



# Assessing local community participation in community-based tourism: The case of the Zulu-Mpophomeni Tourism Experience

Thulile Promise Ndlovu \*  
Durban University of Technology  
Email: [thulizulu1@gmail.com](mailto:thulizulu1@gmail.com)

Nozipho Prudence Sibiya  
Durban University of Technology  
Email: [mazibukonp@dut.ac.za](mailto:mazibukonp@dut.ac.za)

Dr. Andrea Giampiccoli  
Durban University of Technology  
P.O. Box 1334, Durban 4000, South Africa  
Email: [andrea.giampiccoli@gmail.com](mailto:andrea.giampiccoli@gmail.com)

Corresponding author\*

## Abstract

Examining control of community-based tourism projects by local communities can provide a better understanding of how tourism can be beneficial to them. Tosun's (2000) limitations to community participation has been adopted for the purposes of the study to establish the possible barriers to local community participation in the Zulu-Mpophomeni Tourism Experience (ZMTE). The primary aim of the study is to assess the extent to which the local community of Mpophomeni participates and is involved in the ZMTE. The ZMTE is a CBT initiative that aims to provide visitors with a collective experience incorporating the elements of culture and history. This CBT initiative is made up of various service providers including cultural and township tours, accommodation establishments, arts and crafts which are all locally owned. The inception of ZMTE was influenced by the growth and demand for authentic cultural and township experience by international markets as well as the immediate need to improve the livelihood of the local community. Barriers that hinder active and extensive local participation will be identified as guided by Tosun's (2000) components, that is, operational limitations, structural limitations and cultural limitations. The growth of tourism activity may cause a number of positive and negative consequences to the area of Mpophomeni and its residents, mainly because the local community is part of the tourism product. The ZMTE is selected as a momentous study area due to its potential for development and has spawned increased interest from various stakeholders within the tourism industry. Its inception has largely improved tourism in the area of Mpophomeni and the province of KwaZulu-Natal in particular. It is anticipated that the study will contribute to further encourage community-based tourism at Mpophomeni to ensure sustainable development and improved wellbeing of the local community.

**Keywords:** community-based tourism, community, participation, sustainable development.

## Introduction

The 1950s marked the emergence and development of the tourism sector which has become a worldwide phenomenon spreading rapidly into all areas and regions of the world (Pulido-Fernandez & Lopes-Sanches, 2011). The growth in the scale of international tourism has



grown to the extent of reaching comparable distribution between advanced and emerging economies (Scott & Gosling, 2015). However, a specific approach is required to ensure that tourism has positive effects on society. Community-based tourism (CBT) is a tourism development strategy and often a necessary pathway for developing countries. (Nair & Hamzah, 2015). Effective participation, collaboration and partnerships with key stakeholders is central to the success of CBT (Giampiccoli & Mtapuri, 2017). Present literature leans towards the development of a conceptual model and typology of CBT, including the outlining of its roles, benefits and contribution to sustainable development (Polnyotee & Thadaniti, 2015). Furthermore, the CBT models and typologies seek to identify the hindrances and shortcomings of community participation in CBT (Marzuki, Hay & James, 2012; Stone, 2011; Tosun, 2000). It is eminent that community members who participate in CBT in their local area are rarely given the opportunity to reflect upon the nature and level of participation, even though the focus of CBT is to be run autonomously by local communities for their own long-term benefit. However, there exists a gap in research on the issue of community participation in the context of CBT planning and development, thus, insufficient attention is given to the self-evaluation of community participation in CBT projects from a local perspective. Thus, the study aims to analyze the level of participation by the Mpophomeni community in the Zulu-Mpophomeni Tourism Experience (ZMTE) in terms of the aforementioned components as observed by Tosun (2000).

## **Literature review**

### **The emergence of Community-based tourism (CBT)**

A model known as community-based tourism was developed in the 1980s with an objective of establishing a bottom-up approach which will provide real and all-inclusive community participation at all levels of tourism development (Asker, et al. 2010). A major gap exists between the academic definition of the CBT concept and the way it is used by practitioners (Goodwin and Santili, 2009). There is no considerable modification and application of CBT among various destinations globally. Community-based tourism is tourism that is initiated, designed, planned, owned and managed by the community for the community, directed by cooperative decision-making, responsibility, access, ownership and benefits. (Jamal and Gets, 1995). The relative intention of CBT is to increase the possibilities for job creation and generate entrepreneurial opportunities for local communities with different backgrounds, skills and experiences (Mitchell and Reid, 2001). According to Goodwin and Santili (2009), CBT can be defined as tourism that is owned and managed by a community and is centred around delivering community-wide benefits. In other words, CBT entails local participation and control which results in more benefits to the community and the improvement of their livelihood. Developing countries have used CBT as a means to drive economic, social and environmental development (Snyman, 2012; Spenceley, 2008). CBT is a type of tourism that allows local communities to have extensive control over tourism activities and access to maximal economic benefits (Scheyvens, 2002). The capability of communities to become involved in tourism at the destination is increased through CBT, thus, local participation that fosters economic, social and cultural well-being is established (Mowforth & Munt, 2003). Community-based tourism is a type of tourism conducted, owned and managed by local communities. The control over CBT by local communities is a tool for broadening the positive impacts and empowerment (Sebele, 2010).

