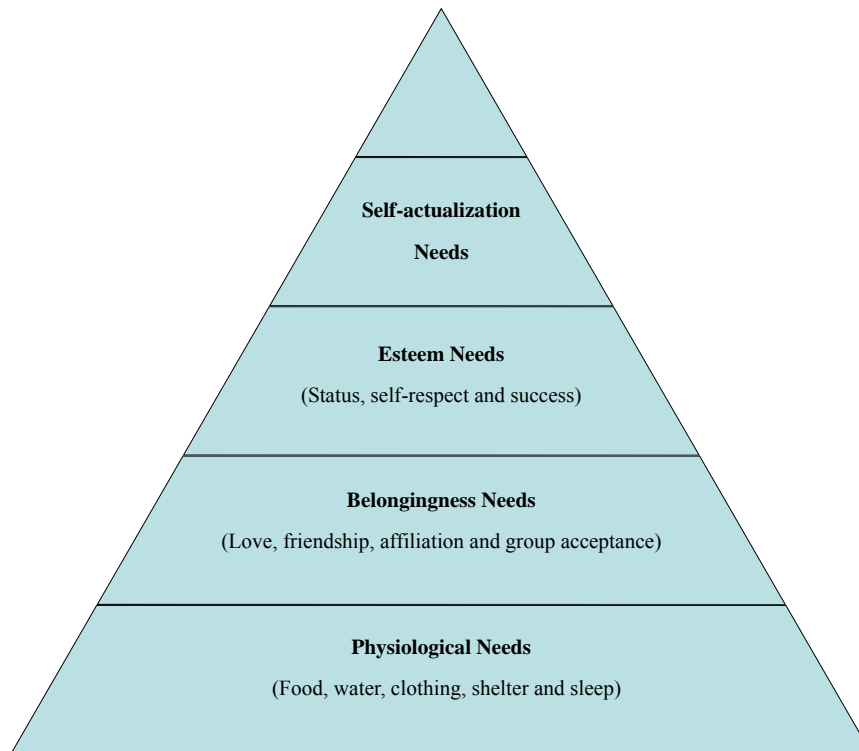


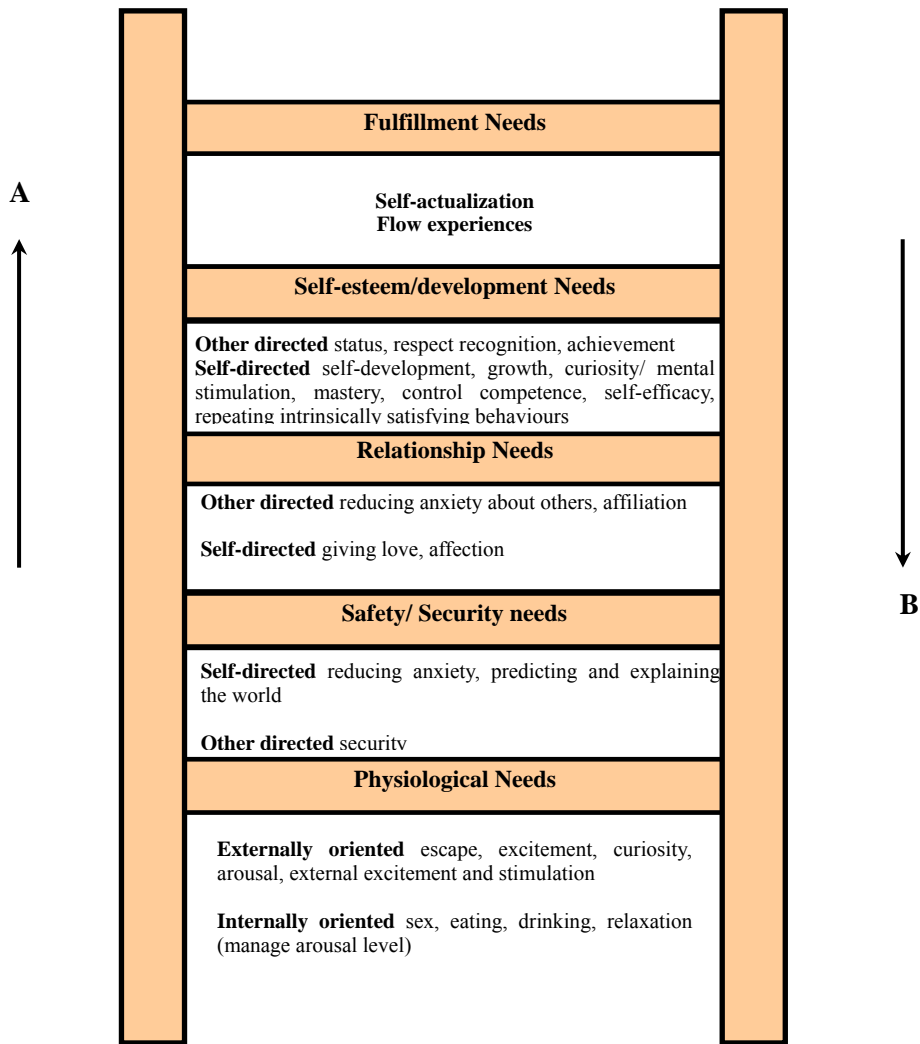
Figure 5. 3 The Maslow's hierarchy of needs

From: R. A. Cook et al, *Tourism: the business of travel (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)* (New Jersey, 2002), p. 36.

<sup>91</sup> R. A. Cook et al, *Tourism: the Business of Travel (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, pp. 37-8; C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 152-3; P. L Pearce, Pleasure Travel Motivation, in C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, New York, 2000, pp. 263-4.

<sup>92</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 152; P. L Pearce, Pleasure Travel Motivation, in C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, New York, 2000, p. 263.

<sup>93</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, pp. 152-3; L. Pearce, Pleasure Travel Motivation, in C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, New York, 2000, p. 264.



A. People tend to ascend the ladder as they become more experienced travellers.

B. Higher-level motives include lower-level motives. Lower-level motives have to be satisfied or experienced before high-level motives come into play.

Figure 5. 4 The Pearce's travel needs ladder

Adapted from C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)* (New York, 2000), p. 264.

As analyzed in Chapter Two, the development of tourism in China is in line with Pearce's travel career ladder. The rapid and sustainable development of the economy and the increased disposable income have improved the living standard of the Chinese since reform and

opening up in 1978. As a result, travel is regarded as an integral part of a decent standard of living and a way to improving the quality of their lives.<sup>94</sup>

Push and pull factors play an important role both in shaping tourist motivations and in choosing destinations.<sup>95</sup> According to C. Y. Gee and E. Fayos-Sola, push factors refer to forces arising from within the individual tourist and from within the individual tourist's social context, while pull factors refer to features of a destination which are thought to be likely to attract people to a specific location.<sup>96</sup> M. Uysal and L. Hagan likewise explained that push factors were "origin-related" and referred to the intangible, intrinsic desires of the individual traveller, such as the desire for escape, rest and relaxation, adventure, health and prestige. Pull factors were related to the attractiveness of a destination and tangible features such as beaches, accommodation and recreation facilities and cultural and historical resources.<sup>97</sup> K. S. Chon believed that Maslow's hierarchy of needs - physiological, safety, belonging, esteem and self-actualization - were the push factors while attractiveness of a region and its various elements were the pull factors.<sup>98</sup> J. L. Crompton believed that push motives were the desire to travel while pull factors were the choice of destination.<sup>99</sup>

According to the above various push-and-pull factor theories, one of the push factors - the Chinese tourist's social context - and two of the pull factors - features of South Africa as a

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<sup>94</sup> H. Li, *China Tourism: exploring a dreamland* translated by G. Chen p. 133; D. Liu, An Analysis and Forecast of the Development of Domestic Tourism in China, in TRCCASS, *A Green Book of China's Tourism 2001-2003*, <http://www.lianghui.org.cn/chinese/zhuanti/234746.htm>, 2002-11-09.

<sup>95</sup> J. L. Crompton, Motivations of Pleasure Vacation, *Annals of Tourism Research* 6(4), 1979, pp. 408-24, as cited by M. Kozak, Comparative Analysis of Tourist Motivation by Nationality and Destinations, *Tourism Management* 23(3), 2002, p. 222.

<sup>96</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 148.

<sup>97</sup> M. Uysal en L. Hagan, Motivations of Pleasure and Tourism, in M. Khan et al (eds.) *Encyclopedia of Hospitality and Tourism*, New York, 1993, pp. 798-810, as cited by M. Kozak, Comparative Analysis of Tourist Motivation by Nationality and Destinations, *Tourism Management* 23(3), 2002, p. 222.

<sup>98</sup> K. Chon, Understanding Recreational Traveller's Motivation, Attitude and Satisfaction, *The Tourists Review* 1, 1989, pp. 3-7, as cited by B. Lubbe, Primary Image as a Dimension of Destination Image: an empirical assessment, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 7(4), 1998, p. 24.

<sup>99</sup> J. L. Crompton, Motivations for Pleasure Vacation, in D. G. Pearce en R. W. Butter (eds.), *Tourism Research: critiques and challenges*, London, 1993, p. 85.

destination and the Chinese in South Africa - have been analyzed in Chapter Two, Chapter Three and Chapter Four respectively. This section will focus on the analysis of the motivations from within Chinese tourists themselves according to market research conducted by me among Chinese tourists in South Africa.

### **Market research on Chinese tourists to South Africa**

According to C. Y. Gee and E. Fayos-Sola, tourist market research usually consists of surveys regarding travel motivation, destination attributes, trip characteristics and socio-demographic characteristics.<sup>100</sup> In this research, a “Questionnaire for Chinese Tourists in South Africa” was designed and drawn up in Mandarin (Appendix 5 and 6, the English version can be regarded as a reference for researchers) to investigate the nature of Chinese tourists coming to South Africa as regards three aspects: socioeconomic and demographic characteristics; destination experience; and trip characteristics. As a result of 110 questionnaires, which were directly sampled between November and December of 2005, certain typical trends and characteristics were identified about the Mainland Chinese outbound market to South Africa.

Socio-economics and demographics are the social statistics of a population, such as age, gender, occupation, income and geographic location.<sup>101</sup> In this market survey, the following results were revealed (Table 5. 1). Firstly, the majority of Chinese tourists coming to South Africa were male (86.4%), at age of between 35 and 44 (42.7%) and 45-54 (29.1%), married (88.2%), enterprise managers (28.2%) and civil servants (18.2%). They had high levels of educational attainment: college graduates (20.0%), university graduates (53.6%) and postgraduates (14.5%). Those with monthly incomes of RMB¥ 4 001-6 000 amounted to 27.3%, and 80.0% came from three-people families (including husband, wife and child). The Chinese tourists to South Africa were from the class with high salaries in China. In China, the people at the age of between 35 and 54 are regarded as being in the prime of their life. These factors - good educational background, achievements in career and small family size -

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<sup>100</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 153.

