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**SOCIO-ECONOMIC ASSESSMENT OF THE  
PROPOSED TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AT  
MOUNT AUX SOURCES, EASTERN FREE STATE,  
SOUTH AFRICA**

**BY**

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STUDENT NO. 1997822935**

**Dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the  
course Masters Degree in Tourism Studies  
School of Environmental Science  
Faculty of Natural and Agricultural Sciences  
(Qwaqwa Campus)**

**Supervisor: Prof. W. F. van Zyl  
Co-supervisor: Mr. A. Adjei**

**South Africa  
Phuthaditjhaba**

**March, 2008**

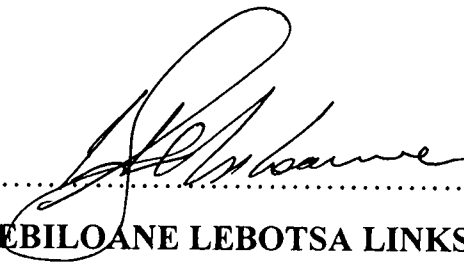
**Universiteit van die  
Vrystaat  
BLOEMFONTEIN**

**14 JAN 2011**

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# DECLARATION

I, **SEBILOANE LEBOTSA LINKS**, hereby declare that this mini-dissertation is my original work and has not been presented for a degree at any other university.

  
.....  
**SEBILOANE LEBOTSA LINKS**

This dissertation has been submitted for examination with my approval as University Supervisor and Co-supervisor.

.....  
**Supervisor: Prof. W. F. van Zyl**

.....  
**Co-supervisor: Mr. A. Adjei**

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express my gratitude to God for the strength to conduct the research. I appreciate the response I have received; particularly from the respondents in Tsheseng (Thibella, Phomolong and Dinkwenbg) in Maluti-a-Phofung as this study was written with their feedback and their concerns in mind. My profound gratitude goes to my supervisor, Professor W.F. van Zyl, and Mr, A. Adjei, my co-supervisor for their patience and for exposing me to the research facilities of the University, Dr. T. M. Ruhiiga from the Department of Geography at the University of the Free State (QwaQwa Campus) for assisting me with my report writing. I thank them for their encouragement. I also appreciate contributions made by my colleague, Mr. J. D. Mdluli in motivating me to carry on with the research.

In a project of this nature, the greatest depth is owed to my family. My sincere appreciation goes to my brother, Tumelo, and my sisters Mmaserame, the late Ntsoaki, Kentsho, Lerato, Mmathapelo (Dorcas), and my fiancé Dikeledi Kharejane. In particular, my loving parents, Mr. Worse Joseph Sebiloane and Mrs. Mmasepetlele Mmatumelo Margaret Sebiloane, for their encouragement, extreme understanding and moral and financial support they gave me throughout the period of my study. I acknowledge the encouragement and involvement of my finance. My sincere thanks go to the National Research Foundation (NRF) without whose support I could not have made it. Finally, to my colleagues at the University, I thank you all.

## **DEDICATION**

This dissertation is dedicated to

my beloved parents

**Mr. Worse Joseph and Mrs. Mmasepetlele Sebitoane**

They gave me the best through their support, confidence and enthusiasm.

So much of what I have become today stems from their parental care.

They have been my role models, motivators and above all, the people

who I admire for their Love and Courage.

**THIS IS FOR YOU, MOM AND DAD!**

## ABSTRACT

This study assesses the Potential Socio-economic Impact of the Tlokweng/Sentinel Cableway Development in the Tsheseng Community of Qwaqwa, Eastern Free State, South Africa.

The survey was carried out during a month of July 2002, amongst a total of 200 households drawn from a random sampling involving three areas in Tsheseng, namely; Thibella, Dinkweng and Phomolong villages. The villages are located in the former homeland of Qwaqwa in the Eastern Free State (South Africa).

In more specific terms, this research aimed at providing a critical examination of the contribution of this project in enhancing the standard of living of the people of Tsheseng (Qwaqwa). To put forward the recommendations on how the perceptions of these people can be integrated into the reality of the project was a challenge. It is also aimed at providing information from the respondents on how they foresee the impact of the project in tourism within the area.

The study used both qualitative and quantitative methods in data collection and analysis. Primary and secondary sources of data were used and modern methods were also employed to analyse and draw conclusion from the research.

The study's findings indicate that most of the households are not educated. As a result, they lack the capacity to be innovative. The study further revealed that Tsheseng people are far away from the CBD's and industries and as such, they are confined and marginalized through the non-interactive conditions imposed on them in their villages. These indicate a lack of incentives and high unemployment rate because of non-existence of clear and proper development and job opportunities intended to enhance the welfare (social status) of the Tsheseng people and Qwaqwa as a whole. The results further show that the people of Tsheseng acknowledge the fact that the project can be implemented with the hope that it will alleviate the alarming rate of unemployment. If this can be achieved, it will lead to betterment of the lives of Tsheseng people as well as on the tourism development process in South Africa.

In conclusion, the study recommends that the cable car should be implemented as one of the flagships (services) of the tourism industry in order to alleviate unemployment and provide better living conditions expected by many people of the world. The study also recommends such a development with a clear understanding that tourism will be ranked amongst the best businesses in the study area and in South Africa as a whole. With this project in hand, some problems such as underdevelopment, poverty, ignorance and isolation could be minimized and tourism will flourish.



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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

|        |   |
|--------|---|
| AITO   | Association for Independent Tour Operators      |
| AUS    | African Union Summit                            |
| BCV    | Basotho Cultural Village                        |
| CAGR   | Compound Annual Growth Rate                     |
| CODESA | Convention of Domestic South Africa             |
| CBD    | Central Business District                       |
| DBSA   | Development Bank of Southern Africa             |
| DEAT   | Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism |
| EDP    | Environmental-Adjusted Domestic Product         |
| EFS    | Eastern Free State                              |
| EIA    | Environmental Impact Assessment                 |
| EIR    | Environmental Impact Report                     |
| ETC    | Etcetera  |
| FSPES  | Free State Province Economic Strategy           |
| GDP    | Gross Domestic Product                          |
| GGP    | Gross Geographic Product                        |
| GNP    | Gross National Product                          |
| IDP    | Integrated Development Plan                     |
| IEM    | Integrated Environmental Management             |
| MAP    | Maluti-a-Phofung                                |
| NEMA   | National Environmental Management Authority     |
| NEPAD  | New Partnership for African Development         |
| NGO    | Non Government Organization                     |
| NTC    | National Tourism Conference                     |
| PTO    | Permission To Occupy                            |
| RDP    | Reconstruction and Development Plan             |
| RSA    | Republic of South Africa                        |
| SATOUR | South Africa Tourism                            |
| SMME   | Small Medium Micro Enterprise                   |
| STD    | Support for Tourism Development                 |
| TGS    | Tourism Growth Strategy                         |

|        |  |
|--------|--|
| TOI    | Tour Operations Initiative                                   |
| TSA    | Tourism Satellite Account                                    |
| TWP    | Tourism White Paper  |
| UNEP   | United Nation Environmental Program                          |
| UNESCO | United Nations Educational, Scientific Cultural Organization |
| UK     | United Kingdom   |
| VFR    | Visiting Friends and Relatives                               |
| WCED   | World Commission on Environment and Development              |
| WSSD   | World Summit on Sustainable Development                      |
| WTO    | World Tourism Organization                                   |
| WTTC   | World Travel and Tourism Council                             |

## **ADDENDUM A**

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- Figure 2      Map of the Free State showing Qwaqwa
- Figure 3      Map of Qwaqwa showing the study area
- Figure 4      Map of Tsheseng
- Figure 4.1    Aerial photograph of Thibella
- Figure 4.2    Aerial photograph of Phomolong
- Figure 4.3    Aerial photograph of Dinkweng (Rietpan)

FIGURE 1

Republic of South Africa

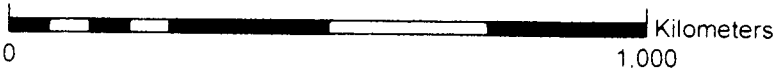
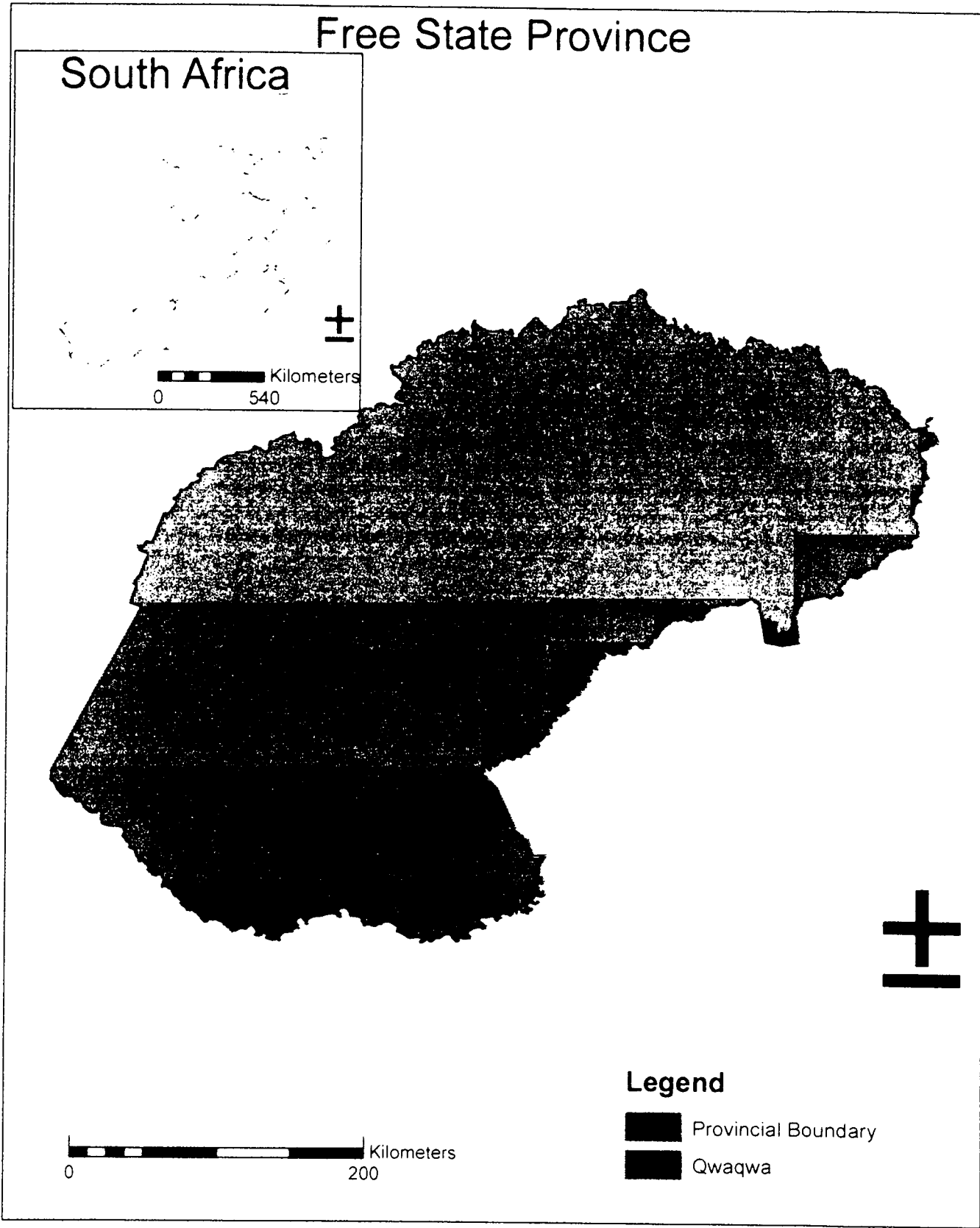


FIGURE 2



**FIGURE 3**

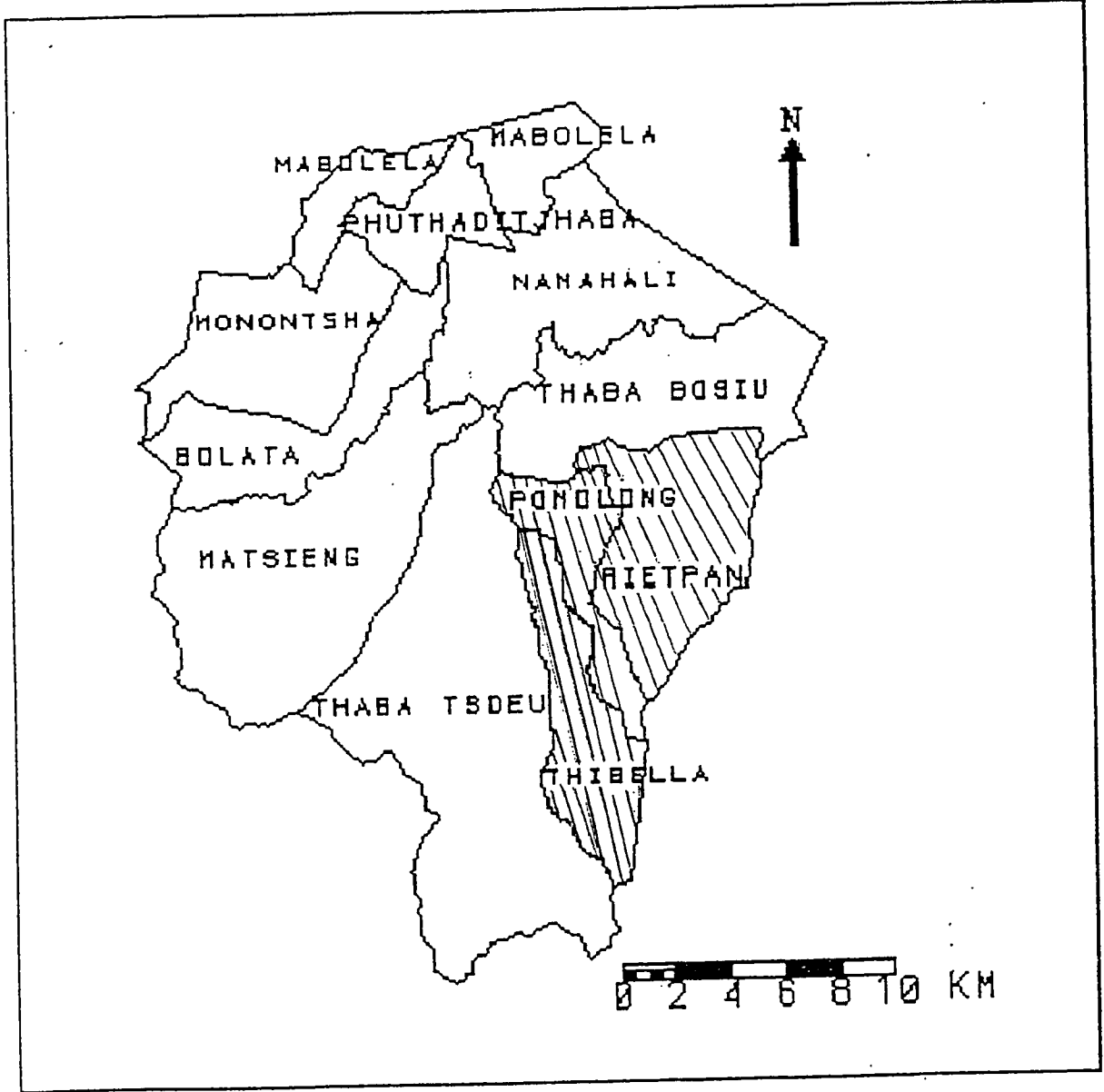
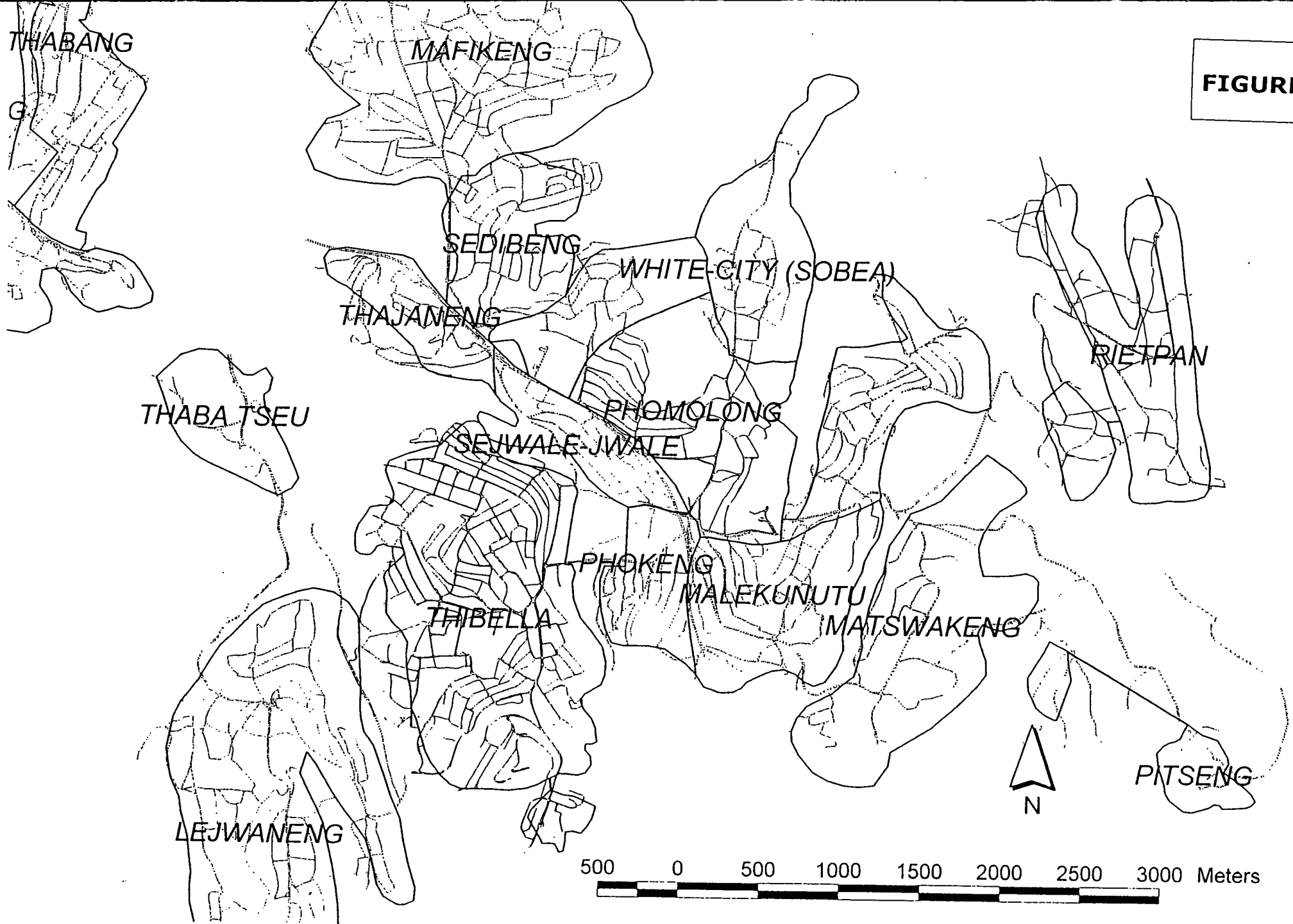


Figure 3. Map of QwaQwa showing the study area  
Source: Maluti-A- Phofung Town Planner, 2002



FIGURE 4



# THIBELLA

FIGURE 4.1

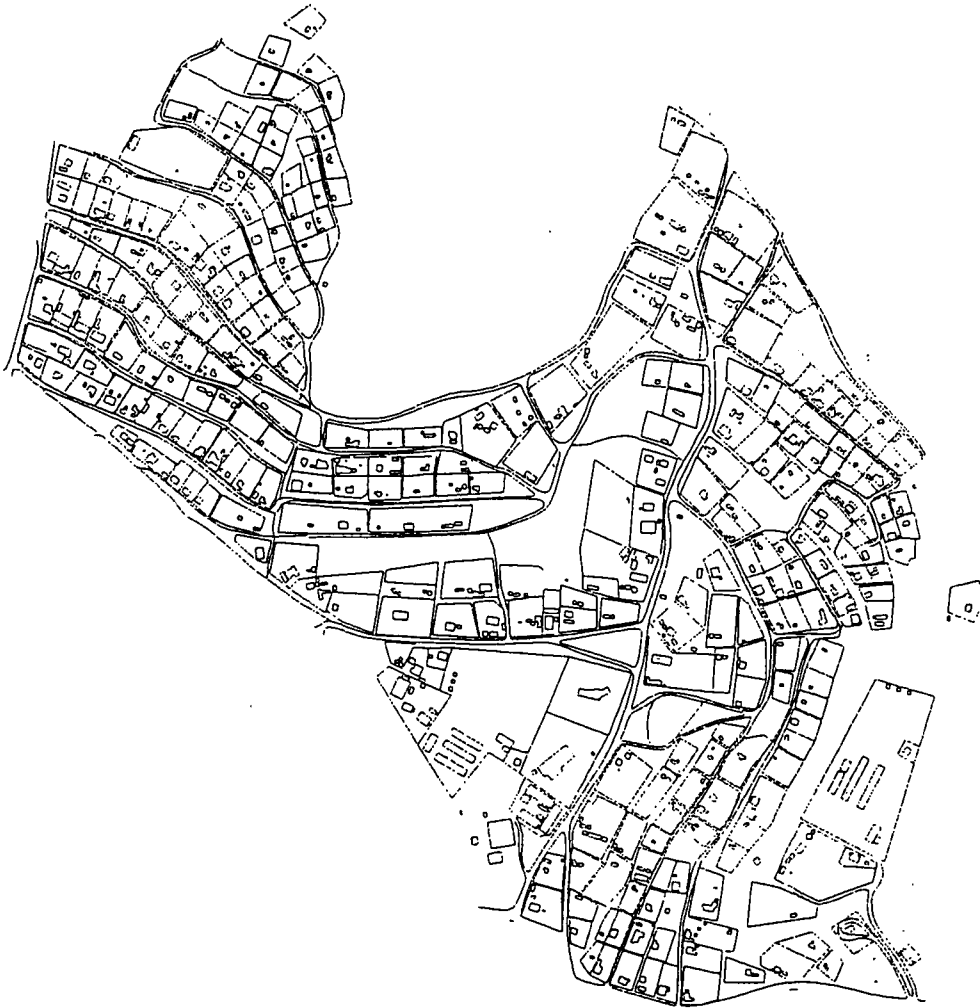
Figure 4.1: Aerial photograph of Thibella  
Source: Maluti-A-Phofung Town Planner, 2002



FIGURE 4.2

# PHOMOLONG

Figure 4.2: Aerial photograph of Phomlong  
Source: Maluti-A-Phofung Town Planner, 2002



200 0 200 400 600 Meters

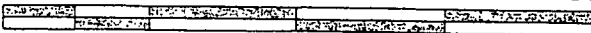
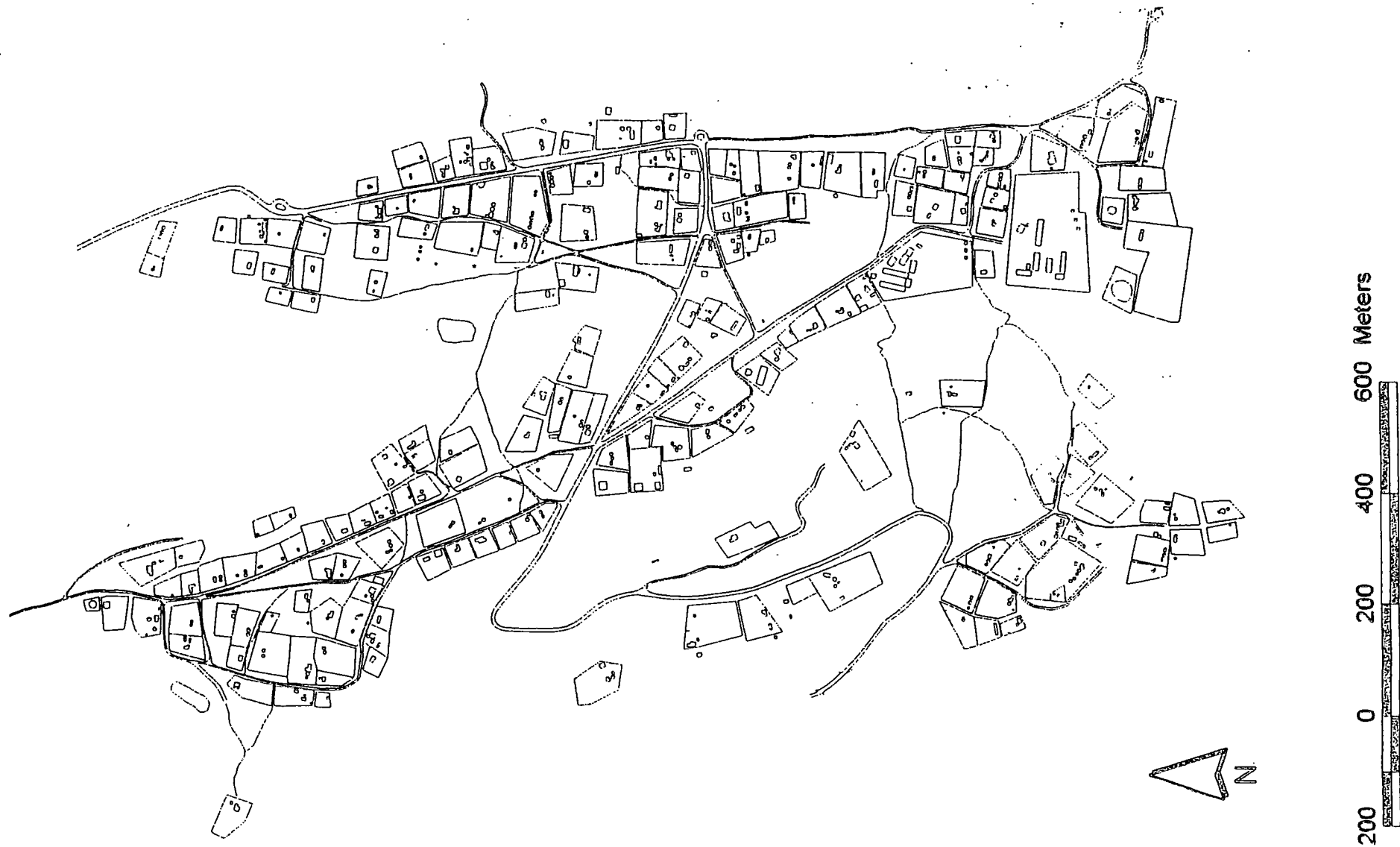


Figure 4.3: Aerial photograph of Dinkweng  
Source: Maluti-A-Phofung Town Planner

FIGURE 4.3

RIETPAN



**UNIVERSITY OF THE NORTH**  
**QWAQWA CAMPUS**  
**SCHOOL OF TOURISM AND ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES**

**SUBJECT : ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT ASSESSMENT**

**TITLE : SOCIO-ECONOMIC ASSESSMENT OF THE PROPOSED TOURISM  
DEVELOPMENT AT MOUNT AUX SOURCES, QWAQWA,  
EASTERN FREE STATE**

I am a student of the University of the Free State (Qwaqwa Campus) studying Masters in Tourism. I am conducting a research on the above subject.

**PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT**

The purpose of the study is to assess the severity of the socio-economic impact of the Tlokweng/Sentinel Cableway development on the Tsheseng community. The information collected will help in determining future prospects for tourism in your community. Your cooperation will be greatly appreciated.

|                    |            |
|--------------------|------------|
| INTERVIEWER .....  | DATE ..... |
| DATA CONTROL ..... | DATE ..... |
| CODING .....       | DATE ..... |

**SUPERVISORS:**

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**INSTRUCTIONS:**

**Mark with an (X) where applicable.**

**SECTION A: HEAD OF THE HOUSEHOLD SOCIO-ECONOMIC INFORMATION**

Name of the village .....

Respondent number .....

1. Home language
  - (a) Sesotho .....
  - (b) Isizulu .....
  - (c) Other .....
2. Age of the head of the household ..... yrs
3. Sex of the head of the household
  - A. Female ..... B. Male .....
4. Education qualifications of the head of the household
  - A. Never attended school .....
  - B. Grade One up to Grade Five .....
  - C. Grade Six up to Grade Nine .....
  - D. Matriculated .....
  - E. Post - matric .....
5. Are you employed?
  - A. Yes ..... B. No .....
6. Are you employed in
  - A. Services .....
  - B. Construction .....
  - C. Education .....
  - D. Work on commission .....
  - E. Hourly wage worker .....

7. Is that job part-time or full time?  
A. Part-time ..... B. Full-time .....
8. Do you own a car?  
A. Yes ..... B. No .....
9. Is your house made of  
A. house-mud .....  
B. house-cement .....  
C. house-wood .....  
D. house-sink .....
10. Do you own a working radio in your house?  
A. Yes ..... B. No .....
11. Do you own a working TV in your house?  
A. Yes ..... B. No .....
12. Do you own any piece of land for agricultural purposes?  
A. Yes ..... B. No .....  
If yes, does this land fall within the project area?  
A. Yes ..... B. No .....

#### SECTION B: MEMBERS OF THE HOUSEHOLD SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS

13. How many people live in this household (including yourself)? .....
14. Number of dependants  
A. Number of children (below 16 years) .....  
B. Adults (above 16 years) .....
15. How many males and females live in this house?  
A. Number of males ..... B. Number of females .....
16. Number employed ..... Number unemployed .....