Since CBT takes place within a given community, it is believed to be one of the ideal drivers of employment for local communities, including women and the informal sector (Scheyvens, 2007). There are three key elements for CBT, as observed by Zapata et al. (2011), namely; CBT is positioned within a community, is owned by one or more local community members and is managed by community members. Understanding CBT practices and processes



centres around the concept of community. There have been several attempts made to define community, however, literature is yet to agree on a single, distinct and all-inclusive definition. Extensively, community is a group of people occupying a given location who share common culture, values and interests (Gregory, 2009). However, communities may have subgroups that have dissimilar views on issues such as tourism (Mendoza-Ramos and Prideaux, 2014). Furthermore, Stone and Nyaupane (2014) observed, that being geographically confined in the same area as other communities is not tantamount to cultural commonalities. Consequent from this understanding, identifying subgroups within a recognised community is essential, particularly where differences exist in attitudes towards tourism development among subgroups. The conversation around CBT mainly centres around local community involvement in tourism, signifying the need for empowerment of local communities at the level of control and decision-making. Local community empowerment is essential to achieve sustainability of tourism, particularly in remote areas (Snyman, 2012). However, as Rocharungsat (2008) observed, tourism development plans and community-driven tourism planning aspirations may be unachievable due to the intricacy of CBT practices. Several authors (Garrod, 2003; Novelli & Gebhardt, 2007; Rocharungsat, 2008; Scheyvens, 2002; Stone, 2015) have argued that the fundamental success of CBT lies in community participation. Through community participation, the beneficiaries are empowered to take control of CBT projects in their area, organize and gather their own resources, define their needs and how to meet them (Tosun, 2000). In an encompassing description of CBT, Tosun and Timothy (2003) recognized that specific benefits of community participation in CBT include: improved tourist satisfaction, enhancing the design and development of tourism plans by tourism professionals, equitable and fair distribution of costs and benefits among community members, better and more precise identification of local community needs and strengthening the democratization process in tourist destinations.

Community participation in CBT minimizes the negative impacts of tourism because it allows for active involvement of communities in planning and development, thereby, effectively combating negative impacts (Scheyvens, 2002). However, Stone (2015) points out that community tourism development can be ineffective without the recognition of community heterogeneity. To yield maximum and successful outcomes, local community members must be equipped with adequate resources and skills required to actively participate in tourism (Okazaki, 2008). These resources are often obtainable from external private or public sources because there is often a lack of required training, knowledge and financial resources amongst local communities (Stronza & Gordillo, 2008).

### **Barriers to local community participation**

As mentioned earlier, there are several challenges that local communities are faced with that hinder active participation and benefit from CBT projects resulting in unsustainable development. It is therefore crucial that hindering factors are identified and managed in order to streamline, facilitate and develop local community participation in tourism development (Kim et al., 2014). There are, however, a number of cases that involve limited community participation in rural communities, particularly in developing countries. Tosun (2000) asserts that limitations of community participation in tourism development is constituted by three major components: (1) operational limitations, (2) structural limitations and (3) cultural limitations. Operational limitations comprise of factors such as centralisation of public administration of tourism, poor coordination and information dissemination.

Structural limitations include attitudes, approaches and outlook of tourism by specialists, lack of proficiency, exclusive domination and control, lack of a proper legal system, lack of skilled human resources, relatively high cost of community participation and unavailability of adequate financial resources. Lastly, cultural limitations are inclusive of factors such as



incapacitated poor people, apathy and minimal awareness about tourism by the local community in the destination. Even though the three limitations presented often occur in developing countries, they tend not to exist in every tourist destination (Mustapha et al., 2013). Therefore, Tosun's (2000) notion of community barriers in tourism development is applicable and relevant for this study. In a study conducted Bhan and Singh (2014) in India, Tosun's (2000) ideas were observed. The study concluded that tourism activities conducted through homestay programmes encountered numerous challenges such as poor infrastructure and facilities, lack of trained human resources, lack of appropriate legal regulations, ineffective marketing and promotional activities, poor coordination, less awareness about conservation and cultural resources, improper management of natural resources and poor management of safety and security incidents (Bhan and Singh, 2014). In Iran, Aref (2011) attributes limited community participation to financial constraints which are a key contributing factor to poor tourism management. In addition, Dogra and Gupta (2012) studied the barriers to community participation in tourism development in Sudmahadey, India. It was found that structural limitations are the biggest hindrance to community participation and these limitations further weaken the destination development process. Giampiccoli and Kalis (2012) state that proper management of CBT can yield various benefits to local communities, especially in poor and disadvantaged areas.