<sup>101</sup> R. W. McIntosh en C. R. Goeldner, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 142.

provided them with financial power to take part in outbound travel, particularly long-haul travel. In addition, in order to attain greater achievements and broaden their vision, they had a strong desire to see the world outside of China. They believed that this experience could benefit their career and enrich their lives. Secondly, it was found that the travelling population was concentrated on the coastal areas of China in the survey report “Marketing South Africa in China” which was released by the SAT in 2005. In my survey, 20.9 % of Chinese tourists were from Beijing, 11.8 % from Guangdong and 16.4% from Chongqing. These results not only confirmed the result of the survey of the SAT, but also indicated that the areas generating Chinese tourists had extended from the wealthy coastal areas to inland areas such Gansu and Qinghai, which are two poor and underdeveloped provinces in the western region of China. In this short-term survey, Chinese tourists came from three metropolises directly under the central government, such as Beijing, Shanghai and Chongqing; and thirteen provinces such as Guangdong, Fujian, Gansu, Guizhou, Henan, Heilongjiang, Hunan, Liaoning, Qinghai, Shandong, Shanxi, Sichuan and Zhejiang in Mainland China. As a result, a phenomenon that the areas generating Chinese tourists “blossom everywhere” in China appeared. Thirdly, 77.3% had language problems in South Africa. In the interviews, it became very apparent that most of the Chinese tourists talked about the difficulty of communication during their trips. Thus, it is urgent for South Africa to develop a reliable language strategy to solve language problems for Chinese tourists.

As regards the destination experience aspect of the research, an investigation of motivations of Chinese tourists coming to South Africa as well as their image of South Africa before and after visiting was conducted. In general, contemporary market research concerning a destination image indicated that there were lists of destination features that might be thought of as a mix of travel motives and destination characteristics.<sup>102</sup> C. A. Gunn believes that a destination image can be classified as “organic” and “induced” images. Organic images were usually formed from an early age and were based on what was learnt of a country before visiting. This emanated from sources such as news reports, movies, newspaper articles, and

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<sup>102</sup> P. L Pearce, Pleasure Travel Motivation, in C. R. Goeldner et al, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, New York, 2000, p. 261.

other sources of information. Induced images, as the result of promoting a country as a tourist destination, were formed through marketing and promotion efforts of destination areas and business, including printing and disseminating pictures and written material.<sup>103</sup> In this market survey, 31.8% Chinese tourists got information on South Africa from printed material such as magazines, books, newspapers, tour guides and travel literature, which form an “organic” image of South Africa. The fact that 26.4 % Chinese tourists got information from travel agencies indicated that Chinese tourists had developed their “organic” image of South Africa to “induced” image after marketing efforts of South Africa. In the interviews, most of the Chinese tourists expressed that they had different perceptions of South Africa before and after visiting. Before their coming, they thought that South Africa was a poor and backward country with desert and barren lands. After arrival, a modern South Africa with fresh air and friendly people was showcased.

Tourist satisfaction is based on meeting or exceeding the expectations. An understanding of Chinese tourists and their preferences are the key to attracting the affluent and prosperous Chinese tourism market.<sup>104</sup> According to the results of the sampling, most of the Chinese tourists coming to South Africa were for holiday (68.2%) and eager to experience local culture of South Africa (48.2%). Except for concerns about safety, they were satisfied with South Africa (90.0%). 92.7% Chinese tourists expressed that the clean air of South Africa deeply impressed them. 98.2% Chinese tourists regarded this South African trip as an interesting and exciting trip. 90.9 % were glad to recommend South Africa (90.9%) and 90.0% liked to visit South Africa again. 96.4% liked the natural scenery of South Africa. Cape Town drew the preference of 85.4% Chinese tourists for its mixture of natural and cultural scenery (Table 5. 2). These results indicated that Chinese tourists accepted South Africa as one of their long-haul destinations. This lays a foundation for South Africa to develop itself as a mature destination for Chinese tourists on the basis of its great potential.

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<sup>103</sup> C. A. Gunn, *Vacationscape: designing tourist regions*, Austin, 1972, as cited by W. C. Gartner, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 461.

<sup>104</sup> The School of Travel Industry Management of University of Hawaii, *Identifying and Analyzing the Chinese Outbound Market for Hawaii*, pp. 8-9.

The trip characteristics of a tourist include the number of trips, trip duration, trip distance, traveller type, mode of transportation, tour itinerary, expenditures and length of stay.<sup>105</sup> According to the results of this market survey, 94.5% Chinese tourists participated in group travel; 57.3% were in a “pleasure” tour group; 82.7% chose inclusive packages; 52.7% stayed in South Africa from four to six days; 43.6% were self-funded for the trip. As to the total expenditure of the South African trip, the minimum total expenditure (including airfare, accommodation and transport) was about RMB¥ 10 000 (about R 7246) while the maximum was about RMB¥ 50 000 (about R 36 232).<sup>106</sup> The average expenditure could not be calculated due to the blank spaces left on the questionnaires. In terms of service, the Chinese tourist sampling indicated that they liked the accommodation (85.5%), restaurants (73.6%), transport (88.2%), recreation (69.1%) and shopping (66.4%) in South Africa (Table 5. 3). However, in the interviews, some tourists pointed out that there were some problems in the service industry, such as low efficiency and no Beijing time in hotels. Some suggested the relaxing of the control of foreign currency for foreign tourists. Most of the Chinese tourists hoped that South Africa would improve on these aspects.

South Africa is a new outbound tourism destination for Chinese tourists. Among Chinese tourists coming to South Africa, 80.0% of the Chinese tourists went abroad between one and five times in their life time. 88.2% came to South Africa for the first time. Attracting more and more Chinese tourists to come to South Africa is one of the factors in the South African tourism development, which is being focused on. It must be kept in mind that it is very difficult to conduct a Chinese tourist market survey in South Africa. Firstly, Chinese tourists would like to visit as many places in their short stay in South Africa as possible. When they arrive at a tourist attraction like the Union Buildings, they were busy taking photos. As a result, they had little time to fill out the questionnaires. Sometimes, they completed the questionnaires in such a hurry that some items were left blank. Secondly, some topics, such as

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<sup>105</sup> J. J. E. Yoo, A Cross-cultural Comparison of Trip Characteristics: international visitors to Hong Kong from Mainland China and USA, *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 16(1), 2004, p. 68.

<sup>106</sup> The minimum and maximum expenditures are calculated on the basis of the foreign exchange rates on January 20, 2006, see also Bank of China, Exchange Rate, <http://finance.sina.com.cn>; ABSA, Exchange Rates, <http://www.absa.co.za>.

their income, their funding for travel and total expenditure for the trip, three key factors for developing a tourism market survey, were regarded as sensitive topics. Most of the Chinese tourists were reluctant to fill in the questionnaires because of the psychology of the fear of showing off wealth to others. Thirdly, some government officials and enterprise managers, whose travel was funded by the government or enterprises, came to South Africa for conferences, business and other affairs. Due to concerns about being accused of corruption, they refused to complete the questionnaires. Fourthly, due to a lack of understanding of tourism and the importance of developing tourism between China and South Africa, some tour guides discouraged Chinese tourists to fill in the questionnaires or disallowed the researcher to conduct the survey. The above mentioned barriers in conducting the survey also resulted in the first and the second indirect sampling, which were conducted by travel agents and tourist guides, not being viable for inclusion in the analysis.

In the third direct sampling, which was conducted by myself, some blank items had to be filled in according to speculation considering many factors such as the travel group characteristics, general economic situation, residential places and occupation of the Chinese tourists. As far as the blank items were concerned, such as the image prior to coming to South Africa, total expenditure coming to South Africa and any other comments, suggestions and ideas, interviews on the spot were conducted so as to supplement the questionnaires and improve the return of the survey.

It is very difficult for a short-term survey to reflect the comprehensive situation of the development of Chinese outbound tourism to South Africa. This market research can be regarded as a ripple in the ocean of the Chinese tourism market to South Africa, with the purpose of providing some information for tourism scholars and experts who are interested in research on the Chinese tourism market in South Africa. After the market survey, some items in the questionnaire were adjusted. It is hoped that continuing the survey will bring more comprehensive results in my further research on the Chinese outbound tourism market to South Africa.

<b>Socioeconomic and Demographic Characteristics</b>		<b>Share (%)</b>
<b>Gender</b>	Male	86.4
	Female	13.6
<b>Age</b>	18-24	4.5
	25-34	13.6
	35-44	42.7
	45-54	29.1
	55-64	8.2
	65+	1.8
<b>Marital status</b>	Married	88.2
	Unmarried	11.8
<b>Family size(people inclusive)</b>	1	11.8
	2	1.8
	3	80.0
	4+	11.8
<b>Residential place</b>	Beijing	20.9
	Shanghai	6.4
	Chongqing	16.4
	Guangdong	11.8
	Fujian	2.7
	Gansu	7.3
	Guizhou	0.9
	Henan	12.7
	Heilongjiang	0.9
	Hunan	0.9
	Liaoning	0.9
	Qinghai	4.5
	Shandong	0.9
	Shanxi	7.3
	Sichuan	2.7
Zhejiang	2.7	
<b>Areas</b>	Urban	96.4
	Rural	3.6
<b>Education</b>	Secondary school	2.7
	High school	3.6
	Technological school	5.5
	College(< 4 years)	20.0
	University(≥4 years)	53.6
	Postgraduate	14.5
<b>Occupation</b>	Businessmen	7.3
	Civil servant	18.2
	Engineer	9.1
	Enterprise manager	28.2
	Factory worker	2.7
	Government official	10.0
	Office clerk	4.5
	Researcher	2.7
	Self-employed	2.7
	Student	2.7
	Teacher	5.5
	Unemployed	4.5
	Other	1.8
	<b>Monthly income(RMB¥)</b>	No income
801-1600		13.6
1601-2400		16.4
2401-4000		26.4
4001-6000		27.3
6001-10 000		10.9
10 001+		2.7
<b>English</b>	Not proficient	77.3
	Proficient	22.7

Table 5. 1 Socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of Chinese tourists

