CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND

PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

Tourism has become an essential attribute of modern society that has an effect on the world and its citizens (Robinson, Heitmann & Dieke 2011:01); therefore governments are also inclined to embrace a more dominant approach to tourism in relation to other service sectors (Ruhanen 2013:80). This industry is regarded as a vital contributor to socio-economic development and has an extensive impact on the world's economy (Huybers 2007:1). According to the World Tourism Organisation (2013:2), the tourism industry's continued growth has created immense opportunities for positive change and development in urban areas.

On the other hand, tourism can also be blamed for an increase in environmental and social stress. Hence the need for a more sustainable tourism industry was advocated by the World Tourism Organisation; thus the birth of alternative forms of tourism such as ecotourism, responsible tourism and community-based tourism (Neth 2008:2; Robinson *et al.* 2011:1; Das & Chatterjee 2015:4). Ecotourism is often seen to be a remedy towards environmental protection due to its durable principles of improving ecological and cultural compassion, implanting environmental awareness and social integrity within the travel industry (Weaver 2006:117).

Ecotourism is a responsible way of travelling where special attention is given to reducing negative impacts from stakeholders such as tourists, host communities and the tourism industry itself, particularly in areas that are uninterrupted by humans (Zhang & Lei 2012:916). Ecotourism can be referred to as a feasible economic movement with the capacity to minimise harmful human impacts and offer incentives to protect natural areas (Kruger 2005:582). Weaver (2006:117) explains that ecotourism is based on the pillars of sustainable tourism, which entails diminishing

negative environmental effects, valuing host cultures and capitalising on reimbursements for local people. Moreover, Wu, Wang and Ho (2010:739) assert that although ecotourism stresses natural immaculate zones as its destinations, urban areas are now becoming recognised for their capacity to develop ecotourism. This will create opportunities for urban communities to be acknowledged and developed for their potential to offer urban ecotourism as well as provide abundant benefits to community members.

The city of Johannesburg is one such area, with an urban forest of about ten million trees and over two thousand developed parks (City Parks 2015). As the guardian of the green heritage, Johannesburg City Parks carries the responsibility of improving the livelihoods of local communities that belong to the Johannesburg municipality. Ivory Park is an example of where environmental conditions have improved significantly since the early 1990s through the intervention of Johannesburg City Parks (City Parks 2015). The Ivory Regional Park is situated in Ivory Park, east of Johannesburg and shares boundaries with townships such as Ebony Park and Kaalfontein in the Gauteng province of South Africa. Ivory Park is dominated by more than a hundred thousand people, and half of these residents are jobless. Those employed earn on average less than R800 per month (Stats SA 2011). Severe environmental problems have taken their toll on the health of local residents such as the use of coal as a cooking mechanism, which resulted in respiratory problems, and a highly contaminated river running through the township, are some of the environmental challenges the residents of Ivory Park had to face daily.

However, in 2007 the United Nations esteemed Johannesburg City Parks with the Liveable Communities (LivCom) Award and the Ivory Regional Park had a recent R4-million upgrade (City Parks 2015). In close proximity to other ecotourism products such as the Lory Park Zoo and the Glen Austin Bird Sanctuary, the Ivory Regional Park now has the potential of becoming not only a sought-after tourist attraction with its facilities to host large events, but also obtaining means for conserving the natural resources in the area such as the Kaalspruit river. Recognising the importance of conservation of natural resources, the present study aims to determine perceptions of hosts regarding urban ecotourism. The respondents of the study are local communities.

1.2 RATIONALE AND MOTIVATION OF STUDY

The theory of urban ecotourism was founded by Toronto's Green Tourism Association (GTA) and it demonstrates how a city can promote itself through local businesses and attractions by delivering exclusive tourism experiences and thus create demand for sustainability (Okech 2009:1). However, Wu *et al.* (2010:739) assert that urban ecotourism was firstly suggested by the Blackstone Corporation in 1996 and was recognised as a viable way of travelling in urban areas. According to GTA (2015), urban ecotourism is tourism that values the natural ecology of the city, which means that urban ecotourism can be regarded as an important tool with the capacity to rebuild the country's economy and increase global and cultural integration (Neth 2008:1). Therefore, to stress this phenomenon, the word "urban" is added to "ecotourism".

Urban ecotourism supports environmental conservation and generates economic opportunities. It furthermore highlights remunerations to host communities and strongly recommends the involvement of local residents for effective management towards urban ecotourism (Zhang & Lei 2012:916; de Witt & van der Merwe 2015:2). Urban ecotourism is based on the elements of environmental protection and local development; therefore it can be seen as an educational tool for tourists and local residents, which serves as an effective instrument for stimulating respect for diverse cultures and nature (Wang, Zhong & Zhou 2014:6782).

Urban ecotourism occurs in cities that encompass a percentage of natural settings or that have been alternatively altered by past human activities (Okech 2009:2). These cities hold the potential of re-establishing natural sites that have been tarnished, obstructed or damaged by industrial and commercial actions. It can therefore be argued that urban ecotourism can be regarded as an approach that encourages conservation and the provision of income for cities in and around natural areas (Jalani 2012:248).

With a view to successfully accomplish sustainable urban ecotourism it is essential to gain the support of local communities. Communities form an integral part of a city's ecology and it must be borne in mind that these communities have the right to understand, appreciate, conserve and benefit from the natural and cultural resources (Cole 2006:630; Neth 2008:30), especially in areas close to their homes.Hence it

becomes imperical to acknowledge perceptions of local residents in order to ensure that they receive the intended benefits. Community participation allows local communities to pursue a key role in the success of ecotourism developments (Neth 2008:10; Nault & Stapleton 2011:695). Jamal and Stronza (2009:170) assert that in order to have a successful long-standing ecotourism performance, a substantial number of the local community members need to be involved. This is to ensure consistency of seizing benefits and sustaining future generations.

Various studies reveal that many clashes in communities arise from the fact that the majority of local residents are left out from participating in ecotourism projects, especially during decision-making processes (Ormsby & Mannie 2006:272; Lai & Nepal 2006:1118; Stronza & Gordillo 2008:448; Xu, Lu, Chen & Liu 2009:32). The level of local residents' environmental understanding, awareness and distinguished benefits can influence their attitudes, which play a prominent role in their participation and behavioural intent towards environmental actions (Beeton 2006:452; Jamal & Stronza 2009:5; Zhang & Lei 2012:916). Therefore, the researcher was motivated to carry out this research beacuse an understanding of local community members' views is essential for accomplishing a viable urban ecotourism strategy (Lepp 2007:876; Lepp 2007:876; Lima & d'Hauteserre 2011:185; de Witt & van der Merwe 2015:2) and to obtain their buy-in on the product.

1.3 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Urban ecotourism is promoted as a vital mechanism for securing conservation and promote development in urban areas (Neth 2008:10). Therefore the level of commitment from stakeholders has a significant effect on nature conservation and community development (Zhang & Lei 2012:924). Johannesburg City Parks, as the managing body of Ivory Regional Park, aims for a greener environment and improved livelihoods for the present community as well as for future generations (Johannesburg 2015). However, unless communities adjacent to the park take a true interest in its preservation, little can be achieved by the efforts of Johannesburg City Parks alone.

A major obstacle in achieving the benefits of urban ecotourism can be a lack of environmental knowledge among local communities, which will prevent them from being effectively involved in urban ecotourism projects and utilising these products.

When urban ecotourism is misunderstood by host communities it will result in poor distribution of resources and thus poor outcomes, leading to failure of achieving intended economic, environmental and social benefits (Das & Chatterjee 2015:4; Jalani 2012: 248; Banerjee 2010:28). Visitor numbers to Ivory Regional Park (IRP) have increased after the refurbishment by Johannesburg City Parks. However, IRP is not being utilised to its full potential due to the lack of knowledge pertaining to the perceptions of impacts associated with it. Therefore if perceptions of these impacts are known, IRP has the potential for further development. Previous studies indicate that in order for local communities to maximise potential benefits, participation is the remedy to the challenge of unsustainable actions (Cole 2006:2; Lai & Nepal 2006:1118; Ormsby & Mannie 2006:272; Stronza & Gordillo 2008:448; Xu *et al.* 2009:32).

An understanding of how communities perceive the impacts on the environment and impacts of urban ecotourism can provide management (in this case Johannesburg City Parks) with insight into how to achieve optimal community involvement and custodianship of natural resources. The question conversant in this research is:

- What are the perceptions of host communities regarding urban ecotourism, with specific reference to Ivory Regional Park?

1.4 PURPOSE OF STUDY

The main purpose of this study is to determine the perceptions of host communities regarding urban ecotourism in Ivory Regional Park so as to develop and implement appropriate strategies that will improve these perceptions.

1.4.1 Secondary Objectives

With a view to achieve the purpose of this study, the following objectives were pursued:
- To determine motivations of community residents for vising Ivory Regional Park
- To determine the perceptions of the local community residents regarding the impacts of urban ecotourism with reference to Ivory Regional Park.
- To assess community involvement in urban ecotourism

- To draw conclusions and make recommendations regarding community perceptions of urban ecotourism.