### **Community-based tourism (CBT) models**

Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2013) proposed a CBT model with various development paths. The model comprises of sections indicating actors responsible for facilitation, the type of CBT, channels for market access, tourist-network actors. The model is not to be interpreted and applied rigidly but a level of flexibility must be considered relative to specific societal, ethnic, commercial and environmental contexts. The model describes the community as exclusive managers and owners of CBT projects. External actors are either absent or their task is to merely facilitate and/or they participate as external partners for accessing tourist markets. Building from Ndlovu and Rogerson (2003), Mtapuri and Giampiccoli (2010) proposed two key forms of CBT. Type 1 comprises of a single, community-owned establishment whilst Type 2 involves various micro enterprises trading under a common organisational authority. In Type 1, the single enterprise is viewed as highly effective at a community-wide level. Mtapuri (2011) argues that ownership of community resources has a significant implication on cohesion in community development. Moreover, Type 2 incorporates enterprises which broaden the potential for direct income for the local communities as they become directly involved in the hospitality sectors which are commonly regarded as being profitable.

Different activities must be integrated to the principal CBT ventures with the aim of increasing the benefits in these types of CBT ventures. Local community participation must be integrated to the principal CBT ventures for successful coordination and cooperation. Thus, Type 2 comprises of a group of self-regulating, micro and small establishments that should be managed within a conjoint umbrella organisation. However, CBT should still encourage the formation of initiatives aimed at developing micro ventures that, once formed, should also fall under the same umbrella organisation. There will be a variety and differences in people's skills, possible activities and geographical contexts. The fundamental gradient of this model is that all activities are entirely owned, controlled and managed by the local community and external actors participate only as supporting facilitators and market access intermediaries. They do not intervene on the ownership and control of CBT ventures. This is aligned with Ramsa and Mohd (2004) argument that the prosperity and viability of CBT ventures lies in the full ownership and management by the local community. This enables the local community to participate extensively in decision-making and promotes effective participation in CBT projects.

### Arnstein’s (1969) ladder of participation integrating Tosun’s (1999) Model for community participation in tourism development

The significance of Arnstein’s work stems from the identification of different hierarchical levels of community participation. The ladder of participation can be incorporated to formulate a model that aims to assess the level of community participation in CBT projects. According to Arnstein (1969), community participation is the restructuring of power that fosters extensive involvement of communities in developmental decision-making processes. It is a way in which communities can induce substantial social alteration which enables pervasive distribution of benefits. The ladder of participation emanated criticism that it was devised in the context of developmental studies and not specific to a particular sector of an economy (Tosun, 2006). The ladder of participation therefore does not specifically deal with tourism development (Leksakundilok, 2006). The ladder of participation is shown in Figure 1. At the bottom of the ladder are (1) Manipulation and (2) Therapy which define levels of non-participation. The objective of non-participation is to hinder communities from participating in planning and managing projects, but allows power-holders to educate participants. Rungs (3) informing and (4) consultation progress to the degree of tokenism which allows the community partially to have a voice and allows for power-holders to disseminate crucial information regarding any programs or projects that will be carried out within the community. However, the local community still lacks the power ensure that their views are considered and often, the views of the community are overlooked by the powerful. Rung (5) placation represents the higher degree of tokenism with power-holders still having the right to take decisions without the involvement of the community. Partnership enables power-holders and the community to negotiate and engage in trade-offs. At the topmost rungs, (7) delegated power and (8) citizen control, the community has full control and active participation in decision-making and full managerial power.

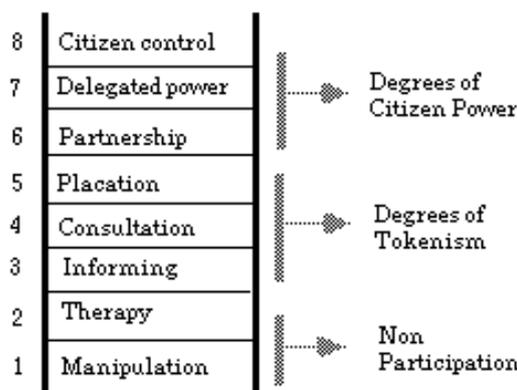


Figure 1: Eight rungs on the ladder of participation (Arnstein: 1969)

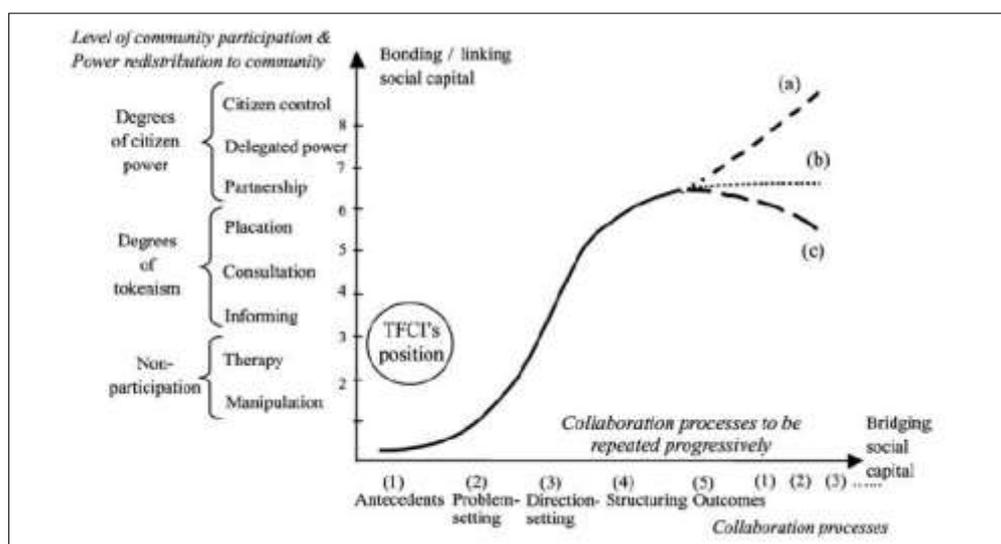
### Normative typologies of community participation: Tosun (1999)