<b>Destination Experience in South Africa Share (%)</b>		
<b>Purposes(I)</b>	Business	11.8
	Conference	16.4
	Holiday	68.2
	Visiting friends and relatives	0.9
	Study	2.7
<b>Purposes (II)</b>	A. Experiencing local culture	48.2
	B. Investment	34.5
	C. A+B	17.3
<b>Satisfaction level</b>	Very satisfied	6.4
	Satisfied	90.0
	Not satisfied	3.6
<b>Impression on SA after travelling</b>	A. Clean air	71.8
	B. Unique scenery	4.5
	C. Unspoiled environment	2.7
	D. A+B	9.1
	E. A+C	3.6
	F. A+B+C	8.2
<b>Interesting and exciting experience</b>	Yes	98.2
	No	1.8
<b>Recommending South Africa</b>	Yes	90.9
	No	9.1
<b>Visiting again</b>	Yes	90.0
	No	10.0
<b>Scenery liked</b>	A. Natural scenery	69.1
	B. Cultural sites	1.8
	C. Local customs	0.9
	D. A+B	10.9
	E. A+C	9.1
	F. B+C	0.9
	G. A+B+C	7.3
<b>Place liked</b>	A. Pretoria	8.2
	B. Johannesburg	3.6
	C. Cape Town	64.5
	D. A+B	2.7
	E. A+C	7.3
	F. B+C	3.6
	G. A+B+C	10.0

Table 5. 2 Destination experience in South Africa

<b>Chinese Tourism</b>	<b>Characteristics in South Africa</b>	<b>Share (%)</b>
<b>Information sources</b>	Government	17.3
	Tourism departments	6.4
	Travel agency	26.4
	Internet	26.4
	Printing material	31.8
	TV/radio	8.2
	Friends and relatives	3.6
	Work-related	2.7
<b>Party size</b>	3-5	14.5
	6-10	33.6
	11-15	31.8
	16-20	13.6
	20+	0.9
	Individual	5.5
<b>Party type</b>	Government delegation	18.2
	Company delegation	18.2
	Pleasure tour group	57.3
	Visiting friends and relatives	0.9
	Other	5.5
<b>Times going abroad</b>	1-5	80.0
	6-10	9.1
	10+	10.9
<b>Times to coming to South Africa</b>	1	88.2
	2	7.3
	3+	4.5
<b>Trip type</b>	Inclusive package *	82.7
	Full package **	4.5
	Package ***	10.0
	Independent	2.7
<b>Length stay</b>	3	12.7
	4-6	52.7
	7-10	19.1
	10+	15.5
<b>Funding for travel</b>	Government	20.9
	Company	31.8
	Self-funded	43.6
	Other	3.6
<b>Service facilities</b>		
Accommodation	Good	85.5
	Not good	14.5
Restaurant	Good	73.6
	Not good	26.4
Transport	Good	88.2
	Not good	11.8
Recreation	Good	69.1
	Not good	30.9
Shopping	Good	66.4
	Not good	33.6

**Notes:** \* including airfare, accommodation, coach tours and food.

\*\* including airfare, accommodation and food

\*\*\* including airfare and accommodation.

Table 5.3 Chinese tourism characteristics in South Africa

### **III. Strategies of developing the Chinese tourism market**

In developing tourism in South Africa, the SAT set up six key objectives:

- increase in tourist volume;
- increase in tourist spending;
- increase length of stay;
- improve geographic spread;
- improve seasonality patterns; and
- promote transformation.<sup>107</sup>

In order to realize these six key objectives, the SAT devised six key strategies:

- understand the market;
- choose the attractive segments;
- market the destination;
- facilitate the removal of obstacles;
- facilitate the product platform; and
- monitor and learn from tourist experience.<sup>108</sup>

Revolving around these six key strategies, this section analyzes the strategies of the South African government in developing the Chinese tourist outbound market.

#### **Understanding the Chinese tourism market**

Understanding the Chinese tourism market is the first step for South Africa to develop the Chinese tourism market. Didi Moyle, chief research and e-business officer of the SAT claimed

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<sup>107</sup> SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, p. 2.

<sup>108</sup> Ibid.

that “[w]e need to understand the market, find out who is interested in coming to South Africa and market to them against what we know they are looking for.” Zolelwa Mzukocho, portfolio manager for Asia and Australia of the SAT, believed that “[t]he key to making your mark on any destination is to know your customer.”<sup>109</sup> The SAT conducted research to understand the Chinese tourist market as well as tourist experiences, and released its results in “Marketing South Africa in China” in 2005.<sup>110</sup> The research focused on the potential Chinese travellers in detail, including how they travel, how they make their travel arrangements, how the travel trade works in China, as well as aspects such as what kinds of foods Chinese tourists like, where they like to stay and what they consider to be their biggest fears about South Africa.<sup>111</sup>

The SAT research revealed certain travel characteristics of Chinese tourists. Firstly, although Chinese tourists do not have an inclination to have a real “in-depth” travel experience, the majority of them liked to see and do as many things in South Africa as possible. They liked to visit landmarks and take pictures to show them to friends and family back home. As a result, a phenomenon - “running horses and seeing flowers” emerged.<sup>112</sup> This phrase means gaining only a shallow understanding from a fleeting glance. Secondly, Chinese outbound tourists were relatively inexperienced and therefore were conservative. They were not as interested in camping and sports as many of the Westerners. They like comfortable accommodation, colourful nightlife and various cuisines.<sup>113</sup> Thirdly, unlike the Westerners who prefer individualism when travelling, “the group” was the main preference for Chinese tourists because everything was well-organized and they did not have to worry about the details.<sup>114</sup> As regards this point, Roth and Verhelst believed that Chinese tourists liked to travel in groups mainly due to language barriers and the concern for safety.<sup>115</sup> The market survey conducted by myself also proved this. Fourthly, Chinese tourists had quite different

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<sup>109</sup> D. Slabbert, China and Japan...Here We Come, *Enterprise*, 2004-05-31, p. 42.

<sup>110</sup> Ibid; SAT, Marketing South Africa in China.

<sup>111</sup> D. Slabbert, China and Japan...Here We Come, *Enterprise*, 2004-05-31, p. 42.

<sup>112</sup> Ibid; SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, p. 37.

<sup>113</sup> D. Slabbert, China and Japan...Here We Come, *Enterprise*, 2004-05-31, p. 42.

<sup>114</sup> Ibid.

<sup>115</sup> V. Verhelst, Study of the Outbound Tourism Industry of the People’s Republic of China: a possibility of a bilateral ADS agreement between the PRC and the Shengen Area, MA thesis, Katholieke Universiteit Leuven, 2003.

perceptions about rest and relaxation than Westerners. For Chinese tourists, relaxation meant participating in a lot of activities, but having someone else to take care of the details instead of sitting on the beach and doing nothing.<sup>116</sup> Fifthly, the research also found that the origin of Chinese tourists to South Africa was concentrated in the coastal areas, such as Liaoning, Jiangsu, Zhejiang, Fujian, Guangdong, as well as metropolises such as Beijing, Tianjin, Shanghai (Figure 5. 5).<sup>117</sup> Since the 1990s, the Chinese economy has become highly regionalized. Three metropolises - Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou - became the key economic centres as well as outbound travel centers of China.<sup>118</sup> This finding contributed to South Africa creating different strategies for developing the Chinese tourist market, based on the regional differences of Chinese tourists.

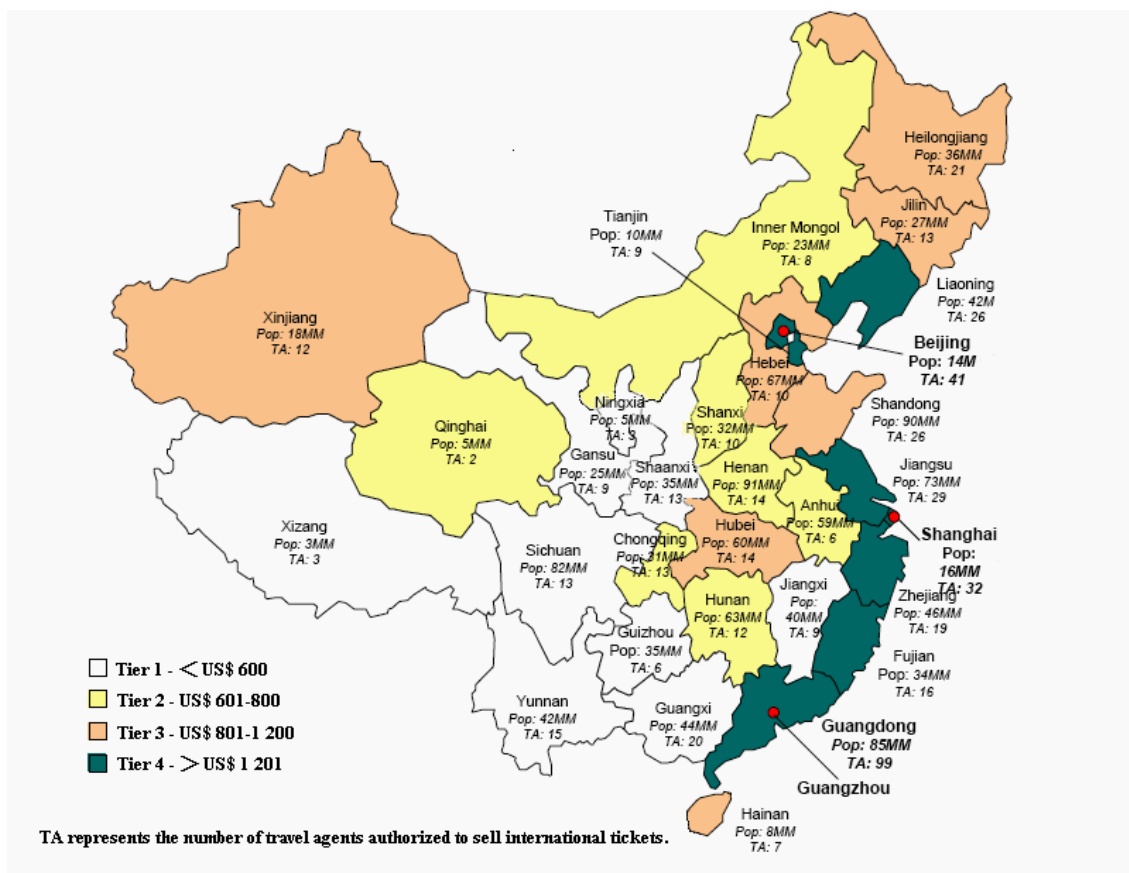


Figure 5. 5 Major outbound tourist generating areas in Mainland China

From: SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, p. 34,

<http://www.southafrica.net/satourism/research/viewResearchDetail.cfm?ReportTypeCategoryID=30>.

<sup>116</sup> D. Slabbert, China and Japan...Here We Come, *Enterprise*, 2004-05-31, p. 42.

<sup>117</sup> SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, p. 34.

<sup>118</sup> *Ibid*, pp. 11, 35.

## Discovering barriers of Chinese tourists to South Africa

There are barriers which face the Chinese tourists coming to South Africa both from within the Chinese tourists themselves as well as from within South Africa.