1.5 IMPORTANCE OF STUDY

This study was of importance due to the following aspects:

- This study is one of very few in South Africa that asses residents' perceptions on an urban ecotourism product.

- The study provides guidelines with regard to improved urban ecotourism awareness in communities.

- Implementation of the recommendations will lead to an increase in community involvement and benefits and to a more sustainable urban ecotourism industry.

- This study adds value to the current knowledge base of the urban ecotourism literature through an article publication in addition to a dissertation.

1.6 DEMARCATION OF FIELD OF STUDY

The study was conducted in South Africa in the Gauteng province within the city of Johannesburg, with specific reference to communities adjacent to the Ivory Regional Park, namely Ivory Park, Ebony Park and Kaalfontein.

1.7 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research methodology considers and explains the logic behind research methods and techniques (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:2). For purposes of this study a literature review and a quantitative empirical study were implemented.

1.7.1 Literature Review

The importance of a literature review is to evaluate and scrutinise previous research studies done on community perceptions to thoroughly understand what community perceptions are and the factors influencing them. A theoretical analysis of urban ecotourism and community involvement was conducted. In the collection, classification and analysis of the literature, emphasis was placed on the environmental awareness and attitudes of local residents towards urban ecotourism. Therefore the keywords used are urban ecotourism, community involvement, perceptions and policies. Various sources were used including the Internet and databases such as

Social Science Index, Humanities Index, Science Direct, EBSCO Host and South African Periodicals. Dissertations, reference books and research articles were used to analyse the matter at hand.

1.7.2 Empirical Study

An empirical investigation was undertaken to provide a practical basis to ensure that the purpose of the study is obtained.

1.7.3 Research Design

The research design is the conceptual structure and direction in which the research is conducted (Creswell 2014:12). For the purposes of this study, exploratory research was conducted. There are three approaches to research, namely qualitative and quantitative and mixed method. Quantitative research is an approach that evaluates neutral data consisting of numbers, while qualitative approach is interested in understanding how people interpret and make sense of the world and the experiences they have (Merriam 2009:13).Mixed method combines both qaulitative and quantitative approaches.Therefore, for the purposes of this study, quantitative research was conducted.

1.7.3.1 Sampling and Description of Sampling

Sampling is the process of selecting a limited number from a larger sample in order to have the basis for assessing or forecasting the commonness of the matter at hand; thus a sample is the sub-group of the population in which the researcher's interest lies (Kumar 2011:193). For purposes of this study the target population was the host communities adjacent to the IRP and therefore samples were drawn from those communities. These communities included Ivory Park, Ebony Park, and Kaalfontein.

1.7.3.2 Sampling Method

A combination of stratified and convenience sampling was used in this study. The motivation for firstly using stratified probability sampling is that it allows a good distribution of responses from a cross section of communities. The selected population size of this study totals 252,866 residents (Statistics SA 2011). Stratification was based on the residential areas. However, questionnaires were distributed among the strata, and in each stratum participants were chosen on a convenience basis. This

entails making use of respondents that were available and willing to participate in the study.

1.7.3.3 Sample Size

Krejcie and Morgan (1970:610) indicated that as the population increases at a diminishing rate (plateau) and eventually remains constant at slightly more than 380 cases there is little to be gained to warrant the expense and energy to sample beyond about 380 cases. Therefore, a sample size of 400 was chosen for this particular study.

1.7.3.4 Pre-testing

Pre-testing is a valuable technique for distinguishing and eliminating potential errors prior to the final questionnaire rollout (Martins, Loubser & van Wyk 1996:90). Moreover it is a trial run that is used to detect ambiguity and bias in order to remove fundamental problems in a questionnaire design (Zikmund 1999:258). Therefore it is imperative for pre-testing to be undertaken, as it ensures that the questionnaire communicates accurate and clear information to the respondents. Hence pre-testing was conducted for this study to derive the validity and reliability of the measuring instrument. This was achieved by distributing the questionnaire to three academics within the tourism field to determine the feasibility of the questionnaire. After thorough scrutiny, the relevant corrections and alterations were made to the questionnaire.

1.7.3.5 Method of Data Collection and Measuring Instrument

A survey method was applied to obtain relevant information using a structured questionnaire. Questionnaires were distributed by trained field workers to clarify concepts when necessary. The questionnaire was divided into five sections, each exploring a different construct of the research study:

- Section A was based on the demographic variables of respondents consisting of closed-ended questions
- Section B's focus was based on the respondents' motivations for visiting IRP. This was measured using a Likert-scale;

- Section C emphasised the perceptions of respondents regarding urban ecotourism. This was measured using a five-point Likert scale.

- Section D was based on community involvement and participation. This was measured using a five-point Likert scale.

- Section E was open for inputs and suggestions of respondents.

1.7.3.6 Statistical Analysis

Data processing and analysis followed the survey research. Data was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, Version 23). Moreover, descriptive statistics were implemented to scrutinise the composition of the sample and derive meaning from the questionnaire responses. The data were tested for reliability using the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient. Further to this, various statistical analysis techniques, namely factor analysis, were used to reduce variables into identifiable factors. Independent samples' t-tests and the one-way-analysis of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to determine the difference between certain variables. Lastly, Pearson product-moment correlation analysis was applied to determine the strength of the relationship between some variables (More in-depth information on the methodology is discussed in chapter 4.

1.8 DEFINITIONS AND TERMINOLOGY

The following concepts formed part of the main focus in this study and therefore warrants clarification:

1.8.1 Urban Ecotourism

Urban ecotourism can be defined as the practice of travel to protected nature-based urban areas and the act of assimilating degraded areas as a result of previous human activities (Wearing & Neil 2009:12). Therefore urban ecotourism supports environmental conservation and generates economic opportunities (Zhang & Lei 2012:916).

1.8.2 Perceptions

Perception can be regarded as the way of reception, integration and processing of motivations (Shettleworth 2010:2). Thus perceptions can be regarded as the way in

which aspects are processed and understood (Webster 2015). The understanding of the local residents' perceptions towards urban ecotourism and how these perceptions are formed would be valuable knowledge for the urban ecotourism industry.

1.8.3   Environmental Awareness

Knowledge (environmental awareness) refers precisely to an exact understanding of environmental issues under consideration (Flamm 2006:14). It is the knowledge of the environment which reveals itself as an attitude towards the physical, psychological, social and cultural impacts (Patro 2010:3).

1.8.4 Community Involvement

Community involvement can be defined as the inclusion of local residents in decision making, planning, execution of policies, activities and projects (Telfer & Sharpley 2008:121).

1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter 1: Introduction and Background to the Study

This chapter provides the background to the research problem. A brief overview of the literature is included in this chapter, together with the problem statement, followed by study objectives and demarcation of the study. Research methodology of this study is also included in this chapter and lastly, a definition of each key term is addressed.

Chapter 2: Ecotourism and Urban Areas

Chapter 2 entails a thorough review and analysis of the relationship between traditional ecotourism and urban ecotourism. Emphasis is placed on the contextualisation as well as understanding of the urban ecotourism phenomena within the tourism industry. The focus is based on understanding the industry and the challenges faced by it.

Chapter 3: Urban Ecotourism Development Planning and Management

This chapter focuses on communities as the most important stakeholder of the urban ecotourism industry. Attention is also given to policies that influence the urban ecotourism industry. The participation patterns of local residents living in urban areas are also analysed as well as factors influencing their involvement in local urban

ecotourism projects. Contextualising and understanding the impact of community involvement in urban ecotourism is also highlighted. Attention is also given to potential benefits that can be drawn from local participation.

Chapter 4: Research Methodology

Chapter 4 describes the research methodology that is applied in this study. The emphasis is placed on the design and method of research that is utilised in this study. Sampling techniques, methods of data collection and analysis are also elaborated upon.

Chapter 5: Empirical Results

Chapter 5 presents research findings developed from the analysis of data undertaken in the study. In this chapter, statistical methods were used to analyse the data. In terms of exploratory results, factor analyses were applied to reduce variables into groups. Inferential statistics such as analysis of variance (ANOVA) as well as *t*-tests were implemented to determine the influence among variables, and lastly, correlation analyses were fulfilled to distinguish relationships.

Chapter 6: Conclusions and Recommendations

Chapter 6 focuses on conclusions that are drawn based on the acquired results. Recommendations are made based on the impact of community involvement in urban ecotourism. Lastly, limitations and implications for future research are highlighted.