The ladder of participation does not specifically deal with tourism development (Leksakundilok, 2006). In this regard, Tosun (1999) developed a model of community participation with a specific focus on community involvement in tourism development. Tosun’s (1999) model considers community participation as a categorical term that incorporates the involvement of people, host community or citizens at various levels (local, regional or national). Toun (1999) categorizes community participation into three types namely; spontaneous participation, coercive participation and induced participation. The model serves as a valuable tool for analyzing the level of community participation in CBT.

Spontaneous participation in Tosun's (1999) model tallies to degrees of citizen power in Arnstein's typology. It represents the ideal nature and extent of community participation because it is where the community has full managerial responsibility and authority. Induced community participation is aligned with degrees of citizen tokenism in Arnstein's (1969) typology. The host community has the opportunity to have a voice in the tourism development process, but still lack the power to ensure that their views are taken into consideration by more powerful forces such as governmental agencies, multinational companies and international tour operators. This type of situation is common in developing countries where local communities simply recommend decisions regarding tourism development in their area rather than devising them (Tosun, 2006:502). Induced participation is a top-down, passive and indirect approach to host community participation in tourism development. Coercive participation is manipulated and an artificial approach for authentic participation. It represents the lowermost level of the ladder of participation in Arnstein's (1969) model.

### A community-based tourism model incorporating the notions of the ladder of participation and power redistribution

A model incorporating the notions of the ladder of participation, power redistribution, cooperation practices and social capital suggested by Arnstein (1969) and Selin and Chavez (1995) was developed as a method of assessing the current status of community participation. The integration of these models allows for the horizontal and vertical levels of community participation to be assessed. The collaboration theory of CBT emphasizes the external and horizontal relationships with other stakeholders. Therefore, internal levels of participation affect external relationships and vice versa. Consequently, if the focus is exclusively on one direction, the other element is affected to the point of inconsequentiality. Hence, a synthesis of approaches comprising four conditions on the two-dimensional graph has been developed to analyse the position and status of the community (Okazaki, 2008). As indicated in Figure 2, a two-dimensional graph illustrates the relationship practices and bridging social capital on the horizontal axis with Arnstein's (1969) participation ladder, power redistribution, connecting and linking social capital on the vertical axis. As assumed by Selin and Chavez (1995), the *outcomes* of collaboration will be fed back to the stage of *antecedents* due to their cyclical nature. This means that the five stages of collaboration will be recurring gradually after the *outcomes* stage; however, some stages may be missed while the cycles are renewed.



**Figure 2:** A model of community-based tourism enabling conditions and steps suggested by Arnstein (1969) and Selin and Chavez (1995). Source: (Okazaki, 2008)



## Methodology

The initiation of the ZMTE was motivated by the immediate need for economic development, which would benefit the entire community. ZMTE is a community-owned and managed tourism organization comprising of township tours and a cultural experience. The study adopted a combined research methodology comprising both qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative research addresses the research aim that is, to assess the level of local community participation in ZMTE. For the purpose of this study, qualitative research serves to explore the views of the Mpophomeni local community regarding ZMTE.

Semi-structured survey questionnaires using convenience sampling were administered to 280 Mpophomeni local community residents. ZMTE service providers were selected because of their knowledge, experience and participation in ZMTE using semi-structured interviews. The census conducted in 2011 estimated the population of Mpophomeni to be 21 139 (uMngeni Municipality Census, 2011). Glenn (1992), states that for a population that is above 100 000 there should be a sample of 400. A total of 379 questionnaires were administered to the local community and 280 were returned. Purposive sampling was applied for ZMTE service providers as it was necessary to purposively select information-rich individuals. Convenient sampling was used for the Mpophomeni local community. Service providers that participated in the study are those establishments that offer services to tourists for the ZMTE. Within the ZMTE structure, one individual service provider is available for each of the services offered. Therefore, all services providers of ZMTE were interviewed as per their respective area of service specified below:

- Bed and Breakfast owner
- Local tour guide
- Trading enterprise owner
- Craftsman
- Tour operator
- Local traditional healer

## Findings

### Local community involvement in the Zulu-Mpophomeni Tourism Experience (ZMTE)

The results are first analysed using summarised percentages for the variables that constitute each section. Results are then further presented according to the importance of the statements. The findings reveal that most respondents (81.7%) had some idea of tourism in their area. A total of 30.0% of the respondents fully understood the tourism activity in Mpophomeni. The least sample (18.3%) had no understanding of tourism in the area. Tourism is often proposed as a solution to most of the problems within local communities in the developing world, however, this depends upon a range of economic, political and socio-economic considerations (Nyaupane, Morais, & Dowler, 2006). As a result, community capacity building becomes an important component of CBT as it encourages local control and participation in policy-making and decisions, thus allowing a sense of ownership of CBT projects (Aref., 2011; Goodman et al., 1998; Gunn & Var ,2002; Moscardo, 2008). From a total of 85.4% of the respondents who were residents before the inception of the ZMTE, 7.7% were actually involved in the ZMTE, whilst 77.7% were not involved in the ZMTE. A total of 14.6% respondents were not residing in Mpophomeni before the inception of the ZMTE with the majority (91.6%) not involved in the ZMTE. The findings further deduced the reasons that hinder local community participation in the ZMTE.