According to R. W. McIntosh and C. R. Goeldner, barriers of tourists fall into six broad categories: cost, lack of time, family stage, lack of interest, fear and safety.<sup>119</sup> For Chinese tourists, the major barriers related to visiting South Africa are cost, lack of interest, fear and safety. Firstly, price is one of major issues for Chinese tourists coming to South Africa. According to “Marketing South Africa in China”, a package tour to South Africa will cost about RMB¥ 14 000 - 16 000.<sup>120</sup> In terms of the Chinese income per capita of RMB¥ 9 422 for urban residents and RMB¥ 2 936 for rural residents in 2004,<sup>121</sup> only some high-level consumers in coastal and developed regions of China can choose travelling to South Africa as their preferred form of recreation.<sup>122</sup> Secondly, due to the geographic location of South Africa, most Chinese tourists hold a perception that South Africa was identical to the rest of the African continent in terms of poverty, famine, political instability, devastation, subsistence, disease, strife and the possession of minimal infrastructure, rather than the land of breathtaking landscapes and diversified cultures. Like other international tourists, Chinese tourists were apt to neglect the fact that the first-and-third world dichotomy exists in South Africa.<sup>123</sup> This perception is one of the most important factors that affect the travel decision and images of South Africa as a destination.<sup>124</sup> Niagara College Director, Jos Nolle, believed that “[t]his global public perception is one of the problems one also has to overcome.”<sup>125</sup> In addition, the political exile, violence and detrimental global media overexposure as a result of apartheid also left an indelible mark in the minds of international tourists, including Chinese

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<sup>119</sup> R. W. McIntosh en C. R. Goeldner, *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (6<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 135.

<sup>120</sup> SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, p. 18.

<sup>121</sup> New Star Publishers, *China - Facts and Figures 2005*, p. 84.

<sup>122</sup> SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, p. 35; Anon., South Africa Rides Tourism Wave, [http://www.safrika.info/plan\\_trip/holiday/tourism\\_080503.htm](http://www.safrika.info/plan_trip/holiday/tourism_080503.htm), 2003-05-08.

<sup>123</sup> D. Cronson, Tourism to Post-apartheid South Africa: an international perspective, p. 35; Xinhua News Agency, Chinese Tourists to S. Africa Increase by 39 Percent, *People's Daily*, 2004-06-18, [www.china.org.cn/english/travel/98618.htm](http://www.china.org.cn/english/travel/98618.htm).

<sup>124</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 92.

<sup>125</sup> L. Elias, SA “Set to Benefit from Tourism”, *Daily Dispatch*, 2005-09-23, p. 6.

tourists.<sup>126</sup> Thirdly, the fear of HIV/Aids prevents the cautious Chinese from coming to South Africa. South Africa is a country with the fastest growing HIV/Aids epidemic in Africa. In 2003, South Africa had one of the fastest-growing numbers of people living with HIV/Aids in the world. Between 3.5 and 4.2 million South Africans are infected with HIV/Aids, making it the highest number in the world.<sup>127</sup> Fourthly, the concern for safety is another barrier for Chinese tourists. According to a document produced by Business Promotion and Tourism on behalf of the Department of Economic Development and Tourism in the Western Cape, crime was rated as the top of a list of factors impacting on tourism in South Africa.<sup>128</sup> During the Western Cape's first provincial safety and security tourism conference entitled "Safety and Security: New Driver of Tourism Economies", some facts emerged: almost 174 000 or 2.7 % of foreign visitors were victims of theft or other crimes in South Africa in 2002. A tourism survey found that nearly 50% overseas visitors coming to South Africa shared the feeling of being "insecure about their safety," and 81% went home without having experienced any problems.<sup>129</sup> Carol Jones, a British expert on the impact of crime on victims, particularly tourist victims, told the conference that, "a survey recorded that while 49.1 percent of visitors felt insecure about their safety and security prior to their visit to South Africa, on departure 8.5 percent had experienced no problems. During their stay, 2.7 percent had experienced theft or crime, two percent felt unsafe and one percent felt that there was a lack of security."<sup>130</sup>

On the other hand, geographical barriers, racial discrimination, shortage of airline seats and a lack of special attention of the South Africa government to the Chinese tourism market constitute the barriers from within South Africa. Firstly, South Africa is a long-haul destination for Chinese tourists. The geographical remoteness at the southernmost tip of the Africa continent endows South Africa with a permanent disadvantage in term of cost of air travel to all tourists including Chinese tourists. The long-haul nature of the South African tourist product is perceived as an inconvenience, and hence a deterrent to potential visitors.<sup>131</sup>

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<sup>126</sup> D. Cronson, *Tourism to Post-apartheid South Africa: an international perspective*, p. 13.

<sup>127</sup> J. A. Bennett, *Managing Tourism Services: a Southern African perspective (3<sup>rd</sup> edition)*, p. 112.

<sup>128</sup> Anon., *The Impact of Crime on Tourism in South Africa, Leadership SA*, 2003-11-30, p. 45.

<sup>129</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>130</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>131</sup> D. Cronson, *Tourism to Post-apartheid South Africa: an international perspective*, p. 37.

Secondly, a shortage of airline seats has limited the number of tourists from China coming to South Africa.<sup>132</sup> Barry Hurter, the managing director of Environmental Resources Management (ERM) Tours, stated that the “problems obviously are capacity in bottleneck areas in South Africa as well as seat capacity to get them [Chinese tourists] there.”<sup>133</sup> Additional flights should see an increase in tourist arrivals in South Africa from the Far East, particularly China. They will also facilitate larger tourist numbers in South Africa which will translate into more hard currency earnings for South Africa.<sup>134</sup> Moeketsi Mosola, the chief operating officer of the SAT, suggested that, for a “huge Chinese market”, a direct flight to China is needed.<sup>135</sup> Thirdly, although the South African government began to attach importance to the Chinese tourist market, it still focused mainly on the South African primary long-haul tourist source markets including UK, Germany, USA, France, Netherlands and Australia. Specific marketing campaigns were launched in these markets,<sup>136</sup> while comparatively few large campaigns were launched in China and other countries in the Pacific rims such as Japan and Malaysia. Fourthly, racial discrimination existed in South Africa to some extent. In 2000, three Chinese tourists were arrested because they were accused of tampering with their immigration stamps. During their detention, they were locked in what they described as “a stinking, hellish cell”, and allegedly endured racial abuse. The police called them “China pigs”. They were apparently also beaten by a member of the South African police due to their refusal of having their fingerprints taken.<sup>137</sup>

### **Confronting competition in developing the Chinese tourism market**

Zolelwa Mzukocho believed that “we need to know our facts and we need to know our competition.”<sup>138</sup> South Africa is facing competition from other long-haul destinations in

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<sup>132</sup> A. D’Angelo, Asian Tourists to SA Limited by Seats and Prices, *Star*, 2004 -04-30, p. 4.

<sup>133</sup> L. Coutts, SA Cashes in on Credit Card Communism,

<http://www.businessreport.co.za/index.php?fSectionId=561&fArticleId=124040>, 2002-11-24.

<sup>134</sup> C. Lourens, Tourism from Far East to Thrive on New Flights, *Business Day*, 2003-07-02, p. 2.

<sup>135</sup> Y. Groenewald, Getting More Jaunts from Asian Families, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 2004-03-25, p. 22.

<sup>136</sup> DEAT, *10 Year Review 1994-2004*, p. 68.

<sup>137</sup> Anon., Police Called Us “China Pigs” - Tourists, *Saturday Argus*, 2000-02-27, p. 13; E. Sylvester, Chinese Tourists Held at Jo’burg Airport Seek Answers, *Saturday Star*, 2002-02-26, p. 7.

<sup>138</sup> D. Slabbert, China and Japan...Here We Come, *Enterprise*, 2004-05-31, p. 42.

product structures including tourism resources, price, average days, flight time and direct flights, of which tourism resources and price are two critical factors.<sup>139</sup> Firstly, in terms of tourist resources, superior if not equal wildlife reserves are available in Kenya, Botswana, Zambia and other destinations in Africa. Breathtaking beaches are found in Hawaii, Greece, the Pacific Islands and many other places.<sup>140</sup> Secondly, the historical perception is that the South African product is an expensive item.<sup>141</sup> This applies not only to the airfare costs, a significant portion of the total spending of travelling, but also the price of other tourist-related commodities like hotel rates and car rentals.<sup>142</sup> According to Barry Hirter, the management director of ERM Travel, “Australia, in particular, is offering packages at prices far lower than ours, and the same is true even of some European destinations ...”<sup>143</sup> According to “Marketing South Africa in China”, taking an example of the market of Beijing, except for South East Asia with geographical advantages, in comparison with other major destinations with ADS from China, the minimum price of the South African product is relatively high, on average about 28% higher (Table 5. 4). The high price leads South Africa facing competition with other countries with ADS in Europe, Australia and New Zealand.

Destinations	Price (RMB)	Rate (%)	Daily Spend (RMB)	Rate (%)
<b>Europe</b>	10 000-16 800	40 - -4.8	1 489	25.9
<b>South East Asia</b>	4 000-9 600	250 - 66.7	800	134.4
<b>Australia New Zealand</b>	12 000-23 000	16.7 - -30.4	1 500	25
<b>Russia</b>	11 000-18 000	27.3 – 11.1	1 500	25
<b>South Africa</b>	14 000-16 000		1 875	

Table 5. 4 Price of countries with the ADS in the Beijing market

From SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, p. 18,

<http://www.southafrica.net/satourism/research/viewResearchDetail.cfm?ReportTypeCategoryID=30>.

<sup>139</sup> SAT, Marketing South Africa in China, p. 18.

<sup>140</sup> D. Cronson, Tourism to Post-apartheid South Africa: an international perspective, p. 37.

<sup>141</sup> E. T., Heath, International Marketing of South Africa as a Tourist Destination: results of strategic work sessions held with key members of the trade in the UK, Europe and the USA, as cited by D. Cronson, Tourism to Post-apartheid South Africa: an international perspective, p. 27.

<sup>142</sup> D. Cronson, Tourism to Post-apartheid South Africa: an international perspective, p. 27.

<sup>143</sup> A. D’Angelo, Asian Tourists to SA Limited by Seats and Prices, *Star*, 2004-04-30, p. 4.

## A “red carpet” laid out for Chinese tourists

Despite the various drawbacks facing the potential Chinese tourists to South Africa, owing to the realization of a lot of “travel money” in China,<sup>144</sup> the South African government confirmed that the “huge Chinese market demands attention”.<sup>145</sup> As a result, a so-called “red carpet” was laid out for Chinese tourists<sup>146</sup> and a range of measures was carried out to address some of the barriers. However, these are in essence only strategies, and major campaigns still need to be developed.