CHAPTER 2

ECOTOURISM AND URBAN AREAS

2

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism is regarded as a powerful force of change both in developed and less developed countries (Gumus, Eskin, Vesnikli & Gumus 2007:157). It is seen to be one of the largest and fastest growing industries world-wide (Lanza, Markandya & Francesco 2005:1), and needs to be managed in a sustainable manner to grant future generations the opportunity of enjoying the products and services it has to offer (Ramoliki 2013:11). Over the years the impacts of tourism have received increasing attention in sermons and studies related to development (Choi & Sirakaya 2006:1274; Saarinen 2006:1121; Eshliki & Kaboudi 2012:333). Although the tourism industry has an increased capability for stimulating growth in destinations (Frey & George 2008:112), its increasing impacts have led to a variety of challenges including environmental, social, cultural, economic, and political issues in destinations and systems (Novelli & Humavindu 2005:185). Therefore a need for alternative and more environmental-friendly platforms for development, planning and policies aroused (Saarinen 2006:1121; Wearing & Neil 2009:6). Increasing concerns regarding the negative impacts of mass tourism on the natural environment and local communities and cultures, integrated the emergence of the sustainable development concept which led to greater popularity of sustainable types of tourism, such as ecotourism and urban ecotourism (Novelli & Humavindu 2005:185; Neth 2008:19; Cheia 2013:56 & Cobbinah 2015:180).

Ecotourism is recognised as one of the fastest growing sectors within the tourism industry compared to other alternative types of tourism (Jones & Munday 2004:303; Singh 2008:145; Wearing & Neil 2009:6; Kuo , Lin, Chen & Chen 2012:503 & Cheia 2013:57). The growth of this niche market is promoted by the fact that tourists are becoming "greener" and therefore demand more environmentally friendly tourism

experiences (Sharpely & Vass 2006:8). Ecotourism was first announced in the 1960s, elaborated upon by ecologists in the 1970s, adopted by tourism researchers in 1980s and initially recognised as a rapidly growing industry in the 1990s (Higham 2007:24; Singh 2008:149). Hence it is evident that for the past three decades, the concept *ecotourism* has been an important and dominating notion in the tourism industry (Weaver 2010:191; Cobinnah 2015:180).

The emergence of ecotourism has implanted ethical values and positive results to the meaning of tourism (Hunt, Durham, Driscoll & Honey 2014:3). Although there may be contradicting thoughts about the growth of ecotourism, several studies support the uniqueness of this type of tourism, not only does it involve the act of travelling, but also encompasses environmental conservation and improvement of host communities' livelihoods (Jones 2005:303; Stronza & Gordillo 2008:449; Kuo 2012:504; Hunt *et al.* 2014:3). The relationship between host communities and natural areas has enabled tourism to be regarded as a domestic and international mechanism for experiencing protected areas in cities through specialised forms of travel such as urban ecotourism (Plummer & Fennel 2009:151; Kelkif, Celik & Eşbah 2010:562).

Urban ecotourism is an effective example of how a city can endorse itself through attractions by delivering a unique tourism experience, therefore creating demand for sustainability (Okech 2009:1). While implementing the approach of ecotourism to an urban environment is to some extent a new concept (Cobbinah 2015:179); urban ecotourism is a mechanism that empowers development in cities such as Johannesburg in the Gauteng province of South Africa.

The purpose of this chapter is to analyse the concept and nature of ecotourism in urban areas. This is realised by firstly, understanding the development, uniqueness and definition of ecotourism; secondly, contextualising and defining urban ecotourism in order to comprehend the applicability and necessity of this concept in the tourism industry. Attention is given to various models of ecotourism, characteristics as well as pillars. Lastly, impacts, dimensions and benefits of urban ecotourism are highlighted. This discussion is pursued in the following sections.

2.2   UNDERSTANDING ECOTOURISM

The concept *ecotourism* became popular as a result of an increase in negative environmental and social impacts caused by mass tourism due to greater focus on profits and development, rather than environmental conservation and socio-cultural aspects of host communities (Ziffer 1989:6; Weaver 2006:12; Mbaiwa 2008:205). Ecotourism gained global attention since its official announcement at the international environmental conference held in Mexico in 1986 (Wang, Zhong, Zhang & Zhou 2014:6781). Since then, ecotourism has become a popular sector within the tourism industry (Saarinen 2006:1122; Mbaiwa 2008:205).

According to the United States Institute of Peace (USIP) special report, ecotourism has also produced several other travel concepts which are variations of the same theme (USIP 2009:3). These related concepts, depending on the setting, include *nature-based tourism, wildlife tourism, sustainable tourism, adventure tourism* and *urban ecotourism* (Weaver 2008:18). Tourism types are usually defined using one dimension. Descriptive terms such as nature, wildlife and sustainable indicate the context in which tourism takes place, whereas concepts such as *adventure* describe the type of performance (Björk 2007:32). Table 2.1 provides a thorough explanation of these terms.

Table 2.1: Related types of tourism

TOURISM TYPE	DEFINITION
• **Nature tourism**	• A type of tourism that relies on attractions directly related to the natural environment (Fennel 2009)
• **Wildlife tourism**	• Tourism that is based on the encounters with non-domesticated animals in a non-captive and captive settings (Higginbottom 2004)
• **Sustainable tourism**	• Tourism that is carried out without damaging the long-term health and integrity of natural and cultural resources (Wearing & Neil 2005)
• **Adventure tourism**	• Travel that involves risk, danger and adrenalin and may require physical stamina (Kane & Zink 2004)

Source: **Björk (2007:32)**

2.2.1 Definition and Concepts

Ecotourism is one of the most supported theories in tourism studies, although substantial debate about its meaning still exists (Higham 2007:5; Weaver 2008:6; Cobbinah 2015:179). As seen in one of the early definitions of ecotourism, according to Ceballos-Lascurain (1987:13), ecotourism entails travelling to relatively untainted natural areas with particular interest to study, appreciate and enjoy the scenery including fauna and flora. During the 1990s, the International Ecotourism Society (TIES) defined ecotourism as a liable way of travelling to natural areas, with the aim to conserve the environment and endure the wellbeing of the local communities as well as any existing cultural manifestations found in these areas (TIES 2013). Moreover, Weaver (2008:30) proclaims that ecotourism is tourism that is focused on learning about the environment and being subtle towards its welfare.

Chiu, Lee and Chen (2014:322) maintain that the concept *ecotourism* is based on the philosophy that the natural environment is a local resource which creates economic value by attracting tourists. Chen (2006:213), states that ecotourism is a form of sustainable development that uses natural resources to support economic activity without conceding economic growth and social equity. However, Singh (2010:146) asserts that ecotourism involves managing tourism and conserving nature in such a manner that a fine balance exists between the requirement of tourism on the ecology and the needs of local communities for jobs and new skills. While Adeleke (2015:315), stresses the developmental objective of ecotourism as protecting the natural environment through production of revenue, environmental education and involvement of local residents. Therefore, from the above definitions, it can be concluded that since its inception, ecotourism has evolved its meaning over the years. Figure 2.1 provides a consecutive sample of the evolution of the ecotourism concept from the 1980s.
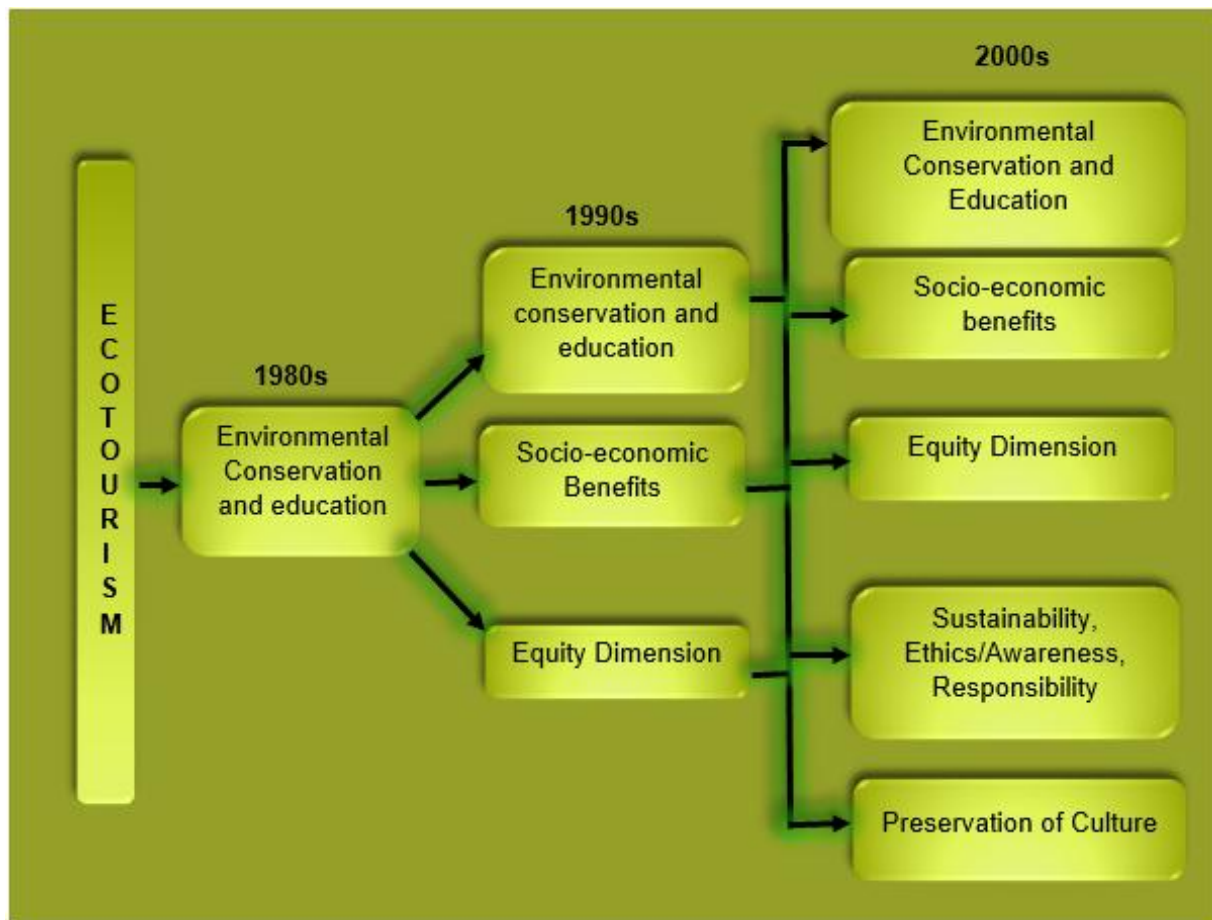
Figure 2.1: The evolution of ecotourism
Source: **Cobbinah (2016:180)**