17. Highest standard attained by all members of the family (only members)
- A. Never attended school .....
  - B. Grade One up to Grade Five .....
  - C. Grade Six up to Grade Nine .....
  - D. Matriculated .....
  - E. Post-matric .....

### SECTION C: LIVESTOCK INFORMATION

18. How many of the following types of livestock do your household have?
- |                 |                          |
|-----------------|--------------------------|
| A. Cattle ..... | E. Pigs .....            |
| B. Goat .....   | F. Poultry .....         |
| C. Sheep .....  | G. Horse .....           |
| D. Donkey ..... | H. Other (specify) ..... |
19. Ask all who have cattle or goats:
- |  |             |
|--|-------------|
| A. How many litres of milk were obtained from your herd during the past 12 months? | MILK .....  |
| B. How much did the household's use (in litres)?                                   | HMILK ..... |
| C. How much of this was for sale or exchange?                                      | SMILK ..... |
| D. What was the value of milk sold in rands?                                       | VMILK ..... |
20. Ask all who have hens or ducks or other poultry?
- |   |             |
|---|-------------|
| A. How many eggs were obtained from your poultry during the past weeks? | EGGS .....  |
| B. How much of these eggs did the household use?                        | HEGGS ..... |
| C. How much of these eggs were for sale or exchange?                    | SEGGS ..... |
| D. What was the value of eggs sold in rands?                            | VEGGS ..... |
21. Communal assets
- A. Does this household own any tractor or other farming vehicles? VEH .....  
If yes, what could you sell them for? R .....
  - B. Does this household own merchandized farm equipment/pumps? PUMP .....  
If yes, what could you sell them for? R .....



- C. Does this household own any other mechanical farm tools  
(spades, etc.)? FTOOLS .....  
If yes, what could you sell them for? R .....

22. Indicate below where you get water. Mark with an (X)

- |                                      |                          |
|--------------------------------------|--------------------------|
| A. A tap inside the house .....      | E. From the dam .....    |
| B. From a tank in the yard .....     | F. From the river .....  |
| C. From a spring nearby .....        | G. Other (specify) ..... |
| D. Spring piped to the village ..... |                          |

23. Is the water sufficient or not?

- A. Sufficient ..... B. Insufficient .....

24. Type of fuel used

- |               |                      |
|---------------|----------------------|
| A. Wood ..... | D. Electricity ..... |
| B. Coal ..... | E. Paraffin .....    |
| C. Dung ..... | F. Gas .....         |

Cost per month: R .....

#### SECTION D: THE ESTIMATED IMPACTS OF THE PROJECT ON THE COMMUNITY

25. What types of social problems are common where you live?

- A. ....  
B. ....  
C. ....

26. What types of social problems do you foresee if this project starts?

- A. ....  
B. ....  
C. ....

27. Name the important economic problems

- A. ....  
B. ....  
C. ....

28. What do you expect to be the major economic benefits of this project?  
(How do you think you can earn a living out of this project?)
- A. ....
- B. ....
- C. ....
29. Available skills in your area (Mark with an X)
- |                   |                          |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| A. Driving .....  | D. Sewing .....          |
| B. Building ..... | E. Other (specify) ..... |
| C. Farming .....  |                          |
30. What would you suggest can be done in your area in order to promote tourism?
- A. By you .....
- B. By the community .....
- C. By the local authority .....
- D. By the provincial government .....

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.**

# CHAPTER 1

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism, the world's fastest growing industry, is now entering a more mature phase. During the 1970's and 1980's mass tourism, with its rigid, standardized packages, developed rapidly and provided many consumers with their first experiences of international travel. Today, a complex and multi-faceted industry, tourism faces growing pressures such as, consumer demand for more individually tailored holidays, an increasingly competitive operational environment, opportunities provided by new technology and growing environmental concerns (Poon, A.1998: 153).

### 1.1 TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

Tourism is regarded worldwide as a panacea to ailing economies. It generates jobs and income for local people, enhances and promotes environmental preservation, fosters economic, social and cultural development, and generates a supply of needed foreign exchange. Telfer, R. (2001:87) and South African Year Book (2000:17) succinctly explains that domestic tourism is a valuable national asset because it employs both skilled and semi-skilled people. It further points out that tourism can go a long way to promote the smooth flow of capital and jobs.

Throughout the world governments have vigorously committed themselves to achieve sustainable development. This desire was triggered in 1992 by the United Nations Conference on the Environment and Development and the report of the World Commission on Environment and Development. Over and above the pressing problems of macro-economic stabilization and unemployment, the policy priorities of governments revolve around the creation and maintenance of wealth (Auty, R. M and Brown, K. 1997:14).

The World Commission on Environment (2001) defines sustainable development as “development” which meets the needs of present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. The fundamental issues of a development strategy include, amongst others, distributional issues such as increasing the income levels of poor societies and fostering economic growth. Development should not only address economic and social activities, but it should also address population issues and the use of natural resources and their concomitant impacts on the environment (Ruth, K. 2003: 23).

Tourism is widely perceived as an industry with potential to provide rural communities with job opportunities, income and economic diversity (Telfer, D. J. 2002). Destinations of the world boast a wide range of tourist attractions and as a result, tourism development and community empowerment are the major focus for economic development. Tourism is perceived as a generator of tangible benefits to previously disadvantaged communities as well as a key role player in the process of integrating conservation and development. In fact, nature conservation and associated sustainable tourism development are being earmarked to eliminate rural poverty by economically empowering marginalized and local communities through employment, equity and entrepreneurship. However, tourists cannot be attracted into areas that are insecure and lack basic facilities. Tourism development, therefore, will depend upon private and government investment, with benefits being channeled to poor rural communities through their constructive involvement and inclusive participation in sustainable environmental management and commerce (Ruth, K. 2003: 23).

Tourism development should be based on the criteria of sustainability that is ecologically and socially acceptable for host communities. Moreover, tourism should also be integrated with all aspects of the environment, respect fragile areas, promote the assimilation of socio-economic impact and utilization of the environment which lies within carrying capacity limits. Carrying capacity is the maximum number of people who can use a site without an unacceptable alteration on the physical environment and without an unacceptable decline in quality of the experience gained by the visitors.

According to Bennett, J. A. (2000: 29), participation of all actors in the process, the conservation of the natural and cultural heritage, as well as planning and management are needed for tourism development.

The government policy of the Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP:1994) also acknowledges the need to achieve sustainable development by implementing the following micro-programs:

- addressing the plight of the rural poor, correcting the historical imbalances in the use of resources
- allowing the rural poor access to land for production
- relaying the control of democratic government-funded services to the rural people
- supporting capacity building in the Local and District Councils, and
- developing human resources and their concomitant impacts on environment (Ruth, K. 2003: 34).

The Reconstruction and Development Program (RDP) program further regards education, access to basic facilities and support of black business as the key to restructure tourism with a view to assimilate the local market. Matters of priority here revolve around the question of eco-tourism and furthering South Africa's cultural and political heritage. The program maintains that communications must be given financial support, while their management and tourist service skills are harnessed and improve their relationship with the markets (Oloponea P, 1999: 27).

In order to identify the market trend of travel to natural areas, the term eco-tourism has been coined. It is defined as environmentally and socially responsible travel to natural or near natural areas that promotes conservation and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local people. Although the term appears to be recent, a concept of balancing tourist use with resource protection was put forward many years ago. Eco-tourism has captured the interest of conservationists, biologists, and wildlife specialists as well as developers (Gunn, C. A. 2002:92).

Many observers and researchers today find evidence contrary to many beliefs that tourism is always destructive of resource foundations. There are numerous examples demonstrating increased resource protection because eco-tourism is practiced in a responsible manner (Gunn, C. A. 2002: 92).

Eco-tourism can generate economic opportunities, and it is hailed as South Africa's number one growing sector of tourism. It includes, inter-alia, bird and game viewing, hiking and mountain climbing, while cultural tourism is about visits to cultural heritage villages and sites of Bushmen paintings (Ray, Y. 1998:71).

## 1.2 HISTORY OF THE CABLE CAR AS A TOURISM ATTRACTION

A cablecar is a passenger vehicle that is pulled by a constantly moving wire cable. Some cable cars, such as ski lifts, run on cables suspended between towers. However, most cable cars ride on rails. In such systems, the cable runs in a channel beneath the street. An engine in a central station propels the cable at about 9 miles (14 kilometers) per hour. A cable car moves when its operator pushes a lever that causes the car's heavy metal grip to latch onto the moving cable (James, M. W. 1998:820).

S. H. Andrew (1999), an American manufacturer, invented the Cablecar and in 1873 he helped install the first Cablecar line in San Francisco. Cablecars soon became popular throughout the world. During the 1890's however, electric streetcars began to replace them (The World Book, 1999:1).

A passenger cable car system (cableway or ropeway) is defined as a conveyance for passengers or freight on a cable. The four sections of the cable way comprise parallel track ropes to carry passenger cabins and a haul rope to drive them. Mathematical simulations of the vertical plane behaviour during normal operation, free vibration and when the system is halted have been compared with measurements made from within a passenger cabin (<http://dictionary.dic.net/cable>).

Vibrations up to 0.5 peak to peak can be observed when the system is halted in emergency; otherwise the largest vibrations in cabins occur when moving over fixed supports. Apparently track rope tensions vary by less than 2.5% for different static and dynamic conditions and the freedom of the track rope movement over intermediate support points can have a significant damping effect on the cable vibrations (James, M. W. 1998: 826).

### **1.2.1 Types of cableways**

An aerial cableway (cable car system) operating between the main island of Singapore and the adjacent resort island of Sentosa was installed in 1973 and completed in February 1974. The 1.65 km cableway has two tracks, one in each direction running approximately north – south with an east – west separation of 5.5m. The cabins are suspended from the thick steel track ropes, which are fixed at one end of the system, and are driven along the track by a thinner continuous moving haul to which the cabins are clamed during transit (James, M.W. 1998: 826).

The present invention relates to a self-propelled cable-way unit running on a surface-conduction cable, and more particularly to a transportation unit running on a cable, which unit does not require for its own motion of the cables. It is well known that both large-size and small-size cable-ways employs either a moving cable on which the load is suspended, the said cable being called “the pulling cable” and a stationary cable which is called “the supporting cable” or a single “pulling and supporting” cable that is kept moving (Free Patents - on line.com:2004 – 2008) <http://www.freepatentsonline.com/5120-hm/-36k>.

The cableway is split into four sections for safety, the design clearance of the middle section above Keppel Harbour, which separates Singapore from Sentosa is 60m above sea level, 56.6m for maximum high water level. The system was upgraded in 1994 during which new high-strength track ropes operating at a higher tension were installed, allowing for increase in the speed and density of new passenger cabins.

### 1.3 ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT ASSESSMENT (EIA) IN SOUTH AFRICA

Many sets of principles, objectives and criteria have been advanced in the past to establish what constitutes Environmental Impact Assessment. The evaluation criteria used to assess the extent to which South African Environmental Impact Assessment system meets international, good practice are those put forward by (Wood, P. 1998: 172). These recognitions are those in the following diagram:

**DEVELOPMENT PROPOSAL**  
Appointment of an Environmental Impact  
Assessment Consultant

**NOTIFICATION AND WORKPLAN**

- Government
- People (Community or society)
- Interested parties. Advisory Committee

**Record of Decision**

From the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism

\* Notifying stakeholder of Record of Decision

\* Feedback to the Minister, the Consultant and Project Developer

**PUBLIC PARTICIPATION PROCESS**

- \* Detail of the project
- Full description –Locality (where) and Costs of the project
- \* Possible Negative and Positive Impact
- A. Natural Impact  
(Soils, Animals, Birds, Water (streams, springs, rivers))
- B. Human Impact  
(Infrastructure-electricity, roads, telecommunication, sewage and water)
- C. Economic benefits (Jobs during construction and operation stage)
- D. Culture (Enhance or Damage)
- E. Social (Change in the population structure)

**Compilation and Writing of Report**

**If agreed, the project can start**



### **1.3.1 Whose responsibility is it to initiate and drive EIA process?**

The applicant/developer is responsible for initiating the EIA process by appointing an Environmental Assessment practitioner/consultant who carries out the EIA work, the ultimate responsibility to ensure that the EIA laws are fully complied with rests with applicant/developer as it is his or her project (<http://www.eiatoolkit.ewt.org.za/fag/index.htm/scoping>).

## **1.4 ALTERNATIVES TO THE PROPOSED DEVELOPMENT**

Alternatives received considerable attention in the South African Environmental Impact Assessment system. The Environment Conservation Act 1989 stresses the importance of the treatment of alternatives in Environmental Impact Reports repeatedly (EIR) (Section 26). The regulations require that the Scoping Report contain a description of the alternatives that are identified.

The Environmental Impact Assessment guidelines (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1998) provide advice on the identification of alternatives and describe the use of the no-act alternative. The Environmental Impact Report must contain:

- (a) a description of each alternative
- (b) a comparative assessment of all the alternatives (Regulation 8).

### **1.4.1 Screening and pre-investigation**

The South African regulations specify a set of activities, which must be subject to environmental impact assessment. Very few thresholds to eliminate minor activities, and (as yet) no classification of affected environments to exclude non-sensitive areas, are provided. In practice, developers who are using considerable discretion in determining whether or not an activity should be formally assessed are consulting provincial authorities informally.

In principle South Africa has two-stage screening processes. Following stage one (advertisement of the application), the Scoping Report is used as stage two to determine that no further assessment is necessary for perhaps 90% of activities. For the proposals of the projects, the Scoping Report is the final Environmental Impact Assessment report.

#### **1.4.2 Scoping**

The Scoping Report must include:

- A brief project description
- A brief description of how the environment may be affected
- A description of environmental issues identified
- A description of all alternatives that were identified (Wood, P. 1998:177), and
- An appendix containing a description of the public participation process that was followed, including a list of interested parties and their comments (Republic of South Africa, 1997, Regulation 6)
- Election of a committee representing community (Wood, P. 1998:178)

#### **1.4.3 Environmental Impact Assessment Report Preparation**

The South African Environmental Impact Assessment Regulations require that a plan of study for an EIA with clearly specified contents be submitted (Republic of South Africa, 1997), regulation 7(1). The relevant authority prior to submission of the EIA must accept this plan of study (Wood, P. 1998:179).

#### **1.4.4 Environmental Impact Assessment Report Review**

The South African EIA regulations are silent about EIA report review beyond demanding that the relevant authority consider the application after it has been received and that EIR complies with the regulations (Republic of South Africa, 1997, Regulation 9). In particular, they contain no formal requirements for checks on objectivity (beyond those provided by the review of the plan of study), for the preparation of a draft Environmental

Impact Report, or for consultation and participation in review. The National Environment Management Authority (NEMA), however, specifies that procedures for independent review must be implemented.

#### **1.4.5 Decision-making**

The implementation of certain activities cannot proceed without an authorization under the Environment Conservation Act 1989, and this will only be forthcoming once either a Scoping Report or Environmental Impact Report has been accepted.

Once it has taken its decision, the relevant authority must issue a Record of Decision to the applicant and to any other interested party who requests for it. There is provision for any one to make an appeal against the decision to the Minister or provincial authority within 30 days of the issue of the Record of Decision (the only time limit specified in the regulations).

#### **1.4.6 Monitoring**

Monitoring has long been recognized as a crucial component of the environment in South Africa. The well-known Integrated Environmental Management (IEM) guidelines are very specific about the necessity for monitoring and auditing to be undertaken. It is, therefore, surprising that neither the Environmental Impact Assessment Regulation (Republic of South Africa, 1997) nor the Environmental Impact Assessment Guidelines (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1998c) refer to monitoring. However, the National Environment Management Authority requires the investigation and formulation of arrangements for the monitoring and management of environmental impacts (Section 24 (7) (f). Monitoring this process is the responsibility of the elected committee that represents the community (Wood, P. 1998:179).

## 1.5 DEFINITION OF TERMS

### Socio-economic impacts

- Socio-economic impacts are the outcome of the interaction between the characteristics of the project/development action and characteristics of the host environment (Theobald, W.F.: 1998).

### Tourism

- Tourism is deemed to include any activity concerned with the temporary short-term movement of people to destinations outside the places they normally live and work, and their activities during the stay at such destinations (Stephen, L.J.S.: 1998).

### Tourist

- A tourist is someone who resides away from his/her normal place of residence for at least 24 hours for leisure or holiday-making (Bennett, J.A. 2000:4).

### Tourist attraction

- Tourist attraction is something interesting or unusual to see or to do (Bennett, J.A. 2000: 91).

### Eco-tourism

- Eco-tourism is a travel to natural areas to understand the cultural and history of the environment, and managing these aspects of the environment for sustainable and productive economic opportunities for communities involved (Theobald, W.F. 1998: 11).

### Ecological sustainability

- The condition of ecological sustainability need hardly be stated as it is often the only way in which sustainability is publicly perceived (Ray, Y. 1998:47).

### Cultural tourism

- Cultural aspects which are of interest to the visitor and can be marketed as such, including the customs, traditions of people, their heritage, history and a way of life (Bennett, J.A. 2000: 91).

### Sustainable tourism

- The tourism development, management and any other activity which optimizes the economic and other societal benefits in the present without jeopardizing the potential for similar benefits in the future (Mowforth, M. and Munt, I. 1998).

### Tourism industry

- All recipients incurred by tourists. This includes pre-trip expenditure on travel and booking, travel and en-route expenditure, and all spending at the destination (Ray, Y. 1998).

### Social sustainability

- Social sustainability refers to the ability of a community, whether local or national, to absorb inputs, such as extra people for short or long periods of time. Continue functioning either without the creation of social disharmony. As a result of these inputs or by adapting its functions and relationships so that the disharmony as a result of these inputs or by adapting its functions and relationships so that the disharmony created can be alleviated (Mowforth, M. 1998: 109).

### Cultural sustainability

- Refers to the ability of people or a person to retain or adopt elements of their culture that distinguish them from other people (Mowforth, M. 1998: 109).

## Economic sustainability

- Refers to a level of economic gain from the activity sufficient either to cover the cost of any special measures taken to cater for the tourists and to mitigate the effects of the tourist's presence.

## 1.6 RESEARCH PLANNING

A research design was used in order to guide the researcher in collecting, analyzing and interpreting observed facts. Very often this process is described as a research management or planning. It is an overall picture of what the research has planned to do. The research followed an inductive reasoning that moves from the particular to the general.

The researcher used the quantitative research method to structure the research process.

### **Phase 1: Selection of a Researchable Topic**

Step 1: Identify a researchable problem/question

### **Phase 2: Formal Formulations**

Step 2: Assess the suitability of the research approach

Step 3: Formulate the problem/question/hypothesis

Step 4: Draft the research proposal

### **Phase 3: Planning**

Step 5: Undertake an indepth literature review

Step 6: Select method(s) of data collection and analysis

Step 8: Select a sampling plan

### **Phase 4: Implementation**

Step 9: Conduct a pilot study

Step 10: Conduct the main research

## **Phase 5: Interpretation and presentation**

Step 11: Process and analyse data and interpret results

Step 12: Write the report

From the guidelines (De Vos, A. S. *et al* 1998:102) the following factors were used to evaluate the researchability of the project. These factors make the most meaningful selection:

- ❖ Is the topic researchable, given the time, resources and availability of data?
- ❖ Is there an adequate degree of personal interest in the topic in order to sustain attention?
- ❖ Will the results obtained from the study be of interest to others (e.g. in the province, region or nationally)?
- ❖ Is the topic likely to be publishable in a scholarly journal, or attractive to an academic committee?
- ❖ Does the study fill a void in scholarly literature by replicating, extending or developing new ideas?
- ❖ Will the project contribute to career goals?

### **1.7. STATEMENT OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM**

Tourism development is not an isolated activity. It implies a progression from a less developed country (lower state) to a developed country (a higher state) (Olopoenia P, 1999:16). Therefore, people in the third world countries must not be marginalized in terms of their needs, problems, and they should actively be involved in the ongoing development process in the world.

The problem that this research examines is to assess the possible socio-economic impact of the proposed Sentinel Cableway development project on the community of Tsheseng, Eastern Free State, South Africa.

In the light of the above problem, this study also intends to investigate the contribution of this project in terms of the social and economic upliftment of the communities under investigation.

The research questions to be answered are as follows: What will the socio-economic impact be on this rural community? Are there any factors that hamper development within the rural community of Tsheseng? Or will the institutional framework support the proposed development?

### 1.8 RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

According to observations the living conditions in Tsheseng are from poor to moderate. This is because of lack of job opportunities and the long distance away from the Central Business District (CBD). Most of the male heads of the households are migrant laborers and are without formal education. Therefore, there are many households headed by women (Maluti-A-Phofung, IDP 2005: 16). As a result, they live in substandard housing. Minority of them had no access to higher education, that is why they fall into a low group income.

The hypothesis is: the proposed Tlokweng Sentinel Cable car creates the potential to improve the socio-economic conditions of the Tsheseng community and it is therefore likely that the host community will participate and support the development as long as the perceived benefits exceed any negative impacts.

### 1.9 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study is to assess the severity of the potential socio-economic impact of the Tlokweng/Sentinel Cableway development in the Tsheseng Community of Qwaqwa.



The objectives of the study are as follows:

- Identify information on the general living conditions that the community faces everyday.
- Identify and evaluate the present social and economic status of the Tsheseng Community.
- Evaluate the possible positive and negative impacts of the proposed project.
- Evaluate the willingness of the community to participate and support the project and
- Be integrated into the reality of the project.

#### 1.10 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Because of the present growth in tourism in South Africa and the need of rural communities to participate in the potential growth, this study intends to assist the community and local municipality to take advantage of the proposed development with the aim to improve the socio-economic conditions of the community. This study will play a vital role on how the proposed project can be a sustainable contributor to the development of tourism industry and the creation of jobs for the host community.

The tourism industry offers particular opportunities for the previously disadvantaged people in society, particularly women, young people and disabled persons. For the success of tourism industry, strategic steps will need to be taken to de-racialise and democratize the industry that has been greatly protected and reserved for the few. To do this, special focus and recognition will need to be highlighted on the particular participation and involvement of role players and stakeholders.

A community is seen as all the role players interested in, or affected by a particular tourism site or tourist activity. People involved in tourism projects should take the initiative to empower themselves. This can be made possible through tourism awareness campaigns funded or run by local governments (Rogerson, C. M. & Visser G. 2007).

There is a need for people generally to understand and appreciate the value of tourism and its importance in economic development.

#### 1.11 SUMMARY

Tourism projects these days are considered amongst the most important role drivers in the economic development in developing countries like South Africa. This is also important if it is considered concurrently with the sustainable use of resources that will be used. The reason is that such sustainability will encourage the use of resources to meet the needs of the present people without comprising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs.

The fact that tourism should be integrated with all aspects of the environment, respect fragile areas, promote the assimilation of socio-economic impact and utilization of the environment which lies within carrying capacity limits, is important. Projects like the cablecar development will play an important role in telling (predicting) the maximum number of people who can use the site without an unacceptable alteration on the physical environment and without an unacceptable decline in quality of the experience gained by the visitors.

The research design, data collection and planning are very important in helping/directing the researcher in terms of steps to be taken so as to release relevant results of the study.

#### 1.12 CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter one covered the introduction, statement of the problem, aim and objectives and the significance of the study.

Chapter two of this dissertation will consider the description of the study area. The reason for that is to identify the physical environment of the area where the proposed project is to be implemented. This will include aspects such as the environmental profile

(topography, climate, temperature, vegetation and soil types). It will also consider the man-made features such as manufacturing, spatial analysis, tourism and other related features. Another important factor is the historical overview of the people and places under investigation. The chapter will further consider the socio-economic status of the area under investigation so that it can be much easier to see changes brought by the project to them. This will be done by using pre-test and post-test investigation that entails checking the standard of living for the residents before and after the implementation of the project.

Tourism contribution to the local economy of the study area is also important to be considered because it will help the researcher to see contributions made by this new project to the local economy. Political affiliations of the study area will be considered under this chapter. The last factor considered is the description of the project itself. This entails property details, the study of the project, program assumptions, project area analysis and the status of the Qwaqwa land.

Chapter three will focus on the literature survey of the project. This will include: tourism on the global scale, national scale, regional scale and on the local scale. The purpose is to see the contribution of tourism from the macro to the micro scale of all the tourism activities involved.

In chapter four, attention will be paid on the methodology of gathering information for the research. Factors to be considered include research design, sampling procedure, sample size, interview, workshops and questionnaire and the characteristics of the population under study.

Chapter five will deal with the presentation of the results found from the workshops, interviews, and questionnaires that were administered. It is broken into the categories of: meeting with the Batlokwa community as a major stakeholder, presentation to the mayoral committee at Maluti-A-Phofung, social survey of the respondents, their socio-economic status, and the impact of the project on community conditions.

In chapter six, attention will be paid on the discussions of the results attained from chapter five. The last chapter, which is chapter seven, will be basically concerned with the conclusion and recommendations of the study.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **2. THE DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA**

Qwaqwa was established in 1972 as a former homeland. At that time, it was composed of mainly rural areas, villages and informal settlements like Tsheseng, including the study areas Phomolong, Dinkweng and Thibella. The large population which settled during the 1970's and 1980's characterizes these parts. This simply means that during the 70's and 80's these areas experienced a rapid population growth. These parts are regarded as the original Qwaqwa and are mostly headed by chiefs as people live according to the tribal system (Cole P, 1997:3-7), (see figure 4).

#### **2.1 TRANSFRONTIER CONSERVATION AREA (STATUS OF THE ENVIRONMENT)**

This section will concerntrate on the Maluti-Drakensberg Transfrontier conservation, that is, the status of the environment where the project will be implemented and the environmental profile of the Qwaqwa area where the respondents will be met.

##### **2.1.1 Location and constituents**

The Maluti-Drakensberg Transfrontier Conservation and Development Area (TFCDA) is a long-term collaborative initiative between the Kingdom of Lesotho and South Africa. It is primarily a biodiversity conservation venture, as are most other TFCA initiatives in the SADC Region. Its objectives are, to protect the exceptional biodiversity of the Maluti and Drakensberg Mountains through conservation, sustainable resource use as well as land-use and development planning. The project will focus on the Maluti-Drakensberg Mountains that are situated along the 300 km eastern boundry of Lesotho (Hall-Martin, A. 2002: 85).

### **2.1.2 Description**

The Maluti-Drakensberg TFCDAs contain the largest and most important high altitude protected area on the subcontinent, supporting unique montane and subalpine ecosystems. It is one of the largest continuous unmodified areas of the land in the region. The area has spectacular scenery and is an important center of endemism for montane plant species. The high altitude streams, oxbow lakes and wetlands, in an area of high annual rainfall, make a major contribution to the provision of water for the urban and industrial complexes in lower lying parts of South Africa through the Lesotho Highlands Water Scheme.

### **2.1.3 Topography**

The Maluti-Drakensberg is the highest region in southern Africa, with altitudes ranging from 1,300 to over 3,400m above sea level. Thabana-Ntlenyana (3482) is the highest peak in Africa south of Kilimanjaro. The area is well known for its rugged mountain scenery, the most common well known features are the Amphitheatre, a semi-circle of high cliffs with a sheer drop of 613m, and the Tugela Falls (Hall-Martin, A. 2002:86).

### **2.1.4 Climate**

The region has a high mean annual rainfall ranging from 800mm at the lower altitudes to over 2,000 mm near the escarpment. Most (80%) of the rain falls in summer, while snowfalls occur in winter. The climate is mild to cool, with mean daily temperatures of only 24° C in January and 8° C in June, but with extremes of 35° C in summer and 20° C in winter (Hall-Martin, A. 2002:86).

### **2.1.5 Geology**

The Maluti-Drakensberg is an outstanding example of an escarpment mountain range and consists of a number of horizontally-bedded geological strata, constituting the Triassic to

Jurassic aged formations of the Karoo Supergroup in Southern Africa. The sedimentary layers of the Molteno, Elliot and Clarens Formations form clearly defined steps, which constitute the foothills and the “Little and Main Berg”. These are covered by thick basaltic layers of the Drakensberg Formation (South Africa) or Lesotho Formation (Lesotho), which form the prominent scarps at higher altitudes. Valley head erosion has resulted in unique and spectacular scenery, and the Drakensberg escarpment is consequently one of the major natural spectacles of the sub-continent. The junction between the Clarens Formation sandstone and the Drakensberg Formation basalts occurs at an unusually high altitude in Sehlabathebe National Park and has resulted in weathering into caves and arches (Hall-Martin, A. 2002: 87).

#### **2.1.6 Soil Types**

The soils of the Maloti in Lesotho consists mainly of the two extremes: sensitive Fusi and Popa soil forms (equivalent to the Mayo and Milkhood forms of South Africa). In South Africa soil forms are mostly Hutton, Clovelly, Westleigh and Avalon forms associated with sandstone variations and Escourt or Valsriver soil forms associated with mudstone regions. All the soils in the TFCDA are sensitive to overgrazing and exposure (Hall-Martin, A. 2002: 87).

#### **2.1.7 Vegetation**

The vegetation of the Maluti-Drakensberg TFCDA falls within the grassland biome and consists mainly of Alti Mountain Grassland of the Afroalpine ecosystem and some Moist Upland Grassland in the lower lying areas.