Firstly, in the wave of the signing of the ADS agreement in 2002 and successfully receiving the first Chinese tourist group in April 2003, the South African government appointed the first-ever full-time tourism attaché to Beijing in 2003. This was to attract the Chinese to tour and explore South Africa, ushering in a new era of tourism marketing between the two countries.<sup>147</sup> According to Manqoba Nyembezi, the first envoy of SAT in Beijing, it set up “a shining example of what can be achieved when a cluster of government departments, including the Departments of Foreign Affairs and Environmental Affairs and Tourism, is committed and determined to work towards achieving a common purpose.”<sup>148</sup>

Secondly, in order to simplify the procedures of obtaining visas to South Africa, the Shanghai Consulate began to issue visas in 2003 for the Chinese from Shanghai, Guangdong, Anhui, Fujian, Jiangsu, Shandong and Zhejiang. This made the entrance of the Chinese tourists to South Africa much easier than before.<sup>149</sup>

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<sup>144</sup> H. Hagen, China to Boost SA Tourism, *Citizen*, 2001-12-13, p. 9.

<sup>145</sup> S. Graham, A Great Wall Crumbles as SA Lays out Red Carpet, *Sunday Times*, 2002-10-20, p. 9; Y. Groenewald, Getting More Jaunts from Asian Families, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 2004-03-25, p. 22.

<sup>146</sup> S. Graham, A Great Wall Crumbles as South Africa Lays out Red Carpet, *Sunday Times*, 2002-10-20, p. 9

<sup>147</sup> H. Hagen, First SA Tourism Attaché for Beijing, *Citizen*, 2003-06-02, p. 7; Anon., SA’s First Tourism Envoy to China, [http://www.safrika.info/what\\_happening/nnews/tourism\\_020603.htm](http://www.safrika.info/what_happening/nnews/tourism_020603.htm), 2002-06-03.

<sup>148</sup> H. Hagen, First SA Tourism Attaché for Beijing, *Citizen*, 2003-06-02, p. 7.

<sup>149</sup> Anon., Easier Travelling to South Africa: visa issued in Shanghai and direct airline expected soon, <http://news.tom.com>, 2003-11-14; Anon., Chinese Citizens Apply Visas in Shanghai from Nov 17<sup>th</sup>, Next Week, <http://sh.sina.com.cn/news/20031114/154222018.shtml>, 2003-11-14.

Thirdly, as regards the language barrier and cultural differences, Lisa Gordon-Davies from the South African Tourism Institute believed that “language and cultural differences between the Chinese and South Africans are some of the crucial problems to overcome by virtually every South African establishment.”<sup>150</sup> The government introduced an ambitious language strategy to push tour operators and guides to speak foreign languages. With China being identified as South Africa’s future growth market and South Africa being granted the ADS, Chinese took precedence.<sup>151</sup> Given “a great need for guides who can speak Chinese,”<sup>152</sup> China and South Africa signed the “Memorandum of Understanding Pertaining to the Chinese Training” in 2005. In terms of this Memorandum, the Chinese government dispatched a Chinese teacher to conduct training courses for local tourist guides to improve service for Chinese tourists.<sup>153</sup> Chinese-speaking interpreters fluent in English will also be recruited “somewhere”, probably in China.<sup>154</sup> Moreover, the SAT launched its China websites at the 2004 Tourism Indaba to specifically target and monitor Chinese tourists. This is regarded as one of tricks up its collective sleeve for the next two years of targeting and marketing the Chinese potential market.<sup>155</sup>

Fourthly, in order to set up a new image of South Africa as a world-class destination for Chinese tourists, to market the destination, facilitate the product platform and monitor and learn from tourist experience, South Africa sent its largest stand-alone travel exhibition to Shanghai in 2005 to tap into China’s burgeoning travel market. The exhibition “Nan Fei Total” (being Mandarin for South Africa) has been described as SAT’s most ambitious global tourist promotional and marketing project ever.<sup>156</sup> Zolelwa Mukhozo, believed that “[t]his is

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<sup>150</sup> H. Hagen, China to Boost SA Tourism, *Citizen*, 2001-12-13, p. 9.

<sup>151</sup> S. Naidoo, State to Tackle Language in Tourism Sector, *Business Day*, 2003-10-02, p. 4.

<sup>152</sup> K. Maughan, Flood of Chinese Visitors can be Expected thanks to Beijing Deal, *Cape Argus*, 2001-12-12, p. 9.

<sup>153</sup> Anon., A Chinese Teacher is to Conduct Chinese Training Course for Local Tourist Guides, <http://www.chinese-embassy.org.za/chn/znj/t180596.htm>; D. Jackson, High-profile Visits Set Stage for Economic Co-operation, *Business Day*, 2004-10-01, p. 20.

<sup>154</sup> H. Hagen, China to Boost SA Tourism, *Citizen*, 2001-12-13, p. 9

<sup>155</sup> D. Slabbert, China and Japan...Here We Come, *Enterprise*, 2004-05-31, p. 42.

<sup>156</sup> Anon., SA Tourism Takes Diversity of South Africa to China, *Star*, 2005-09-22, p. 12.

going to be a fantastic experience for the Chinese, that will only be rivaled by an actual visit to South Africa,” It would give Chinese travellers who have thought about visiting South Africa the opportunity to experience the diversity of experiences on offer.<sup>157</sup>

Fifthly, as regards the safety of tourists the SAT has launched several initiatives to ensure the safety of all tourists including Chinese tourists coming to South Africa. These include a partnership initiative with the oil company Engen and the Tourism Information and Safety Call Line, 083 123 2345, which provides tourists with information on what to do in an emergency and where to locate services.<sup>158</sup> The DEAT has established the National Tourism Safety Network, a multi-stakeholder forum comprising provincial representatives, the South African Police Service, metro police, organized local government, community policing structures, the SAT and other key stakeholders. The forum has also developed the Tourism Safety Communications Strategy and redrafted the National Tourism Safety Tips.<sup>159</sup>

So, there is a concerted effort by the South African government to make Chinese travel to South Africa more viable, particularly in view of the various barriers. However, more needs to be done if the full potential is to be realized.

#### **IV. Conclusion**

The increase of Chinese tourists to South Africa has contributed to the growth of the economy and the improvement of social life. Firstly, tourism is generally seen as a significant economic contributor to the GDP because international visitors are a valuable source of foreign currency.<sup>160</sup> According to the 2003 Annual Tourism Report of SAT, the direct expenditure of the Chinese (including Hong Kong) in South Africa was about R 0.7 billion, 1.3 % of the total foreign direct spending in South Africa. The average amount spent by

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<sup>157</sup> Anon., SA Tourism Takes Diversity of South Africa to China, *Star*, 2005-09-22, p. 12.

<sup>158</sup> D. Burger (ed.), *South Africa Yearbook 2004/05*, p. 542.

<sup>159</sup> *Ibid.*

<sup>160</sup> C. Y. Gee en E. Fayos-Sola (eds.), *International Tourism: a global perspective (2<sup>nd</sup> edition)*, p. 251.

Chinese in South Africa was R16 761.<sup>161</sup> As analyzed in my market survey, the minimum total expenditure (including airfare, accommodation and transport) was about R 7 246 while the maximum was about R 36 232. Based on these figures, the increase in the number of Chinese tourists will also contribute greatly to the growth of the South African economy. Rejoice Mabudafhasi, the Deputy Minister of the DEAT, confirmed that the increasing Chinese tourist arrivals “will mean a huge growth in our economy. It will also mean that a number of jobs will be created for our jobless people”.<sup>162</sup> In addition, according to H. Pereira, “[t]he South African international tourism market is highly cyclical, with most overseas visitors coming to our shores during the October to February period.” Tourists from the East including Chinese tourists fill the huge trough experienced during the South African winter tourism season from April to July.<sup>163</sup> As a result, the SAT expected a tourism boom from Hong Kong and Mainland China when visitors from Europe tailed off in May, filling hotels and maintaining jobs in winter months<sup>164</sup> so as to overcome the problem of seasonability in the South African tourism industry.

However, the socio-cultural impacts of Chinese tourists on South Africa were often ignored while the government and the tourism industry focused on the impacts of Chinese tourists on the economic growth of South Africa. Chinese tourists can contribute to the cultural exchange between the Chinese and South Africans. South Africa is a Europe-Africa oriented country while China is a typical Eastern country. The coming of Chinese tourists can quicken the blending of Eastern culture with the Western and African culture in South Africa. As already pointed out in Chapter Three, the Chinese are not newcomers to South Africa. The first Chinese came to South Africa in the mid seventeenth century and there are about 100 000 Chinese in South Africa today. The arrival of the Chinese tourists not only leads to a greater South African awareness of China, but also helps to improve the social status of the Chinese in South Africa.

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<sup>161</sup> SAT, 2003 Annual Tourism Report, p. 91.

<sup>162</sup> DEAT, Off to China to Sign MOU for ADS, <http://www.satsa.com/news/messages/108.html>.

<sup>163</sup> A. van Huyssteen, Tourists from East Help Fill Winter Trough, *This Day*, 2004-03-24, p. 15

<sup>164</sup> A. D’Angelo, SA Expects Tourism from Asia to Continue Growing, *Star*, 2003-06-04, p. 5.

Since the establishment of the new democratic South Africa in 1994, particularly the normalization of the diplomatic relations between China and South Africa in 1998, the development of Chinese tourism to South Africa has blossomed. According to a model developed on the basis of the number of Chinese tourist arrivals between 1998 and 2003, by the year 2010, Chinese tourists arrivals will be 51 192, 6.6% of the CAGR, on the condition that tourism were not affected by other external forces such as natural and social factors (Figure 5. 6). “We expect China to become a major market in the next few decades,” said Deputy Director-general D. G. Patrick Matlou.<sup>165</sup> Through concerted efforts between China and South Africa, tourism in China, known as the “sun in the morning in the twenty-first century”, will add splendor to the colourful “rainbow” of South African tourism.