For purposes of this study ecotourism is considered a podium for development that focuses on the protection of natural resources to provide support for economic growth, environmental education and community involvement.

2.2.2 Dimensions of Ecotourism

For the past decades, the concept *ecotourism* has gained supremacy in environmental and social science conferences including journals worldwide (Tsaur, Lin & Lin 2006:641; Cobbinah 2015:180). The theme that runs transversely among most definitions of ecotourism is that it is nature-based tourism that embraces an educational component, promotes the socio-economic wellbeing of host communities and that it is managed on a sustainable basis (Mbaiwa 2008:205). However, ecotourism has many dimensions and changes colour like a chameleon (Fennel 2014:1). Since its inception, international, national, public and private organisations have come together to measure the long-term ability of nature and societies to endure,

flourish as well as to guide policy and planning (Tsaur *et al.* 2006:641). As a result numerous dimensions were formulated, with the first dimension being the *conservation of natural resources*. Ecotourism is thought-out to be more than just nature-based tourism (Tsaur *et al.* 2006:641); it is also regarded as a tool for conservation and sustainable development (Das & Chatterjee 2015:4). Conservation of natural resources includes every event associated with the environment, including nature-dependent activities, protection of the environment and education (Cobbinah 2015:82). Moreover, ecotourism offers a tangible aspect of conservation as it helps to preserve delicate ecosystems (Libosada 2009:3920).

This dimension encourages the education of host communities, tourists on the significance of environmental conservation (TIES 2013). Therefore it can be said that ecotourism is an alternative land use with the capacity to shield threatened biodiversity through conservation (Santarém & Paiva 2015:176). Ecotourism must provide appropriate environmental awareness for local residents to actively participate in conservation projects (Fletcher, Fyall & Gilbert 2013:177). The second dimension specifically concerns the *preservation of cultural traditions*. The preservation and promotion of local cultural traditions have been widely considered an important policy instrument for heritage conservation (Lai & Nepal 2006:1119). Ecotourism preserves and enhances natural and cultural assets of a destination (Murphy & Price 2005:176).

Therefore it is essential to marry culture with the natural resources in order to create complex images, so that tourists can be able to develop an awareness of the community and the local way of life (Duvic, Volic, Tisma & Jelinćić 2014:61). Cultural interactions among tourists and host communities through ecotourism are essential, since it creates a meaningful experience (Segbefia 2008:55). Ivanovic (2008:195) posits that cultural heritage is the only tool capable of interconnecting the characteristics of the physical assets of a place with the living culture. Therefore ecotourism should be envisioned and promoted in such a manner that it promotes cultural education (Fletcher *et al.* 2013:180). In relation to the third dimension, *sustainable community development*, ecotourism cannot exist without sustainability. Sustainable community development is aimed at achieving justice in the distribution of costs and benefits of ecotourism between different segments of the community and among current and future generations (Murphy & Price 2005:176). However,

ecotourism must also offer means to educate community members to ensure they acquire relevant management skills in order to achieve adequate environmental protection (Ojong, Eja, Undelikwo & Agbor 2013:275). Hence ecotourism is a sustainable, non-invasive form of nature-based tourism with a predominant focus on learning about the environment that is morally managed for low impact, and locally oriented measured by local residents' control and benefits (Kelkit, Celik & Eşbah 2010:562).

The fourth and last dimension stresses *participation in ecotourism planning and management*. Involvement of local communities in the development process permits local residents to a) decide on the type of growth they need; b) assist in managing negative impacts; and c) to develop a sense of ownership in ecotourism which will in turn produce benefits (Chen 2006:213). Community involvement, collaboration and participation in the development process enables improvement of the information base and guarantees that local communities who are affected by decisions are informed and consulted; therefore building common understanding and building extensive commitment towards decision making (Choi & Sirakya 2006:380). As a result, ecotourism must nurture conversion in the attitudes and conduct of host communities and tourists regarding the protection of natural resources (Ojong *et al.* 2013:275). This dimension of engaging with the local community contributes to tourist satisfaction and guarantees continuity of ecotourism activities (Stone & Wall 2004:13).

From the elucidation above, it can be concluded that ecotourism is broad – what initially commenced as a concept for actively preserving the environment, has become a promotional tool for tourism marketers (Fennel 2014:1). The pressure on businesses to operate responsibly does not only derive from government alone, tourists are also gradually seeking out products and services that reflect their own values and provide a satisfying emotion of indirect support for the environment and society (TIES 2005; Sharpley 2006:8; Frey & George 2008:111; Situmoranga & Mirzantia 2012:399). Moreover, most of these tourists are mainly looking for authentic, stimulating experiences from nature as they search for a deep sense of self-association with

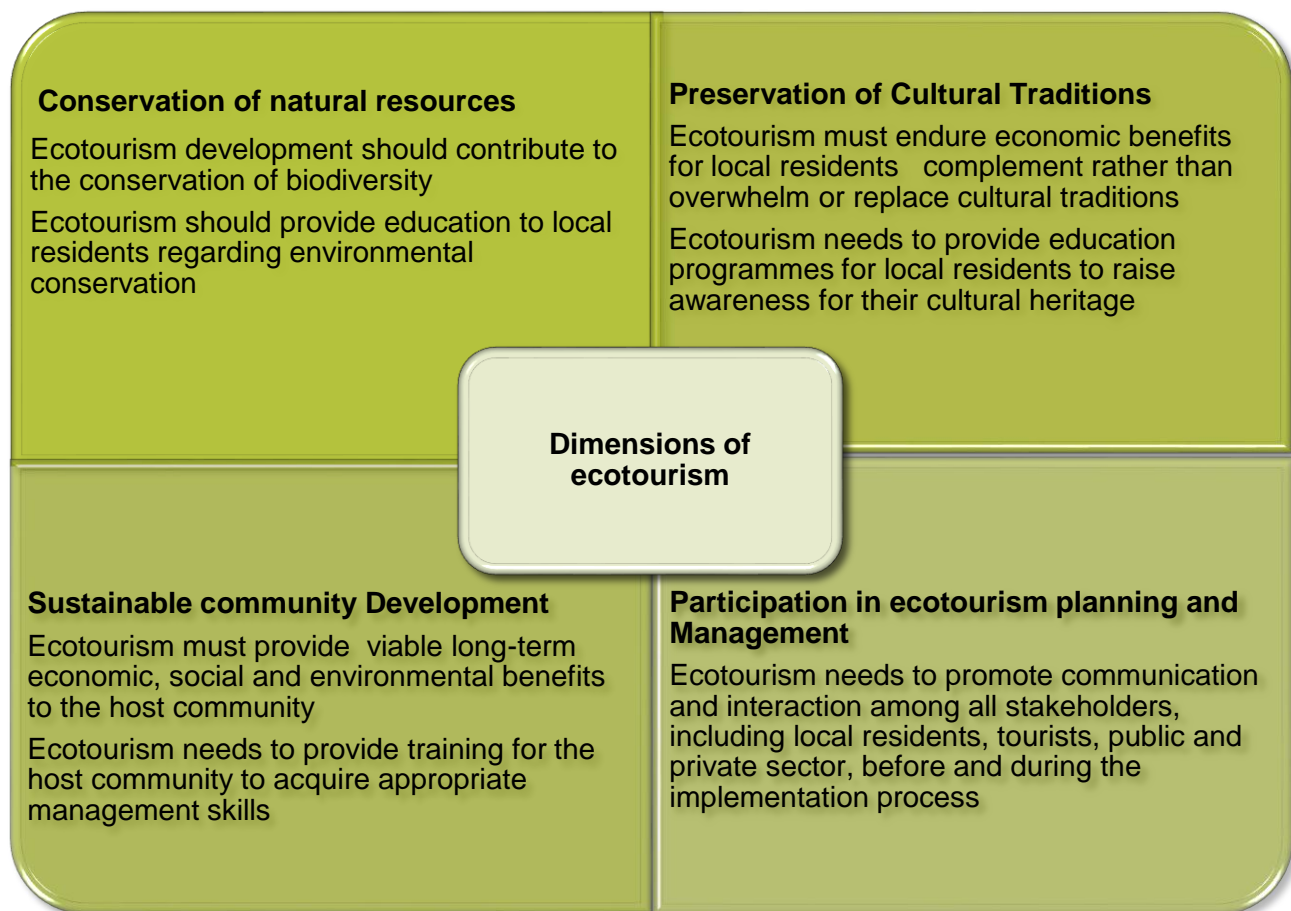planet Earth (Newsome, Moore & Dowling 2013:1). Figure 2.2 provides a summary of dimensions of ecotourism.