The Moist Upland Grassland occurs at altitudes of 600m to 1,400m. The vegetation type is dense, sour grassland with *Themeda triandra*, *Heteropogon contortus*, *Tristachya leucothrix*, *Eragrostis curvula* and *Elionurus muticus* as some of the dominant species. Trees and shrubs that occur on sheltered sites, rocky hills and ridges, include *Maytenus heterophylla*. In fire-protected areas the incidence of other species increases, including

forest pioneers such as *Rapanea melanophloeos*, and *fynbos species*, such as *cliffortia*, *Erica*, *Metalasia muricata* and *Anthospermum aethiopicum* (Hall-Martin, A. 2002: 87).

Alti Mountain Grassland occurs on the steep, treeless, alpine upper mountain region of Lesotho and the adjacent Kwa-Zulu Drakensberg at altitudes of 2,500 to 3,480m. Structurally, this vegetation type consists mainly of tussock grasses, eriocoid dwarf shrubs and creeping or ma-forming plants. Patches of Afromontane vegetation affiliated to fynbos are scattered throughout this grassland, where altitudes range from 1,800 to 2,800m. Several areas of Afromontane forest are found in sheltered valleys, these are usually dominated by *Podocarpus latifolius* (Hall-Martin, A. *ibid*).

The Maluti/Drakensberg is an important center of plant endemism. There are 1,390 plant species in the southern Drakensberg, of which approximately 30% are endemic. A further 317 species are restricted to montane and submontane areas in southern Africa, indicating the 53% of the southern Drakensberg flora is endemic to montane and submontane areas south of the Limpopo river. The Drakensberg is a center of speciation where new species develop by hybridization and isolation. Some endemic species are relicts of species that had wider distributions under previous climatic conditions. Some particularly threatened endemics are *Aloe polyphylla* and *Encephalartos ghehlnckii*. The endemic species appear to be concentrated at high altitudes, thus TFCDA that protects these areas is tremendously important for plant conservation (Hall-Martin, A. 2002: 87).

#### **2.1.8 Tourism**

The entire Drakensberg area in Kwa-Zulu Natal, and the highlands of the Eastern Free State are major tourism destinations with very well developed infrastructure and facilities including many hotels, lodges, rest camps, guest houses and camping grounds. Developments in Lesotho are still limited, being confined to a basic lodge and hostel in the Sehlabathebe National Park. However, a number of major tourism developments, partly made feasible by the increased access to the area that is linked to the Highlands Water Scheme, are in the planning stages. These include the recently opened



international ski-resort. The development of tourism facilities, and the involvement of local communities in tourism are also among the objectives of the TFCDA (Hall-Martin, A. 2002: 89).

## **2.2 NATURAL/PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT OF TSHESENG**

### **2.2.1 Description of the Environment (Qwaqwa)**

The most significant physiographic features of the Tsheseng area of Qwaqwa include its mountains, which are characterized by vast deposits of sandstone. The Qwaqwa natural environment is, therefore, not unique at a regional level, but it rather forms a part of a larger environment which is distinct on a national level. This mountainous environment is an important tourist destination and offers beautiful mountain scenery, snow-ice-covered mountains in winter, hiking and trout fishing to the tourists in summer (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 35).

Well-defined drainage patterns have also been established through the process of erosion. The largest rivers are the Kholotwene, Namahadi, Sekoto and Kgoptjwane. These rivers drain mainly in a northerly direction, while many other rivers and streams have their origin within the area. The area also falls within the catchment area of the Vaal River. There are no major water schemes within the Qwaqwa area, except for the Fika Patso and the Metsi Matsho dams (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 38).

Agricultural activities are limited due to shallow soil and steep slopes. The following small scale projects have been established in the area, namely, pig farming, poultry and egg farming, community gardens and a dairy.

### **2.2.2 Vegetation**

The natural vegetation in the area includes various grass species and the herbs and aloes found in the region are used for medicine by traditional healers. The natural forests are source of energy. Alien plant species found in the area include the grey poplar and black

wattle. Indigenous plant species that are identified to have a conservational value in the area include *Rhus lancea*, *Celtis Africana* and *Celtis sinensis*. Qwaqwa, like the rest of the Eastern Free State, has a moderate to cold climate throughout the year. Temperature can go well below freezing point during winter with occasional snowfall (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007:38).

The tourist industry in Qwaqwa is centered on the natural environment and it competes with that of the surrounding areas for a share of the tourist market in South Africa. The quality of the natural environment, which determines its attractiveness to the tourists, and the ability of the local inhabitants to sustain themselves through subsistence agriculture are in competition. This has a direct impact on the economic growth of Qwaqwa. (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 39).

### **2.2.3 Geology**

The geology of Qwaqwa is known for its magnificent mountains, built out of red, cream and black rocks. Several dark-coloured rock bands cut the mountains in thin long lines. The geologists always think in terms of the depositional systems and therefore reason from the bottom to the top. The lower rock units are mainly a red or brick-coloured mud and siltstone, known as the Elliot formation. These rocks have their origin in the large lake systems, which existed about 230 million years ago.

### **2.2.4 Topography**

Qwaqwa is situated at a height of between 1500m and more than 3000m above sea level. The types of slopes found in this region include the crest, cliffs, middle slopes, foot slopes and valley slopes, making it a rich geomorphologic paradise. The Drakensberg and Caledon Rivers form the southern and south eastern borders of Qwaqwa where Qwaqwa adjoins Lesotho.

### **2.2.5 Rainfall**

Qwaqwa is a relatively high-lying, mountain region with a reasonably high annual rainfall. The average annual rainfall varies from 700-800 mm on the lower lying plateau to 1200 mm higher up in the mountains. More than 85% of the annual precipitation occurs during the period of September to March and is mainly in the form of thunderstorms (MAP, 1994: 8). Hailstorms are not uncommon in Qwaqwa and they occur 4 to 5 times per annum. Snowfalls occur in the high lying south with sometimes heavy falls from June to September.

### **2.2.6 Temperature**

The daily temperature in Qwaqwa may be described as being from cool to moderately warm. The average temperature during mid-winter (July) is 7°, 4C, while it is 17°, 9C during summer (January). The average daily maximum temperature during January is 29°, 9C. Cold spells, (temperature decreases in excess of 5 degrees) can occur 30 times a year, lasting 2 to 3 days per year. During September and October temperatures are regarded as unstable, but become quite stable during April and May (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 1994: 12).

## **2.3. SPATIAL DEVELOPMENT PROFILE OF QWAQWA**

Phuthaditjhaba is the formal “gateway” to rural Qwaqwa and is accessible via Harrismith, Kestell or Clarens. It is located some 45 km towards the southwest of Harrismith and 30 km southeast of Kestell. It is the urban component of the former Qwaqwa homeland, with most of the traditional/informal rural villages surrounding it towards the south and east along the Maluti escarpment with Lesotho and Kwa-Zulu Natal. The image created by rural Qwaqwa is totally unique in the South African context, especially those villages more remotely located and connected by a system of rudimentary roads. Density is lower in these areas as these people still rely on small-scale subsistence farming (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 37).

The natural environment around Qwaqwa is quite awe-inspiring with majestic mountains against a deep-blue sky painting the backdrop. But these mountains also form a definite and unsurpassable boundary in the form of a horseshoe to the south. Other scenic/natural features in the area include the Golden Gate Highlands and Qwaqwa National Parks toward the east, the Strerkfontein Dam Nature Reserve situated towards the northeast, the Fika Patso dam to the south and Metsi Matsho to the east. The natural and cultural environment creates the lasting impression in the mind of the visitor, but it also sets definite limits to further growth (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 37).

Service provision in the area is difficult due to the topography, and dwellings located in remote areas do not have access to basic services such as clinics, fire service and banks. Most of these dwellings are traditional/informal settlements with most of the new developments concentrated to the north of Phuthaditjhaba in Clubview, Blue-Gum Bosch and Disaster Park.

There is an understandably heavy reliance on public transport (taxis) in the area, while some people are unable to afford any transport cost. This situation lowers the economic activity of the area. Qwaqwa is also the poorest area in the Free State Province, yet the lasting image is not that of poverty, but cultural and environmental uniqueness and an alternative lifestyle. The inequality, however, lays perhaps not so much in the difference in income, than in the fact that these people were never afforded the choice of a different lifestyle when they were moved here (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 37).

### **2.3.1 Rural Areas**

The rural landscape is characterized by extensive mixed farming practices and communal grazing is commonly practised. The area accommodates some significant natural features like the Qwaqwa and Golden Gate Highlands National Parks, Platberg Nature Reserve and Strerkfontein Dam. These, together with the scenic landscape, offer excellent tourism potential. A number of land reform programs have been introduced to the area (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 37).

## 2.4 SECTORAL ANALYSIS

The Phuthaditjhaba Local Economic Regeneration Study (Urban-Econ, 2001) analyzes five sectors that are important in the local economy of Qwaqwa, namely, agricultural, manufacturing, commercial, tourism and service sectors.

The study compares the GGP contribution of the Wetsieshoek Magisterial District (Qwaqwa) with that of Harrismith and valuable conclusions are drawn for the Qwaqwa area. The following sections give a short overview of some of the data and conclusions that can be drawn for Maluti-a-Phofung (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 37).

### 2.4.1 Agricultural Sector

The agricultural sector has shown a steady increase over the last few years. But recent contribution made by the agricultural sector in terms of the economy of Qwaqwa is extremely low in comparison to that of Harrismith. It highlights two aspects:

- (a) Qwaqwa was previously characterized by more subsistence farming practices but now urbanization has decreased the proportion of space that is available as productive land.
- (b) The economy of Harrismith is largely dependent on the agricultural sector, which indicates its low level of diversity.

### 2.4.2 Manufacturing Sector

The contribution made by manufacturing sector is 19.38% of the total GGP of Qwaqwa compared to 12.27% for Harrismith. This indicates the importance of this sector in the economy of the Qwaqwa area. The GGP derived from manufacturing sector in Qwaqwa has decreased from R218 202 000 in 1995 to R193 202 000 in 1997 compared to an

increase in the percentage contributed by this sector to the GGP of Qwaqwa for the same period. This indicates that although the total GGP of Qwaqwa has decreased, the importance of the manufacturing sector has increased which reconfirms the dependency on this sector (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 32).

#### **2.4.3 Commercial Sector**

The commercial sector development is mostly restricted to the two shopping centers in Qwaqwa. Smaller ventures have developed in the former Black townships and rural areas of Qwaqwa. However, the latter is mostly spaza shops with a few general stores.

The commercial sector in Qwaqwa makes an extremely limited contribution to the GGP of the area. The commercial sector in Qwaqwa has shown a more steady contribution, although the income derived has decreased. Future growth in this sector will depend on large investments from outside. Qwaqwa shows the largest growth in terms of the commercial sector and the newly created Setsing Shopping Complex has already started to fill the gap. Once land ownership has been dealt with, more business development will take place (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007, 33).

#### **2.4.4 Tourism**

The tourism industry is still untapped and only a few attractions have been developed in the area. The Transfrontier Park has just been approved. This project links the conservation areas of Maluti-a-Phofung and other parts of the Eastern Free State with Kwa-Zulu Natal, the Eastern Cape and Lesotho. A world heritage site is also incorporated in this part (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 34).

Numerous proposals for tourism development have been envisaged. The development of a Ski-Resort, Cableway at Sentinel, extension of the Basotho Cultural Village, a casino at Sterkfontein Dam, are some of the projects currently under review (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 34).

#### **2.4.5 Services Sector**

The services sector is a combination of the community, government and financial sectors. It is alarming to note that the services sector is responsible for almost 61% of the total GGP of Qwaqwa compared to only 21% in Harrismith. This indicates a high dependency on government to sustain the economy of Qwaqwa. It is foreseen that this phenomenon will continue as Phuthaditjhaba is now also the administrative head of the Local Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality and the Thabo Mofutsanyana District Municipality (Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality, 2002-2007: 35).

### **2.5 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF QWAQWA**

The main concern here is to look at how Qwaqwa was formed and the early arrivals who have occupied the place.

#### **2.5.1 Early Settlements**

The area of Qwaqwa was headed by various tribes. These tribes originally descended from the Tswana, and as a national group they also include tribes such as Khwakwa, Fokeng, Hlakhwana, Taung, Sia, Kubung and others (Pherudi, P. M. 1992:12).

Qwaqwa was formerly known as Witsieshoek. It was named after the Chief of the Kgolokwe tribe, Wetsi (Oetse) who settled in that area in the year 1839. There were skirmishes in 1857 with the residents of the Republic of the Orange Free State, and Wetsi was driven from Witsieshoek. Kgolokwe tribe had returned to its former home at Standerton and Wakkerstroom. Then the president of the Free State Republic, President Brand, awarded Witsieshoek to the Chief of the Kwenana, Paulus Mopeli, as his home in 1869.

In 1875 the Free State Government, in an adjoining area, to Witsieshoek settled the Tlokwa tribe under the leadership of Chief Koos Mota. Problems arose in 1926 when the

Free State Government placed Chief Mota under the authority of Chief Mopeli. This resulted in the economy of the Tlokwa tribe suffering a severe setback when they lost virtually all their cattle in one night. This was due to a snowstorm, and that they had to relinquish parts of their ploughed land on account of the amalgamation. Although the Prime Minister of the Union of South Africa, General J.B.M. Hertzog, gave independence to the Tlokwa, this tribe felt that they were being treated unjustly in view of their previous economic problems. This was the result of their cattle numbers being reduced still further as a result of agricultural improvement and soil conservation programs, which the South African Government initiated in Witsieshoek in 1936.

In 1949 there were riots which were led by the dissatisfaction of the communities. It was only after investigations had been made by a commission which was appointed in 1950, that normal relations were re-established with the Tlokwa tribes. In 1962 and 1965, respectively, additional land was given to the Tlokwa around the northeastern border of their tribal area. The Kwena tribes were allocated trust farms, which were purchased for the Witsieshoek area in exchange for land excised for administrative buildings, Police Stations and the town of Phuthaditjhaba (Pherudi. P, 1992: 40).

### **2.5.2 Major Tribes within Qwaqwa**

There were two major tribes in Witsieshoek, being the Batlokwa tribe and the Bakwena tribe. Numerically, the Kwena tribe was the strongest South Sotho tribe in Qwaqwa. Their name originated in their tribal totem, the Crocodile (Kwena). They settled in Qwaqwa in 1869 and since then they have manifested good relations with the Free State Republic. In 1899, after the death of Paulus Mopeli, his sons and grandsons governed the Kwena tribe.

The second tribe to settle in Qwaqwa was the Batlokwa tribe. They were ruled by their best-known Batlokwa chief, Molefe. The Batlokwa tribe was not united; it was divided and spread out into different tribes. In 1875, Chief Koos Mota moved with his tribe to Witsieshoek. As mentioned previously, the chief was recognized by the Free State as an



independent Chief. Since his death in 1930, his descendents have governed the Tlokwa tribe.

### **2.5.3 Socio-Economic and Tourism Objectives**

In recent years, African conservation agencies have become increasingly aware and committed to the concept that national parks and protected areas have a role to play in the alleviation of poverty through the creation of jobs and business opportunities for the communities. The consumptive use of natural resources within some categories of protected areas is increasingly being advocated and sanctioned. The strongest economic arguments, however, revolve around nature-based tourism. Africa's competitive advantage in the international tourism industry lies in its uniquely diverse and abundant wildlife resources. Future tourism development of the region, such as that driven by RETOSA, the Spatial Development Initiatives and other initiatives, must revolve around this reality. However, to ensure that the quality of the tourism product is sufficiently of a high standard to attract high paying foreign visitors, key wildlife destinations – 'ecotourism hubs' will have to be identified, appropriate infrastructure established and proper management and marketing implemented (Hall-Martin, A. 2002:10).

The highly competitive international tourism market, and the sophisticated attitudes of international tourists that demand value-added and environmentally responsible products requires that a very clear and focused approach be taken towards the development of their destinations. Currently, the estimates indicate that Africa only receives 2% of the total world tourism market, considering the unique attributes and characteristics of the various potential and existing TFCAs as well as the marketing potential of these entities, it is clear that several TFCAs described in this report could become such venues. Some of the advantages of TFCAs in this regard include:

- Economic realities, poor governance and the consequences of war and political instability have resulted in a dramatic reduction in tourism staff and facilities in the protected areas of several SADC countries. There will have to be significant

growth in tourism to make good the jobs lost in recent years. The marketing of larger, more attractive and diverse package such as a TFCA can assist this process.

- The development of uni-visa destinations allowing movement of tourists to areas within a TFCA, but in another country, thereby also implying peace and political stability between the participating countries, has some potential for boosting tourism. This is particularly true from “adventure tourism”.
- An increase in wildlife-based tourism, stimulated by a TFCA can also enhance the prospects and incentives for the use of community-based facilities and produce as an alternative to using the land for agriculture or livestock.
- Where consumptive use of the wildlife resource on communal land is contemplated it will be advantageous to link it to a larger resource reservoir such as national park or TFCA. Whether the use is through meat production, trophy hunting or medicinal plant collection all the biological advantages of larger species.
- In some cases people with the same ethnic identity were separated by colonial boundaries. This was then exacerbated by the creation of national parks along those boundaries that further separated communities. The creation of a TFCA with linked communal areas and management structures can assist in a cultural relinkage of such peoples (Hall-Martin, A. 2002:11).

#### **2.5.4 Socio-Economic Background**

During the homeland era Qwaqwa was divided into two distinct areas. First, there was what was known as old Qwaqwa that was established in the 1970's, and the new Qwaqwa, which consists of the 1984 consolidation land that was chosen to settle farmers in the region. The new Qwaqwa is situated between Phuthaditjhaba, Harrismith and Kestell (Van Zyl, W. F: 1992: 38).

The population of Qwawwa increased rapidly due to the apartheid economic policies, land evictions and labor laws. The unexpected high population growth in the late 1980's was possibly due to the following factors:

- (a) Firstly, people who returned home following retrenchment on the mines.
- (b) Secondly, ex-farm workers who preferred to migrate to Qwaqwa.
- (c) Thirdly, it was because of people who came from violence-stricken townships taking refuge in Qwaqwa, and
- (d) Finally, the high population growth is also due to cross border migration between Qwaqwa and Lesotho.

Phuthaditjhaba is regarded as the socio-economic center for old Qwaqwa and the capital of Qwaqwa. The old Qwaqwa experienced a rapid population growth during the 1970's and the 1980's. The total population of Qwaqwa was estimated to be approximately 360 000 (Census, S. A. 2001). It was estimated that 63% of the population of Qwaqwa were functionally urbanized. Indications are that the historically high growth rate of the Qwaqwa population has decreased to approximately 2.9% since 1990/91 (Van Zyl, W.F, 1992:27).

According to the statistics, the socio-economic characteristics of the population within Qwaqwa vary considerably. The most notable distinction can be found between the socio-economic characteristics of the population of Phuthaditjhaba and that of the semi-urban areas in Old Qwaqwa. The population of Phuthaditjhaba generally enjoyed a higher income with smaller household sizes compared to the surrounding rural areas. This distinction could be attributed to the concentration of civil servants in the center of Phuthaditjhaba (Pherudi, P. M. 1992).

#### **2.5.5 Political Background**

Before 1994, the area of Qwaqwa was recognized as a separate political unit with its own land area and central authority. Qwaqwa's political development bears the stamp of Western-oriented government institutions, but legislation has provided for the retention

of traditional tribal authority, according to which, every South Sotho Tribal Chief retains his autonomous authority and status (Pherudi, P. M. 1992).

There were only three tribes, which were officially recognized in Qwaqwa, the Bakwena, Tlokwa, and Makgolokwe. The various South African acts and proclamations recognized and demarcated the Black residential areas in South Africa and provided a framework within which the political development of each area could take place. The application of this to Qwaqwa systematically converted the earlier traditional tribal organization into a responsible self-government. The Bantu Affairs Act of 1920 established local councils and a commission for Bantu Affairs. The Bantu Affairs Commission of 1959 subsequently replaced this Commission. This Act brought all matters affecting the Black population of South Africa under the authority of the Minister of Bantu Administration and Development. The local councils for Black areas assisted this commission (Pherudi, P. M. 1992).

Another act, the Representation of Bantu Act of 1936 and the Bantu Trust and Land Act of 1936, provided for separate political development and the enlargement of recognized homeland areas. In 1951, the Bantu Authorities Act of 1951, made provision for a uniform system of tribal, community, regional and territorial authorities. Chief Wessels Mota was the first Chief Minister of Qwaqwa and was the first tribal Chief of the Tlokwa tribe of South Africa to establish a tribal authority for his tribe in terms of this Act (Pherudi, P. M. 1992).

The Kwenya tribe obtained tribal authority soon afterwards. Before this change, the responsibilities of the tribal authorities were limited to their particular tribes. They had to advise the Chief and oversee to the general welfare of the tribe.

In October 1971 (Proclamation R225) the territorial authority was replaced by a legislative authority in terms of Chapter 1 of the Bantu Homelands Constitution Act of 1971 (Benbo, 1978:15). This gave the homeland rights and legislative competence over education, welfare services, agriculture, etc. The executive authority was still vested in

the executive council. This form of government lasted for three years (Pherudi, P. M. 1992).

There were several other acts that were bound to Qwaqwa until it was granted its self-government in 1974. It was the second phase of self-government provision to be made for a partly elected legislative assembly and a cabinet. According to Section 3, Schedule 1 of the Act, the Qwaqwa government was responsible for administration and control of the departments that had been established. It was responsible for welfare, services, education, construction, birth, death and marriages and immigration control, to mention a few.

The Qwaqwa government did not have authority over defense, manufacture of weapons, ammunition, the appointment, accrediting and recognition of diplomatic and consular officials and the conclusion of international conventions, treaties and agreement.

The self-government of Qwaqwa lasted until 1994. During the first general democratic elections for the whole South Africa, Qwaqwa was incorporated into of South Africa. Qwaqwa was now controlled from the national level and made part of the Free State province and Thabo Mofutsanyana District Municipality and Maluti-A-Phofung Local Municipality head-offices were located in Qwaqwa.

#### **2.5.6 Tourism Contribution to the Local Economy of Qwaqwa**

Qwaqwa has considerable tourist potential. The Qwaqwa Corporation promoted tourism development at Witsieshoek and Fika-Patso Dam.

The Qwaqwa hotel caters for visitors of the different statuses, offering accommodation and other services. Resorts in the vicinity of Qwaqwa include the Golden Gate National Park, Royal Natal National Park and the Caverns Holidays Resort for the energetic, hiking trails.

Qwaqwa offers a number of interesting attractions. There is a little off the beaten track, various historic sites and Bushmen paintings attached to its rich heritage, horse racing and hiking trails (Pherudi, P. M. 1992).

It is therefore valid that Cablecar project development is regarded as one of the tourism amalgamations.

## 2.6 A HISTORICAL SURVEY OF THE BATLOKWA (STUDY AREA)

### 2.6.1 Origin of the Batlokwa in Qwaqwa

Initially the Batlokwa were called the Bakgatla. They were ruled by Chief Tabana Mokgatla which explains the name of the tribe. Chief Mokgatla had two wives. This was common practice among Black communities at that time and it was called 'sethepu' (polygamy). His first wife could not bear children and the chief was compelled to marry a second wife, Mathulare. Mathulare was blessed with four sons, namely, Motlokwa, Mosia, Mothuping and Mokgolokwe. However, after a few years, the first wife was also blessed with a baby boy named Khoadi. The chief had to rule that Khoadi would become his legal successor because his mother was the first wife and this would be in line with the Bakgatla custom (Pherudi, 1992: 1).

After Chief Mokgatla's death, the rightful heir, Khoadi succeeded him. Mathulare, the second wife, did not approve that, thus making the beginning of a power struggle amongst the sons of the late chief. This struggle resulted in a split of the Bakgatla when the four sons of Mathulare broke away from the newly inaugurated Chief Khoadi.

The sons of Mathulare were all warriors and moved in different directions to establish new villages, each consisting of between fifty and hundred inhabitants. This led to the formation of new tribes. The adherents of the Motlokwa were called Batlokwa and those of Mosia, the Basia. The Batlokwa was named after a strong grass Qokwa. Qokwa became their symbol of independence and strength (Pherudi, P. M. 1992).

The actual date of the origin of the Batlokwa is not known but oral sources put it to the late eighteenth century. That period marked the birth of many Black tribes in Southern Africa, including the Batlokwa. The Batlokwa came from the Northern Transvaal, northeast of the present-day Petersburg. They later settled at Polokwane, near the present day Zeerust under Chief Tshotetsi and Molefe due to a demand for more living space and pastures. That was around 1803.

Although the Batlokwa were unique and had their own habitat, they were not totally free from the influences of other tribes. They practiced polytheism, for they believed that their gods were mediators between themselves and God himself. When they pray, they say:

“Our new gods, intercede  
on our behalf of the old God”

They seem to have learned from their ancestors that God had created man and this was later confirmed by missionaries (Pherudi, P. M. 1992:4).

Although the Batlokwa had religious tendencies, they were warlike people, which made them heartless and bloodthirsty. They were not at peace with themselves, let alone with other communities. They did not know peace, stability and harmony. Being aggressive towards other tribes, they could expect retaliation. They, therefore, preferred to reside on hill tops because that provided better defense. These sanctuaries could only be reached by means of narrow footpaths.

Being aggressive, they composed a war song with the following words:

“Unto the ancestral gods of the Batlokwa, we commend the care and safety of our beleaguered tribe; preserve them from hard-ships of life, and their guiding star through the vicissitudes of life, this day and forever”. This song was a source of inspiration to the Batlokwa (Pherudi, P. M. 1992:6).

### 2.6.2 The Settlement of the Batlokwa in Qwaqwa

Qwaqwa was a self-governing state for the Southern Sotho people. It lies in the south-eastern part of the Orange Free State. To the South lies the mountain Kingdom of Lesotho, with Natal in the east.

Other tribes or groups had already settled in this area long before the Batlokwa. The earliest inhabitants were the "Mutwa clan" (the San, also called the Bushmen). They lived under the escarpment of the Khahlamba Mountains (Drakensberg) towards the south of the range, where they formed a large number of small clans. Their presence in the area is shown by rock paintings and drawings. Their artistic work centered around the animals they hunted, (the Eland) wild flowers and their armaments like bows and arrows (Pherudi, P. M. 1992:7).

By the 1830's the area was occupied by the Bakhelokoe of Chief Wetsie who originally came from Lesotho. By then there were few San left in the area due to the clashes with the Blacks. Chief Wetsie returned to Lesotho around the 1840's due to a misunderstanding with the Orange Free State government over alleged stolen cattle. His son Hlomisi, who was capable of handling the O.F.S. government, led his people back to QwaQwa in the late 1840's. Before returning to Lesotho, Chief Wetsie named the area after himself. Since then the area has been called 'Wetsi se hoek'. It was however, retained by the O.F.S. Volksraad as government property (Wetsieshoek). Wetsie and his followers were, therefore, subjects of the Orange Free State.

The Bakoena tribe under the leadership of Chief Paulus Mopeli arrived in QwaQwa before the Batlokwa. Paulus was the son of Mokhachane with his second wife while Moshoeshoe was born from the first wife. They were, therefore, half-brothers. Paulus broke away from his brother in 1854 when they could not agree on sharing the cattle after they had defeated the Batlokwa (Pherudi, P. M. 1992:8).



### 2.6.3 Qwaqwa as self-governing state

The first legislative Assembly was empowered in 1971. Chief Mota stated that his tribe (the Batlokwa) supported the policy of separate development, and was seconded by Chief Mopeli of the Bakoena. They did not support the federal policies of the other homeland leaders such as Chief Mathanzima (former Transkei) and Chief Buthelezi (Kwa Zulu Natal). In the legislative Assembly both the Batlokwa and the Bakoena were represented, respectively, by Chief Mota and Chief Mopeli. The two Chiefs were appointed, respectively, by the Batlokwa and the Bakoena tribal councils. The Executive Council headed by Chief Mota, became the Cabinet and continued in office until May 1975. Chief Mota headed the first Cabinet because the Bakoena, who were in the majority, were politically inactive (Pherudi, 1992: 33).

However, in 1975 Chief Mopeli was elected Chief Minister because he had the support of the majority. After the inauguration of Dr. Tshiame Kenneth Mopeli, his supporters formed a political party that was called the Dinkwantletla Party. Chief L.C. or Wessel Mota, on the other hand, formed the Basotho Unity Party that was led by his brother Monnafela Mota, who was also the nominated member of Batlokwa Chief Tribal Council. Although the two tribes had separate political organizations, they worked hand in hand. The Dikwantlwetla Party constitution made provision for the representation of both tribes in the cabinet. It states that "the Cabinet will consist of two tribal chiefs (ex officio)". Both Wessels Mota and Chieftainess Mampoi Mopeli therefore served in the first Cabinet (Pherudi, P. M. 1992:34).

The Dikwankwetla Party won the 1980 elections. Nevertheless there were still two chiefs from each tribal group in the Cabinet, that is, Chief Lekunutu Mota, Chief Wessels Mota, Chief Motebang Mopeli and Chief Hague Mopeli. At the end of 1985 there were only three chiefs left in the Qwaqwa Cabinet, that is, Chief Lukunutu, Chief Motebang and Chief Hague. Chief Lekunutu Mota represented the Batlokwa.