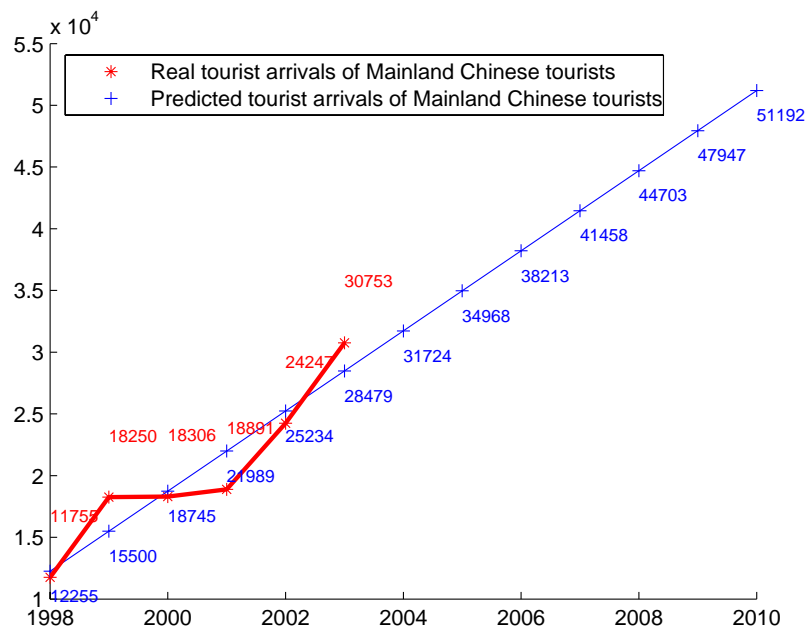


Figure 5. 6 A model for Mainland Chinese tourists to South Africa 2005-2010

Adapted from: South African Embassy in the PRC, Chinese Tourist Arrivals in South Africa 1998-2004, Email, 2005-02-17.

<sup>165</sup> P. Honey, Chinese Tourists aren't to Sniff at, *Financial Mail*, 2003-05-02, p. 25.

## Chapter 6

### Tourism in developing countries: China and South Africa

In general, tourism follows the law of self-development, developing from a lower level to a higher level and from domestic to international travel.<sup>1</sup> Domestic tourism generally grows in response to a country's economic development and rising living standards and lays a foundation for international tourism, including both inbound tourism and outbound tourism. Inbound tourism often precedes the expansion of domestic tourism. The development of domestic tourism accelerates the development of outbound tourism, which can also be seen as an extension of domestic tourism.<sup>2</sup>

After WWII, certain factors such as the rapid growth of population, high unemployment, the increase of social and regional disparities, high trade deficits, the mono-structured economy and a high dependency on the industrialized countries, forced the developing countries and the LDCs to utilize all of their available resources to survive.<sup>3</sup> Most developing countries and the LDCs overcame various disadvantages to develop inbound tourism owing to its capacity of generating crucially needed foreign exchange earnings, infusing badly needed capital into their economies.<sup>4</sup> Spanish scholar J. Naylor believed that “[t]ourism is now possible for underdeveloped countries to improve their economies”,<sup>5</sup> while American scholar E. A. Carter reiterated that “the development of tourism has been regarded as a panacea for the economic malaise of the least developed countries (LDCs), faced with a narrow resource base and serious balance of payment difficulties.”<sup>6</sup> As a result, global tourism has developed in two

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<sup>1</sup> Y. Qiao, Domestic Tourism in China: policies and development, in A. A. Lew en L. Yu (eds.), *Tourism in China: geographical, political and economic perspectives*, Boulder, 1995, p. 121.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid, pp. 121-2; C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 15; H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 259.

<sup>3</sup> M. Oppermann en K. S. Chon, *Tourism in Developing Countries*, p. 1.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid.

<sup>5</sup> J. Naylor, Tourism - Spain's Most Important Industry, *Geography* 52, 1967, pp. 23-40, as quoted by M. Oppermann en K. S. Chon, *Tourism in Developing Countries*, p. 16.

<sup>6</sup> E. A. Carter, Tourism in the Least Developed Countries, *Annals of Tourism Research* 14, 1987, pp. 202-26, as quoted by M. Oppermann en K. S. Chon, *Tourism in Developing Countries*, p. 16.

general trends. One was that the developed Western countries developed domestic tourism first and then international tourism. The other was that developing countries and the LDCs developed inbound tourism first and then domestic and outbound tourism.<sup>7</sup>

Tourism emerged as a global phenomenon in the 1960s. Its potential for the economic development was widely endorsed by national governments.<sup>8</sup> As regards the development of tourism, every country or area adapted different developmental patterns because of their specific political and economic situation.<sup>9</sup> China and South Africa, two major developing countries in Asia and Africa, facing political and economic problems after the Cultural Revolution and apartheid respectively, chose the pattern of developing inbound tourism first and then domestic tourism and outbound tourism. They had a common objective, namely, achieving the most often conceived goals of employment and income generation, increase in foreign exchange and tax earnings, reduction of rural-urban migration, and balancing the trade account.<sup>10</sup> Although China and South Africa are in different stages of tourism development, they follow a similar pattern. In addition to the positive government policies and actions discussed in Chapter Two and Chapter Four, the role of the government and the high regard of the national leaders constitute other major factors in tourism development of the two countries.

In the initial stages of the development of tourism, due to a scarcity of resources, a lack of expertise, and limited involvement in tourism by the private sectors, the Chinese and South African governments played, and are still playing a central role in both policy formulation and planning in the development of tourism.<sup>11</sup> The two governments generally played six major roles during the different periods of the development of tourism. They are

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<sup>7</sup> H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 258.

<sup>8</sup> WTO, *Tourism and Poverty Alleviation*, p. 25.

<sup>9</sup> H. Wang et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, p. 257.

<sup>10</sup> P. Agel, Dritte-Welt-Tourismus, in G. Haedrich et al(eds.), *Tourismus-Management, Tourismus-Marketing und Fremdenverkehrsplanung*, pp. 715-28, as cited by M. Oppermann en K. S. Chon, *Tourism in Developing Countries*, p. 1.

<sup>11</sup> C. L. Jenkins, Tourism in Developing Countries: the privatization issue, in A. V. Seaton (ed.), *Tourism: the state of art*, Chichester, 1994, p. 3.

- operator: involving ownership and provision of the infrastructure for tourism development and operation of tourism business activities;
- regulator: formulating and implementing regulations to control tourism business;
- investment stimulator: stimulating tourism investment through the provisions of financial incentives;
- promoter: spending money on the promotion of tourism in the international market;
- coordinator: coordinating activities of different government departments with respect to tourism; and
- educator: establishing a system of tourism education institutions and providing tourism educational and training programs.<sup>12</sup>

In addition, the national leaders of China and South Africa both attached great importance to the development of tourism. In China, Deng Xiaoping, in five different speeches from 1978 to 1979, emphasized the importance of tourism and proposed a goal of tourism receipts of US\$ 10 billion by the end of the twentieth century. This was however realized far ahead of time and far exceeded his expectations.<sup>13</sup> In 1997, Jiang Zemin, the former President, inaugurated the “Second Tourism Year”.<sup>14</sup> In 2004, President Hu Jintao and other national leaders attended fourteen international exchanges on tourism initiated by the CNTA to attract global attention to tourism in China.<sup>15</sup> In South Africa, President Thabo Mbeki inaugurated the 2003 Tourism Indaba and gave a warm welcome to the people all over the world urging them to “please come to Africa”.<sup>16</sup> In 2003, former President Nelson Mandela praised Sol

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<sup>12</sup> H. Qiu Zhang et al, An Analysis of Tourism Policy Development in Modern China, *Tourism Management* 20(4), 1999, p. 471.

<sup>13</sup> X. Deng, *Deng Xiaoping on Tourism*, <http://www.cnta.com/ziliao/den/index.asp>; C. Zhao et al, *An Introduction to Tourism*, pp. 63, 67; G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>14</sup> G. He et al (eds.), *Fifty Years of Tourism Industry in China*, Chapter 1.

<sup>15</sup> TRCCASS, Comments on Heated Tourism Issues in 2004 (1): a new breakthrough in outbound tourism, <http://travel.people.com.cn/GB/41636/41890/3127865.html>, 2004-01-19.

<sup>16</sup> DEAT, President Thabo Mbeki Officially Opens Bigger and Better Tourism Indaba 2003: the vision behind a world-class exhibition, <http://www.environment.gov.za>.

Kerzner for his great contribution to the development of the tourism industry in South Africa and thanked him “for your continuous support of all our efforts.”<sup>17</sup>

As discussed in Chapter Two and Chapter Four, the diverse natural and cultural resources became great potential for developing China and South Africa as world-class tourist destinations. According to the WTO, China after 1978 became one of the only developing countries which received a high volume of tourist arrivals. South Africa was ranked seventh in developing countries after 1994 with the fastest growth in terms of international tourist arrivals.<sup>18</sup> With the rapid development of inbound tourism, China and South Africa began to pay attention to the development of domestic tourism as it serves as the primary demand generator in many developing countries.<sup>19</sup> In order to develop domestic tourism, the Chinese government carried out various policies to provide the Mainland Chinese with more leisure time to travel, while the South African government launched various campaigns to develop domestic tourism. In terms of the development of outbound tourism, China has experienced three periods: travel to Hong Kong and Macao; travel to the areas and countries bordering with China and Asian countries; and travel to Western countries.<sup>20</sup> The Chinese government issued various regulations throughout this period to both regulate and enhance outbound tourism. China has become the largest tourist source country in Asia as well as one of the countries with the fastest growth, biggest potential and widest influence in the global outbound tourism market. Chinese outbound tourism has become an important and integral part of the Chinese tourism industry.<sup>21</sup> In reviewing the developmental trends of Chinese

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<sup>17</sup> Anon., Sun King Setting SA Tourism Aglow, *Saturday Star*, 2003-11-15, p. 1.

<sup>18</sup> WTO, *Tourism and Poverty Alleviation: recommendation for Action*, pp. 7-8.

<sup>19</sup> K. B. Ghimire en Zhou Li, The Economic Role of National Tourism in China, in K. B. Ghimire(ed.), *The Native Tourist: mass tourism within developing countries*, London, 2001, p. 96; E. Koch en P. J. Massyn, South Africa's Domestic Tourism Sector: promises and problems, in K. B. Ghimire(ed.), *The Native Tourist: mass tourism within developing countries*, London, 2001, p. 143; M. Oppermann en K. S. Chon, *Tourism in Developing Countries*, p. 2.

<sup>20</sup> WTO en ETC, Study into Chinese Outbound Tourism, pp. 9-10; People.com.cn, Comments of Two Scholars Zhang Guangrui and Song Rui on Economy of Outbound Tourism in China, <http://www.people.com.cn/GB/14838/14839/34480/2959155.html>, 2004-11-02.