Conservation of natural resources

Ecotourism development should contribute to the conservation of biodiversity

Ecotourism should provide education to local residents regarding environmental conservation

Preservation of Cultural Traditions

Ecotourism must endure economic benefits for local residents   complement rather than overwhelm or replace cultural traditions

Ecotourism needs to provide education programmes for local residents to raise awareness for their cultural heritage

Dimensions of ecotourism

Sustainable community Development

Ecotourism must provide viable long-term economic, social and environmental benefits to the host community

Ecotourism needs to provide training for the host community to acquire appropriate management skills

Participation in ecotourism planning and Management

Ecotourism needs to promote communication and interaction among all stakeholders, including local residents, tourists, public and private sector, before and during the implementation process

Figure 2.2: Dimensions of ecotourism

 Adapted from: **Lai and Nepal (2006:1119); Ojong, Eja, Undelikwo & Agbor 2013:275); Cobbinah (2015:182); Das and Chatterjee (2015:4);**

Figure 2.2 provides a clear indication that tourists are willing to support organisations that respect the culture of host communities and are committed to the preservation of the social and natural environments they operate in (Frey & George 2008:111). This is because tourists view confined environmental and social equity as the responsibility of organisations they support (TIES 2005). Hence, numerous destinations are now pursuing ecotourism as part of their sustainable tourism development strategies and responsible management approach (Weaver 2006:191). This shows that ecotourism is an appealing brand that has stimulated interest in the concept *environmental tourism* (Weaver 2008:3). It can furthermore be said that ecotourism is regarded as an important strategy with the capacity to achieve economic and environmental goals as

well as host community upliftment (Lima & d'Hauteserre 2011:185). However, this has led to greater competition among destinations and tourism businesses (Frey & George 2008:111). Therefore one way in which tourism institutes and destinations can distinguish themselves in this highly competitive industry, is by elevating local cultures and heritage (Allen & Brennan 2004:24; Frey 2007b:326).

2.3 ECOTOURISM IN URBAN AREAS

Ecotourism is often connected with exotic, undisturbed, secluded areas, including developing countries. However, by definition it includes parks and green spaces, culture and heritage; therefore the concept can also be adapted to the urban environment (Dodds & Joppe 2001:262). Ecotourism in urban areas takes place in settings that offer some degree of natural sceneries that have otherwise been previously modified by mortal activities (Okech 2009:2). Hence it is these areas of exceptional natural beauty that have aroused an astonishing ecological interest in urban ecotourism (Kelktf, Celik & Eşbah 2010:562).

In order to acquire a clear understanding of urban ecotourism, it is vital to differentiate between natural public and private areas, because they serve different purposes (de Jong 2014:97). Natural public areas offer mainly economic, environmental and social benefits by promoting community integration, nature conservation as well as entrepreneurship (Cobbinah 2015:180), while natural private areas are designed mainly for the sole satisfaction of the owner (Barbosa, Tratalos, Armsworth, Davies, Fuller, Johnson & Gaston 2007:193). Therefore urban ecotourism is simply "the journey into nature and its preservation in an urban environment" (Urban Ecotourism Conference, 2004).

Urban ecotourism has permitted the advantage of turning the natural environment into tourist attractions in urban areas, these natural areas include community parks, graveyards, public gardens, gardens linked to public buildings, school play grounds, and all private gardens that provide an opportunity to access the natural environment (Barbosa *et al*, 2007:193). These natural areas do not only serve as windows of opportunity to fulfil economic, environmental and social functions, but serve as an engine to achieve health and wellness functions (Lange, Hehl-Lange & Brewer 2007:245). Therefore these natural environments deliver a prospect to form

relationships between natural resources, conservation and community development (Lai & Nepal 2006:119). Then tackling sustainability issues in urban communities through urban ecotourism is regarded as a key approach in areas where residential plot sizes are deficient, and where the housing stock is subjected to multi-storeyed buildings (McConnachie & Shackleton 2009:244). Figure 2.3 highlights the relationship between ecotourism and sustainability, and between conservation and development.
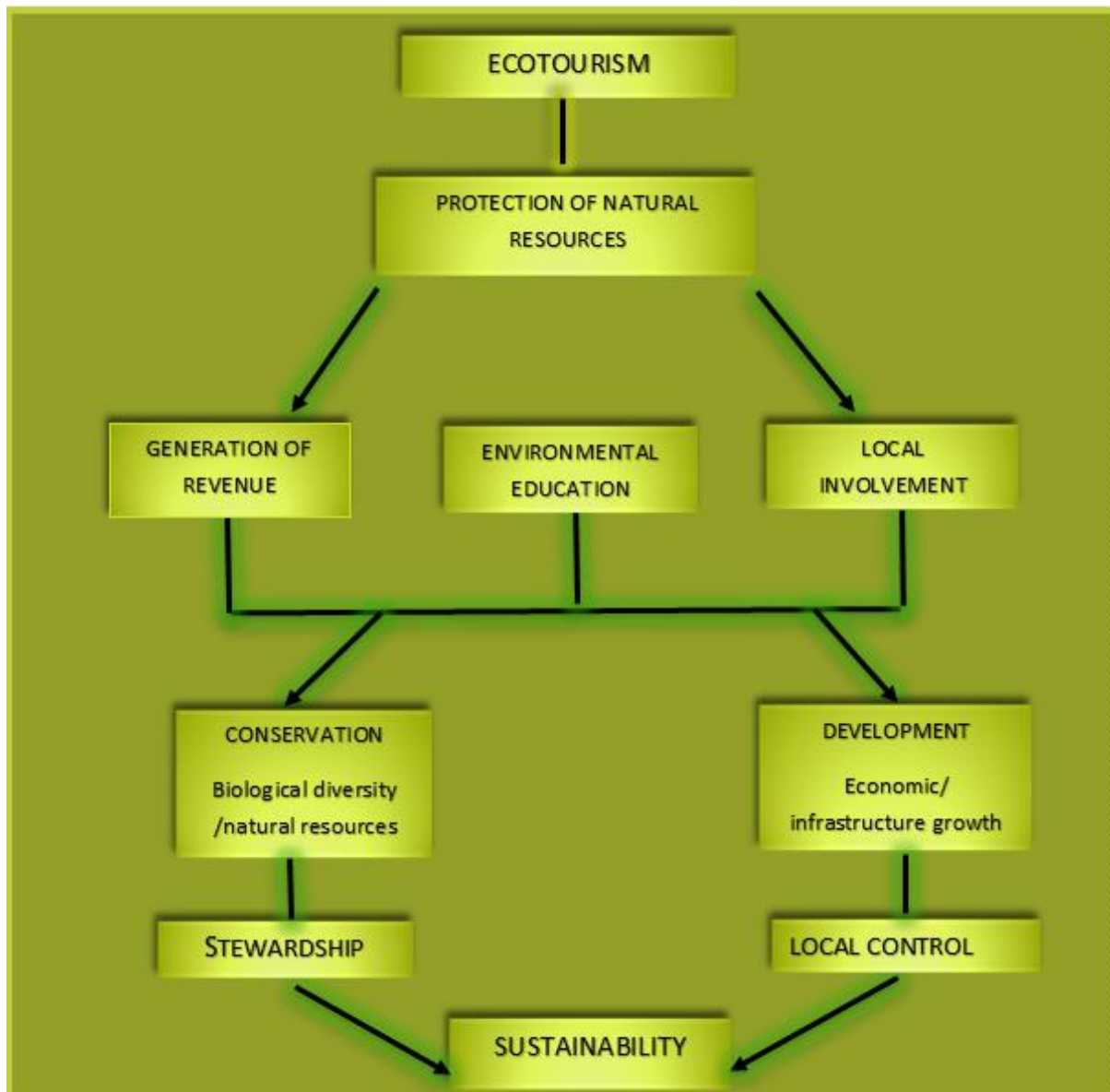

Figure 2.3 Perspective of ecotourism in urban areas
Source: **Cheia (2013:57)**

The Urban Ecotourism Declaration (UED) defines urban ecotourism as a new kind of tourism that does not increase pressure on resources, it is educational and the

emphasis is on underdeveloped urban natural, cultural and restoration of sites that have previously been tainted, obstructed or demolished by industrial and commercial activities (UED 2006; Okech 2009:2). Chen (2006:213) explains that the purpose of such tourism is to appreciate and comprehend the natural and social culture of urban areas. Moreover, urban ecotourism embraces major potential for economic growth while proactively subsidising to local quality of life and environment (UED 2006; Gibson, Dodds, Joppe & Jomieson 2003:324).This means that urban ecotourism does not only focus on economic advancement, but also supports the improvement of life and the environment within local communities.