Additional land to Qwaqwa resulted in the creation of new districts that had to be administered by the chiefs. There were the district chiefs in the Qwaqwa Cabinet, all ranking at the same level with other Cabinet Ministers. There are seven districts for the Bakoena tribe, namely, Namahadi, Matsieng, Thaba-Bosiu, Bolata, Mabilela, Monontsha and Thaba-Tshweu, and three districts for the Batlokwa, namely, Phomolong, Thibella, and Dinkweng. The chairman of the Bakoena district is Paramount Chief Motebang Mopeli, while the Batlokwa district falls under Paramount Chief Lekunutu Mota. These tribal districts are financially independent. They also determine their own taxes and needs. This is illustrated by the construction of Tshiya College of Education in the Bakoena District whilst the Batlokwa wanted theirs in their district, hence the birth of Sefikeng College of Education in Tsheseng.

Three Parties contested in the 1990 general elections in Qwaqwa, namely, the Dikwankwetla Party, the Basotho Unity Party and the Thebe e Ntsho. The Dikwankwetla Party of Dr. T. K. Mopeli won the elections and that resulted in the demise of the Basotho Unity Party (dominated by the Batlokwa). By that time Tsheseng area was a stronghold of the D.P. in Qwaqwa (Pherudi, P. M. 1992:37).

The Batlokwa also participated in the negotiations at the Convention of Democratic South Africa (CODESA) for the shaping of a New South Africa, through their representative, Mr. D.T. Mokoena, the Minister of Education in Qwaqwa at that time. Mr. Mokoena did not represent the Batlokwa specifically, but Qwaqwa population as a whole. On 12<sup>th</sup> March 1991, the state President, Mr. F.W. De Klerk stated that "the traditional leaders role is essential for shaping the destiny of South Africa".

Paramount Chief Motebang of the Bakwena resigned in 1990. According to him, he did that to pave the way towards the release of the people from bondage. He believed that any law that is framed to defy human dignity must be disobeyed. It was evident that the chief was becoming critical of the apartheid system that he had served for a long time. He called for the ending of the homeland system and for their re-incorporation into South Africa (Pherudi, P. M. 1992:40).

Subsequent to Paramount Chief Motebang's resignation, Paramount Chief Lekunutu Mota of the Batlokwa also handed his resignation at the end of April 1992. His reasons were not clear. Paramount Chief Mota was the Minister of Agriculture by then. Chief Minister Mopeli tried to persuade him not to resign but he was unsuccessful. Mr. J.M. Tsebela was appointed in his place. After resigning Chief Mota called on all the Batlokwa in the Legislative Assembly and the Cabinet also to resign because he felt that it would not be vital for the people he appointed to serve the system which he was no longer prepared to serve, but none responded to the call.

Amongst those who refused were Mr. Mokoena, Mr. Dibe and Ms. Mpoi. Chief Sekonyela resigned because he was too old. He resigned in September 1992. In reaction to the resignation of the Chiefs, the Dikwankwetla Publicity Committee stated that "the resignation from the Qwaqwa Legislative Assembly by two Paramount Chiefs, Motebang Mopeli and Lekuntu Mota, is sincerely regretted by us all and this poses the end of the rainbow. The end of the rainbow meant that the two paramount Chiefs would no longer contribute constructively in the Legislative Assembly for the advancement of the Qwaqwa homeland. Despite their resignation, the Qwaqwa Legislative Assembly continued to operate and the two tribes were in good relations. They worked together as a team for the development of their area (Pherudi, 1992:87).

## 2.7 DESCRIPTION OF THE PROJECT

### 2.7.1 Property details are as follows:

- (a) Location : Sentinel, Qwaqwa  
Province: Eastern Free State, South Africa
- (b) Size of the land : 600 ha
- (c) Proposed Development : New Cableway with Hotel, Restaurant and Shops

(d) Services:

- Roads & access : Existing tarred road end 13km from bottom station
- Electricity : Connected to Escom supply
- Water : Water reservoir to be built to service hotel and facilities on mountain
- Sewerage : Provision to be made for sewerage system on mountain

### 2.7.2 The Study

The Cableway, shops and restaurant will be constructed at a total estimated capital outlay of R 80 000 000. Income is based on an initial cableway use of 10 000 people per month, with an increase of 25%. Annually, the second and the third years will then be increased by 20% for the fourth and fifth years to a maximum of 20 000 per month at an initial tariff of R40 per person escalating at 12% per annum and rentals of R60/m<sup>2</sup> per month for the restaurant and R53/m<sup>2</sup> for shops escalating at 10% per annum.

## 2.8 PROJECT DESCRIPTION

The project comprises the construction of a 1,75km Cableway at the Sentinel in Qwaqwa with restaurant and shops at the bottom and top stations including roads, parking, electrical, mechanical and water supplies and sewerage works.

### 2.8.1 Program Assumptions

|     |                                |          |                   |
|-----|--------------------------------|----------|-------------------|
| (a) | Date of Transfer of Land       |          | 01 September 2000 |
| (b) | Date of Proclamation           |          | 15 September 2000 |
| (c) | Start of Pre-contract Period   |          | 01 October 2000   |
| (d) | Construction Commencement Date |          | 01 July 2001      |
| (e) | Construction Completion Date   | + months | 01 July 2001      |
| (f) | Start of trading               | months   | 02 July 2001      |

(g) Month of 1<sup>st</sup> Sale Transfer

### **2.8.2 Status of the Qwaqwa Land**

The Qwaqwa land like any other land which is part of South Africa falls under the Communal Land Rights Act 11 of 2004, part one which the Department of Land Affairs have taken out for communities to use. The vision for the Department of Land Affairs is an equitable and sustainable land dispensation that promotes social and economic development. Its mission is to provide access to land and to extend rights in land, with particular emphasis on the previously disadvantaged communities within a well-planned environment (DLA, 2004: 15).

The Qwaqwa land is generally state owned land. The main categories are: Land allocated to communities/tribes to use and Land that is purely State-owned. The differences between these two categories are as follows:

#### **2.8.2.1 Land allocated to communities/tribes to use**

In this case the State is still the owner of the land. However, the State allows communities/tribes to use the land as if they are owners. The communities we are referring to here are the residents of the area in question. They decide the way in which they would like to use the land for as long as that does not change ownership rights and does not deny other residents the land use rights they had before. The land where the Cableway project is going to be implemented falls within this category.

#### **2.8.2.2 Land that is Purely State-owned**

This is the land that has never been allocated to any community. People who are using such land are not using it as if they are owners and they use it under a particular contract that will expire at certain times and in certain instances they pay lease fees. At the moment such land is the agricultural land.

## CHAPTER 3

### 3. LITERATURE REVIEW

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Since the end of World War two, global tourism has increased steadily year after year, and tourism is now an important economic activity for many countries. The WTO publishes an annual report describing the previous year's tourism patterns throughout the world. According to the WTO's 2000 review (2001c), Africa received 30.9 million international tourists during 2000. This accounts for less than 4% of the 689 million tourist arrivals worldwide. We can get a better idea of Africa's position in the global tourism business by looking at the tourist arrival figures of the world's most popular destinations. France, the leading destination in 2000, recorded 74.5 million international arrivals; some 52.7 million visitors arrived in the USA; and Spain welcomed 48.5 million international visitors (Keyser, H. 2002: 34).

The world tourism economy remains intact and has proven to be resilient in 2002. This is despite the fact that economic challenges, terrorism and war would disturb travel patterns and have a severe negative impact on the global tourism economy. In 2002 there were 714.6 million international tourist arrivals. This is an increase of 3.1% over 2001 for the global tourism economy while the growth rate of the world economy was 2.7% in 2002 (Tourism South Africa , 2002:6).

Africa, which enjoyed 4% of the global market share, saw Tunisia (down 6%) and Morocco (down 2.7%) losing market share while Ghana (up 9.9%), Botswana (up 7.3%) and Tanzania (up 6.8%) enjoyed growth. South Africa led the pack with growth of 11.1% overall and a growth of 20.1% in "overseas" arrivals (Tourism South Africa, 2002:7).

The learning points from these tragic events are isolated events, if dealt with effectively do not have a widespread or long-lasting effect because tourists are getting more and more

experienced and the economic situation in the world is a more powerful threat to international tourism arrivals than fear of terrorism. In 1991, the year of Gulf War, world tourism grew by only 1.2% but the following year, 1992, ended with a growth figure of 8.2%. 2002 was a challenging year for the global tourism economy and the industry proved to be resilient (Tourism South Africa, 2002: 7).

South Africa experienced a **tourism boom** "that defied gravity" in 2002. Increased arrivals, both from African and overseas countries, pushed arrivals figures to record breaking levels for every month of the 2002 calendar year. By the end of 2002, for the first time ever, an overseas market (the UK) posted the biggest growth figure for the month of December with an absolute growth of 12,288 passengers in that month alone. Even arrivals from USA closed the year 7% up from 2001 despite its outbound long-haul leisure market being severely depressed in 2002 (Tourism South Africa, 2002: 8).

Therivel, R. (2001:11) argues that socio-economic impacts merit a higher profile in tourism development. This is true since the direct economic impacts have wider indirect economic impacts. The direct employment on a project will generate expenditure on local services, such as petrol, food, and drinks. The ratio of local to non-local labour on a project is often a key determination of many subsequent impacts.

Socio-economic impacts follow from a certain development. They are often positive, and they can be measured. Indeed the key trade-offs in the decisions on the project often revolve around the balancing of socio-economic benefits (usually employment) against biophysical costs. Socio-economic fortunes, lifestyles and values of people are also important (Therivel, R. 2001:11).

### 3.2 TOURISM: FROM THE GLOBAL TO THE LOCAL

It cannot be denied that tourism is a major global economic force. Hardly a day goes by without a new pronouncement about the wider significance of what many call the world's largest industry. International tourism has grown substantially in recent decades, with

technological improvements, rising living standards and broader processes of globalization leading to rapid increases in visitor numbers. Receipts from international tourism rose from US\$2.1 billion in 1950 to US\$445 billion in 1998. During the same period international tourists arrivals rose from 25.3 million to 62.5 million. In 1999, tourism generated some US\$3.5 trillion of GDP and almost 200 million across the world economy (Milne et al, 2001:371).

World tourism GDP is forecast to increase in real terms by 3.0% per annum in the decade to 2010. As a result, the industry's share of world GDP will rise from 10.5% in 1990 to 11.4% by the end of 2005. In the same period, employment is expected to grow at 2.6% per annum. This equates to creation of over 5.5 million jobs per year over the first decade of the new century. According to Milne *et al* 2001, Tourism: 2020 Vision, in its long-term growth forecast document, it predicted that the tourism sector will expand by an average of 4.1% a year over the next two decades, surpassing a total of 1 billion by the year 2020.

A key issue in the way in which these processes of global tourism expansion, uneven development and in some cases, retraction, play themselves out at the sub-national levels of regions and communities. Urban communities and rural settlements are all influenced by tourism to some degree and also play important roles in shaping the structure and nature of the industry. To conceptualize the links that exist between the global and the local we adopt the notion of the global-local nexus. We argue that it is essential to look carefully at how interactions between the global and the local shape development outcomes for individuals, households, communities and regions. Tourism, in simple terms, must be viewed as a transaction process which is at once driven by the global priorities of multi-national corporations, geo-political forces and broader forces of economic change and the complexities of the locals where residents, visitors, workers, government and entrepreneurs interact at the industry 'coal face' (Milne et al, 2001:372).



### 3.3 GLOBAL TOURISM: GROWING FAST

Tourism is the world's largest industry, with an annual revenue of almost \$500 billion and it is growing fast, with airline arrivals expected to double by 2010.

Leisure is estimated to account for 75% of all international travel. The World Tourism Organization (WTO) estimated there were nearly 900 million international tourist arrivals in 2007 from 846 million in 2006, an increase of about 6%. This represents nearly 52 million more arrivals than in 2006 and they are expected to reach 1.6 billion by 2020. Domestic tourism (people going on holiday in their own country) is generally thought to be 4 – 5 times greater than international arrivals. The international tourism receipts totaled US \$733 billion in 2006 (<http://www.peopleandplanet.net/doc.php?id=1110> – posted 09 June 2008).

Globally, tourism amounts for roughly 35% of exports of services and over 8% of exports and goods (WTO). Tourism is said to be the world's largest employer. In 2001, the International Labour Organization (ILO) estimated that globally over 207 million jobs were directly or indirectly employed in tourism. In the UK alone, 10 percent of total employment is in the tourism sector (<http://www.peopleandplanet.net/doc.php?id=1110> – posted on 09 June 2008).

According to the latest research by the industry's World Travel and Tourism Council released in 2008, World Travel and Tourism is expected to generate close to US\$ trillion, rising approximately US\$15 trillion over the next 10 years. The long term forecasts by WTTC also point a steady phase of growth for world travel and tourism between 2009 and 2018 with an average growth rate of 4.4% per annum, support 297 million jobs and 0.5% of global GDP by 2018 (Global Tourism Statistics – [www.environmentor.com/Travel-And-Tourism-79k](http://www.environmentor.com/Travel-And-Tourism-79k)).

- For 83% of countries in the world, tourism is one of the top five sources of foreign exchange.

- Carribean countries drive half their GDP from tourism (World Resources Institute).
- Beniderm’s tourism industry amounts to 10% of Spain’s GDP.

### 3.3.1 Where tourists go

All different regions showed increases in tourist arrivals with the Middle East, fast emerging as a strong tourism destination, leading the regional growth ranking with an estimated 13% rise. This was closely followed by Asia and the Pacific and then Africa. The Americans did much better than in 2007. France retains its top spot as the most visited country ahead of Spain and the USA while Germany overtook Mexico in 2006 as a result of its excellent performance while hosting the FIFA World Cup (Global Tourism Statistics – [www.euromonitor.com/Travel-And-Tourism](http://www.euromonitor.com/Travel-And-Tourism) - 79k.

| INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ARRIVALS, MILLIONS (WTO) |       |       |                         |                               |
|--|-------|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------------|
| REGION   | 2006  | 2007  | % CHANGE<br>2006 – 2007 | % OF TOURISM<br>MARKET (2006) |
| Africa   | 40.9  | 44.2  | +7.9%                   | 4.8%                          |
| Americas                                       | 135.7 | 142.1 | +4.7%                   | 16.1%                         |
| Asia and the Pacific                           | 167.8 | 184.9 | +10.2%                  | 19.8%                         |
| Europe   | 460.8 | 480.1 | +4.2%                   | 54.4%                         |
| Middle East                                    | 41.0  | 46.4  | +13.4%                  | 4.9%                          |
| World  | 846   | 898   | +6.1%                   | 100%                          |
| SOURCE: WORLD TOURISM ORGANIZATION (WTO)       |       |       |                         |                               |

### 3.4 DYNAMICS OF AN AERIAL CABLEWAY AS A TOURIST ATTRACTION

An aerial cableway (cable car system) operating between the main Island of Singapore and the adjacent resort island of Sentosa was installed in 1973 and completed in February 1974. The 1,65 km cableway has two tracks one in each direction running approximately nourth-south with an eas-west separation of 5,5m. The cabins are suspended from the thick steel track ropes which are fixed at one end of the system and are driven along the

tracks by thinner continuous moving haul rope to which the cabins are clamped during transit (James, M. W. 1997: 826).

According to James 1997, the cableway is split into four sections and for safety, the design clearance of the middle section above Keppel Harbour, which separates Singapore from Sentosa is 60 m above sea level, 56.5 for maximum high water level.

### 3.5 DISADVANTAGES OF THE CABLE CAR AS A TOURIST ATTRACTION

It is well known that these types of cable ways are subject to a number of problems, owing to the fact that they require a fixed installation for the cable(s) and a large number of mechanical contrivances consisting of guides and transmission means provided by pulleys and owing to the fact that the cables must be well engineered to provide a popular polling force ([www.camnl.wr.usgs.gov/sws/SWTraining/cableways/index.html/-8k](http://www.camnl.wr.usgs.gov/sws/SWTraining/cableways/index.html/-8k)).

#### 3.5.1 Situation

In November 2000 a tunnel-bound cable car in Kaprun caught fire with the subsequent death of 155 persons. No passenger list was in existence and bodies were burnt to such an extent that morphological identification was not feasible. A full postmortem examination was performed on all bodies. All bodies were positively identified within 19 days after the incident by DNA analysis. The cause of death was determined to be carbon monoxide poisoning in combination with suffocation due to inhalation of smoke (Herald, J. M. 2003: 138).

On Saturday, 11 November 2000 (day 1) a fire erupted inside the underground cableway train leading to the high-altitude skiing area on the Kitzsteinhorn glacier above Kaprun Austria. The ascending cable car had come to a halt 530m inside the tunnel (41% inclination). Twelve persons managed to escape downhill and emerged virtually unharmed from the tunnel's lower portal. The ensuing inferno killed all passengers inside the ascending cable car. Subsequently, the fire continued burning until subsiding by itself

after consuming virtually all combustible material contained in the ascending cable car (Herald, J. M. 2003:139).

### **3.5.2 Cable car accidents**

Occasionally people are involved in accidents while operating cableways. Most of these incidents are relatively minor, like muscle strains, bruises, etc. but cableway use can result in a major accident. These can include vandalism or natural occurrences such as trees falling on a cableway or heavy rains that cause washouts around anchors and footings can render cableways unsafe for use. Most accidents could be avoided if the safety of all cableways had been assessed prior to use and if all safety rules were followed (<http://www.camnl.wr.usgs.gov/>).

The cable car incident was similar to other major incidents in that it was likely to be a chance event. It was not known how common cable car transportation was in Thailand, however, the cable car operation in question had reportedly been closed down (Leggat, P. A. and Leggat, F. W. 1999:112).

## **3.6 ADVANTAGES OF THE CABLEWAY**

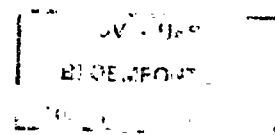
The use of cableway technology for bulk material transport has three major advantages: increased reliability through technology transfer from passenger cableways, reduced transportation costs, expansion of transport options in new mining operations. The two basic types of cableways are those with a single rope (monocable) and those with a separate hauling end supporting cable (bicable). These include reversible cableways where carriers stop to load and unload, and continuous cableways where these functions are carried out whilst in motion. Cableways offer advantages over other systems for gradients over 15%, spans longer than soft and where annual capacity approached 1 million tons. Low operating and maintenance labour requirements often give cableways superior life-cycle costs (Bonnasso, S. G. and George T. J. 2008:7).

Like the hotels, cable car operates as a joint venture between Peru Hotel and Orient-Express Hotels Ltd. unit of Sea Containers Hotels Ltd. In mid-1999 the venture won government auction to construct the cable car after it offered the lowest bid of four companies that had qualified. Upon completion, tourists will board the cable car at a station in Aguascalientes, then glide silently through the air and step out six minutes later at the entrance to the muns – traveling one and quarter miles and paying \$11 for the round trip. Persivale says the cable-car system could pontially transport four hundred people per hour. All this, of course will be coordinated with the arrival of the tourist train from Cuzeo, whose seventy-six-miles route (Herald, J. M. 2003:5 and Bonnasso, S. G. and George T. J. 2008. Economics Cableways comparative evaluation – Vol/issue:22:11 United States Publication).

### 3.7 MACRO-STRUCTURAL CONDITIONS

Destinations do not exist in isolation from the rest of the world and thus they are not immune from the impacts of what might be termed 'macro-structural conditions'. These are roughly synonymous with 'external events' found in the destination area literature. Macro-structural conditions are important ontologically because they function as structures, meaning they constrain or enable development from outside – the role of climate ecosuccession, for example. When macro-structural conditions are stable the resort can progress through its stage sequence within the normal range of variation. Such stability would thus seem to be an enabling factor (Johnston et al, 2001:18).

A final point about macro-structural conditions emerges from nexus of the life cycle of the destination with the life cycle of the institution of tourism itself. Several aspects of these are notable. Tourism, a global phenomenon, manifests itself at locales. As destinations develop they tend to lose local quality that made them attractive in the first place and to become generic. As an example, high-rise hotels or enclaves are more likely related to the trends initiated by the global tourism industry than to conditions specific to a particular destination resort. Expansions and recessions in generating countries have



repercussions felt at the resorts at which tourists spend their disposable income (Johnston et al, 2001:18).

### 3.8 INTERNATIONAL TRENDS

According to the World Tourism Organization (WTO) forecast of trends for the year 2000 and beyond, there will be close to 650 million international tourists' arrivals by the turn of the century to 2010. International tourism rose to 500 million arrivals in 1993, despite a world economic recession. International receipts in the same year rose to 304 billion US\$. These receipts represented 8% of the total merchandise exports and 30% of the exports services. Tourism ranks first among world exports of goods and services. It is ahead of oil, motor vehicles and electronic industries. According to WTO forecasts, world tourist arrivals will increase by 3.8% per year taking the 1990s as whole, and slightly above 3.5% per year in the first decade of the 21st century (Doswell R, 1997: 5).

Doswell (1997:7) identifies two major factors that have tended to characterize international tourism. These characteristics are both generated and received by developed countries "the better off going to visit the better off". In 1993 over 96% of world arrivals were in Europeans and the Americans. The figure was still very high at about 80%. Secondly, most tourism has been concentrated within the immediate regions of the developed countries. Generally, the closer countries are to each other, the more movement there is between them. Intra-regional tourism is still the major driving force in tourism growth.

### 3.9 TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

South Africa experienced a **tourism boom** "that defined gravity" in 2002. Increased arrivals, both from Africa and overseas countries, pushed arrivals figures to record breaking levels for every month of the 2002 calendar year. By the end of 2002, for the first time ever, an overseas market (the UK) posted the biggest growth figure for the month of December with an absolute growth of 12,288 passengers in that month alone.

Even arrivals from USA closed the year 7% up from 2001 despite its outbound long-haul leisure market being severely depressed in 2002 (Tourism South Africa, 2003: 8).

The Johannesburg World Summit or the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) saw South Africa managing one of the biggest United Nations conference ever held. "It was attended by 17 000 delegates, including 105 heads of state and government officials. Altogether 180 countries were officially represented at the summit. In addition, 500 parallel events took place in Johannesburg and elsewhere in the country. It is estimated that the total number of international delegates attending the Summit and its parallel events account for 37 000 visitors (Tourism South Africa, 2002: 8).

The success of the WSSD was not only indicated by the economic benefits that included a direct (injection) spending by foreign attendees of over half a billion Rand (it is conservatively estimated that there was at least another R265 million invested by the private sector and the donor community) but by the satisfaction ratings of attendees: over 40% of delegates were concerned about safety and security prior to their visit but upon leaving South Africa, practically almost every delegate (98.8%) indicated that they had no problems regarding personal safety. In practical terms all (99.0%) delegates indicated that there was no risk of security. The main highlights for delegates were the conference itself, business opportunities the "friendly people and hospitality".

The African Union Summit, held in July 2002 in Durban, also put South Africa upfront on the global stage and entrenched South Africa as the events capital of Africa. The historic event drew more than 5 000 ministers, ambassadors and delegates. Tourism development was also prioritized in terms of the NEPAD plan as an industry that could support the "Market access Initiative" that support the objectives of NEPAD in ensuring "African ownership, responsibility and leadership while making Africa attractive to both domestic and foreign investors through unleashing the vast economic potential of the continent (Tourism South Africa, 2002: 8).

The first National Tourism Conference was held in Polokwane, Limpopo in November 2002. This landmark event saw DEAT, South African Tourism, all nine provinces, industry and stakeholders unit to co-ordinate tourism development in South Africa. The Polokwane Declaration “recognized the challenge to build one strategy” and “resolved to establish a unifying brand behind the Tourism Growth Strategy”. The Tourism Growth Strategy (TGS) was launched by South African Tourism at the tourism Indaba (Tourism South Africa, 2002: 9).

Growth from the markets targeted in the TGS has been the drivers of the 2002 boom. The measurement of the other growth objectives, contained in this report, is starting to show the benefits of the focus that the TGS has given marketing campaigns as opposed to generic marketing that was focused at all consumers (whether or not they were interested in traveling to South Africa). The projections for 2003 are optimistic. On the domestic front the TGS also resulted in a coordinated effort with all nine provinces in terms of growing our neighbouring SADC markets. An extensive domestic research program is also underway in 2003 to fine tune a domestic growth strategy and to measure the domestic tourism economy and domestic consumer patterns (Tourism South Africa, 2002: 9).

These two pieces of work are critical for the development of a Tourism Satellite Account in early 2004, which will allow us to accurately measure the contribution of tourism to GDP for the first time.

### **3.9.1 The Role of Tourism in South Africa**

#### **3.9.1.1 Highlights of visits to South Africa**

With a population of approximately 41 million and a land surface of 1.27 million square kilometers (nearly five times the size of the UK), according to the perceptions of tourists to South Africa, the main highlight of tourists to South Africa in 2002 was the culture, history and heritage of the country. This includes the warm and friendly people of South



Africa. The second highlight mentioned by tourists was South Africa's scenic beauty. This was followed closely by the value for money tourists gained in South Africa. Wildlife ranked fourth on the tourists list of highlights in 2002 and business opportunities followed in the fifth place (Tourism South Africa, 2002:39).

In addition, unique archaeological sites and battle fields, the availability of excellent conference and exhibition facilities, a wide range of sporting facilities, internationally known attractions (Table Mountain, Cape of Good Hope, Sun City, Kruger National Park, etc), make South Africa an almost complete tourist destination.

### 3.9.1.2 Role of Tourism in the Economy

As South Africa moved into the era of democracy, the nation was captured by the promise and potential for tourism and the benefits it would bring to the people of our country. The strong growth we saw in overseas arrivals in 1996/7 convinced many that South Africa was on upward swing that required relatively little effort to sustain. The optimism of the period was perhaps most strongly reflected in government policy documents which suggested targets for tourism arrivals as high as 15% growth per year for the period up to 2010 (TGS, 2002: 7).

Certainly, South Africa has seen growth in foreign arrivals which have been unprecedented. For the period 1994 to 2000 the compound annual growth rate (CAGR) was 8%. However, the period after 1998 has been more sobering when the CAGR dropped back to a mere 0.4%. In part, this fairly dramatic slowing of the arrivals growth rate is driven by the systematic declines in arrivals from Lesotho and to a certain extent Swaziland as well. As the employment of Lesotho and Swazi nationals in South Africa has slowed, and in fact declined, in South Africa (particularly in the mining sector), trips by friends and relatives to visit these foreign nationals in South Africa have also dropped back (TGS, 2002: 7).

Currently the growth rates in overall arrivals we have been experiencing are far below the average growth rates experienced in many other regions of the world, including the rest of Africa, and certainly less than a quarter of the average rate of growth for the world. This is not to suggest that all that has been done in the last few years has been wasted. There has been strong growth from key source markets, but overall the story is one which reminds us that we need to start acting in ways which are about only working in fundamentally different ways to put us on a new track towards new and sustainable growth (TGS, 2002: 8).

For South Africa Tourism, the re-examination of the strategy for growth started with looking at the portfolio of source markets. Currently 90% of arrivals are drawn from 21 countries. Five of these countries (all neighbouring states) deliver over 60% of tourist arrivals. Secondly, at current trends, nearly half of these markets will deliver fewer tourists to us in 2002 than they did on 2001 (TGS, 2002: 9).

If our objectives are about jobs and GDP growth, and not just arrivals, then clearly tourism spend is a critical measure that we need to be concerned about. Examining our portfolio of source markets on the basis of tourism receipts reveals a picture that sets further challenges.

### 3.10 THE IMPORTANCE OF DOMESTIC TOURISM

The Domestic Tourism branch, together with South African tourism, conducted South Africa's largest-ever survey on domestic tourism during the period between April 2000 and May 2001. The survey revealed some interesting statistics:

- (a) Total tourism spend in South Africa is R24,5 billion and the bulk of that – R16 billion – is contributed by domestic tourism.
- (b) 15 million people in the country traveled during the research period.
- (c) They made 34 million trips for business, leisure, for religious reasons, for their health or to visit friends and relatives.

- (d) The total money spent per leisure or business trip was R1 415 million.
- (e) Leisure travel is split equally into four categories: up-market campers, economy trippers, the beach brigade, and the game and bush lovers.
- (f) Most of South Africa's domestic travellers come from Gauteng 38%, Kwa-Zulu Natal 31%, the Eastern Cape 21% and Limpopo Province 10%.
- (g) The demographic breakdown is made up in part of 75% black travelers, 12% white travelers and 13% Indians.
- (h) Domestic trips undertaken for religious or pilgrimage purposes are gaining ground with a market share of 27%.
- (i) Minibus taxis are by far the most common form of transport for domestic breaks (60%), with cars being used in 40% of all cases (World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD), 2002: 25).

### 3.11 TOURISM IN THE FREE STATE

As a province, Free State is committed to building a competitive, fast-growing economy that will create sustainable employment and lead to the redistribution of the province's wealth and an improvement in the living standard of all its inhabitants. The new terrain of focus for this millennium can be defined as integrated economic development and empowerment of the majority of people in South Africa, so as to push back the frontiers of poverty and ensure a better life for all (Free State Province Economic Strategy (FSPES), 2003: 4).

As the Free State recover and emerge from the negative effects of prolonged economic isolation from major world markets, all have the obligation to ensure that the SA becomes more integrated with the world economy, that is, ensuring that it benefits from globalization. A number of issues are of importance when talking about integrated economic development, namely:

- Industrial development: the promotion of industries with strong forward and backward linkages.