<sup>21</sup> CNTA, the Convening of the 2005 Working Conference of Chinese Outbound Tourism, [http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz\\_view.asp?id=15093](http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz_view.asp?id=15093), 2005-06-29.

outbound tourism over the past two decades between 1983 and 2004, the Director of the CNTA Shao Qiwei concluded that the number of Chinese outbound travellers increased to more than ten million in seventeen years between 1983 and 2000; and to more than twenty million in three years by 2003. He estimated that the number of Chinese outbound travellers would increase to more than thirty million in less than two years.<sup>22</sup> However, despite the existence thereof, South Africa did not specifically devote attention to the development of outbound tourism. Prior to 1994, there were 1.3 million outbound travellers annually, which mostly comprised the affluent whites and some South African Asians (in this case Indians).<sup>23</sup> Due to their geographical isolation, the destinations were limited to regional countries such as Namibia, Botswana, Mauritius as well as other neighbouring African countries. The long haul-destinations included UK, Australia and the USA, with UK being the most prominent.<sup>24</sup> After 1994, new wealthy black potential travellers emerged. For them, different destinations are likely to hold an appeal.<sup>25</sup> As yet, little has been done to assess this demand and there has been no comprehensive survey of data on South African outbound tourism.<sup>26</sup>

As discussed in Chapter Five, after the normalization of the diplomatic relations between China and South Africa in 1998, great progress was made in tourism. China and South Africa signed various memorandums and agreements to promote the tourism industry between the two countries. From 1998 to 2003, the arrivals of Mainland Chinese increased dramatically. However, the development of outbound tourism in South Africa to China is basically a virgin territory. This is due to two major aspects: from within South Africa and from within China. In the first place, this is as a result of South African geographical location at the southern tip of Africa and its traditional historical links with Britain and other European countries.<sup>27</sup> The depreciation of the currency (South Africa Rand) also made outbound travel, particularly

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<sup>22</sup> CNTA, the Convening of the 2005 Working Conference of Chinese Outbound Tourism, [http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz\\_view.asp?id=15093](http://www.cnta.com/ss/wz_view.asp?id=15093), 2005-06-29.

<sup>23</sup> G. Mattews, Outbound Markets: South Africa outbound, *EIU Travel & Tourism Analyst 2*, 1994, p. 24.

<sup>24</sup> Ibid; B. Boniface en C. Cooper, *Worldwide Destinations (4<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 328.

<sup>25</sup> G. Mattews, Outbound Markets: South Africa outbound, *EIU Travel & Tourism Analyst 2*, 1994, p. 24.

<sup>26</sup> Ibid.

<sup>27</sup> Ibid.

long-haul travel, far too expensive for South Africans.<sup>28</sup> Moreover, the majority of South Africans have no economic capacity to participate in outbound tourism. According to the World Bank, in 2004, South Africa was rated as an upper-middle-income country with a gross national income (GNI) per capita \$ 3 256 - \$10 065.<sup>29</sup> However, it has been hampered by disparity between the rich and the poor. Poverty level in South Africa has increased since 1996. The income inequality has increased by 21 % between 1996 and 2005. In 2005, the Gini Coefficient<sup>30</sup> for Africans was 0.64 compared with 0.53 in 1996.<sup>31</sup> According to the South Africa Institute of Race Relations (SAIRR), 1.9 million people, 4.5% of the South African population was living on less than \$1 per day in 1996. This number had risen to more than 4.3 million, 9.1% in 2004.<sup>32</sup> Poverty income varies according to household size and ranged from R 678 per month for one individual to R 2 899 per month for a household of eight or more in 2003.<sup>33</sup> In the second place, as already pointed out in Chapter Five, the geographical distance between China and South Africa resulted in the Chinese neglecting this region and also because they were put off by the first-and-third world dichotomy that exists in South Africa.<sup>34</sup> For this, the South African outbound tourism market was also ignored in the development of Chinese inbound tourism. Moreover, due to the short seven-year history of normalization of bilateral ties between the two countries, the Chinese government is not able to develop the South African tourism market in the same way as it has been able to develop some of its traditional and mature markets such as Japan, ROK, Russia, USA and Malaysia.

In the recent past, through unremitting efforts, China and South Africa have each pioneered a way to the development of tourism with their own specific characteristics within specific

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<sup>28</sup> B. Boniface en C. Cooper, *Worldwide Destinations (4<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 328.

<sup>29</sup> The World Bank, Country classification, <http://web.worldbank.org>; the World Bank, Country Group, <http://web.worldbank.org>.

<sup>30</sup> The Gini Coefficient is a measure of income inequality. The score can vary from 0 (complete equality) to 1 (complete inequality). See also C. Bissek, The Poor Getting Poorer, *Financial Mail*, 2005-09-23, p. 31; Anon., Gini Coefficients, <http://berclo.net/page01/01en-gini-coef.html>.

<sup>31</sup> C. Bissek, The Poor Getting Poorer, *Financial Mail*, 2005-09-23, p. 31.

<sup>32</sup> Ibid, M. van Niekerk, How Are We Doing? *Business Day*, 2005-09-16, p. 2.

<sup>33</sup> C. Bissek, The Poor Getting Poorer, *Financial Mail*, 2005-09-23, p. 31.

<sup>34</sup> D. Cronson, Tourism to Post-apartheid South Africa: an international perspective, p. 35.

parameters. These strategies and the developmental patterns can be used as possible options for other developing countries and LDCs to advance their respective tourism industries. However, as the sun - the normalization of the diplomatic relations between China and South Africa - continues to rise, the cooperation in tourism between China and South Africa, will be as President Mbeki describes like “the dawning of the dawn”.<sup>35</sup> It will banish the darkness of isolation between the governments and between the peoples as a result of geographical and historical disadvantages to reach the common goal of “common development on the basis of mutual benefit”,<sup>36</sup> as well as contribute greatly to the development of global tourism. In the twenty-first century, China and South Africa will, hopefully, hand in hand, devote their joint efforts to the realization of the highest purpose of tourism: “the understanding and appreciation that builds a better world for all”.<sup>37</sup>

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<sup>35</sup> T. Mbeki, A Message from President, in People’s Daily, *Celebrating Ten Years of Freedom in South Africa and the South Africa-China Partnership*, p. 1.

<sup>36</sup> China and South Africa, Pretoria Declaration on the Partnership between the People’s Republic of China and the Republic of South Africa, <http://www.fmprc.gov.cn/eng/gjhdq/dqzzywt/2633/2639/t15595.htm>, 2002-04-25.

<sup>37</sup> C. R. Goeldner et al., *Tourism: principles, practices, philosophies (8<sup>th</sup> edition)*, p. 278.

## Appendices

### Appendix 1 Chronology of Chinese history

Dynasty			Year
<b>Xia</b>			2070-1600 BC
<b>Shang</b>			1600-1046 BC
<b>Zhou</b>	Western Zhou		1046-771 BC
	Eastern Zhou		770-256BC
Spring and Autumn period			770-476 BC
Warring States period			475-221 BC
<b>Qin</b>			221-207 BC
<b>Han</b>	Western Han		206BC-25 AD
	Eastern Han		25-220
<b>Three Kingdoms</b>	Wei		220-265
	Shu		221-263
	Wu		222-280
<b>Western Jin</b>			265-317
<b>Eastern Jin</b>			317-420
<b>Southern and Northern Dynasties</b>	Southern Dynasties	Song	420-479
		Qi	479-501
		Liang	502-557
		Chen	557-589
	Northern Dynasties	Northern Wei	386-534
		Eastern Wei	534-550
		Western Wei	535-556
		Northern Qi	550-577
		Northern Zhou	557-581
<b>Sui</b>			581-618
<b>Tang</b>			618-907
<b>Five Dynasties</b>	Later Liang		907-923
	Later Tang		923-936
	Later Jin		936-947
	Later Han		947-950
	Later Zhou		951-960
<b>Ten Kingdoms</b>			907-979
<b>Song</b>	Northern Song		960-1127
	Southern Song		1127-1279
<b>Liao</b>			907-1125
<b>Western Xia</b>			1038-1227
<b>Jin</b>			1115-1234
<b>Yuan</b>			1271-1368
<b>Ming</b>			1368-1644
<b>Qing</b>			1644-1911
<b>Republic of China (in mainland China)</b>			1912-1949
<b>China</b>	Republic of China (in Taiwan)		1949-
	People's Republic of China		1949-

From: Anon., Chronology of China, <http://www1.china.com.cn/chinese/china-shuzi2003/dsj/fl2.htm>; Anon, History Timeline, [http://www-chaos.umd.edu/history/time\\_line.html](http://www-chaos.umd.edu/history/time_line.html); New Star Publishers, *China 2002*, (Beijing 2002), p. 7.

## Appendix 2 World heritage list of China 1987- 2005

- Imperial Palaces of the Ming and Qing Dynasties in Beijing and Shenyang (1987, 2004)
- Mausoleum of the First Qin Emperor (1987)
- Mogao Caves (1987)
- Mount Taishan (1987)
- Peking Man Site at Zhoukoudian (1987)
- The Great Wall (1987)
- Mount Huangshan (1990)
- Huanglong Scenic and Historic Interest Area (1992)
- Jiuzhaigou Valley Scenic and Historic Interest Area (1992)
- Wulingyuan Scenic and Historic Interest Area (1992)
- Ancient Building Complex in the Wudang Mountains (1994)
- Historic Ensemble of the Potala Palace, Lhasa (1994, 2000, 2001)
- Mountain Resort and its Outlying Temples, Chengde (1994)
- Temple and Cemetery of Confucius and the Kong Family Mansion in Qufu (1994)
- Lushan National Park (1996)
- Mount Emei Scenic Area, including Leshan Giant Buddha Scenic Area (1996)
- Ancient City of Ping Yao (1997)
- Classical Gardens of Suzhou (1997, 2000)
- Old Town of Lijiang (1997)
- Summer Palace, an Imperial Garden in Beijing (1998)
- Temple of Heaven: an Imperial Sacrificial Altar in Beijing (1998)
- Dazu Rock Carvings (1999)
- Mount Wuyi (1999)
- Ancient Villages in Southern Anhui – Xidi and Hongcun (2000)
- Imperial Tombs of the Ming and Qing Dynasties (2000, 2003, 2004)
- Longmen Grottoes (2000)
- Mount Qingcheng and the Dujiangyan Irrigation System (2000)
- Yungang Grottoes (2001)
- Three Parallel Rivers of Yunnan Protected Areas (2003)
- Capital Cities and Tombs of the Ancient Koguryo Kingdom (2004)
- Historic Centre of Macao (2005)

From: UNESCO, World Heritage List, <http://whc.unesco.org/en/list>.