Respondents further indicated the reasons for not being involved in the ZMTE as shown in Table 1. More than two-thirds (69.3%) of the respondents indicated that they did not know what to do in order to participate in the ZMTE. Some of the respondents who indicated that they were not interested in being part of the ZMTE totalled 14.3%. In a study by Tosun (2000) aimed at assessing barriers to community participation in tourism development and community-based tourism initiatives, the significance of involving the community to make community-based tourism efficacious was highlighted. When the respondents were asked whether the ZMTE is individually beneficial, a majority of respondents (91.8%) indicated that they were not seeing any benefit from the project. The minority of 7.9% benefits from the ZMTE. The findings further reveal that majority of the local community is unaware of what to do to be involved in the ZMTE. There exists a gap in communication, resulting in poor information dissemination about community participation in the ZMTE. According to Tosun (2000), such barriers are classified under operational and cultural limitations. These types of barriers are in relation to the findings are characterized by lack of knowledge about participation in tourism resulting in minimal to no benefits for the community of Mpophomeni.

Reasons for not being involved in the ZMTE	Frequency	Percent
Not interested	40	14.3
Do not know what to do	194	69.3
Other	5	1.8
Total	239	85.4
Missing System	41	14.6
Overall Total	280	100

Table 1: Reasons for not being involved in the ZMTE

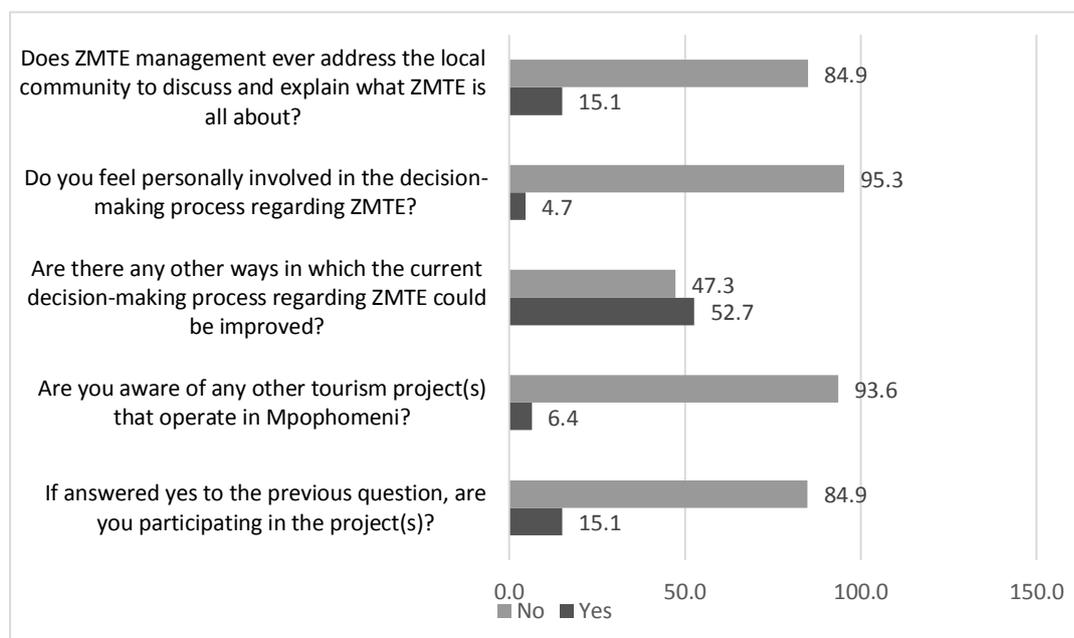
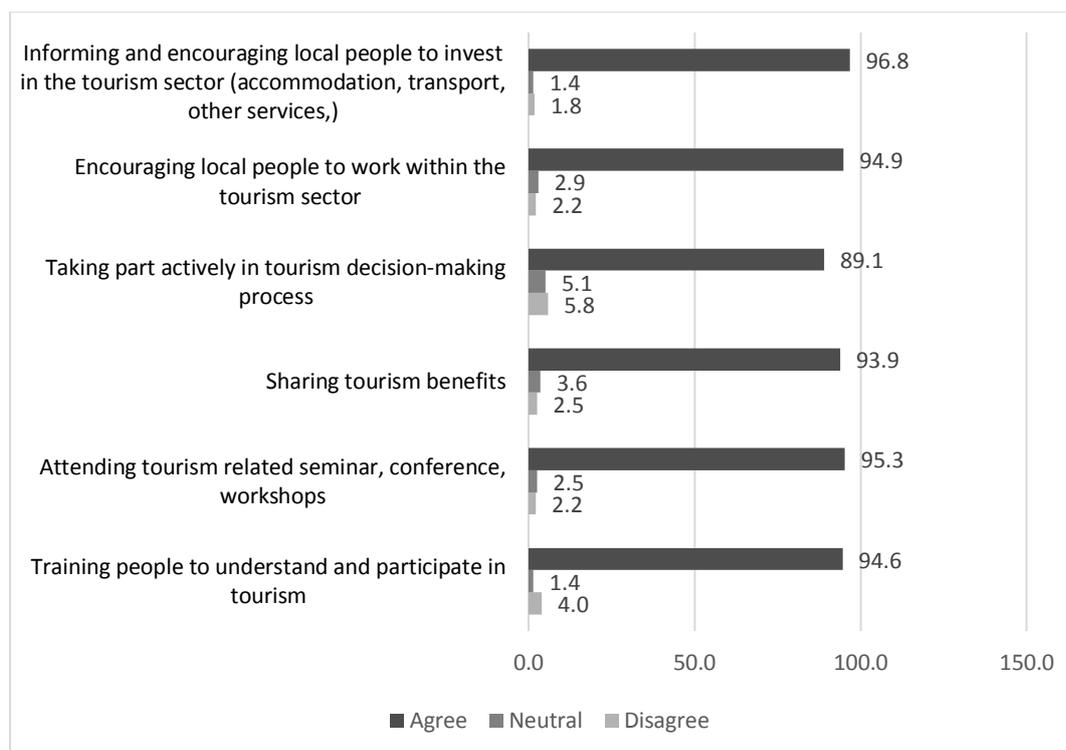