- Globalisation: they have to improve the management of the process of globalisation- both on the domestic scene and at the international level.
- Technology development: to be competitive in the world economy, we have to adopt improved production approaches and technology and keep ahead of the latest changes (FSPES, 2002: 5).
- Human resource development/capacity building: countries, which now lead the world in productivity and quality, have virtually no natural resources. They have gained their competitive edge through their people – they have invested on education and training and are reaping the rewards. It is a practical lesson for Free State to involve the people fully in the business organization, for which they work. This is the only way that the Free State can improve on productivity and become globally competitive.
- SMME development: the development of SMME's is of crucial importance. It requires us to pursue an export-oriented strategy, linked with sustainable development and increased competitiveness. We need to make sure that every strategy we decide on has this as its starting point.
- Women's participation: the role of women in the economy should be recognized and promoted as they play an important role in economic development (FSPES, 2002: 6).

### 3.12 THE FREE STATE ECONOMY- A SITUATION ASSESSMENT

It is clear that the Free State has to continue to play a very active role in reducing the number of people dependant on social welfare and increases the numbers that rely for their livelihood on normal active participation in the economy. These can be done by committees through their involvement in activities that will mobilize their technology, economy income levels and eradicate poverty (Belot Free State Tourism, Environmental & Economic Affairs Provincial Budget Vote : 2003 – 2004.htm).

### **3.12.1 Political**

- ❖ Strong democratic South Africa
- ❖ Political and economic liberalization
- ❖ Stable national and provincial government
- ❖ Attractive tax and incentive packages for investment procurement (Belot Free State Tourism 2003 – 2004).

### **3.12.2 Economic**

- ❖ In 2001 the Free State's GGP (in real terms) amounted to R33,495 billion – about 6.3% of the country's GDP
- ❖ Manufacturing sector contributed about 18% of total Free State GGP
- ❖ Relative positive economic outlook for Free State economy with significant growth prospects in the agro-industry, jewellery manufacturing, downstream chemical and related manufacturing, etc (Belot Free State Tourism 2003 – 2004).

### **3.12.3 Social**

- ❖ Female= 49.6% of total Free State population, Male = 50.4%
- ❖ Relative high urban population (69%)
- ❖ HIV/ AIDS prevalence 3<sup>rd</sup> highest in the country = between 20.2 and 25.3%.

### **3.12.4 Technological**

- ❖ Companies are shifting to the application of new technologies – it is however, still at a slow pace
- ❖ Government actively promotes technological advancement through incentives, and the promotion of joint ventures (FSPES, 2002, 9).

### **3.12.5 Income levels and poverty**

- ❖ About 53% of Free State population live in poverty
- ❖ High inequalities in terms of income and wealth distribution

### **3.12.6 Unemployment**

- ❖ Male unemployment rate is 29.4%, whereas female unemployment rate is 56.6%
- ❖ Overall unemployment rate is 41.3%
- ❖ Only 38% of population is economically active.

## **3.13 AN ANALYSIS OF FREE STATE'S ECONOMIC PERFORMANCE**

From an analysis of the sectoral contributions to the GGP of the province (over the time span of 1998 to 2000), it is clear that there is a definite structural change in the economy, essentially from a primary dependent economy to a manufacturing, export oriented economy. We do however need to see that the progress in this regard is built upon and further expended. Since 1996 there has been a substantial increase in the GDP growth of the Free State of approximately 4.1% (compared to the 1995 basis year). In 1995 the Free State GDP (at real 1995 prices) amounted to R29, 918 billion. For 2000 it was approximately R32, 313 billion, which represents a substantial increase in such a short period. That is approximately an 8% increase compared to 1995 (FSPES, 2002: 15).

The Free State's Gross Geographic Product (GGP) amounted to approximately R33, 495 billion in 2001, which represents a 5.8% contribution to the South African economy. Projections for Free State GGP indicate an increase to R34, 805 billion in 2002. For rest of the MTEF period, projections indicate that the Free State GGP will increase further – R36.110 billion in 2003; R37, 532 billion in 2004 and R39, 079 billion in 2005 (FSPES, 2002: 15).

### **3.13.1 Economic Growth and Job Creation**

The progress in the above regard has to be built upon and further expanded. It is also worth mentioning that the Free State exporters are doing exceedingly well in the international trading arena. The Free State's major exports are chemicals, fruit and vegetables, machinery and equipment, manufacturing goods, and mineral products. Our strategy for economic growth and job creation involves a three-tier process, which basically entails:

- ❖ Benefication of our natural resources, which should receive our undivided attention
- ❖ But in this whole process of adding value, we should also empower/ capacitate our people to become involved in manufacturing ventures
- ❖ Furthermore, as we move up on the learning curve, we also have to compete in the global market place, that is, globalization (FSPES, 2002: 16).

This strategy is also underpinned by two important principles, namely industry clustering (to avoid fragmented development) and utilizing the opportunities provided by forward and backward linkages of existing and new economic ventures. In order for us to be successful globally, will have to move up on the value chain of production – from little or no – value-added products to high technology value-added products ultimately (this principle is illustrated in the figure below). In other words, move from a position of too high dependency on primary sectors such as agriculture to a position where the economy is well diversified into several sectors such as manufacturing, tourism, services, trade, etc. (FSPES, 2002: 17).

### **3.13.2 The Vision for Tourism in the Free State**

The vision is to have the Free State as a tourism paradise where visitors are satisfied and inhabitants gets benefits. The Free State Province envisages itself as a leading tourism destination with an economically sound tourism industry that is developed to increase the

current 5% to a 10% share of the market. Because of its centrality and abundance of peaceful, unpolluted open spaces, the potential for tourism is never far fetched. The provincial goal, therefore, is to ensure sustainable growth and development that encourages visitors and mass tourism which can be highly considered for the success of the industry (FSPES, 2002: 13).

### 3.14 TOURISM EXPECTATIONS OF THE EASTERN FREE STATE

The development of the tourism industry forms a key component of the government's economic development and job creation program. As such development of the tourism industry is strongly supported by government.

#### 3.14.1 Overview of Tourism Resources (Attributes) in the Free State

According to FSPES (2002) Free State province has many attributes that can support a substantial tourism industry:

- (a) A strong cultural and historical heritage which is made out of cultural diversity of Basotho, Batswana, amaXhosa, amaZulu, Afrikaans, the English and the San.
- (b) A good tourism climate with warm, sunny days and clear skies, a diverse and varied landscape from sandstone cliffs in the east to outstretched grassland in the west with wide open spaces, broad skies and beautiful sunsets.
- (c) A wealth of unique bird and animal life such as the Bold Ibis and Sungazer, with well managed wildlife conservation areas on both government and private lands.
- (d) Country with freedom from malaria, bilhazia and other tropical diseases.
- (e) Sites of international, historical, archaeological and paleontological interest.
- (f) The longest "coast line" in South Africa, with two major rivers, the Orange and Vaal, and many major dams.
- (g) A special eco-tourism attribute made out of healthy grasslands and open spaces typical and unique to the Free State.



- (h) Unique annual agricultural and cultural activities like the Cherry festival, the Maize festival, the Rose festival and *MACUFE* (Mangaung African Cultural Festival).
- (i) A relatively crime free society, in comparison to other major tourism destinations in the country.
- (j) Friendly people who spontaneously interact with visitors.
- (k) An excellent road system that runs North, South, East and West, linking it to major population centers.
- (l) Close proximity to markets with most destinations in the country within easy driving distance.
- (m) A position at the “cross roads” of the country and the resultant potential to be a national convention/ conference centre.
- (n) The gold mining industry and the world-wide fascination with gold.
- (o) A range of agricultural activities that create the opportunity for farm or agro-tourism, like cherry and asparagus farming.
- (p) An established tourism industry with good hotels and guest house accommodations.
- (q) A well managed hunting industry.
- (r) Opportunity for adventure and sport holidays with hiking, mountain climbing, 4x4 trails, boating, fishing and even skiing in the snow of the Maluti Highlands in the Eastern Free State.
- (s) Small cities and towns with unpolluted and undeveloped landscapes.

### 3.15 TOURISM IMPACT STUDIES

Several researchers have investigated the host community's reactions towards tourism development in the context of social exchange theory by examining how residents assess the expected cost and benefits of tourism. In the tourism context, social exchange theory suggests that local residents are likely to participate in exchange (support of tourism development) as long as the perceived benefits of tourism exceed the perceived costs of tourism (Keyser, H. 2002: 349).

Most of these researchers have examined the factors being exchanged by local residents including economic, social and environmental factors. The general conclusion is that the host community residents are likely to participate in an exchange with tourists if they perceive the exchange is likely to result in gain. In summary, literature on tourism suggests that the economic, social, cultural and environmental factors are likely to affect the residents' perceptions of tourism and their willingness to participate in an exchange (support for or opposition to tourism development) (Keyser, H. 2002: 349).

### **3.15.1 Support for Tourism Development**

Because tourism relies heavily upon the goodwill of the local residents, their support is necessary for the development, successful operation, and sustainability of tourism. If residents have a positive perception of tourism, they will render support for additional tourism development and, therefore, they will be willing to participate with visitors. However, if they believe that tourism development would have more costs than benefits they are likely to oppose tourism development.

The success of any tourism development project is threatened to the extent that the development is planned and constructed without the knowledge and support of the local residents. Anger, apathy, or mistrust will ultimately be transferred to the tourists. For the most part, tourists tend to be reluctant to visit places where they feel unwelcome. Therefore, it is vital to know how the residents perceived the total impact and the factors that influence perceived total impact of tourism development (Bennett J.A, 2000: 364).

### **3.15.2 Perceived Total Impacts**

Many researchers have examined the overall perceived impacts of tourism development by local residents. Since tourism has multi-faceted phenomena involving different impact factors and resulting from a complex process of social exchange between tourists and host communities, the residents' perception of tourism may have both negative and

positive aspects. The residents' perceptions of total tourism impact may be influenced by the level of tourism development or different tourism sites.

However, the results of several studies suggest that the host community's perception of the total impact is affected by the perceived impact of several costs and benefits factors on the host community such as economic, environmental, agricultural, social benefits and costs (Gee et al., 1997: 365). It is clear that there is a direct relationship between the residents' perceived total impacts and support of tourism development. This information relates exactly to one of the research objectives concerned with the evaluation of the possible negative and positive impacts of the project of the community. This proves that only if the impacts are identified it will be easier for the developers and community to work on them or avoid the negative ones and enhance the positive ones.

### 3.16 TOURISM SOCIAL IMPACTS

Although many tourism attractions provide much of the energizing power in a community's tourism system, they are often under-appreciated and viewed as only commercial. Consequently, conflicting goals and interests of the community and its attractions (for example, quality-of-life issues versus profit-motive concerns) can arise and cause rifts. One unfortunate consequence of such upsets is visitor-host hostility and social dissension, leading to lack of support for the cultural attraction that draws visitors (Keyser, H. 2002: 360). The social impacts of tourism can be classified into two categories, which are: positive social impact and the negative social impact.

#### 3.16.1 Positive Social Impacts of Tourism

Tourism has at least four positive social impacts on host communities:

- (a) Firstly, tourism is known to bring greater understanding between people of different cultures. Tourism can contribute to fostering peace, particularly when tourist can make at least a casual acquaintance with their hosts.

- (b) Secondly, tourism can induce a new awareness of old cultures, traditions and dying local arts and crafts, as tourists attach great value to what is different and unfamiliar. This is especially true in less developed countries of the world. Once local inhabitants realize that their indigenous culture has the potential to attract tourists, they will try to preserve it.
- (c) Thirdly, destination areas are often greatly enriched by new ideas and new social interests conveyed by tourists.
- (d) Finally, tourism often facilitates a transition from a rigid authoritarian social structure to one that is more sensitive to the needs of the individual (Bennett, J. A. 2000: 337).

### **3.16.2 Negative Social Impacts of Tourism**

Tourism, like any other industry, experiences problems that stem from market failures, imperfections and from subsequent government responses. However, as an industry, tourism is poorly understood, as are its various impacts. The negative social effects of tourism can manifest themselves in numerous ways, such as a decline of traditions, materialism, an increase in crime rates, social conflict, and crowding. The literature frequently cites the following social impacts of tourism as negatively affecting a region:

- (a) Conflicting activities of residents and tourists.
- (b) Growth in undesirable activities.
- (c) Seasonal employment.
- (d) Social dualism.
- (e) The demonstration effect.
- (f) Congestion and
- (g) Culture viewed as a commodity (Keyser, H. 2002: 349).

### 3.17 THE ECONOMIC IMPACT OF TOURISM

While tourism affects a place or destination in many ways, its development is invariably based on economic objectives. This can be empirical when considering the economic benefits (and costs) that result from tourism. Even the most inexperienced onlooker must realize that tourism has significant economic benefits for tourist destination areas and hosts. Bennett, J. A. (2000: 322) puts it eloquently: 'Evidence of the economic impact of tourism is so overwhelming that it is no wonder that underdeveloped countries seek it and industrialized nations wish to protect it.'

#### 3.17.1 The Economic Costs of Tourism

Bennett, J. A. (2000:326) claims that not all the foreign exchange earnings generated by tourism remain in the country. When goods and services are imported to serve tourist needs, leakages occur. He further lists a number of possible forms of leakage that may occur:

- (a) The cost of goods and services that have to be imported to satisfy tourists' needs. Importation of goods and materials for the infrastructure and buildings required for tourism development.
- (b) Payment of interest, rent or profit on foreign capital invested in the country's tourism plant.
- (c) Direct expenditure on promotion, publicity and other services purchased when payments are recorded in the country of tourists' place of origin rather than in the destination country, thereby reducing profits and taxes in the destination country.
- (d) Exemption of duties or taxes by host governments on foreign-owned companies or promotion of financial inducement to attract foreign investment.

#### 3.17.2 The Economic Benefits of Tourism

Although the economic benefit is often the factor motivating many communities' involvement in tourism, communities identify the following as positive contributions to

the community: Employment benefits, income benefits, tax revenues, visibility and cultural benefits.

*Tourism and employment:* Tourism is a service industry requiring large numbers of employees in relation to the amount of the investment. That is, tourism relies on relatively large inputs of labor compared to capital, and, thus, generates relatively large numbers of jobs (Bennett, J. A. 2000: 151).

*Tourism and income:* The tourism industry attracts travellers which in turn, means income and profit for business receiving tourist expenditures. New money can be brought into a community through agriculture, mining, manufacturing, and tourism. Many communities are visited for the first time, but almost every community has some visitors and, therefore, has some degree of tourism.

Two important economic factors must be understood before a reasonable estimate of the impact of tourism on businesses income can be made. First, some of the goods and materials sold by tourist-related businesses come from outside the community. When these bills are paid, this part of the travelers' money does not benefit the community directly. However, the part of the tourist money that stays in the area, usually in the form of wages, profits and additional expenditures on locally produced goods and service does benefit the community (Bennett J. A. 2000:152).

### 3.18 TOURISM AND THE ENVIRONMENT

The main purpose is to discuss the environment of the area where the project will have impact on it.

### **3.18.1 Maluti-Drakensberg Transfrontier Conservation and Development Area (Lesotho/ South Africa)**

The Maluti-Drakensberg Transfrontier Conservation and Development Area (TFCDA) is long-term collaboration between the Kingdom of Lesotho and South Africa. It is primarily a biodiversity conservation venture, as are most other TFCA initiatives in the SADC Region. Its objectices are, however, to protect the exceptional biodiversity of the Maluti and Drakensberg Mountains through conservation, sustainable resource use, as land-use and development planning. The project will focus on the Maloti-Drakensberg Mountains that are situated along the 300 km eastern boundry of Lesotho. The project extends into three provinces of South Africa (Hall-Martin, A. 2002:85).

#### **3.18.1.1 Description**

The Maluti Drakensberg TFCA contains the largest and most important high altitude protected area on the subcontinent, supporting unique montane and subalpine ecosystems. It is one of the largest continuous unmodified areas of land in the region. The area has spectacular scenery and is an important center of endemism for montane plant species. The high altitude streams, oxbow lakes and etlands, in an area of high annual rainfall, make a major contribution to the provision of water for the urban and industrial complexes in the lower lying parts of South Africa through the Lesoth Highlands Water schemes. As described elsewhere in this report, the Maluti-Drakensberg is the highest region in the southern Africa, with altitudes ranging from 1,300 to over 3,400 m above sea level. Thaba-Ntlenyana (3482m) is the highest peak in Africa south of Kilimanjaro. The area is well known for its rugged mountain scenery, the most well known features are the Amphitheatre, a semi-circle of high cliffs with sheer drop of 613 m, and the Tugela Falls (Hall-Martin, A. 2002: 86).

The region has a high mean annual rainfall ranging from 800 mm at lower altitudes to over 2,000 mm near the escarpment. Most (80%) of the rain falls in summer, while snowfalls occur in winter. The climate is mild to cool, with mean daily temperatures of

only 24 degrees C in January and 8 degrees C in July, but with extremes of 35 degrees C in summer and -20 degrees C in winter (Hall-Martin, A. 2002: 86).

#### 3.18.1.2 Tourism

The entire Drakensberg area in Kwa-Zulu Natal, and the highlands of the Eastern Free State are major tourism destinations with very well developed infrastructure and facilities including many hotels, lodges, rest camps, guest houses and camping grounds. Development in Lesotho is still limited, being confined to basic lodge and hostel in the Setlhaba-Thebe National Park. However, a number of major tourism developments, partly made feasible by the increased access to the area that is linked to the Highlands Water Schemes, are in the planning stages and some imder operation. These include the newly established international standard ski-resort. The development of tourism facilities and the involvement of local communities in tourism are also among the objectives of the TFCDA (Hall-Martin, A. 2002).

The fulfillment of human needs causes environmental change of some sort. To adapt the natural environment to human existence is part of being human. Every time people cultivate crops, divert rivers, construct buildings, build new roads, or undertake any development, it rebounds in some way on the environment. The arguments are about whether such actions are detrimental or not; whether or not the environment is harmed, and whether or not development is sustainable (Doswell R, 1997: 126).

Development cannot mean growth alone. Growth may make some people richer but it does not necessarily add to everybody's state of life. It is noted by Doswell, R. (1997) that economic development should have broad and interdependent effects that lead to the improvement of life. Are people better off not just in financial terms, but also in access to health, to educational opportunities, to housing, leisure options, recreational facilities and so on?



Sustainability means something that can continue or be reused. Development should enhance and conserve the world for future generations. There is a danger of utilizing non-renewable resources while starting off degenerative processes and leaving the world a progressively poorer place (Doswell R, 1997: 127).

Tourism can focus attention on important environmental issues, and can trigger projects that both conserve and enhance the environment. For example, it creates an audience for historical and archaeological attractions, and may generate funds for their conservation and upkeep. Similarly, tourism develops a flow of traffic to beauty spots which while putting pressure on them, also generates funds for their protection and management. Tourism can often be the predominant influence in the redevelopment and beautification of factory sites, mining areas, riverside locations, all of which have been abandoned after years of industrial use (Doswell R, 1997: 127).

Until now environmental costs are not usually reflected in national economic accounting. The use of natural capital is omitted from customary methods of measuring economic performance. Although many environmental assets are not subject to market transactions, they are being used up and should be costed.

A monetary value is therefore included for all natural capital used and environmental damage suffered. This allows for the calculation of the Environmentally-adjusted Domestic Product (EDP) known as the Green Green Domestic Product (GGDP). As noted by Doswell, R. (1997) that:

‘Sustainable development is said to be achieved if Environmentally-adjusted Domestic Product (EDP) is not decreasing with the passage of time. As tourism uses natural resources, so it can conserve and enhance them. It depends on the concept and type of tourism, and on the effectiveness of tourism planning’.

### 3.19 TOURISM AND SUSTAINABILITY

The promotion of 'sustainable tourism' as an attractive aspiration for promotional purposes by national tourist offices around the world, particularly among developing countries, has become part of the conventional wisdom. Sustainable tourism is defined as the tourism development, management and any other tourism activity that optimizes economic and other societal benefits available in the present without jeopardising the potential for similar benefits in the future. South Africa's environmental interests are obvious and widely proclaimed, but the delivery of truly sustainable products controls and regulations are not blended easily with entrepreneurial activities in growing markets (Mowforth. M, 1998: 62).

#### 3.19.1 The Principles of Sustainability in Tourism

As is noted by Mowforth, M. (1998), the notion of sustainability has many ramifications. These are as follows: ecological sustainability, social sustainability, cultural sustainability, economic sustainability, the educational element, and the local participation.

The condition of ecological sustainability needs hardly to be stated as it is often the only way in which sustainability is publicly perceived. The need to avoid or minimize the environmental impact of tourist activities is clear. Mowforth, M. (1998) suggests that the calculation of carrying capacities is an important method of assessing environmental impact and sustainability beyond the environment.

Social sustainability refers to the ability of a community, whether local or national, to absorb inputs, such as extra people, for short or long periods of time and continue to function without the creation of social disharmony as a result of these inputs or by adapting its functions and relationships so that the disharmony created can be alleviated.

Societies may be able to continue functioning in social harmony despite the effects of changes brought about by some new inputs such as tourists. But the relationships within that society, the mores of interaction, the styles of life, the customs and traditions are all subject to change through the introduction of visitors with different habits, styles, customs and means of exchange. Even if the society survives, its culture may be irreversibly altered. Culture of course is as dynamic a feature of human life as society or economy, so the processes of cultural adaptation and change are not assumed by all in all cases to be a negative effect. But cultural sustainability refers to the ability of people or a people to retain or adapt elements of their culture that distinguish them from other people (Mowforth, M. 1998: 109).

According to Mowforth, M. (1998) cultural influences from even a small influx of tourists are inevitable and may be insidious; but the control of the most harmful effects, emphasis on the responsible behavior of the visitor, and the prevention of distortion of local culture might be assumed to be essential elements of sustainable tourism. Cultural impacts are more easily seen over the long term and are, therefore, more difficult to measure, although the cultural subversion of many local communities has been well documented, especially by anthropologists, illustrates cultural ill-effects of tourism (Mowforth, M. 1998: 109).

The condition of economic sustainability is no less important in any tourist development. Sustainability in these terms refers to a level of economic gain from the activity sufficient either to cover the cost of any special measures taken to cater for the tourist and to mitigate the effects of the tourist's presence. Or to offer an income appropriate to the inconvenience caused to the local community visited without violating any of the other conditions or both.

### 3.20 TOURISM AND TECHNOLOGY

Technological change is modifying the face of all segments of the tourism industry. For example, the travel agency industry is being revolutionized by the introduction of new

forms of computer reservations systems. These allow for more sophisticated searches of holiday options, but they also allow for increased labor productivity (Mowforth, M. 1998: 143).

Technology has both many opportunities and threats on the community, which all require analysis. In the simplest sense, technology is the knowledge and procedures that go into getting something done. At a more advanced level, it is the knowledge and procedures used in the conversion of resources to a finished product. A technological advance improves the knowledge or procedures of conversion. It can have two effects: first, improvements in knowledge or procedures can lead to better products. Over time, functionally superior products are developed. Second, a technological advance can improve both the effectiveness and efficiency of the conversion process so that a superior product is produced at a cost lower than that of the first one (Houston, M. J., 1999: 99).

### **3.20.1 High Technology Tourism**

In terms of technology, tourism is divided into categories of high or low technology tourism.

The origin of mass tourism lies in the reorganization of production during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. Since then new attractions have been added to tourism, such as industrial heritage and theme parks. Despite this diversity, mass tourism has a character and impact that is distinctive compared to most other forms of selective tourism. This stems from it (tourism) being a form of mass consumption. It is also potentially an agent of profound economic and cultural change. This has been driven by the logic of capital accumulation, although not in any simplistic way; technology has played a partly autonomous role, while there has also been continuous struggle between capital and labor over the distribution of the material and non-material rewards of production including free time (Gareth, S. 1994: 175).

### 3.20.2 Mass tourism

One form of leisure is mass tourism. The emergence of mass tourism was conditional not only on the growth of leisure time but also on the structure of free time and on the economics of the tourism industry. The economics of tourism industry are important in the emergence of mass tourism. Changes in transport technology – by air and by land- have accelerated travel and reduced costs. This has encountered an increase in demand that in turn, has led to economies of scale and further cost reductions. There has also been the growth of tour companies that are able to sell large numbers of all inclusive package holidays at a relatively low cost. As a result, there has been a “virtuous circle” –at least in economic terms- of falling real costs, rising demand and economies of scale (Gareth, S. 1994:178).

Mass tourism is a distinctive form of tourism. This stems from its character as a form of fordist mass consumption. Urry, L. (1990: 14) summarizes the features of mass consumption as:

Purchase of commodities produced under conditions of mass production; a high and growing rate of expenditure on consumer products; individual producers tending to dominate particular industrial markets. Producer rather than consumer as dominant commodities little differentiated from each other by fashion, season, and specific market segments; relatively limited market choice- where it reflect producer interests, either publicly or privately owned.

Both domestic and international mass tourism would seem to fit this model of mass consumption, given the characteristics below:

- (a) The sheer numbers involved mean that the tourism product has to be offered under conditions of mass consumption.

- (b) There is a growing level of expenditure on consumer goods that are associated with tourism. This includes surf boards for the beach holiday and skis and skiing accessories for the winter holiday.
- (c) A few producers dominate particular markets; Disney in the world of theme parks, and travel companies such as Thomson and Neckermann in the world of package holidays in Europe.
- (d) Producers take the lead in developing new tourism attractions, whether opening up new mass destinations such as Thailand, the Gambia and Turkey, or in designing new theme parks such as Euro-Disney.
- (e) By and large, mass tourism products are little differentiated: the Mediterranean beach holiday offers much the same mix of architecture, facilities, food and drink and entertainment whether it is located in Turkey, Greece or Spain.

The nature of mass tourism as a form of mass consumption also gives rise to a number of basic characteristics that have important economic and social implications. Mass tourism tends to be highly *spatially polarized*. This is partly to do with the way in which the tourist gaze is constructed. Mass tourist destinations also tend to have *segmented markets*. This is determined by both national differences in the construction of the tourist gaze and by the economics of mass tourism. As minimizing costs is a paramount objective – unlike in elite tourism – there is an historical tendency for the high levels of movements between adjoining places. *Dependency* on particular market segments brings certain economic relationships. Destinations become more vulnerable to external influences such as political or economic activities. This is most marked with respect to international tourism. Small changes in one or two markets can have major effects such as imbalance between demand and supply (Gareth, S. 1994:182).

### 3.20.3 Low Technology tourism

Eco-tourism is a form of nature related tourism in which utmost consideration is given to conservation of the environment, including biological diversity, wildlife and ecological systems, with emphasis placed on educating tourists about the environment and how to

conserve it. Eco-tourism areas often include existing communities, especially of traditional peoples, and the eco-tourism plan must consider ways of conserving local cultural traditions and identities and how to bring benefits to these local communities. Although it is still a minor component of overall tourism development on a global basis, eco-tourism is expanding rapidly and tends to attract tourists who are respectful of the natural environment and local cultures (Frangialli, F. 1998: 75).

Eco-tourism in particular has potential for development in local areas that offer ecologically interesting natural environment which are often combined with settlements of traditional ethnic peoples. Because it normally tends to be small-scale, eco-tourism can usually be developed within the scope of local resources, but technical assistance to the local community is often required to ensure proper development and management. Some financial assistance may be necessary to help communities become involved in eco-tourism (Frangialli .F, 1998: 76).

### 3.21 FAIR AND RESPONSIBLE TOURISM

The concept of responsible tourism refers to the tourism management strategy embracing planning, management, product development and marketing to bring about positive economic, social, cultural and environmental impacts. For tourism operators it is about providing more rewarding holiday experiences for guests whilst enabling local communities to enjoy better quality of life and conserving the natural environment (Moosa, M. A. 2003:1).

Since the mid 1990s there has been a shift towards defining economic performance in terms of the “triple bottom line”– growth that is economically, socially and environmentally sustainable. Responsible tourism addresses this shift by giving equal weight to the economy, society and the environment – the three pillars of sustainable development. The drive towards corporate citizenship has also forced responsibility and accountability to the top of business agendas. Global tourism initiatives, such as the

World Tourism Organization's Global Code of Ethics for Tourism and the Tour Operators Initiative reflect this growing emphasis.

### 3.22 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN TOURISM

All tourism needs community support, but particularly nature-based or eco-tourism are closely linked with the local community. An understanding of the needs of local community is necessary and will include all stakeholders. Consultation and co-operation between local governments, the business community, and individuals are essential because of the nature of tourism. The attractions being promoted to the tourist are often those that are highly prized by the community. The support may not be easy and will probably take some time, but if the local people have the opportunity to voice their concerns, opinions and also to alter solutions, they will be more likely to support proposed tourism venture opportunities. The community should therefore, be able to participate in each stage of the planning process (Beeton, 1998: 36).

On the part of the majority of the host communities there have been willingness and an ability to develop tourism. The willingness to develop tourism stems from the nature of this fast growing industry that can generate employment and income in vulnerable economics. Therefore, convincingly national, local governments, landowners, as well as local people believe that the benefits it confers are worthwhile. Their ability to promote such development frequently stems from an unspoilt natural environment that exhibits signs of under development.

#### 3.22.1 Public Groups

According to Gunn (2002) several public groups can influence greatly whether or not a plan will be executed. Increasingly, public organizations are advocating many issues relating to tourism. In areas where planning is becoming more active, nearly all plans require several stages of public input and approval. This statement proves that all plans



are influenced by a wide range of public input because those plans affect them. Therefore publics should be highly considered when planning a development at their area.

### 3.23 SUMMARY

The importance of tourism has long existed as have been seen globally, nationally, regionally and on the local level. Globally tourism is the largest and fastest growing industry out-pacing all other industries. Even in South Africa where the project is proposed, tourism is still widely regarded as a growth catalyst that is able to generate much-needed income and employment opportunities.