Although the margins of urban ecotourism are connected to those of urban tourism, their fundamental ideas are significantly different. While on the other hand, urban ecotourism characteristics are similar to those of traditional ecotourism because of their common principles (Wu, Whang & Ho 2009:740). Table 2.2 on the next page, offers a descriptive representation of this notion.

Urban ecotourism has played a tremendous role in remoulding the image of urban areas in developing countries (Rogerson, 2008:15). According to Ramchander (2007:34), the significance of urban areas in South Africa is their connection to social segregation, which makes them different from other deprived areas of the world. Through the political transition and the growing tourism economy, urban areas have become more accessible and host communities are able to retell stories of their struggles against social exclusion promoting cultural integration (Rogerson, 2004:3).

2.3.1 Contextualising Urban Ecotourism

Within the context of this study, urban ecotourism is an approach for conserving protected areas and stimulating economic development in urban areas (Singh 2010:148). The creation of such touristic spaces has enabled host communities to diversify their livelihoods by capitalising on a number of benefits in sustaining the community as well as the tourism industry (Kelktf, Celik & Eşbah 2010:562; Plummer & Fennel 2009:151).

Table 2.2: Similarities and differences between traditional ecotourism and urban ecotourism

SIMILARITIES BETWEEN TRADITIONAL ECOTOURISM AND URBAN ECOTOURISM	DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TRADITIONAL ECOTOURISM AND URBAN ECOTOURISM
- Attractions are based predominantly on the natural environment - Leaning focused through active understanding - Must be managed in through sustainable practices to minimise negative impacts - The natural value of the area is in focus - The carrying capacity should not be exceeded else the biodiversity will - be altered significantly - Contributes actively to the conservation of the natural and cultural heritage - Builds environmental, cultural awareness and respect - Educational opportunities should be given to tourists and hosts - Provide positive experiences both for hosts and visitors - Provides direct financial benefits for conservation - Provides direct benefits and empowerment for local people - The benefits should be equally distributed - Includes local communities in the planning processes - Interpret the natural and cultural heritage of the destination to visitors and hosts - Supports international human rights and labour agreements	- Urban ecotourism attractions are based on the natural environment in urban areas whereas traditional ecotourism attractions can also be situated in rural areas - Urban ecotourism pays more attention to reducing negative impacts of development rather than strengthening it - Urban ecotourism is likely to suffer from more stress due to construction and large amounts of tourists - Urban ecotourism provides potential for the restoration of sites that have previously been degraded, such as the transformation of old buildings turned into museums

Adapted from: **Sæpórsdóttir, Gísladóttir, Grönningsaeter, Zettersten & Högmander (1998:32); Urban Ecotourism Declaration (2006);Saarinen (2006:1121); Björk (2007:29); Higham (2007:5); Weaver (2008:27); International Ecotourism Society (2008); Wu, Wang & Ho (2009:742); Okech (2009:2); Das and Chatterjee (2015:4)**

Urban ecotourism is an alternative to mass tourism due to its limited structure and the minimisation of environmental impacts that trail from it (Wearing & Neil 2009:36). After reviewing the literature on the relative concept, it was discovered that the social, economic and environmental aspects are suggested as the basic indicators for the ecotourism structure (Das & Chatterjee 2015:5; Neth 2008:29); therefore, based on these three aspects and on this study, these traits are personalised to become the urban ecotourism dimensions that measure the potential of a destination (Wu, Whang & Ho 2010:740). Figure 2.4 provides a detailed illustration of this notion.

It can furthermore be said that urban ecotourism is regarded as a strategy for local economic development in areas where poverty abounds and few alternative economic development opportunities are achievable (Booyens 2010:282). Thus, the growth of the tourism industry calls for a larger commitment to the principles of sustainability to harness the benefits of urban ecotourism and to alleviate its possible negative impacts on local residents and the environment (UNWTO 2013:26; Frey & George 2008:108).
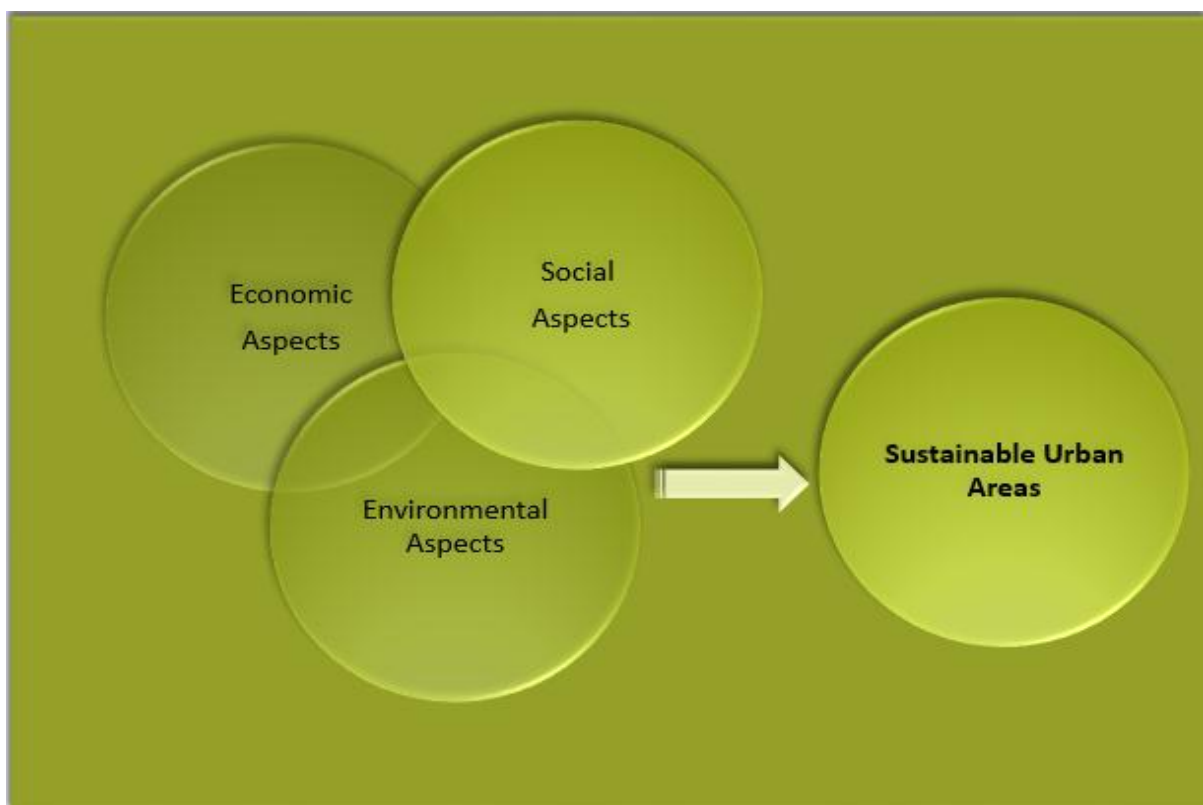

Figure 2.4 Tri-dimensional targeting model of urban ecotourism
Adapted from: **Wu, Whang & Ho (2010:740)**

For purposes of this study, urban ecotourism refers to urban parks and green spaces situated in previously disadvantaged communities.

2.4 SUSTAINABLE URBAN DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable urban development remains one of the most encouraged development concepts globally, and holds the title for being the catalyst for addressing negative tourism impacts and maintaining its long-term vitality in urban areas (Cobinnah, Erdiaw-Kwasie & Amoateng 2015:62; Okech 2009:5).

As the world becomes more urban, it is clear that people's well-being and sustainability are linked to cities and the way they function (Holden, Roseland, Ferguson & Perl 2008:305). Hence urban ecotourism can be considered a subsection of sustainable tourism due to its contribution towards sustainable urban development (Björk 2007:35; Weaver 2008:23). Therefore, the relationship among urban ecotourism and sustainable development is logical, because it is an industry that trades both physical and human environment as its products (Murphy & Price 2005:168).

Like any other concept in tourism research, there is no single universally accepted definition of sustainability and the approaches used to measure it (Agol, Letawiec & Strassburg 2014:1). This is because sustainability is a context dependent notion that embraces different avenues and demands clarity for particular destinations (Bell & Moorse 2008:10). However, the precise definition of sustainable development varies by means of application and context.