Figure 3: Decision making processes involving the Mpophomeni local community and the ZMTE

Figure 3 is a summary of the scoring patterns relating to decision making processes. There are high levels of disagreement with all the statements except with the third, which shows

similar levels of agreement and disagreement. The levels of disagreement correlate with the indicated levels of non-participation, little benefit and knowledge of the ZMTE found earlier. When respondents were asked about being addressed about the ZMTE, a total of 84,9% indicated that there has never been any form of address and information-sharing between the ZMTE management and the local community. Consequently, 93,5% of the respondents indicated that they are unaware of any other tourism projects in the area.



**Figure 4:** Means for ensuring maximal involvement of the local community in the ZMTE

Figure 4 above is a summary of the scoring patterns in response to what the most suitable means of ensuring maximal involvement of the local people in ZMTE. The body of literature that addresses tourism as a viable economic tool for local community development has increased over the past years. However, there is insufficient evidence from literature which illustrates the type and description of interaction between local communities and tourism development (Aref et al. 2010) which is one of the fundamentals for developing a viable community-based tourism (CBT) initiatives. While the literature recognizes the inclusion of the local community in CBT, their role has been debatable.

### ZMTE service providers

There is a total of 6 service providers that are fully registered as official members and operate under the ZMTE umbrella. All 6 service providers were interviewed regarding their role in the ZMTE, the viability of the ZMTE as well as the benefits and costs they have encountered since their involvement in the ZMTE. Their roles in the ZMTE and motivation is stipulated in Table 2.



SERVICE PROVIDERS	MOTIVATION FOR BEING PART OF ZMTE	ROLE
Bed & Breakfast	Passion for working with people Create exposure for the business thus creating potential for growth	Provision of accommodation for tourists visiting the area.
Local tour guide	Loves the idea of being part of a viable CBT initiative and contributing in its growth in putting Mpophomeni Township on the map.	Takes tourist groups on guided tours of Mpophomeni township and surrounding areas. Role also involves facilitating communication between ZMTE service providers and the local community.
Trading enterprise	Source of revenue and business exposure.	Catering services for ZMTE related events, tourists and the local community.
Craftsman	Sharing art with the local community and people outside the area.	Create leatherworks including belts, wallets, sandals and other accessories to sell to locals and tourists.
Tour operator	Catalyst to facilitate and fast-track local community development in the area.	Offers transport services to tourists.
Local traditional healer	Restoration of culture and indigenous knowledge	Provides interested visitors with knowledge about traditional medicine and its significance in culture and the local community

**Table 2:** ZMTE service providers' roles and motivation for being part of ZMTE

## Discussion

The main issue identified during the course of this research was the lack of community participation in the ZMTE. The process of business development is not in place, ZMTE service providers exist in a model vacuum. There are no steps that have been identified and consolidated to encourage locals to actively participate as business owners and offer services and products to tourists visiting the area. Service providers that are part of the ZMTE are local entrepreneurs whom their businesses existed even before the inception of ZMTE. A significant number of locals (96,3%) indicated their reason for not participating in the ZMTE was due to a lack of knowledge. Others indicated a lack of interest (14,3%). Amongst other reasons, the local community indicated lack of understanding and knowledge about tourism in the township of Mpophomeni and apathy.

A sense of a lack of confidence in the ZMTE by the local community was observed. Ultimately, poor participation will yield minimal to no benefits for the local community. It was however apparent that the local community has a preference of being active rather than passive participants and consequently, gain control over the management and decision-making process of the ZMTE. In part, this situation reflects a lack of prior involvement in entrepreneurship and a lack of previous involvement in the tourism industry either as participants or service providers.