In Africa tourism has the potential to become one of the biggest economic growth sectors because of the 4% share of the global market it enjoyed. South Africa also experienced tourism growth of 11% overall and growth of 20% in overseas arrivals.

From the global to the local there can be no denying that tourism is a major global economic force. This proves that hardly a day goes without a new pronouncement about the wider significance of what many call the world's largest industry (tourism) which has grown internationally and have positive economic implication on the local scale. Africa is the new emerging market for foreign investment and tourism is one of the investor attractions.

Global tourism has proved that the economy remains intact and has proven to be resilient in 2002. This is despite the fact that economic challenges, terrorism and war could not disturb travel patterns and have a severe negative impact on the global tourism economy. This is true since the world tourism GDP forecasting an increase in real terms by 3.0% per annum in the decade to 2010. The forecast for the industry's share of world GDP to rise from 10,5% in 1990 to 11,4% by the end of 2005 have been exceeded. In the same period, employment is expected to grow at 2,6% per annum, equating to creation of over 5,5 million jobs per year over the first decade of the new century.

South African tourism has used boom that defied gravity in 2002. This is real when considering increased arrivals, both from Africa and overseas countries, which pushed arrivals figures to record breaking levels for every month of the 2002 calendar year. Johannesburg World Summit or the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) saw South Africa managing the Biggest United Nations Conference ever held making South Africa well known in many countries of the world. This is proved by the 180 countries which were officially represented at the summit by 17 000 delegates, including 105 heads of the state and government.

The African Union Summit held in July 2002 in Durban also put South Africa on the global stage and entrenched it as the events capital of Africa. Even NEPAD put South Africa on the map.

The role of tourism in South Africa is significant. Highlights of visits to South Africa have shown that culture, history and heritage of the country were rated top of tourists' attractions. The second highlight mentioned by tourists was scenic beauty, which was followed by wildlife, including some attractions such as unique archaeological site and battle fields and sporting facilities (Diamantis, D. 2004:91).

The role of tourism in the economy has shown growth in foreign arrivals which have been unprecedented. For the period 1994 to 2000 the compound annual growth rate (CAGR) was 8%. For South African Tourism, the re-examination of the strategy for growth started with looking at the portfolio of source markets. Currently 90% of arrivals are drawn from 21 countries. Five of these countries (all neighbouring states) deliver over 60% of tourist arrivals, all of which puts South African Tourism on a map.

The strategy for growth of South African Tourism has made the choice that keeping pace with current trends of between zero and 1% projected growth in arrivals and revenue is not option. These strategies are achievable if the average activation rate (or market share) across the growth segments moves from 2% in 2002 to 8% in 2005.

For market segmentation each category of tourists exhibits unique characteristics and needs, making it extremely important to segment the tourist market into smaller segments. These include overseas market segments as compared to other SADC region, individual source markets, the regional view of the world and the domestic market segments.

Tourism in the Free State is committed to building a competitive, fast growing economy that will create sustainable employment and lead to the redistribution of the province's wealth and an improvement in the living standard of all its inhabitants.

The Free State economy on the situation assessment seems to have few categories which are all valuable to be considered. These are political, economic, social, technological, income levels and poverty and unemployment. An analysis of Free State's economic performance have shown that from sectoral contributions to the GGP of the province (over the time span of 1998 to 2000) it is clear that there has been a substantial increase in the GDP growth of the Free State of approximately 4,1%. For 2000 it was approximately R32, 313 billion, which represents a substantial increase in such a short period. That is approximately an 8% increase compared to 1995. Tourism in the Free State also entails economic growth and job creation.

The vision for tourism in the Free State is to have Free State as a paradise where visitors are satisfied and inhabitants gets benefits. Its expectation is to develop new opportunities, new entrepreneurs and tourism development routes. It also aimed at doing an overview of tourism resources (attributes) in order to discover existing and non-existing resources.

The fact that rural tourism has become inextricably linked with broader development plans and policies have proved rural tourism as a complex and diverse area of the study. Tourism impacts studies are essential since they help in determining the positive and negative impacts of whatever project that needs to be implemented. This helps the developers in determining what to consider or not to consider for the success of the intended developments.

Tourism and the environment are aspects that need to be considered in order to avoid environmental degradation and enhance tourism. The objectives of the TFCDA are to protect the exceptional biodiversity of the Maluti and Drakensburg Mountains for tourism through conservation, sustainable resource use and developing planning. The entire Drakensbeurg area in Kwa-Zulu Natal and the highlands of the Eastern Free State are major tourism destinations with very well developed infrastructure and facilities including many hotels, lodges, rest camps, guest houses, etc.

Tourism and technology are important since technological change is modifying the face of all segments of the tourism industry. The two categories of tourism technology have played important role in dividing the potential of tourism elements thus attracting tourists to the destinations. These are high technologies which consider the impacts of mass tourism and low technology. They consider eco-tourism as a form of nature-related tourism which utmost consideration is given to conservation of the environment. It also includes special interest tourism, adventure tourism and village tourism.

Fair and responsible tourism nowadays are considered to be of utmost omportance. The reason is that it is considered not only by the developers/ the elite people but all the stakeholders involved, for instance, community members, economic status, product development and the environment.

## CHAPTER 4

### 4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Since the research is based on the socio-economic impact of the tourism development, the researcher decided to interview respondents who were heads of households. A quantitative and qualitative research method was used in order to make coding and data processing and data analysis to be easy.

#### 4.1 THE POPULATION

De Vos, A. S. *et. al.* (1998) defines a population as the totality of persons, events, organization units, case records or other sampling units with which the research problem is concerned. In this instance the Tseheseng community is the population under investigation since the study is based on them. Total population under investigation was 11,112 which is equal to 1,8% of the total population of the Maluti-A-Phofung (S.A. Census 2001).

##### 4.1.1 Characteristics of the Population

The following stakeholders were involved in the research process:

- (a) Women
- (b) Youth
- (c) Elderly people
- (d) Livestock Owners/Herders
- (e) Tribal Chiefs
- (f) Service Institutions

The main purpose was to discuss different issues pertaining to the proposed project activities. Their perceptions of the proposed project activities were sought to determine possible positive and negative impacts.

## 4.2 SAMPLE

Many authors, as quoted by De Vos, A. S. *et al.*, defined a sample in different ways. It can be defined as comprising the elements of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study or it can be viewed as a subset of measurements drawn from a population in which we are interested. But alternatively, a sample is a small portion of the total set of objects, events, persons that together comprise the subject of our study (De Vos, A. S, 1998: 197).

### 4.2.1 The reasons for the use of sample

According to De Vos, A. S. *et al* (1998) the major reason for sampling is feasibility. This is because the population cannot be possibly reached and the use of the sample may result in a more accurate information than might have been obtained if one had studied the entire population.

### 4.2.2 Selecting Techniques

Three areas were selected and visited. This is because these areas were regarded as the representative of the Tsheseng area, where the project is situated. Two hundred respondents were selected as the representative of Tsheseng (Thibella, Phomolong and Dinkweng).

## 4.3 SIZE OF THE SAMPLE

From a total population of the Tsheseng 11,112 households in Thibella, Phomolong and Dinkweng, a sample of 200 households 1,8% was drawn by the researcher. This 200 sample was determined by the total population under investigation. A sample may be defined as a subset of the whole population which was actually investigated by the researcher and whose characteristics will be generalized to the entire population. The number of the sample was prompted by the nature of the project. The simple random

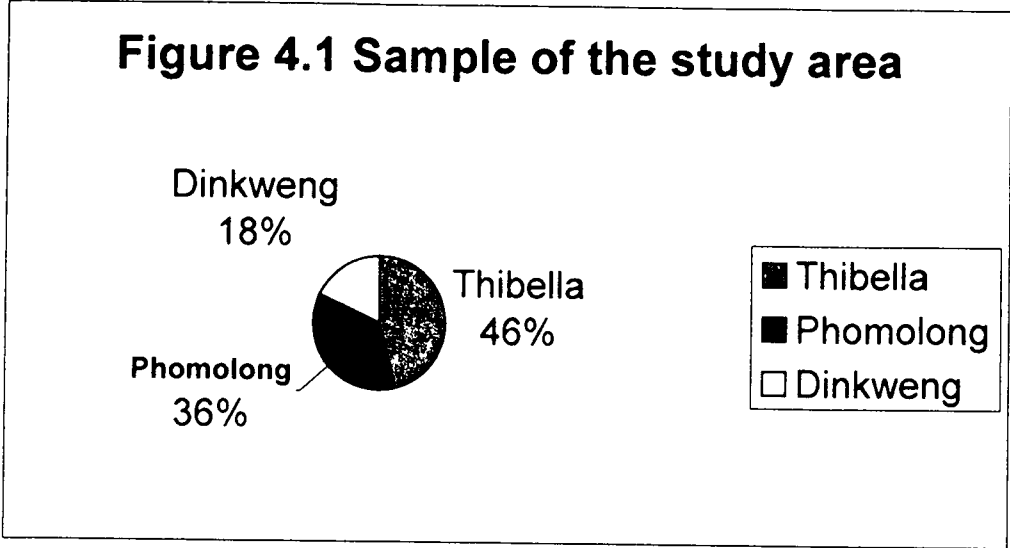
sampling was used to select the respondents. This entails a procedure that provides equal opportunity of selection for each element in a population.

The number of respondents differed from one village to the next. This is because the number of the households is not the same in all these villages. Thibella constituted 46% of the sample while Phomolong constituted 36% and Dinkweng with the total of 18% (see Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1).

#### 4.4 SAMPLING PROCEDURE

The type of sampling procedure used was the probability sampling because it is the one in which each person or other sampling unit in the population has the same known probability of being selected. Simple random sampling procedure was used because it gave the highest chance of selection. Thus, the selection of an element from a population is called random when each element of the population has the same chance, likelihood or probability of being chosen for the sample (De Vos, A. S. *et al*, 1998: 130).

For selection of the sample the researcher had chosen every tenth (10<sup>th</sup>) house to be part of the sample. This did not matter where he had started because the houses did not have numbers on them. The houses were numbered for this research.



**TABLE 4.1: Sample of the Study Area**

| AREA      | NUMBER OF HOUSEHOLDS | SAMPLE | PERCENTAGE |
|-----------|----------------------|--------|------------|
| THIBELLA  | 5104                 | 92     | 46         |
| PHOMOLONG | 4004                 | 72     | 36         |
| DINKWENG  | 2004                 | 36     | 18         |
| TOTAL     | 11 112               | 200    | 100        |

4.5 DATA COLLECTION

The type of data collected is called primary data. The reason is because the researcher collected his own data for the particular purpose of his research. Data collected in this way is the most adequate to fulfill the aims of the research, since the gathering of the data is directed towards answering precisely the question raised by the researcher. Some of the questions require respondents to give their opinion and others need simple responses by ticking from several alternatives. The data collection method therefore uses both qualitative and quantitative modes of measurements.



During the land acquisition process (the researcher and his supervisors) organized a workshop for all the stakeholders to be affected by the project. The main purpose of the workshop was to find out whether the community is aware about what was taking place on their land, and also to explain the nature of the project to them. The most important reason for the workshop was to find out the views of the community/tribe to see if they would support such a request.

Because the land is allocated to the community/ tribe, they must be consulted. The reason for them to be consulted is that the government would not want to disadvantage them because as users of the land, they might have developed certain genuine interests to develop the same land. Secondly, the inhabitants have certain protected residential and use the rights on that land, and those rights have to be respected. The reason for consultation of various other stakeholders was different, but the main one was to check if they support the initiative or not.

#### 4.6 INTERVIEWS

Interviews were conducted by the researcher in order to acquire direct information from the respondents: land-owners, chief of the district, councillors and other relevant stakeholders involved. Non-scheduled interviews were used, which consisted of asking respondents to comment on widely defined issues. Non-scheduled interview is a method of getting people to express their views broadly on certain issues.

#### 4.7 QUESTIONNAIRE CONSTRUCTION

When constructing the questionnaires, the researcher followed the following processes: Firstly, the listed the specific research issues to be investigated for the research (see appendix A). Secondly, the analysed what kind of data are needed to study and identify perceptions and potential problems. Finally, he formulated the specific questions.

The questions were formulated into three categories. Firstly, it gave chance to mark with an X where applicable. Secondly, it gave the respondents an option, for instance, Yes or No. Finally, it allows the respondents to comment broadly on the given questions – open end questions.

#### **4.7.1 Components of the questionnaire**

The questionnaire requires information regarding the socio-economic information of the respondents. That is, their standard of living, level of education and employment/occupational status, the information concerning wealth, that is, all the properties they owned ranging from livestock, agricultural information to the members of the households including children and their level of education. The last part of the questionnaire contained information regarding the opinions and proposals of the respondents concerning the proposed development, whether they recommend or reject the existence of the project on their land.

#### **4.8 PROCEDURE**

The following procedures were followed during the fieldwork for gathering information.

The map of the study area was used to help the researcher to reach the destination (see figure 4.1). It was not easy for the researcher to reach the destination because of transport constraints. The researcher had to travel a few kilometers (between 5 and 6 km) by foot due to lack of transport, even if he had money for transport. The interviews lasted between 25 and 35 minutes depending on whether the respondents understood the contents of the questionnaire.

The problems or difficulties encountered by the researcher were concerned with transport. At the study area there is lack of public transport (taxis and buses), thus making the researcher to take a longer time to reach the study areas.

Coding and quality control information obtained in the questionnaire were done after each field-work session which increased the accuracy because the information on a day's questionnaires was still fresh in the mind of the field worker.

Since the questionnaires were written in English and the respondents are the Basotho speaking people, the interviewer had to translate across two languages. The concern is either the question may not be asked as intended or the response of the respondent may be misunderstood. The interviewer needed to be thoroughly good in translating the questionnaire as a whole as not to create mistakes concerning misunderstanding between him and his respondents. To solve this problem, fieldworkers were trained in interview techniques.

#### 4.9 PILOT STUDY

A pilot study was conducted by the researcher in order to find out whether the questionnaire solicited the required responses.

A pilot study is defined by (De Vos, A. S. *et al*, 1998: 210) as the "process whereby the research design for a prospective survey is tested". It can be regarded as a small-scale trial run of all aspects planned for use in the main enquiry. They also refer to the pilot study as "a small study conducted prior to a larger piece of research to determine whether the methodology, sampling, instruments and analysis are adequate and appropriate"

When doing the pilot study the researcher used the same methodology, sampling, instruments and analysis which he was going to apply when conducting the main investigation. The only difference was the sample size between the pilot study and the main investigation.

#### **4.9.1 Aspects of the pilot study**

The following aspects of the pilot study helped the researcher to realize the importance of the whole project before he took the first step towards approaching the main investigation. Firstly, the researcher did the small scale literature survey in order to find information relevant to his study. This entailed reading from journals and books that contained information which is relevant to this type of development. He needed to confront the experts regarding his study and this is constituted by the lecturers, some community members and the chiefs of the area under investigation.

From 08 March to 08 April 2001, preliminary exploratory studies were valuable because it was the part of the pilot study whereby the researcher had to do the practical part taken in the investigation. That is, attending meetings with the community members and other stakeholders involved. It also considers the situation whereby the researcher had to visit the site where the project had to take place. Preliminary exploratory studies are especially important with a view to the practical planning of the research project, for instance, transport, finance, time factor and distance.

At this stage of the pilot study, the researcher had to address the objectives, resources, research population, procedures of data collection, data gathering itself and the field workers.

A pilot study represents the first-hand, direct involvement of a researcher with the social environment where the investigation will take place. The researcher should acquire practical experience of the relevant community during the pilot study and take cognizance of the complexity and dynamics of the particular field of research (De Vos, A. S. 1998: 220).

#### 4.10 ANALYSIS OF DATA

When analyzing the data of the study the researcher used the quantitative (numerical) data analysis. The type of numerical variable which the researcher used is called discrete variable. Discrete variable was appropriate because it entails counting of, for instance, the number of children per family or occupation. This statistical technique used in analyzing data was prompted by the type of variables used (that is, numerical data).

Under the quantitative analysis techniques the researcher used the univariate analysis which is the simplest form of data analysis. Univariate analysis means that one variable is analysed, mainly with a view to describing that variable. Basically this means that all data gathered on that one variable need to be summarized for easy comprehension and utilization (displayed or both). This summary can take one different form, such as a tabular or graphical display. The display or summary provides useful information to the researcher himself and provides the foundation for more sophisticated analysis at a latter stage (De Vos, A. S. *et. al*, 1998:227).

##### **4.10.1 Frequency Distribution and presentation**

The researcher used simple and grouped frequency distribution to analyse the data because these two frequencies entail the use of tables. The simple frequency distributions consider single case whereas grouped frequency distribution consists of items placed in class interval such as age distribution of subjects, for instance, age between 0-10, 11-20, 21-30, 31 and above. This method gave a visual and simplified view of the data.

##### **4.10.2 Interpretation and presentation**

According to Earl Babbie, 2001:68 interpretation and presentation are the final steps whereby the researcher has to show the result detail of his investigation. That is, the researcher has to discuss his findings thoroughly. In this case the research used graphs

and charts to present and interpret the results. The final report was carefully written and recommendations made for the community and also to add to the body of literature.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **5. PRESENTATIONS OF THE RESULTS**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter focuses on the presentation of the research findings with regard to the study. The findings presented are derived from the different observations, interviews and workshops conducted for the study.

The first section of the data analysis focuses on the data from the workshops, personal interviews with community leaders and members of the mayoral committee. The second section provides information of members of the households, that is, their socio-economic status. The third section provides information on the estimated impacts of the project on the Tsheseng community of Qwaqwa and on Qwaqwa as a whole.

#### **5.2 MEETING WITH THE BATLOKWA TRIBAL COUNCIL**

Meetings were held with the Batlokwa Tribal Council. At these meetings, the Tribal Council supported the project. They however, raised concerns about the sale of the land to the developer and proposed that the developer leases the land for 50 years or more. It was however not clear how the sale of the land will disadvantage them.

The meeting was held at Phomolong Tribal Council on the 19<sup>th</sup> of July 2001 at 11:00 am. The meeting was entitled the "Land Right Holders' Meeting". The main purpose of the meeting was the introduction of the project and how land was going to be acquired.

Twenty five stakeholders attended the meeting. Among them were representatives from the various departments ranging from the Department of Land Affairs, Department of Water Affairs and Environment and Department of Nature Conservation. There were

also present consultants from Metsi Metseng Geological Services cc. Their purpose was to facilitate the whole process by linking all the stakeholders involved. Among the hosts we had the chief from the Phomolong Tribal Council, the chief from Dikweng Tribal Council and the chief from Thibella Tribal Council.

According to the meeting, the project will take four phases, namely:

(a) Phase One (acquisition of land)

Phase one is concerned with the views of the community with regard to the land acquisition and the agreement by the community to release the land for the development.

(b) Phase Two (EIA)

Phase two dealt with the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA). Its main aim is to analyse the positive and negative impacts of the project on the community and the environment. This is important because it will help the developers to consider and mitigate the negative impacts identified and enhance the positive ones' as this will enhance the standard of living for the community where the project will take place.

(c) Phase Three (Physical Development of the Project)

Phase three is concerned with construction including the types of buildings, size, the site, the duration and costs of the development.



(d) Phase Four (Management of the Project)

Phase four is concerned with management of the project, that is, the administration, number of workers to be employed and also the cost of management itself per annum.

After the explanation of all the phases it was time for the "Vote of Confirmation" whereby all the chiefs were given time to decide whether they will accept the project to take place on their land. This process was followed by the "Designation of Signatures" and here the purpose was to compile a written agreement in order to formalize the meeting and keep minutes for future use.

**5.2.1 Community as major stakeholders**

Meetings were held at Thibella, Phomolong and Dinkweng. In all of these meetings the main purpose was to present the decisions of the previous meeting to all the various members from all the villages who will be involved in the development process. Above all, on the side of the community, it was their chance to comment on whether they agree with the project and to lease the land to the developers or not. This makes it clear that without the permission of the community the project could have not been approved. Names and signatures of the attendants were important as to prove that they were attending the meetings and also to prove that they had agreed to lease the land to the developers. These meetings confirm that community members are an important part of the whole process since the decisions taken will affect them and their environment.

The first community meeting was held at Phomolong village on the sixth of June 2001, the second meeting at Thibella on the 15<sup>th</sup> of June 2001 and the last one was at Dinkweng village on the 27<sup>th</sup> of June 2001.

At these meetings, residents supported the project. They, however, raised concerns about the sale of the land to the developer and proposed that the community leases the land for 50 or more years.

### **5.2.2 Presentation to the Mayoral Committee at Maluti-A- Phofung**

After the meetings with the tribal chiefs and the community members, the consultants attended another meeting where they presented the feedback and the opinions of the stakeholders to the Mayor of the Maluti- A- Phofung Council. The meeting was held on the 1<sup>st</sup> of August 2001 at the Maluti-A-Phofung Municipality (Town Council) offices.

The presentation also explained the role that the Department of Land Affairs has to play in the implementation of the Cableway project. This means that it will not try to deal with the project at all. The department will deal with the land issue and will be the duty of the developers and their facilitators to implement the project.

The Department of Land Affairs was contacted by the developer and his facilitators to make the land, where the Cable car project will be implemented available. According to the initial request from the developer and the facilitators, the developer was interested in buying or leasing the land. Given the fact that the land in question is "State Land", it was necessary that the Department of Land Affairs should be contacted. The Qwaqwa land is generally state-owned. The main categories are: (1) Land that is allocated to communities/ tribes for use and (2) Land that is purely state-owned.

### **5.3 SOCIAL SURVEY: HEAD OF HOUSEHOLDS**

The main purpose to analyze all the information gathered was to clearly reveal the opinions of the community members with regard to the development that will take place on their land. This was done by explaining the component of the research questionnaire that was given to the respondents (community members) in order to collect data which

contained their views regarding a project of this nature. The first section of the questionnaire deals with the biographic information of the households.

### 5.3.1 Age Structure of the Heads of the Households

**Table 5.1: Age Distribution of the Heads of the Households**

| Age Group    | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|--------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|              | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.        | %          |
| 30 - 39      | 16        | 20         | 18        | 25.8       | 6         | 12         | 40         | 20         |
| 40 - 49      | 16        | 20         | 12        | 17.2       | 12        | 22         | 40         | 20         |
| 50 - 59      | 36        | 45         | 20        | 28.5       | 24        | 48         | 80         | 40         |
| Above 60     | 12        | 15         | 20        | 28.5       | 8         | 18         | 40         | 20         |
| <b>TOTAL</b> | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

The data on age groups in Table 5.1 above was classified into four categories for easy analysis and interpretation. As indicated in the table, heads of the households who are below 40 years constituted between 12% - 25.8% of the sample. The next category varies between 20% and 22% for the age group 40 and 49 years. The 50% – 59% category is the dominant group and varies between 28, 5% and 48%. Only Phomolong has a relative large group (28, 5%) of old age household heads. It is important to note that the highest figure as seen in the table 5.1 falls within the economically active population, that is, people aged 50-59 years. The table also indicates that the elderly respondents above 60 years of age constituted between 15% and 28, 5% of the total sampled population who were not economically active but depends on pension. The category of respondents is the more matured and respected members of the community who can take decisions.

### 5.3.2 Home Language of the Respondents

**Table 5.2: Home Language of the Households**

| Home Language | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|---------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|               | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.        | %          |
| S.Sotho       | 78        | 98         | 64        | 89         | 50        | 100        | 192        | 96         |
| Zulu          | 2         | 2          | 6         | 11         | 0         | 0          | 8          | 4          |
| <b>TOTAL</b>  | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

Table 5.2 indicates that most of the respondents in the study area speak Sotho. The statistics indicates that 96% of the respondents speak Sotho, whereas only 4% of them constitute the number of the Zulu speaking respondents. Beside these two languages, no other languages were identified in the study area.

### 5.3.3 Gender

**Table 5.3 Gender of the Heads of the Households**

| GENDER       | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|--------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|              | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.        | %          |
| FEMALES      | 44        | 55         | 38        | 55         | 32        | 64         | 114        | 54         |
| MALES        | 36        | 45         | 32        | 45         | 18        | 36         | 86         | 46         |
| <b>TOTAL</b> | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

Table 5.3 indicates that women as heads of households out-numbered men in the study area. The women constitute 54% of all the population under investigation. Men constitute only 46% as most of them have migrated outside Qwaqwa to seek employment. The findings are in line with the results of the Census 2001 (S.A. Stats, 2001).

### 5.3.4 Educational Levels of the Heads of the Households

**Table 5.4: Educational Status of Heads of the Households**

| Educational Level       | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|-------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|                         | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.        | %          |
| Never attended school   | 10        | 12.5       | 6         | 8.5        | 8         | 16         | 24         | 12         |
| Grade one to Grade Five | 38        | 47.5       | 34        | 48.5       | 24        | 48         | 96         | 48         |
| Grade six to Grade Nine | 22        | 27.5       | 24        | 34.2       | 14        | 28         | 60         | 30         |
| Matriculated            | 10        | 12.5       | 2         | 2.8        | 4         | 8          | 16         | 8          |
| Post matric             | 0         | 0          | 4         | 5          | 0         | 0          | 4          | 2          |
| <b>TOTAL</b>            | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

The education levels of these three areas do not vary considerably. Respondents who have never attended school constitute an average 12%. Most of them are old people who did not get opportunities for better education due to social conditions of the past. 48% have primary education (Grade 1-5). Those who did Grade 6-9 constituted 30% of the total population under investigation.

There are a small number of respondents who have matric or standard ten education. As table 5.4 indicates, there are on average only 8% of them. The least number of the respondents with regard to education are those who have post matric education, constituting only 2%.

### 5.3.5 Occupation of Heads of the Households

**Table 5.5: Occupational Status**

| Occupation                    | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|-------------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|                               | No.       | %          | No.       | %          | No.       | %          | No.        | %          |
| Government Services           | 8         | 10         | 14        | 20         | 6         | 12         | 28         | 14         |
| Construction                  | 12        | 15         | 4         | 6          | 0         | 0          | 16         | 9          |
| Education                     | 8         | 10         | 0         | 0          | 2         | 9          | 10         | 6          |
| Hourly wage Worker            | 4         | 5          | 8         | 11         | 6         | 12         | 18         | 9          |
| Self employed in own business | 8         | 10         | 4         | 6          | 12        | 24         | 24         | 13         |
| Unemployed                    | 40        | 50         | 40        | 57         | 24        | 48         | 104        | 52         |
| <b>TOTAL</b>                  | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

Table 5.5 includes people in formal and informal employment, the unemployed, and those active in self-employed businesses.

About 14% is employed in the services sector, 8% in construction, 5% in education, 9% are hourly wage workers and, 12% are those self-employed in their own businesses. These categories constitute the total number of the heads of the households who were working by the time when data was collected. This makes 48% of those who are employed as compared to the 52% of the unemployed.

### 5.3.6 Conditions of Employment for the Respondents

**Table 5.6: Conditions of Employment**

| Full-time /<br>Part-time | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|--------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|                          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.        | %          |
| Full-time                | 34        | 42.5       | 18        | 26         | 16        | 32         | 68         | 30         |
| Part-time                | 16        | 20         | 14        | 20         | 10        | 20         | 40         | 18         |
| Unemployed               | 30        | 37.5       | 38        | 54         | 24        | 48         | 92         | 52         |
| <b>TOTAL</b>             | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

Table 5.6 indicates that most of the respondents who are employed, work on a full-time basis. 30% of the respondents work full-time whereas 18% work on a part-time basis.

**5.3.7 Agriculture and Livelihood**

**Table 5.7: Owners Engage Agricultural Land**

| <b>Agricultural<br/>Land</b> | <b>THIBELLA</b> |            | <b>PHOMOLONG</b> |            | <b>DINKWENG</b> |            | <b>TOTAL</b> |            |
|------------------------------|-----------------|------------|------------------|------------|-----------------|------------|--------------|------------|
|                              | <b>NO.</b>      | <b>%</b>   | <b>NO.</b>       | <b>%</b>   | <b>NO.</b>      | <b>%</b>   | <b>NO.</b>   | <b>%</b>   |
| No                           | 54              | 67.5       | 54               | 77.2       | 36              | 72         | 144          | 72         |
| Yes                          | 26              | 32.5       | 16               | 22.8       | 14              | 28         | 56           | 28         |
| <b>TOTAL</b>                 | <b>80</b>       | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b>        | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b>       | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b>   | <b>100</b> |

Table 5.7 indicates that most of the respondents are not engaged in agricultural activities. On average 72% of the respondents were engaged in agricultural activities during the survey. Most of the respondents use manual labour farming and they cultivate crops that can withstand drought, crops, potatoes and pumpkin. None of them has been identified as having agricultural land on the proposed site for development of the project.

The dependence on agricultural land is limited because most families only have half a hectare of less land to cultivate food products.

**5.3.8 Livestock Income and Livestock Information**

This section discusses the information concerning livestock in the study area. The information is based on the availability of cattle, goats, sheep, donkey, pigs and horses.

The statistics revealed that most of the households possess an average livestock, of almost 15% in all the three villages. Another promising percentage is that of poultry 14% and sheep 13%. The least number of the animals owned by the households are pigs, goats and donkeys, and none of the respondents interviewed possesses horses.

Because of the low possession of livestock, the community in general does not depend on livestock as a means of income or food.