The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) also known as the Brundland Report, defines sustainable development as development that meets the needs of the present without conceding the capacity of future generations to meet their own needs (WCED 1987:48). Moreover, sustainable development is adopted as the process of promoting abilities and opportunities to maintain and achieve desirable social, economic and ecological structures for both present and future generations (Cobbinah, Erdiaw-Kwasie & Amoateng 2015:62). However, Tsaur, Lin & Lin (2006:640) assert that sustainable development are procedures of pursuing social fairness and methods of seeking a balance between resource preservation and development. Therefore, in essence, sustainable urban development promotes the

cautious use and conservation of resources in order to sustain the extended viability (Wearing & Neil 2009:10; Telfer & Sharpely 2008:34). Moreover, sustainable urban development is increasingly being recognised for its economic potential and its contribution to poverty alleviation (Spenceley 2008:8; UNWTO 2006:37). However, Ghorab and Shalaby (2016:497) assert that sustainable urban development is based on cities striving to reduce their environmental impacts by decreasing waste, escalating recycling, increasing housing concentration while intensifying open green spaces, and promoting the development of sustainable local businesses.

Since the Rio Earth Summit of June 1992, a range of sustainability indictors were formulated as a strategic approach to pursue sustainability-related decision-making processes (Agol, Latawiec & Stassburg 2014:1). It is generally agreed on that these indicators should possess features or processes of human-environmental systems in order to ensure their continuity and functionality in the future (Hak, Moldan & Dahl 2007:10). Sustainability indicators also attempt to encapsulate complex and diverse processes in relatively simple measures, while at the same time maximising unique and diverse benefits (Agol *et al.* 2014:2). It is therefore recognised as a complex phenomenon that embraces the protection of natural resources and promotes participation of all tourism development stakeholders (Murphy & Price 2005:148). Thus, despite the lack of agreement in definition and validity of sustainable urban development, there is some kind of consensus that in order to encounter the developmental and environmental objectives of sustainable urban development, there are numerous requirements that need to be considered (Telfer & Sharpley 2016:46). These requirements entail the following:

The overall objectives of sustainable urban development, namely:

- *Environmental Factors*: In relation to these factors the focus is on every aspect that concerns the natural and cultural environment (Cobbinah 2015:182).
- *Economic Factors*: These factors are related to tourism management, foreign exchange earnings through the import and export of natural resources and investments in foreign countries (Raina & Agarwal 2004:27).
- *Social Factors*: These are related to people, their lives, the relationships they establish, employment and other factors related to tourism development (Díaz & Norman 2006:1).

Figure 2.5 below depicts how environmental factors support economic and social factors towards successful sustainable urban development.

Figure 2.5: Environmental support for economic and social factors
Adapted from: **Browney, Walmsley and Taar (2006:8)**

The concept *sustainable urban development* signifies the meeting point for environmentalists and developers (Dresner 2002:64). This implies that sustainable urban development may be thought of as an amalgamation of three processes, namely urban areas, development and sustainability. This is so because 'development' and 'sustainability' are both open for clarification (Telfer & Sharpely 2008:32).

Carlos (2004:4) defines development as the capability of a country or region to determine, approve and decide their existing future constraints with less costs and negative impacts varying from social, economic, cultural and environmental risks. Moreover, the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), state that development is any form of change that aims to stimulate harmony among people, and between humanity and nature; therefore development is not entirely economy orientated, but a qualitative form of expansion (WCED 2006), while sustainability

involves maintaining a balance between these variables for effective management over time (Agol, Latawiec & Strassburg 2014:2; Telfer & Sharpely 2008:34). These aspects should then be implemented in urban areas, in order to pursue a successful, sustainable urban development.

Urban ecotourism is without a doubt in a special position to contribute positively to sustainable urban development (UNWTO 2005:9). This is because urban ecotourism represents the foremost, and occasionally the only, route to development in urban areas; hence the need to ensure that its contribution to sustainable urban development is elevated (Tefler & Sharpley 2008:32). However, as summarised in Figure 2.6, in order to ensure that sustainable urban development is successfully implemented and measurable, it should occur within the environmental scale and guided by the following principles:

- *Holistic perspective*: sustainability and development are global encounters;
- *Futurity*: emphasis should be long-term and based on the future;
- *Equity*: development should be rational and unbiased both within and between generations (Telfer & Sharpley 2016:48).

Therefore it can be said that urban ecotourism can be seen as an attempt to improve and increase the involvement and ownership of local communities at the destination end (Mowforth & Munt 2003:218). Although urban ecotourism is still in its infancy, political changes have stimulated increased interest in the incredible mix of cultures found in urban communities (Ramchander 2007:149).

Fundamental Principles	• Holistic Approach: development and environmental issues, integrated with a global social, economic and environmental context. • Futurity: focus on long-term capacity for continuance of the global ecosystem and human subsystem. • Equity: development that is fair and equitable, and which provides opportunities for access of resources for all members of all societies, both in the present and the future.
Development Objectives	• Millenium development goals and beyond. • Improvemnet of the quality of life for all people: education, life expectancy and opportunities to fulfil potential. • Satisfaction of basic needs: concentrating on the nature of what is provided rather than income. • Self reliance: political freedom and local decision making for local needs.
Sustainability Objectives	• Poverty reduction. • Sustainable population levels. • Minimal depletion of non-renewable and natural resources. • Pollution emissions within the assimilative capacity of the environment.
Requirements for sustainable urban development	• Sustainable consumption: adoption of a new social paradigm relevent to sustainable living. • Sustainable production: biodiversity protection; technological systems that can search continuously for new solutions to environmental problems. • Sustainable distribution systems: international and national political and economic systems dedicated to development and resource use. • Technological systems that can search continuously for new solutions to environental problems. • Global alliance facilitating integrated devlopment policies at local, national and international levels.

Figure 2.6 Principles and objectives of sustainable urban development

Source: **Telfer and Sharpley (2016:50)**

Thus community involvement and participation is important to gain community support for tourism development projects and to ensure that the benefits relate to the host community's needs (Cole 2006:57). Previous studies show that community attitudes towards protected areas are related to education, participation, and benefits and costs (Lai & Nepal 2006:1118; Ormsby & Mannie 2006:273; Stronza & Gordillo 2008:449 Chen & Liu 2009:32). These aspects will be discussed in detail in chapter three.

2.5 URBAN ECOTOURISM IN PRACTICE

As custodians of Johannesburg's sustainable heritage, Johannesburg City Parks in collaboration with Johannesburg Zoo, is a registered non-profit company under the South African Companies Act, No 71 of 2008 as amended. The merger is a result of the institutional review process of the City of Johannesburg. Johannesburg City Parks and Zoo (JCPZ) is authorised by the City of Johannesburg to manage the city's parks, cemeteries and elected public open spaces as well as confirming that its environmental conservation function is carried out, which includes the development and maintenance of all parks within the Johannesburg borders, with the preservation and management of biodiversity through direct conservation action, education, research and recreation (City Parks 2016). Figure 2.7 presents a breakdown of the products and Services provided by the JCPZ.

Johannesburg Zoo has an increase of about 326 species consisting of 2 096 specimens. The collection consists of 20 Amphibians (Frogs), 5 Arachnida (Spiders), 12 8 Aves (Birds), 47 Reptiles, 25 Pisces fish and 101 Mammals, while, Johannesburg City Parks on the other hand, has a growing portfolio in addition to the 20 000 of green open spaces and 3.2 million trees that have been planted in public spaces over the past year (City Parks 2016).

As one of the recipients of the conservation initiative, Ivory Park is one community, amongst others, that benefited from JCPZ. Ivory Park is a dormitory settlement alongside Maokeng, Kaalfontein and Ebony Park. Ivory Park has a confounding population of 184 383, it comprises approximately 14 627 official stands (Stats SA 2011), on which the City of Johannesburg has built about 452 houses since the area was transformed into a township 14 years ago. Additional houses are being built at the subsidy of the provincial and national government (City Parks 2016).