The findings reveal the capability of CBT to provide opportunities to achieve a better quality of life in rural and township areas, such as employment and income generation, echoing Snyman's (2012) findings that successful and well-coordinated CBT projects can strengthen local families and reduce the drift to larger urban cities. Some of the ZMTE service providers indicated revenue generation, expansion and exposure of their business as part of the motivating factors of being an active participant in the ZMTE, as stipulated in Table 2. Though too limited, locals have full control over the ZMTE as decision-makers and participants through service provision. It must therefore be highlighted that the focal issue is not external ownership of ZMTE but the poor level of local community participation. The community must also possess



skills to exercise knowledge and the confidence to apply and exercise power, thereby improving the level and nature of participation in CBT.

Empowerment is a prerequisite and fundamental for participation, as noted by Okazaki (2008) it is a process through which individuals, families, local groups, communities, districts and countries shape their often unique kind of society.

### **Conclusion and recommendations**

CBT projects must have a model in place, which will act as a roadmap and blueprint of the actions and steps that need to be pursued if local communities are to become involved in CBT projects, and be empowered to a point where they are able to reap maximal and sustainable benefits of tourism in their area. In its current state and form, ZMTE has yielded very limited benefits and have focused mainly to the service providers. Benefits need to be widespread to the larger community. CBT is a type of tourism that is distinct because of its characteristics of being small-scale and allowing for full local community participation. CBT projects must be therefore developed in the interest of the local community which will ultimately result in community development. An array of literature in the field of tourism development has recognized that there are many barriers to local participation (Tosun, 2000; Scheyvens, 2002), even in CBT projects (Stone & Stone, 2010).

Due to the small-scale nature of CBT projects, most have been unsuccessful. However, other factors that have contributed to the lack of success for most CBT include lack of investment and connection with conventional tourism (Mitchell & Muckosy, 2008; Goodwin, 2006). It is therefore recommended that an effective system of communication amongst Mpophomeni residents and the ZMTE management is developed in order to strengthen means and frequency of communication. This will aid in creating much needed awareness about the role of the ZMTE, its significance as well as its contribution in transforming the Mpophomeni Township through the development of tourism in the area. The ZMTE must utilize all available platforms to ensure that the community is well informed about ZMTE and tourism in general. Communication and information dissemination regarding the ZMTE can be done through social gatherings, posters in local landmarks such as garages, churches, libraries and taxi ranks. If the local people understand what ZMTE stands for, they can be able to support the project, actively participate and as a result, benefit from it. The local people should not only be informed about the ZMTE but they should also understand the overall concept of tourism and how it operates as an industry.

Governmental bodies must intervene in this regard to develop and fund educational programs for the local community. These programs must incorporate introductory studies to tourism in general, the positive impacts of tourism, skills on how to start and manage a tourism business as well as customer services. This type of knowledge will allow for greater acceptance and understanding of tourism development in Mpophomeni and it will also promote entrepreneurship among local community members. However, this should be controlled so that locals do not become over-dependent of tourism as the only source of income.

### **References**

- Aref, F. & Gill, S. S. (2011). The comparison between the levels of community capacity in tourism development in Shiraz, Iran. In: *Proceedings of Interlect base international consortium*. United States of America, 94.
- Arnstein, S.R. (1969). A ladder of citizen participation. *Journal American Statute of Planners*, 35(4): 216-224.



Bhan, S. & Singh, L. (2014). Homestay Tourism in India: Opportunities and Challenges. *African Journal of Hospitality and Leisure*, 3(2): 04-09.

Dogra, R. & Gupta, A. (2012). Barriers to Community Participation in Tourism Development: Empirical Evidence from a Rural Destination. *South Asian Journal of Tourism and Heritage*, 5(1): 219-142.

Garrod, B. (2003). Local participation in the planning and management of ecotourism: A revised model approach. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 2(1): 33–53.

Giampiccoli, A. & Mtapuri, O. (2017). Role of external parties in Community-Based Tourism development: Towards a new model. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(2):46-56

Giampiccoli, A. & Haywards, K.J. (2012). Tourism, Food, and Culture: Community-Based Tourism, Local Food, and Community Development in Mpondoland. *Culture, Agriculture, Food and Environment*, 34(2): 101-123.

Giampiccoli, A. & Mtapuri, O. (2014). The role of international cooperation in community-based tourism. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 5(4): 638–644.

Goodwin, H. & Santilli, R. (2009). Community-based tourism: A success? Accessed 05/10/18. Available at: <http://www.andamandiscoveries.com/press/press-harold-goodwin.pdf>. (Accessed 25 October 2017).

Gregory, D. (2009). Community. In D. Gregory, R. Johnston, P. Geraldine, M. J. Watts. and S. Whatmore (Eds.), *The dictionary of human geography* (pp. 103–104). Chichester, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Hesket, E. & Laidlaw, J. (2012). Quantitative Research. The Education Development Unit. NHS Education Scotland.

Jamal, T. B. & Getz, D. (1995). *Collaboration theory and community tourism planning*. *Annals of Tourism Research* 22: 186-204.