**Table 5.8: Livestock Information**

| Livestock<br>Information | OWNERS | THIBELLA | PHOMOLONG | DINKWENG | TOTAL |    |
|--------------------------|--------|----------|-----------|----------|-------|----|
|                          |        |          |           |          | NO.   | %  |
| Cattle                   | Yes    | 16       | 8         | 6        | 30    | 15 |
|                          | No     | 64       | 62        | 44       | 170   | 85 |
| Goats                    | Yes    | 4        | 0         | 8        | 12    | 6  |
|                          | No     | 76       | 70        | 42       | 188   | 94 |
| Sheep                    | Yes    | 12       | 6         | 8        | 26    | 13 |
|                          | No     | 68       | 64        | 42       | 174   | 87 |
| Donkeys                  | Yes    | 0        | 0         | 2        | 2     | 1  |
|                          | No     | 80       | 70        | 48       | 198   | 99 |
| Pigs                     | Yes    | 4        | 2         | 2        | 8     | 4  |
|                          | No     | 76       | 68        | 48       | 192   | 96 |
| Poultry                  | Yes    | 14       | 10        | 4        | 28    | 14 |
|                          | No     | 66       | 60        | 46       | 172   | 86 |

### 5.3.9 Communal (Farming) Assets

This section focuses on communal (farming) assets in the study area. There are 97% of households who do not have equipment for farming, even if they may happen to have land for farming. Only 3% of the households have access to different farming equipment, and this helps them. 98% of them do not have farming equipment.

This corresponds with the subsistence method of farming and the small pieces of land that needs to be cultivated.



There are about 86% of the households who have farming tools at their disposal, whereas 14% do not have farming equipment.

**Table 5.9: Communal Assets**

| Communal<br>assets       | THIBELLA |      | PHOMOLONG |     | DINKWENG |     | TOTAL |    |
|--------------------------|----------|------|-----------|-----|----------|-----|-------|----|
|                          | NO.      | %    | NO.       | %   | NO.      | %   | NO.   | %  |
| Farming vehicles<br>No   | 76       | 95   | 68        | 97  | 50       | 100 | 194   | 97 |
| Farming vehicles<br>Yes  | 4        | 5    | 2         | 3   | 0        | 0   | 6     | 3  |
| Farming<br>equipment No  | 76       | 95   | 70        | 100 | 50       | 100 | 196   | 98 |
| Farming<br>equipment Yes | 4        | 5    | 0         | 0   | 0        | 0   | 4     | 2  |
| Farming tools<br>Yes     | 66       | 82.5 | 58        | 83  | 48       | 96  | 172   | 86 |
| Farming tools<br>No      | 14       | 17.5 | 12        | 17  | 2        | 4   | 28    | 14 |

**5.3.10 Households Socio-Economic Status for Households**

The section below discusses the social status of the members of the households in the study area. The table below summarizes the number and percentages concerning: number of the members of the households, their gender, number employed and their level of education.

**Table 5.10: Number of Children (Dependants) in the Households**

| Variables                | THIBELLA   |            | PHOMOLONG  |            | DINKWENG   |            | TOTAL      |            |
|--------------------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|
|                          | NO.        | %          | NO.        | %          | NO.        | %          | NO.        | %          |
| <b>Dependency number</b> | 360        | 100        | 276        | 100        | 216        | 100        | 852        | 100        |
| Below 16 years           | 76         | 21         | 62         | 22         | 54         | 25         | 192        | 23         |
| Above 16 years           | 248        | 79         | 214        | 78         | 162        | 75         | 660        | 77         |
| <b>Employment</b>        |            |            |            |            |            |            |            |            |
| Number employed          | 134        | 37         | 116        | 42.1       | 78         | 36         | 328        | 38         |
| Number unemployed        | 226        | 63         | 160        | 57.9       | 138        | 64         | 524        | 62         |
| <b>Gender</b>            |            |            |            |            |            |            |            |            |
| Female                   | 186        | 51         | 154        | 56         | 126        | 58         | 466        | 55         |
| Male                     | 174        | 49         | 122        | 44         | 90         | 42         | 386        | 45         |
| <b>Education</b>         |            |            |            |            |            |            |            |            |
| Grade 1 to 5             | 54         | 13         | 38         | 14         | 34         | 20         | 126        | 14         |
| Grade 6 to 9             | 78         | 19         | 42         | 16         | 32         | 19         | 152        | 18         |
| Matriculants             | 216        | 52         | 114        | 43         | 54         | 32         | 384        | 45         |
| Post matric              | 48         | 11         | 52         | 20         | 34         | 20         | 134        | 15         |
| <b>TOTAL</b>             | <b>418</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>264</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>170</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>852</b> | <b>100</b> |

Table 5.10 indicates that the highest number of the households is Thibella constitute 38%, followed by Phomolong with 33% and finally is Dinkweng with a total of 29%. All of these three villages constitute a total number of the population under investigation. It also indicates that out of 100% dependents those who are below 16 years of age constitute 23% whereas those above 16 years constitute 77%. These statistics compare well with the high unemployed figure of 62%.

The table indicates that most of the dependents are unemployed, constituting 62% that is a high rate of employment especially for the youth of Qwaqwa. Only 38% of them are working making a small number to handle poverty eradication alone through their financial support.

Table 5.10 indicates that the female dependents out-number the male dependents in the study area. Females constitute 55% of the total population whereas males constitute only 45% of the total population. The table also indicates that education level of these three villages does not vary considerably. The dependents who did never attend school constitute 7%, those who did grade 1-5 constitute 14% and from grade 6-9 is 18%. The highest figures recognized are those who passed matric, constituting almost 45%. And those with post-matric education were only 15% of the total dependents.

#### **5.3.11 Housing Conditions**

Table 11 indicates the places where the respondents fetch water and whether water is sufficient or not.

Most of the households do have access to clean and sufficient water. Almost 98% of the total population under investigation has access to clean and sufficient water.

**Table 5.11: Services**

| Variables                    | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|------------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|                              | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.        | %          |
| A tap inside the house       | 8         | 10         | 14        | 20         | 6         | 12         | 28         | 14         |
| A tap inside the yard        | 32        | 40         | 26        | 37         | 16        | 32         | 74         | 37         |
| A tap in the street          | 40        | 50         | 30        | 43         | 28        | 56         | 98         | 49         |
| Total                        | 80        | 100        | 70        | 100        | 50        | 100        | 200        | 100        |
| <b>Availability of water</b> |           |            |           |            |           |            |            |            |
| Sufficient                   | 78        | 98         | 68        | 98         | 50        | 100        | 196        | 98         |
| Insufficient                 | 2         | 2          | 2         | 2          | 0         | 0          | 4          | 2          |
| <b>TOTAL</b>                 | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

As indicated above 49% fetch water from the tap in the street, another 37% fetch water from the tap inside their yards and 14% is constituted by those who fetch water inside their houses.

None of the respondents were found collecting and using water from the dams, springs, rivers and those springs are tapped to their villages.

### 5.3.12 Fuel Used by the Households

Energy demands in the study area range from electricity to cow dung. Most of the respondents were registered as using wood for fire purposes. Electricity, paraffin, coal, gas and cow dung were also noted as being used by the respondents for fire purposes. It is observed that in the study area a combination of sources for energy are being used.

### 5.3.13 Economic Status

The housing standards in Qwaqwa are moderate. Most of the respondents in the areas live in houses built of cement constituting 56%, and 28% of all the houses in these areas are built up of wattle and mud. About 15% are constructed with zink. The houses built of wood constituted only 1%. About 36% of the households have cars while the rest do not have. About 92% of the households under investigation have radios, (that is, access to communication and news) in their houses and approximately 55 % of them do not have televisions whereas the remaining 45% have access.

**Table 5.13 Economic Status**

| Variables    | THIBELLA  | PHOMOLONG | DINKWENG  | TOTAL      |            |
|--------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|------------|------------|
|              | NO.       | NO.       | NO.       | NO.        | %          |
| House mud    | 20        | 22        | 14        | 56         | 28         |
| House cement | 54        | 34        | 24        | 112        | 56         |
| House wood   | 0         | 0         | 2         | 2          | 1          |
| House sink   | 6         | 14        | 10        | 30         | 15         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>80</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |
| Radio- No    | 8         | 6         | 2         | 16         | 8          |
| Radio- Yes   | 72        | 34        | 48        | 184        | 92         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>80</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |
| T.V. – No    | 52        | 34        | 24        | 110        | 55         |
| T.V. –Yes    | 28        | 36        | 26        | 90         | 45         |
| <b>Total</b> | <b>80</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |
| Car – No     | 56        | 48        | 24        | 128        | 64         |
| Car- Yes     | 24        | 22        | 26        | 72         | 36         |
| <b>TOTAL</b> | <b>80</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

### Impact of the Project on Community Conditions

The following section is concerned with the impact on the conditions of living of community, that is, on their way of life.

#### 5.14 DECISIONS OF THE RESPONDENTS WITH REGARD TO THE LAND

The following section indicates the number of respondents in terms of those who do not have problems regarding the land-use and acknowledge the fact that the project may proceed.

**Table 5.14 Views of the Respondents with Regard to this Project on their Land**

| Variables    | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|--------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|              | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.        | %          |
| Yes          | 56        | 70         | 52        | 70         | 38        | 70         | 146        | 70         |
| Not sure     | 24        | 30         | 18        | 30         | 12        | 30         | 54         | 30         |
| <b>TOTAL</b> | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

Table 5.14 indicates that 70% of the households in the study area acknowledged the fact that the project could proceed. The 30% indicating not sure because they either lack knowledge about the project or could not express an opinion at this stage.

#### 5.15 AVAILABLE SKILLS AMONGST THE COMMUNITY MEMBERS

**Table 5.15 Number of Available Skills**

| Variables | THIBELLA | PHOMOLONG | DINKWENG | TOTAL |
|-----------|----------|-----------|----------|-------|
| Driving   | 56       | 40        | 14       | 110   |
| Building  | 45       | 32        | 23       | 100   |
| Sewing    | 27       | 24        | 24       | 75    |
| Farming   | 14       | 13        | 19       | 46    |

The table above shows the available skills that can help the community at the destination for survival and to cope with the changing world.

Table 5.15 indicates that people in the study area have mostly lower level skills although they do not have materials to use in order to achieve success. The available skills identified by the respondents are: 55% in driving, 50% in building, 35% in sewing and 28% in farming. Although this is a typical tendency in rural areas, the closeness of gold mines and lately some factories in Qwaqwa add to these high levels.

### 5.16 ESTIMATED IMPACTS OF THE PROJECT ON THE COMMUNITY

**Table 5.16.1 Present Social Problems**

| Variables                      | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|--------------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|                                | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.        | %          |
| <b>Present social problems</b> |           |            |           |            |           |            |            |            |
| Poverty                        | 40        | 50         | 36        | 51         | 26        | 52         | 102        | 51         |
| Unemployment                   | 40        | 50         | 34        | 49         | 24        | 48         | 98         | 49         |
| <b>TOTAL</b>                   | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

The table above indicates the major present social problems that the community encounters on everyday basis. Among all the types of social problems that exist in the study area, poverty constituted 51% and unemployment 49%, that the community members have mentioned as the most dominating social problems that need to be overcome with immediate effect.

**Table 5.16.2 Social Problems that Respondents Foresee**

| Social problems that respondents foresee | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|--|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|  | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.       | %          | NO.        | %          |
| Prostitution                             | 42        | 52.5       | 34        | 49         | 18        | 36         | 94         | 47         |
| overpopulation                           | 16        | 20         | 22        | 31         | 22        | 44         | 60         | 30         |
| Increasing crime rate                    | 22        | 27.5       | 14        | 20         | 10        | 20         | 46         | 23         |
| <b>Total</b>                             | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |

The community claimed that the success of the project of this nature will also bring along some social problems that can make the situation worse than before. These problems include prostitution constituting 47%, overpopulation 30% and an increasing rate of crime of 23%.

**Table 5.16.3 Major Economic Benefits**

| Major economic benefits | THIBELLA  |            | PHOMOLONG |            | DINKWENG  |            | TOTAL      |            |
|-------------------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|-----------|------------|------------|------------|
|                         | No.       | %          | No.       | %          | No.       | %          | No.        | %          |
| Employment              | 38        | 47         | 32        | 46         | 22        | 44         | 92         | 46         |
| Better education        | 26        | 33         | 20        | 29         | 20        | 40         | 66         | 33         |
| Better housing          | 0         | 0          | 0         | 0          | 2         | 4          | 2          | 1          |
| High standard of living | 16        | 20         | 18        | 25         | 6         | 12         | 40         | 20         |
| <b>TOTAL</b>            | <b>80</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>70</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>50</b> | <b>100</b> | <b>200</b> | <b>100</b> |



Most of the respondents expect some or all of the following benefits. About 46% expected employment from this project. Another 33% think about better education for their children, while 20% wish to earn a high standard of living from this project and at least 1% is for those who dream about better housing. The next chapter focuses on the discussion of the major results obtained from the survey.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **6. DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the study findings mentioned in Chapter 5. Most of the households have shown their interest in this proposed project in the Tsheseng community.

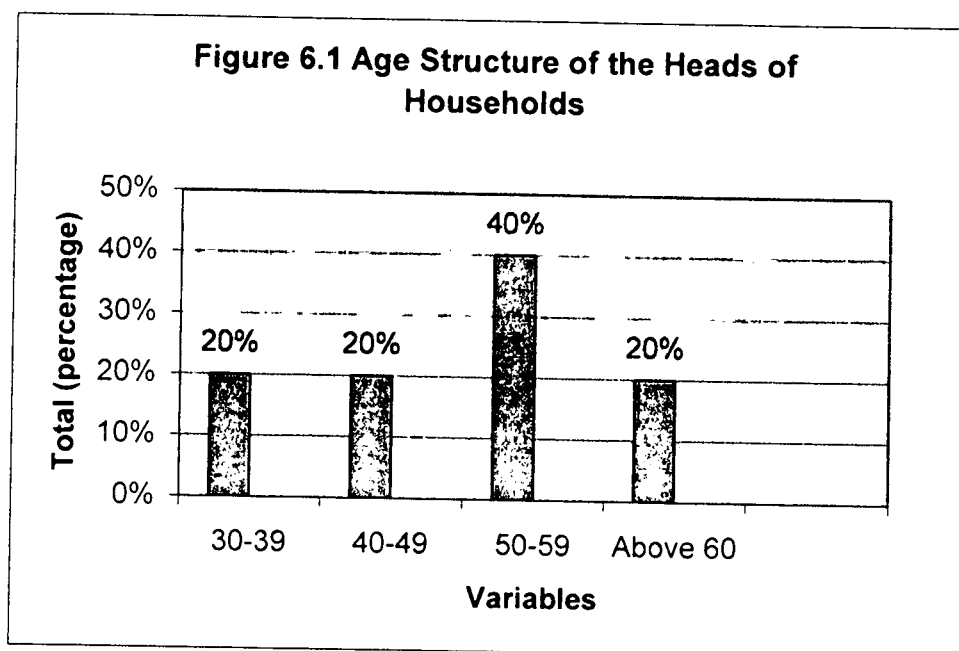
#### **6.2 RESULTS FROM WORKSHOPS WITH GOVERNING STRUCTURES AND THE COMMITTEE**

The information gathered from the workshops revealed that all the stakeholders involved have agreed that the project can be implemented on the land. These stakeholders include the tribal council, community and the mayoral committee. The majority of them have also raised concerns about the sale of the land to the developer and proposed that the community leases the land for fifty years or more.

Participation in such a project by these stakeholders shows in the majority of cases that they understand what will happen because they now had information about how this project will affect their environment. This was made very clear since it is true that the evaluation of possible positive and negative impacts of the project were explained. And again because all the phases of the project were explained to all stakeholders in order to make progress even much easier.

## 6.3 SOCIO-ECONOMIC INFORMATION

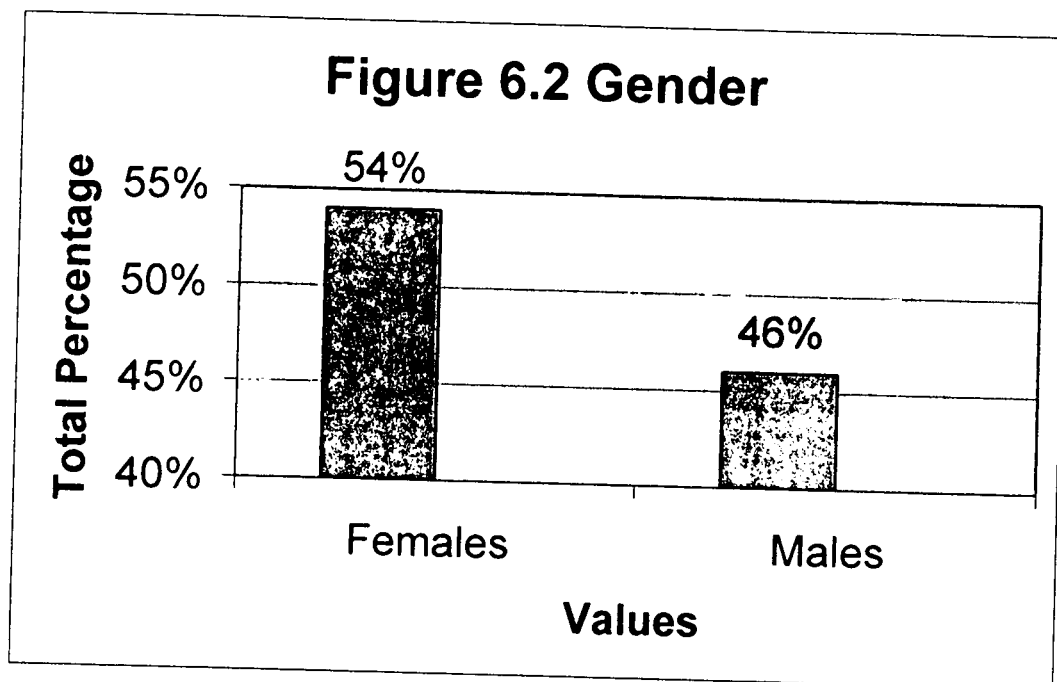
### 6.3.1 Age structure of the heads of households



According to the findings, the majority of the heads of the households were between 50 and 59 years of age. This part of information is regarded as the most informative and can explain some of the family matters like the finding of finance and sources of living for the households under investigation (see Figure 6.1).

### 6.3.2 Gender

Women heads of households constituted the majority of the respondents in the three

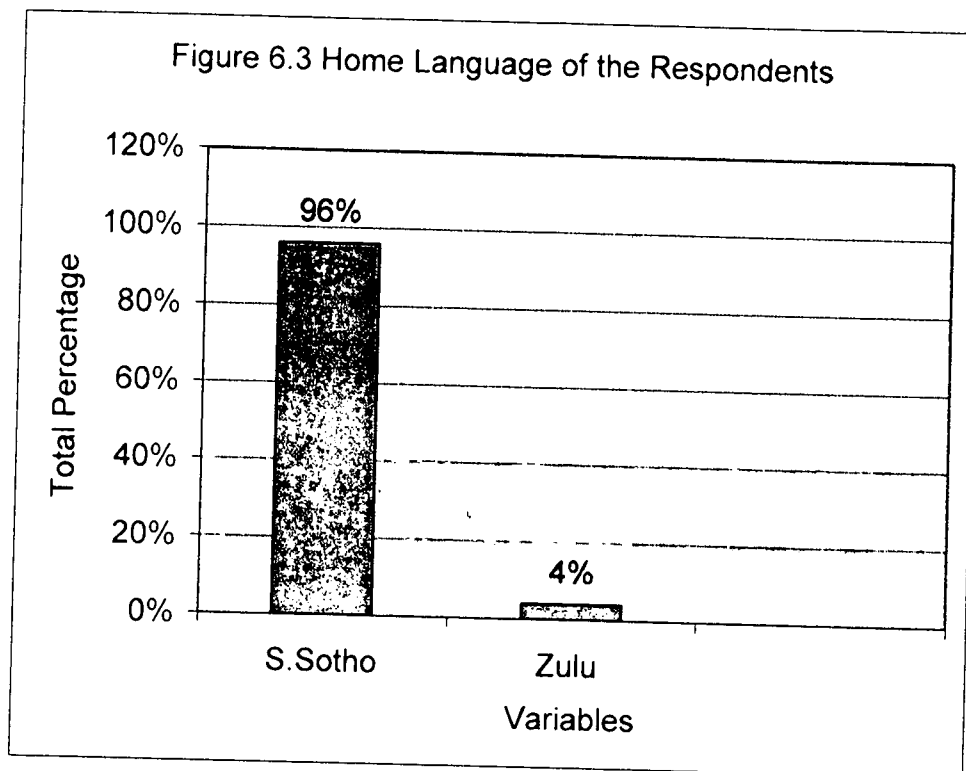


villages studied. As Figure 6.2 indicates, almost 54% of the respondents interviewed were female heads of the households, whereas men constituted only 46% of the total population interviewed. This finding was also confirmed by the report done by the National Social Development Report (NSDR, 1997:23), that women significantly outnumber men in rural areas as heads of the households because they remained behind while men left to find work in urban areas.

The fact remains that female heads of households are on the increase and this tends to overburden them with domestic chores. Nevertheless, this does not mean that women should not be included in the management and implementation of development programs. Support and specialized training can be provided for all women for the development of their communities. Projects and policies of development should be able to assist the head of the households to decide on the types of development projects applicable to them. Since they are in the majority, any successful development programmes for women will

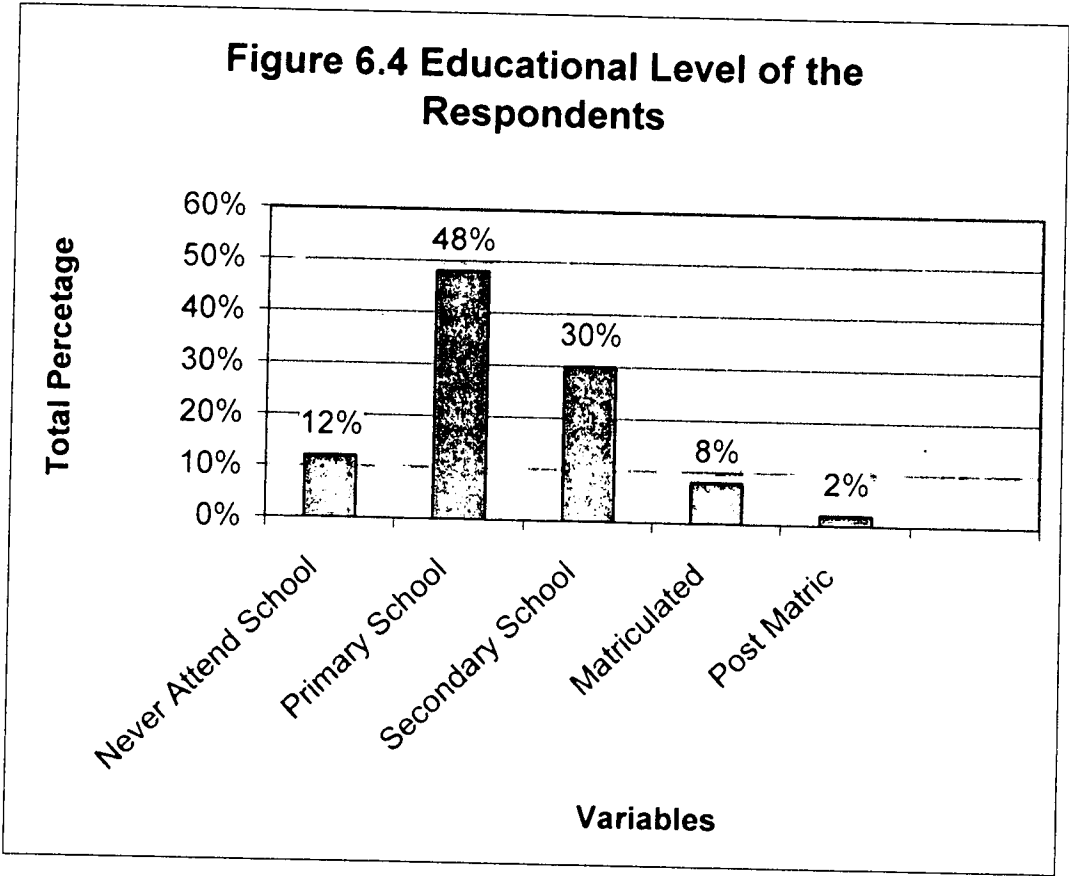
cover a large number of the population and that is good for development and in improving standard of living.

### 6.3.3 Home Language of the Respondents



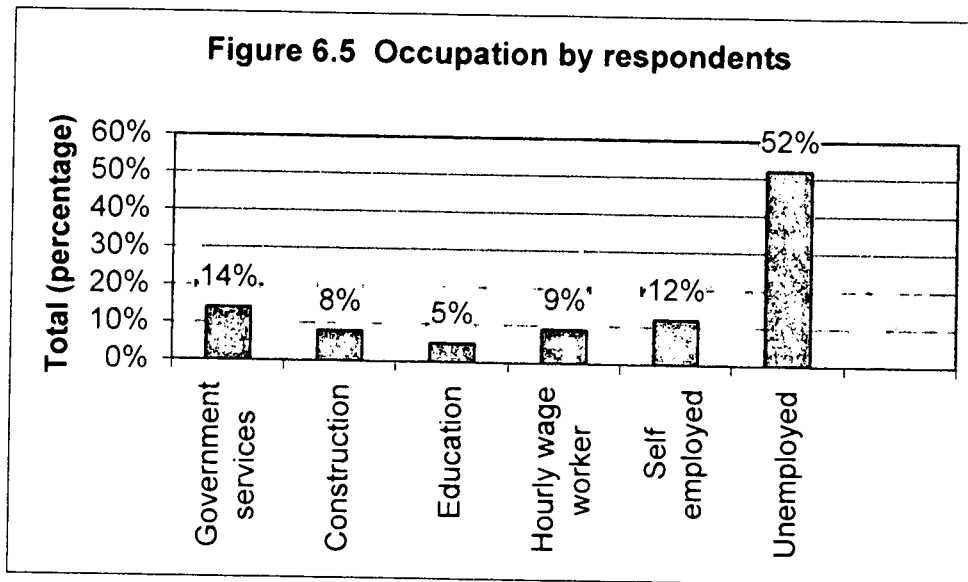
Nearly all the heads of the households interviewed were Sotho-speaking people (see Figure 6.3). This is also prompted by the fact that Tsheseng has been a strictly tribal area whereby it was not easy for other tribes to mix with the Batlokwa. And again this is closely linked to their history.

6.3.4 Educational Levels



Despite an unprecedented increase in overall enrolments in educational institutions in South Africa, a high level of poor education among adults still exists in rural areas. Figure 6.4 states that most of the heads of the households in the study area (Tsheseng) are not educated contributing to the level of poverty in the area.

### 6.3.5 Occupation by Respondents



Generally, about 52% of the households sampled in the three villages were unemployed at the time of the research as reflected in Table 5.3.5. This situation is similar to the unemployment report of 1996-1997 as stated in (NSDR, 1997:23-24), that the unemployment rate of the rural black South Africans is considerably higher than in urban areas.

According to this research, the lack of employment in these three villages has accelerated the emigration of educated people in search of jobs in urban areas. The unemployment rate is higher in Phomolong 57.1% as compared to its counter parts in Thibella 50% and Dinkweng 48%.

Heads of households are employed in different jobs skills. Figure 6.5 shows that 14% is those who are employed in government services and those employed in construction, 8%, education, 5%, hourly wage workers 9% and those who are self-employed represent 12% of the total sample under investigation.

Among those who are employed 34% work on full-time basis whereas another 20% are employed on part-time basis (see Table 5.6)

That rural areas in Qwaqwa have a weak economic base is seen in the manner of employment represented by the government, construction and education. It is the intention of the project to increase the self-employed sector allowing them to benefit from the cable car development.

6.3.6 Agriculture and livelihood

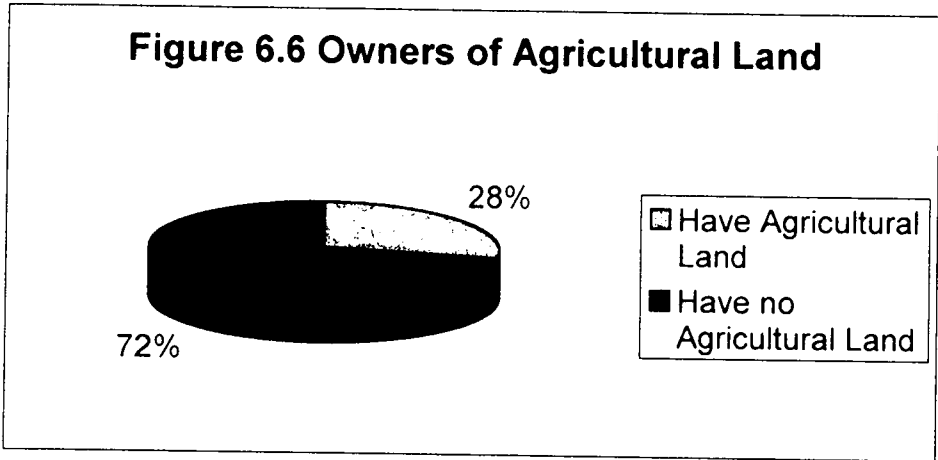


Figure 6.6 shows that the heads of households in the three villages of Tsheseng seem not to have access to agricultural land because 72% do not practice agriculture at this level. Those who happen to practice some agriculture make 28% of the sample. They prefer cultivating vegetables, pumpkins, potatoes and maize. Vegetables seem to be the leading agricultural products in these three villages. Most of the households have a backyard to cultivate vegetables.