## Appendix 3 Countries/regions with the Approved Destination Status of China 1983-2005

No	Countries/regions	Year	Launched
1	Hong Kong	1983	Launched completely
2	Macao	1983	Launched completely
3	Thailand	1988	Launched completely
4	Singapore	1990	Launched completely
5	Malaysia	1990	Launched completely
6	Philippines	1992	Launched completely
7	Australia	1999	Launched in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou
		2004	Tianjin, Hebei, Shandong, Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Chongqing
8	New Zealand	1999	Launched in Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou,
		2004	Launched in Tianjin, Hebei, Shandong, Jiangsu, Zhejiang and Chongqing
9	ROK	1998	Launched completely
10	Japan	2000	Trial in Beijing, Shanghai and Guangzhou
		2004	Launched in Liaoning, Tianjin, Shangdong, Jiangsu, Zhejiang
11	Vietnam	2000	Launched completely
12	Cambodian	2000	Launched completely
13	Burma	2000	Launched completely
14	Brunei	2000	Launched completely
15	Nepal	2002	Launched completely
16	Indonesia	2002	Launched completely
17	Malta	2002	Launched completely
18	Turkey	2002	Launched completely
19	Egypt	2002	Launched completely
20	Germany	2003	Launched completely
21	India	2003	Launched completely
22	Maldives	2003	Launched completely
23	Sri Lanka	2003	Launched completely
24	South Africa	2003	Launched completely
25	Croatia	2003	Launched completely
26	Hungary	2003	Launched completely
27	Pakistan	2003	Launched completely
28	Cuba	2003	Launched completely
29	Greece	2004	Launched completely
30	France	2004	Launched completely
31	Holland	2004	Launched completely
32	Belgium	2004	Launched completely
33	Luxemburg	2004	Launched completely
34	Portugal	2004	Launched completely

35	Spain	2004	Launched completely
36	Italy	2004	Launched completely
37	Austria	2004	Launched completely
38	Finland	2004	Launched completely
39	Sweden	2004	Launched completely
40	Czech	2004	Launched completely
41	Estonia	2004	Launched completely
42	Latvia	2004	Launched completely
43	Lithuania	2004	Launched completely
44	Poland	2004	Launched completely
45	Slovenia	2004	Launched completely
46	Slovakia	2004	Launched completely
47	Cyprus	2004	Launched completely
48	Demark	2004	Launched completely
49	Iceland	2004	Launched completely
50	Ireland	2004	Launched completely
51	Norway	2004	Launched completely
52	Romania	2004	Launched completely
53	Switzerland	2004	Launched completely
54	Liechtenstein	2004	Launched completely
55	Ethiopia	2004	Launched completely
56	Zimbabwe	2004	Launched completely
57	Tanzania	2004	Launched completely
58	Mauritius	2004	Launched completely
59	Tunisia	2004	Launched completely
60	Seychelles	2004	Launched completely
61	Kenya	2004	Launched completely
62	Zambia	2004	Launched completely
63	Jordan	2004	Launched completely
64	Northern Marianas	2005	Launched completely
65	Fiji	2005	Launched completely
66	Vanuatu	2005	Launched completely
67	UK	2005	Launched completely
68	Chile	2005	Launched completely
69	Jamaica	2005	Launched completely
70	Russia	2005	Launched completely
71	Brazil	2005	Launched completely
72	Mexico	2005	Launched completely
73	Peru	2005	Launched completely
74	Antigua and Barbuda	2005	Launched completely
75	Barbados	2005	Launched completely
76	Laos	2005	Launched completely

From: Outbound tourism in China, <http://www.cnta.com/chujing/chujing.htm>.

## Appendix 4 A letter from the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism of South Africa



**DEPARTMENT: ENVIRONMENTAL AFFAIRS AND TOURISM  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA**

Private Bag X447, Pretoria, 0001 Tel: (27-12) 310 3911 Fax: (27-12) 322 2682  
Fedsure Forum Building, North Tower, cor. Van der Walt and Pretorius Streets, Pretoria  
www.deat.gov.za

Ref: 13/21/1/15

Enquiries: Ms N C Siwisa

Tel: (012) 310-3322 Fax: (012) 322-5754 E-mail: [nsiwisa@deat.gov.za](mailto:nsiwisa@deat.gov.za)

Prof. Karen L. Harris  
University of Pretoria  
Dept of Historical and Heritage Studies  
**PRETORIA**  
0002

Dear Professor Harris

**RE: DISSERTATION "THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE CHINESE TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA"**

The letter dated 22<sup>nd</sup> June has reference. The department wishes to refer your student Mr. Li Ying (student no. 23062658) to Ms Zolelwa Mukozho at the South African Tourism. She is the portfolio manager for Asia, of which the Republic of China is one of the destinations. She is the appropriate person to facilitate accessibility to the tour operators and tourist guides. She has been informed of your correspondence. You can contact her at: [zolelwa@southafrica.net](mailto:zolelwa@southafrica.net), telephone no: (011) 895-3000. She is expecting your correspondence.

The department wishes to take this opportunity to thank you for the interest shown in the tourism industry. We wish Mr. Li Ying success in his studies.

Yours Sincerely

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'N C Siwisa'.

**MS NC SIWISA**  
**DIRECTOR: TOURISM HRD**  
**DATE: 18/07/15**

**CC: Zolelwa Mukozho**

Note: "the Republic of China" in this letter should be "the People's Republic of China".

## Appendix 5 Questionnaire: Chinese tourists in South Africa (Mandarin)

### 南非中国游客调查表 (请在适当回答划√或附简短回答) No.

#### (一) 社会经济状况调查表

年龄 性别	18-24 男	25-34 女	35-44 婚姻状况	45-54 婚	55-64 否	65+
家庭人口	居住地			城市	乡村	
教育程度	初中	高中 教师	中专 公务员	大专 商人	大学 家庭主妇	研究生*
职业	政府官员 企业经理	研究人员 工程师	文职人员 工人	自谋 无职业者	退休人员 学生	其他
月收入 (RMB ¥)	1 601-2 400	2 401-4 000	4 001-6 000	6 001-10 000	10 001+	无收入
英语	不熟练	熟练	其他			

#### (二) 南非之旅调查表 (1)

目的	商务 调查南非商情	会务 体验当地的文化	度假观光 探亲访友	学习 其他
南非的满意度	非常满意	满意	不满意	
南非之旅	愉快的旅行 是 否	钱有所值 是 否	是否推荐南非 是 否	希望再访 是 否
喜欢的风景	自然风光 文化景观 当地风俗	喜欢的城市	比勒陀利亚 约翰内斯堡 开普敦	
南非印象	之前		之后	空气/环境清新 景观与众不同 环境原始风貌

#### (三) 南非之旅调查表 (2)

信息来源	政府部门 旅游部门 旅行社	书刊 报纸	网站 电视/电台	朋友亲戚 工作关系	其他(请写出)
旅行团规模 (人)	3-5 6-10 11-15 16-20 20+	逗留时间	3天 <sup>-</sup> 3天 4-6天 6-10天 10天 <sup>+</sup>	旅行团形式	政府代表团 公司代表团 娱乐旅游 其他
旅行类型	全包(机票食宿旅游交通) 半包(机票食宿) 机票和住宿 非包价 其他	服务设施	住宿 好/不好 餐饮 好/不好	交通 好/不好 娱乐设施 好/不好	购物 好/不好
旅行花费	政府	公司	自付	其他	
出国次数		来南非次数			
总花费(含机票)	RMB ¥ 10 000	RMB ¥ 20 000	RMB ¥ 30 000	RMB ¥ 40 000	RMB ¥ 40 000 <sup>+</sup>

您的建议和要求: \_\_\_\_\_

此表根据国家旅游总局<2005年中国旅游统计便览>, 南非旅游<2003年年度报告>, <夏威夷中国出境旅游市场 分析>制作。  
2005-08-31。 此表仅作参考论文写作和学术研究之用, 信息保密。谢谢!

## Appendix 6 Questionnaire: Chinese tourists in South Africa (English)

This questionnaire is only for writing Master thesis and academic research. The information is confidential. Thanks.

### Questionnaire: Chinese Tourists in South Africa No.

Please mark the appropriate answer with a  $\surd$  or fill in brief comments

#### Section I Socioeconomic and Demographic Characteristics

<b>Age</b>	18 – 24	25 - 34	35 – 44	45 – 54	55 – 64	65 <sup>+</sup>
<b>Gender</b>	Male	Female	<b>Marital Status</b>	Married	Unmarried	
<b>Number in Family</b>		<b>Place of Residence</b>			Urban areas	Rural areas
<b>Educational level</b>	Secondary	High school	Technological school	College (< 4 years)	University (>4 years)	Postgraduate <sup>+</sup>
<b>Occupation</b>	Government official Enterprise manager	Teacher Researcher Engineer	Civil servant Office clerk Factory worker	Businessman Self-employed Unemployed	Housewife Retired Student	Other
<b>Monthly income (RMB¥)</b>	1 601-2 400	2 401-4 000	4 001- 6 000	6001-10 000	10 001 <sup>+</sup>	No income
<b>English</b>	Not proficient		Proficient	Other		

#### Section II Destination Experience: South Africa

<b>Purposes</b>	Business Investigating investment	Conference Experiencing local culture	Holiday and sightseeing Visiting friends/relatives	Study Other
<b>Information sources</b>	Government Tourism departments Travel agency	Newspapers Internet TV/Radio	Friends and relatives Work-related	Other
<b>Satisfaction level</b>	Extremely satisfied	Satisfied	Dissatisfied	
<b>Trip in SA</b>	<b>Interesting and exciting experience</b> Yes No	<b>Money for value</b> Yes No	<b>Recommending South Africa</b> Yes No	<b>Visit again?</b> Yes No
<b>Scenery liked</b>	Natural scenery Cultural sites Local customs	<b>Places liked</b>	Pretoria Johannesburg Cape Town	
<b>Impression</b>	<b>Before coming</b>		<b>After travelling</b>	Clean air Unique scenery Unspoiled environment

### Section III Tourism Characteristics in South Africa

<b>Party size (people)</b>	3 – 5	<b>Party type</b>	Government Delegation	<b>Length stay</b>	3 nights
	6 -10		Company Delegation		3 nights
	11 - 15		Pleasure tour		4 – 6 nights
	16 -20		Other		6 - 10 nights
	20 <sup>+</sup>				10 nights <sup>+</sup>
<b>Trip Type</b>	Inclusive package	Airfare, accommodation, coach tours and food	<b>Service facilities</b>	<b>Accommodation</b>	<b>Recreation</b>
	Full package	Airfare, accommodation and food		Good	Good
	Package	Accommodation and airfare		Not good	Not good
	Independent			<b>Restaurant</b>	<b>Shopping</b>
				Good	Good
				Not good	Not good
				<b>Transportation</b>	
				Good	
				Not good	
<b>Travel funding</b>	Government	Company	Self-funded	Other	
<b>Times Going abroad</b>			<b>Times coming to SA</b>		
<b>Total expenditure (incl. flight)</b>	RMB ¥ 10 000	RMB ¥ 20 000	RMB ¥ 30 000	RMB ¥ 40 000	RMB ¥ 40 000 <sup>+</sup>

#### Any other comments, suggestions and ideas:

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The tables were drawn up and adapted from “Outline of China Tourism Statistics 2004” by China National Tourism Administration, “2003 Annual Tourism Report” by South African Tourism and “Identifying and Analysing the Chinese Outbound Market for Hawaii” by the School of Travel Industry Management of University of Hawaii. 2005-12-20

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