Kendall, L. (2008). The conduct of qualitative interview: Research questions.

Kim, K., Uysal, M. & Sirgy, M.J. (2014). How does tourism in a community impact the quality of life of community residents? *Tourism management*, 36(7): 527-540.

Leksakundilok, A. (2006). Community participation in ecotourism development in Thailand, University of Sydney, Geosciences.

Marzuki, A., Hay, I. & James, J. (2012). Public participation shortcomings in tourism planning: The case of the Langkawi Islands, Malaysia. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(4): 585-602

Mendoza-Ramos, A. & Prideaux, B. (2014). Indigenous ecotourism in the Mayan Rainforest of Palenque: Empowerment issues in sustainable development. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 22(3): 461–479.

Mitchell, J. & Muckosy, P. (2008). A misguided quest: Community-based tourism in Latin America. London: Overseas Development Institute.



Mitchell, R.E. & Reid, D.G. (2001). Community Integration. *Annals of Tourism Research* 28: 113-139.

Moscardo, G. (Ed). (2008). Building Community Capacity for Tourism Development. James Cook University, Australia.

Mowforth, M. & Munt, I. (2003). *Tourism and sustainability: Development and new tourism in the third world* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.

Muganda, M. (2009). *Community Involvement and Participation in Tourism Development in Tanzania: A Case Study of Local Communities in Barabaraniv village Mto wa Mbu, Arusha, Tanzania*. Master's Thesis, Unpublished. Wellington: Victoria University of Wellington.

Mtapuri, O. & Giampiccoli, A. (2013). Interrogating the role of the state and non-state actors in community-based tourism ventures: Toward a model for spreading the benefits to the wider community. *South African Geographical Journal*, 95(1): 1–15.

Mtapuri, O. & Giampiccoli, A. (2016). Towards a comprehensive model of community-based tourism development. *South African Geographical Journal*, 98(1): 154–168.

Mustapha, N.A., Azman, I. & Ibrahim, Y. (2013). Barriers to Community Participation in Tourism Development in Island Destination. *Journal of Tourism, Hospitality & Culinary Arts*, 5(1): 102-124.

Nair, V. & Hamzah, A. (2015). Successful community-based tourism approaches for rural destinations: The Asia Pacific experience. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 7(5): 429-439.

Ndlovu, N. & Rogerson, C. M. (2003). Rural local economic development through community-based tourism: The Mehloping hiking and horse trail, Eastern Cape, South Africa. *Africa Insight*, 33: 124-129.

Novelli, M. & Gebhardt, K. (2007). Community based tourism in Namibia: 'Reality Show' or 'Window Dressing' ? *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(5): 443–479.

Nyaupane, G.P., Morais, D.B. & Dowler, L. (2006). The role of community involvement and number/type of visitors on tourism impacts: A controlled comparison of Annapurna, Nepal and Northwest Yunnan, China. *Tourism Management*, 27(6): 1373-1385.

Okazaki, E. (2008). A community-based tourism model: Its conception and use. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 16(5): 511–529.

Polnyotee, M. & Thadaniti, S. (2015). Community-Based Tourism: A Strategy for Sustainable Tourism Development of Patong Beach, Phuket Island, Thailand. *Asian Social Science*, 11(27): 90-98.

Rocharungsat, P. (2008). Community based tourism in Asia. In G. Moscardo (Ed.), *Building community capacity for tourism development* (pp. 60–74). Cambridge: CABI.

Scheyvens, R. (2002). *Tourism for development: Empowering communities*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.



Sebele, L.S. (2010). Community-based tourism ventures, benefits and challenges: Khama Rhino Sanctuary Trust, Central District, Botswana. *Tourism Management*, 31: 136-146.

Snyman, S. L. (2012). The role of tourism employment in poverty reduction and community perceptions of conservation and tourism in Southern Africa. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(3): 395–416.

Spenceley, A. (2008). Local impacts of community based tourism in Southern Africa. In A. Spenceley (Ed.), *Responsible tourism: Critical issues for conservation development* (pp. 27-40). London: Earthscan.

Stone, M. (2015). Community-based ecotourism: A collaborative partnership perspective. *Journal of Ecotourism*, 14(2–3): 166–184.

Stone, M.T. & Nyaupane, G. (2014). Rethinking community in community-based natural resource management. *Community Development*, 45(1): 17–31.

Stronza, A. & Gordillo, J. (2008). Community views of ecotourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 35 (2): 448–468.

Tosun, C. (2000). Limits to community participation in the tourism development process in developing countries. *Tourism Management*, 21(6): 613–633.

Tosun, C. & Timothy, D.J. (2003). Arguments for community participation in tourism development process. *The Journal of Tourism Studies*, 14(2): 2–14.

Tourism KZN (Online). (2017). Available: <http://www.zulu.org.za/>. (Accessed 13 March 2018)

Zapata, M.J., Hall, C.M., Lindo, P. & Vanderschaeghe, M. (2011). Can community-based tourism contribute to development and poverty alleviation? Lessons from Nicaragua. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 14(8): 725–749.

Zulu Mpophomeni Tourism Experience (online). (2017). Available: <http://www.zmte.co.za> (Accessed 11 October 2017).