Another obstacle that hinders land access for agriculture is that the area of Qwaqwa is characterized by a steep rocky mountainous area that makes it impossible for households to have agricultural land. Urbanization is another obstacle that also hinders the right to land use for agricultural purposes.



6.3.7 Livestock Information

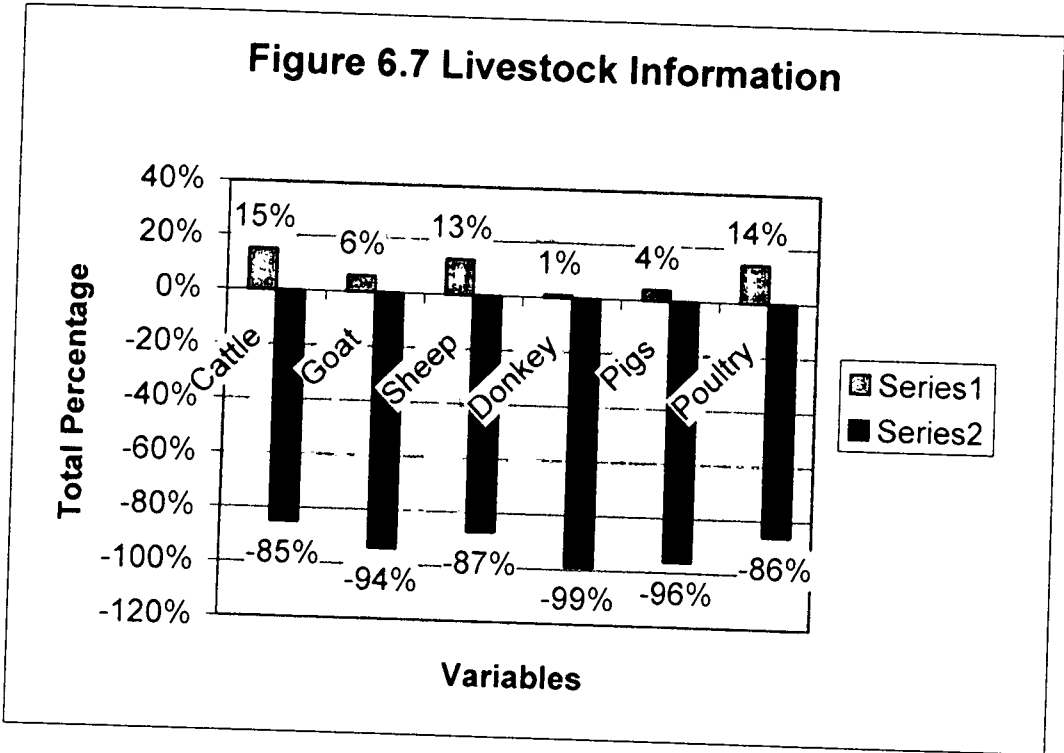
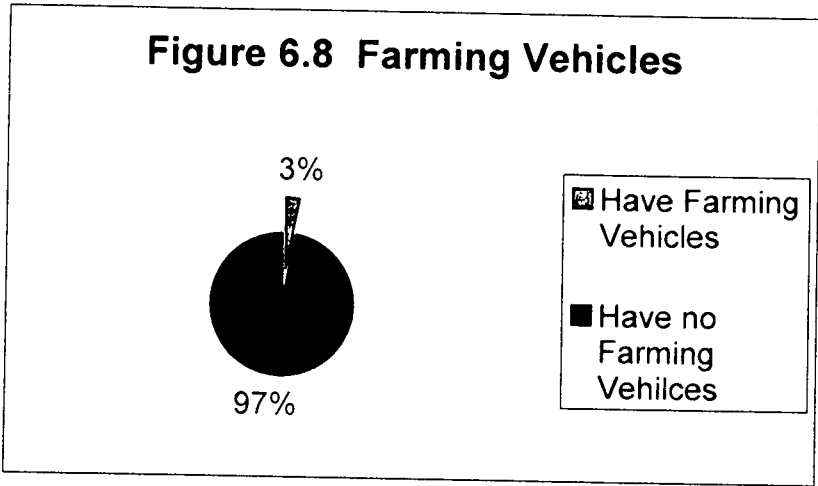
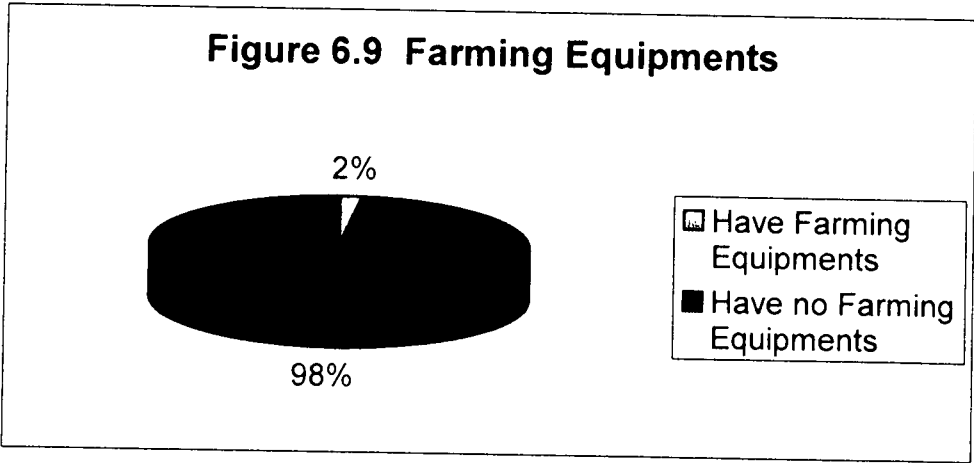


Figure 6.7 shows that most of the households in Tsheseng, the dominating livestock is cattle 15%, poultry 14%. Sheep 13% goats 6%, pigs and donkeys 1%, are still found in the study area but with a small number as compared to the first three. The households like these types of animals because they are mostly used for traditional matters such as funerals, wedding ceremonies and at other ceremonial gatherings. This information shows that although all these domestic animals are important, but if counted in numbers do not play a significant role in feeding the household. Theft is also a problem for female household heads.

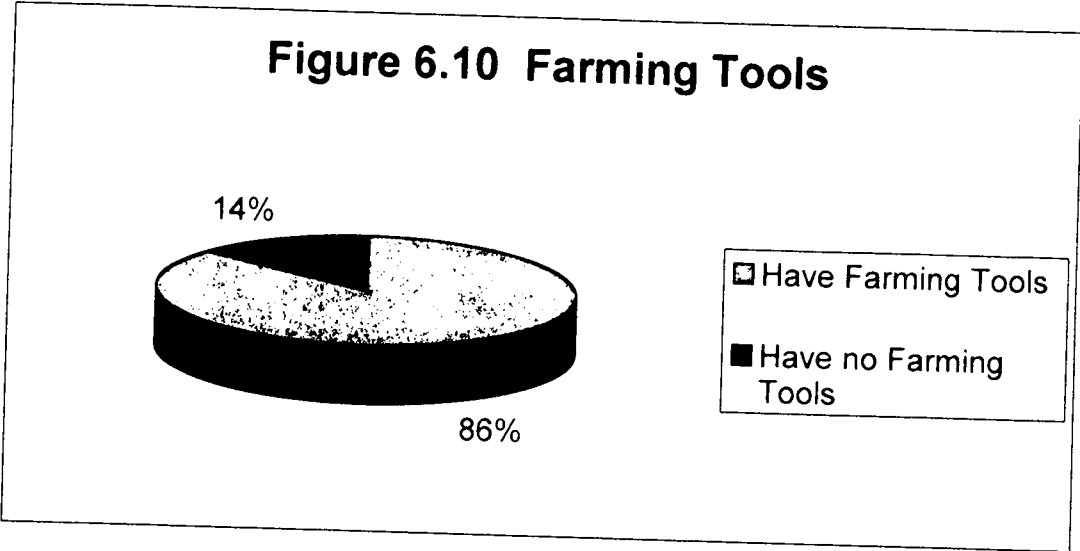
6.3.8 Communal (Farming) Assets



The Tsheseng people practice limited agricultural activities because of urbanization and it is not viable to have mechanical equipment. Figure 6.8, 6.9 and 6.10 shows that 97% do not have farming vehicles. 98% do not have farming equipment, only hard tools to cultivate gardens and agricultural fields (see Figure 6.10)



Also Figure 6.9 shows that most of the households 98% do not have farming equipment, but have farming tools (see Figure 6.10).



**6.3.9 Members of the households**

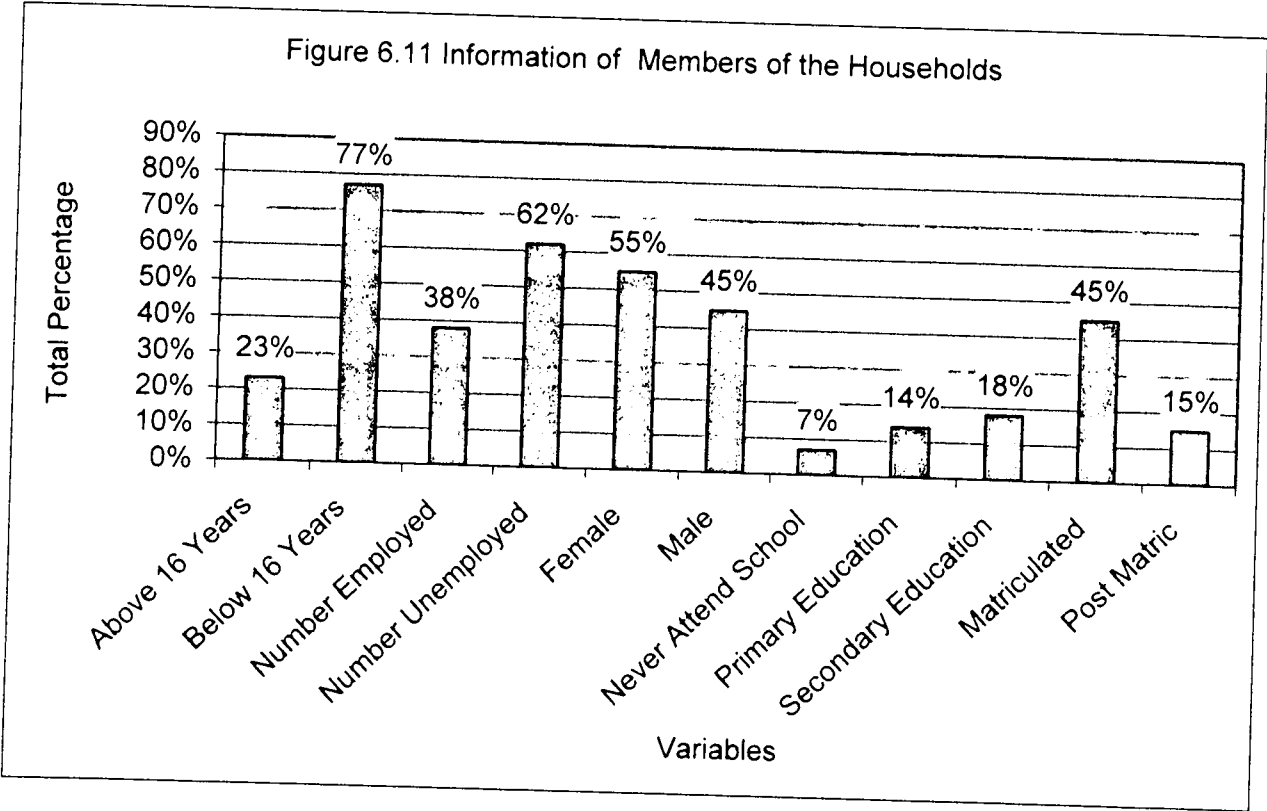


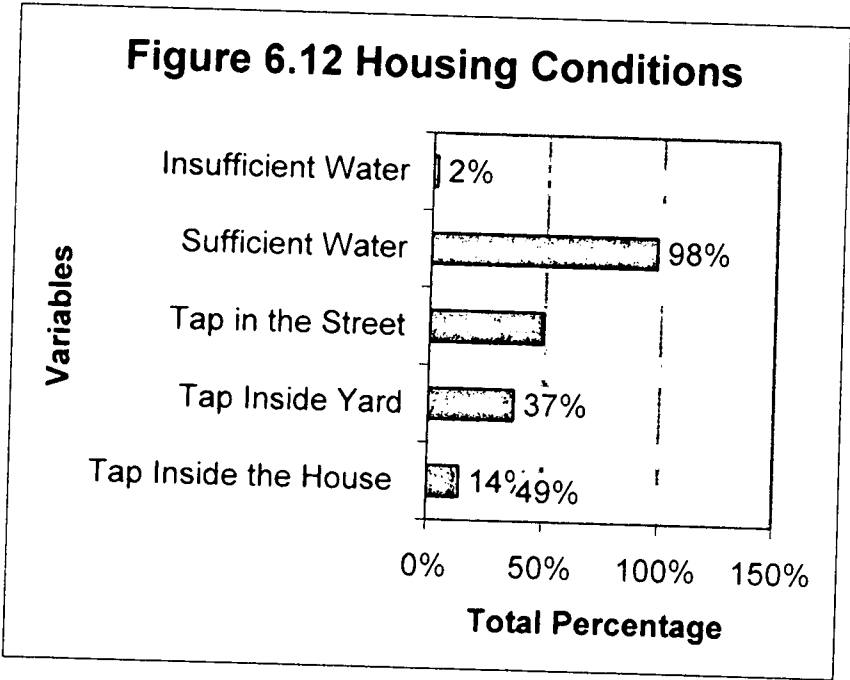
Figure 6.9 shows that household characteristics differ from one village to another. Population under investigation also shows that Thibella have a larger population, 38% than its counterparts Phomolong 33% and Dinkweng 29%. Dependency rates and

unemployment is high while females (55%) constitute a higher percentage of the population.

Almost 62% of them are unemployed, showing a high rate of unemployment in that it affects active group of the society as compared to those who are employed constituting 38% of the dependents under investigation (see Figure 6.11). The table also shows that females constituted the majority of dependents being 55% as compared to males with 45% of the total sample.

Heads of the households, Figure 6.11 shows that the level of education for the members of households vary considerably. 45% of those who have matric have the potential to be educated and skilled but financial constraints become obstacle to them that need to be removed. Also 18% of those who did Grade 1-5 have at least knowledge in writing and reading their names specifically as compared to 7% of the dependents who cannot read or write. Only 15% of dependents managed to get post matric education.

6.3.10 Housing Conditions



The National Department of Water Affairs and Forestry is responsible for all water and sanitation provision in Qwaqwa. Figure 6.12 shows that most of the households in Tsheseng have access to water, and they do not travel far to fetch it. About 37% fetch water from the taps in their yards, 14% has taps inside their houses and about 49% fetch water from the streets' taps.

Figure 6.12 also shows that people have sufficient water. This brings us to the point that there is adequate water as the area is surrounded by various sources of water supplied from Metsi Matsho Dam and Fika Patso Dam. This is seen as a major path to the economic and social development in Qwaqwa area. In some remote areas the government is not reluctant in improving the distribution of the network of water facilities and the high initial costs of extending it.

#### **6.3.11 Energy Sources**

Energy demands in the study area are met in various ways that range from electricity to cow dung. Most of the respondents were registered as using wood for fire purposes. Electricity, paraffin, coal, gas and cow dung were also noted as used by the respondents for fire purposes. Low levels of income prevent proper distribution of electricity.

6.3.12 Economic Status

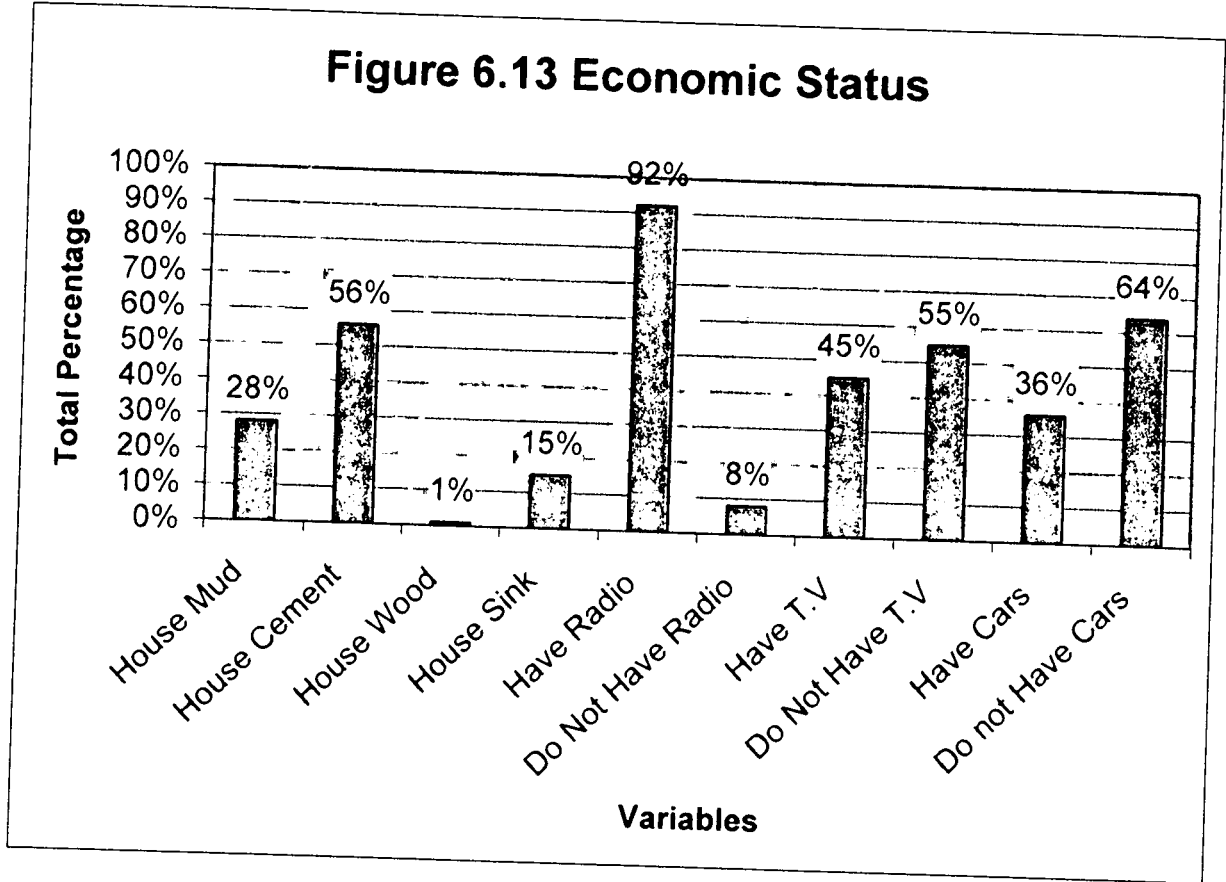
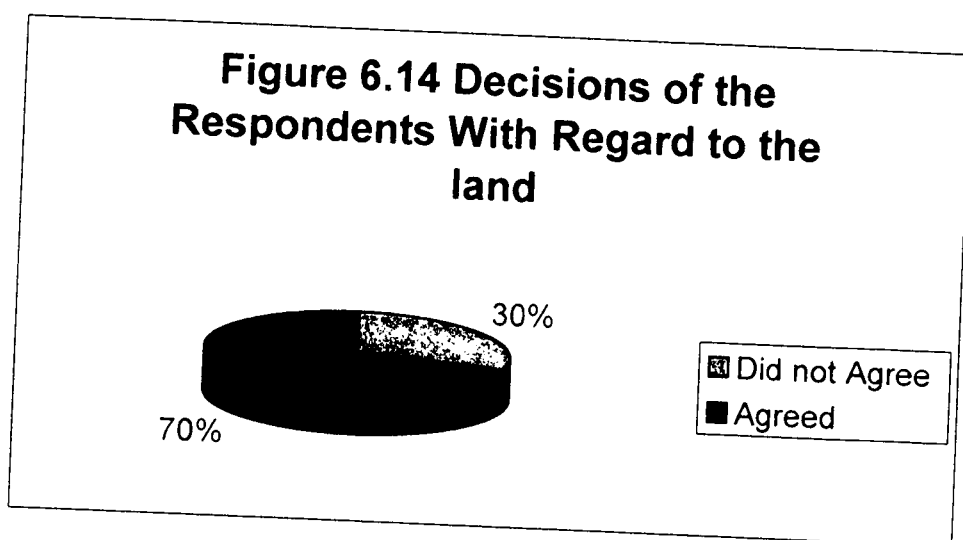


Figure 6.13 shows that although Tsheseng is regarded as a rural area, 56% of the houses are constructed of cement. Those who are living in temporary houses made of mud constitute 28%. Few houses are constructed of zink 15% and only 1% is constituted by those who are living in woody houses.

Figure 6.13 also emphasizes that most of the households in these three villages cannot afford to buy cars almost 64% of the households do not own cars. From the same figure it is also true that the standard of living in these areas is poor. Only 45% of the households have television sets, while the rest cannot afford to buy it, but 92% of them can afford to buy radios as a means of getting news, information and entertainment.

### 6.3.13 Decisions of the Respondents with Regard to the Land



The majority of the households support or acknowledge the implementation of the project. Figure 6.14 shows the views of the respondents in decision-making with regard to this project on their land. Almost 70% of the respondents support the development whereas 30% of the households did not support the proposed project, claiming that it is going to have a negative impact on their environment, culture, social aspects and on their heritage.

Table 5.15 shows that most of the heads of the households have some skills that could reduce unemployment if this project is to be implemented. Among all the available skills, the following were considered by the respondents: driving, building (which may be valuable during the construction stage), sewing and farming because their labour can be sold to the tourists once the project commences. This information shows that such a project (the Cableway) can bring life to many people at Tsheseng and its neighboring areas.

The fact that the respondents only mention a few skills also indicates that they do not understand the full impact of the study. Local products such as arts, crafts clothing with cable car emblem including homestays could benefit the local households.

#### **6.3.14 Estimated Impacts of the Project on the Community**

Most of the households have acknowledged this project. They hope that this project will alleviate the alarming rate of poverty and unemployment (see Table 5.16.1). On the other hand, they are worried about the social problems that might come along with this project. They claimed that prostitution, influx of population and crime might increase concurrently with increasing number of tourists.

The respondents believed that the implementation of the project will bring employment which will help them find better education, better housing and as a result a higher standard of living.

#### **6.4 VERIFICATION OF THE HYPOTHESIS**

This section verifies the main hypothesis of the project. The main purpose is to check or show that our hypothesis is true or false. That is, to show how the information gathered corresponds with it or not.

As the economic status of the people of Tsheseng is poor to moderate, it is true from the findings that the success of this project will upgrade their standard of living. The results are related to prove the hypothesis to be true because of the following reasons: most of the people of Tsheseng are unemployed, the success of the implementation of the Sentinel Cableway project will bring various job opportunities to them in order to gain income that will sustain their lives. The fact that positive impacts of this project will outweigh the possible negative impacts on social, economic and environment is true because such aspects have been assessed before confronting those who will be directly affected or involved in the implementation of such project.

This point is emphasized by the fact that once the project is in progress, the local people can sell many local created products to the tourists, for instance, their culture, art and crafts etc. And they will be employed directly by the project during the construction



phase and some of them will be employed as cleaners, shopkeepers, managers, security, clerks, supervisors, drivers during the operational stage of the project.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **7. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY**

#### **7.1 CONCLUSIONS FROM THE STUDY FINDINGS**

Pressures on unemployment make the people of Tsheseng to believe that the implementation of the Cableway project in their area will help them fight the alarming rate of unemployment and further alleviate poverty and promote development. The results show that many people of Tsheseng are not working, and, as such, are unable to secure access to development resources. Such development resources as education, capital, technology and information isolate them from improving their standard of living.

Through the development of the Cableway project, many things could be facilitated in the study area such as innovative attitudes and interaction with neighbouring areas would be increased, and exploration of new ideas would be encouraged. If these could be achieved, the Tsheseng people will be potential assets towards the development of their communities and for the nation in general. There is, therefore, an urgent need to deal with these problems because the majority of the community is suffering.

The Cableway project should, therefore, be acknowledged and recommended to work together with other tourism services to address underdevelopment. If this underdevelopment can be addressed, it will accelerate active participation of Tsheseng people in the on going tourism development process in Qwaqwa and the Eastern Free State at large. The Cableway project should be promoted to avoid the imposition of development policies on rural communities which hinder participation of rural people in tourism.

## 7.2 FACTORS HINDERING PARTICIPATION OF TSHESENG COMMUNITY IN TOURISM

The following factors were identified as problem areas:

- (a) *Lack of education* causes lack of skills initiatives, new ideas and ignorance among the respondents that causes inability to secure employment or manage available money they have to improve or create skills. This makes their contribution very small in the tourism industry in South Africa.
- (b) *Unemployment*: Because a large proportion of the economically active adults are unemployed, it is hard for them to look after themselves and their families. This makes their contribution on development very low because they do not earn good salaries that can be budgeted for leisure purposes.
- (c) *Lack of resources*, both natural and human resources needed for development, such as funds, materials and training skills in their areas are common among rural communities.
- (d) *Government initiatives* of developing programs in the study area hinders the release of creative energies for development among respondents and further hampers their innovations and abilities to extend their ideas and skills that will contribute to the tourism development.

### 7.2.1 Possible Solutions to the Problems Facing Tsheseng Community

Scholars such as Swanepol (1997:29) focus on “employment” as one of the solutions to poverty alleviation. To improve employment, a solid based local financial mobility is pivotal and crucial for development of tourism. And again, if the sustainable development concept is ensured when the project progresses, Tsheseng people will have first opportunity to improve their livelihood that can result in major economic, social and environmental gains, probably at very low cost in terms of resource allocation.

Finally, the above solutions suggested by the respondents are about the indispensable role of Qwaqwa in development. That is, development is dependent upon Tsheseng people

(being employed in their area) and cannot take place without them. Therefore, it is important to recommend the perception of the Tsheseng people and to integrate them into the reality of the project so that they can also enjoy the direct benefits of the cableway of the development initiative.

### **7.2.2 Lessons from the Findings Studied**

The study shows that it is still necessary to develop large tourism attractions to eliminate the alarming rate of poverty through the provision of job opportunities in the communities. The study also shows that this type of project is important to the Tsheseng people. Therefore, it promises betterment in the lives of the Tsheseng community. Its implementation means better social, economic and environmental conditions if well managed.

## **7.3 RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.3.1 Policy Recommendations Based on the Study**

Many people of Tsheseng lag behind in sharing and enjoying the benefits brought about by tourism development process because of their inferiority and lack of participation. Their participation becomes an important part of the project.

### **7.3.2 Information on the Environmental Conditions that the Community Faces Everyday**

Based on the first objective that “information on the environmental conditions that the community faces everyday”, it is better to recommend the project because it will have little effect/harm on the environment on the site where it will be implemented. This is because the site selected for the development is very small (600 hectors), and it is not where people live or where they practice agriculture. And again, the clean technology

associated with the Cableway itself will have less or no negative impact on the environment.

### **7.3.3 Identification of the Present Social and Economic Status of the Tsheseng Community in the Study Area**

Because the social and economic status of the Tsheseng community is poor, the implementation of this project will uplift them only if they be directly employed in the project. But if the project will use migrant labourers this will disturb their values and norms and have no importance in eliminating the alarming rate of unemployment and poverty.

### **7.3.4 Evaluation of the Possible Positive and Negative Impacts of the Proposed Project**

The project can be recommended because when evaluating the possible positive and negative impacts of the proposed project, the results were as follows: The project will have more positive impacts than negative ones. This objective is supported by objective number one that the project will have less or no negative impacts on the environment and objective number two that if the people of Tsheseng may be employed in the project they will earn a living out of it.

### **7.3.5 Perception of the People and the Reality of the Project**

As the people of Tsheseng have accepted the project, it is important that their perceptions be integrated into the reality of project. This emphasizes that the project managers must stick to the agreement that they have reached with the community, that is, that they must fulfill the promises they made and take into account the needs of the community during the progress of the project.

#### 7.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

Due to the present growth of tourism in South Africa and the need to know about this growth, this study makes a considerable contribution to our knowledge of the proposed tourism development. This study plays a vital role on how the proposed project can be a sustainable contributor to the development of tourism industry and the creating of jobs for the host community.

The tourism industry offers particular opportunities for the previously disadvantaged in the society, particularly women, young people and disabled persons. For a workable tourism, strategic steps will need to be taken to de-racialise and democratize the industry that has been greatly protected and reserved in the past for only a few. To do this, a special focus and recognition will need to be highlighted on the particular participation and involvement of local labour, NGO's and CBO's to mobilize community role players and stakeholders.

People involved in tourism projects should take the initiative to empower themselves. This can be made possible through tourism awareness campaigns that are funded or run by local government.

If directed and induced employments are taken into account, many families can earn their livelihood from tourism. There is a need, therefore, for people generally to gain an appreciation for, and an understanding of the value of tourism and its importance in economic development.

## **ADDENDUM B**

### **1. QUESTIONNAIRE**

Section A      Head of the household socio-economic information

Section B      Livestock information

Section C      The estimated impacts of the project on the community

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