The streets of Ivory Park are always teeming with people crowds of young and old loiterers who almost make the streets seem deceitful. However, with few industrial sites close by, including manufacturing, financial, insurance, property, business and social services, construction and transportation, it is seen to be a township with potential. For a long time Ivory Park had no recreational facilities, road signs or electricity (City of Johannesburg 2016). With many residents being unemployed and homes occupied by large families who share the same limited resources and some depending on informal businesses such as carpentry, car mechanics, shoe repairs and street vendors who sell fresh produce, life was very hard (City Parks 2016).
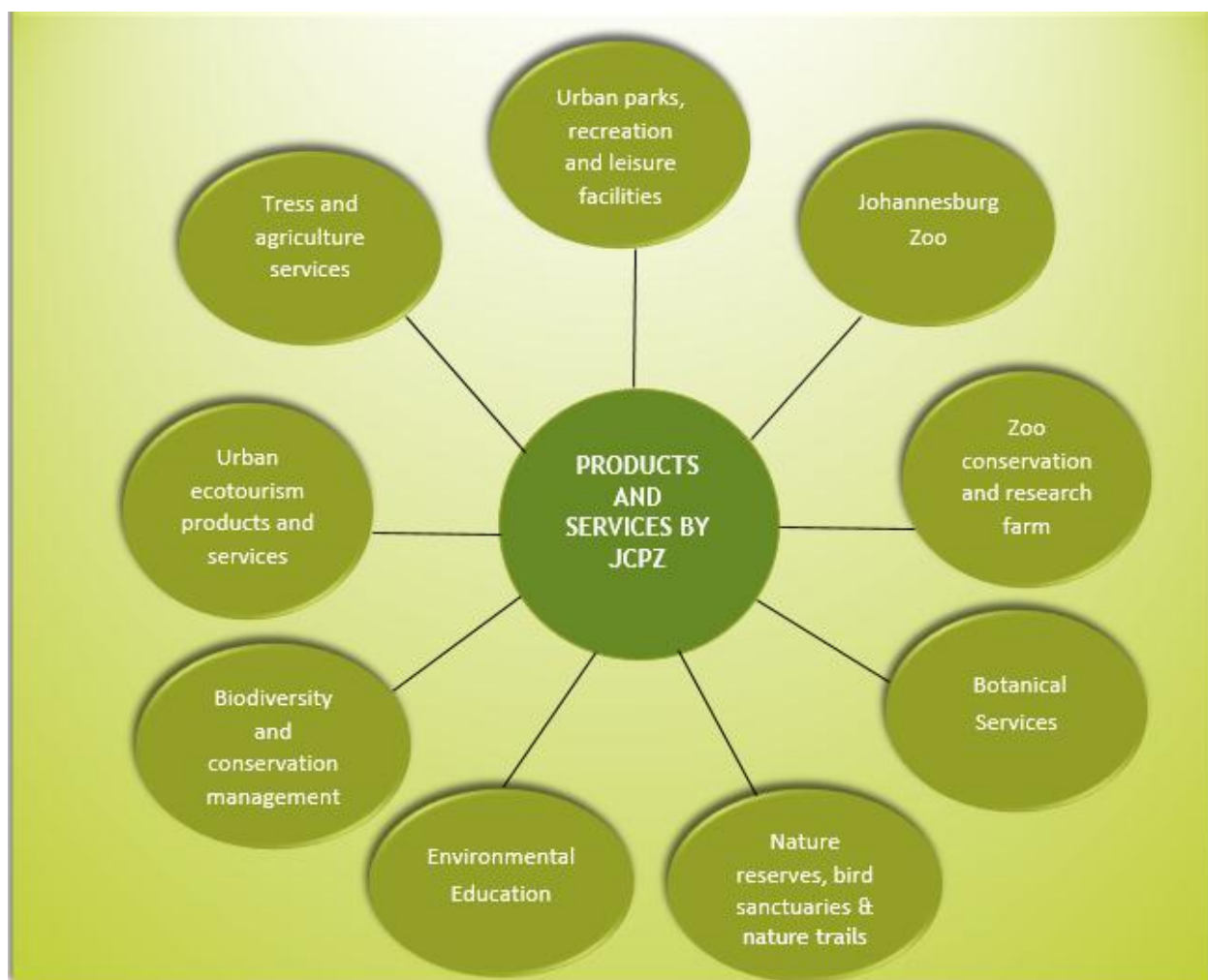
Figure 2.7: Products and services offered by JCPZ
*Adapted from***: JCPZ (2016)**

It was through the intervention of the different departments of the Johannesburg Municipality including City Power and the JCPZ that hope and resilience was restored

among the residents of Ivory Park and neighbouring communities. Due to an increase in demand for sanitation services, the City of Johannesburg spent more or less R495-million between July 2006 and December 2009 as part of their sewer infrastructure upgrade and expansion programme on bulk wastewater and sewer networks. For the safety contribution to their customers and the beautification of the city, City Power rolled out 184 264 public lights around Johannesburg, of which 4 000 were installed in Ivory Park, Kaalfontein and Maokeng (City of Jo'burg 2016).

The JCPZ added their Environmental Conservation Development (ECD) project, which gave birth to The Ivory Regional Park. The mandate was to protect, manage and restore the integrity of the City of Johannesburg's ecological systems by giving special attention to biological diversity. Cultural landscapes and the natural processes within open spaces were also formed part of the mandate. It was after this R4 million upgrade that landed the Ivory Regional Park on top of the United Nation's list which enabled the JCPZ to walk away with the Liveable Communities (LivCom) Award in 2007 (City Parks 2015).

The availability of parks and recreation facilities is an important quality of life factor for municipal corporations choosing where to locate facilities and for individuals choosing a place to live (Batra 2014). Urban Parks are important as they help improve physical and psychological health, strengthen communities through social interactions, and make cities and neighbourhoods more attractive places to live and work through conservation initiatives (Stossel, Kissinger & Meir 2015;153). Therefore, green spaces in urban areas should be well maintained as they provide substantial economic, social and environmental benefits and stand a chance of becoming urban ecotourism attractions.

Although, from a distance, Ivory Park can easily be misjudged as being a slum, it is a liveable place with an urban design. Even though it may be crowded and frayed, its uneven look adds an exceptional dimension – being that it is a South African township of which its residents are a close-knit community of various cultural backgrounds, who embrace one another and live together in harmony (Maduma 2010:3). Consequently, from the details presented above, it is evident that the Ivory Regional Park has the potential of being one of the biggest attractions in the urban ecotourism industry. This

is realised by the fact that from the onset The Ivory Regional Park was developed based on the principles of urban ecotourism, which happen to be the JCPZ objectives, namely:

To ensure sound management of biodiversity, cultural and natural processes and systems. The modern environmental management literature articulates the essential need for community inclusion in identifying indicators to monitor management processes towards sustainable development and environmental purposes (Fraser, Dougill, Mabee, Reed & McAlpine 2006:114).

To promote open-space based environmental education and awareness. Environmental education is an attempt to direct behaviours and resident identities; thus the necessity for environmental educators to be honest and critical about the favouritisms, values, and cultural ideas that guide their teaching and curriculum and are replicated through it (Cole 2007:36). Moreover, environmental education programmes will nurture flexibility in urban social ecological systems through enhancement of organic diversity and ecosystem services, and through integration of diverse forms of knowledge and participatory processes in resource management (Krasny & Tidball 2009:465). However, Orr (2005:92) asserts that creating awareness through education is the art of living well where residents are placed.

To co-ordinate and determine the development of the urban ecotourism products and programmes (choice and diversity). Urban ecotourism products should fulfil three core criteria, namely that attractions should be primarily nature based, tourist interactions with those attractions should be inspired by learning or education, and experience and product management must follow principles and practices related to ecological, socio-cultural and economic sustainability (Weaver & Lawton 2007:1170). Therefore, as stated by Edwards, Griffin and Hayllar (2008:1038), urban ecotourism is among many social, economic and environmental services in the urban environment. It incorporates an industry that manages and markets a variety of products and experiences to people who have a wide range of motivations, preferences and cultural perspectives and are involved in an engagement with the host community.

To develop strategies/policies for Johannesburg City Parks in compliance with environmental legislation. The plot to regulate and facilitate efficiently, JCPJ needs an understanding of the operative and requirements of various stakeholders within the urban environment so as to bring about a smooth operation in collaboration with governments and recognition of community values (Edwards *et al.* 2008:1038).

To enhance and maximise the role of open-space functioning. Public parks play a vital role in the subsidiary of the environment and provide important ecosystem services in urban areas (Barbosa, Tratalos, Armsworth, Davies, Fuller, Davies, Johnson & Gaston 2007:187). If properly implemented, urban ecotourism offers wider economic, environmental and social benefits, since it incorporates a shared focus to diverse communities and neighbourhoods (Germann-Chiari & Seeland 2004:4; Martin, Warren & Kinzig 2004:355).

To improve the general quality of the urban green environment. Residents demand a more active role in the planning and decisions made regarding the green spaces situated within their communities (Balram & Dragićević 2005:148). These demands are driven by: the desire to improve the quality of community life (Edwards *et al.* 2008:1033), the desire for environmental protection (Youdelis 2013:161), the desire for participation in decisions that will affect their lives (Fun, Chiun, Songan & Naird 2014:60), concern for social conditions, the need for satisfaction with their (residents') surroundings and mistrust of representations made by elected officials (Evans-Cowley & Hollander 2010:397).

Urban ecotourism provides an opportunity and suitable standard for all living things without depleting the ecological unit and organic cycles they depend on (Hold 2009:44). Moreover, urban ecotourism is not focused exclusively on the basis of previously disadvantaged protected areas in townships, it has facilitated its growth and provided local communities with an opportunity to participate in its development (Smith & Robinson 2006:04). Hence cultural heritage is responsible for creating an authentic atmosphere for the community, which in turn creates an identity for the place as an urban ecotourism destination (Ivanovic 2008:125).

2.6 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to analyse the concept and nature of ecotourism in urban areas. This was achieved by firstly analysing and understanding the development, uniqueness and definition of traditional ecotourism as well as urban ecotourism. Secondly, contextualising and defining urban ecotourism in order to comprehend the application of this concept to the tourism industry. Attention was also given to various models of ecotourism, characteristics as well as dimensions.

In this chapter emphasis was placed on the necessity to understand how ecotourism dimensions can be implemented in protected areas of urban settings. Although research findings suggest that urban ecotourism is still in its early stages of development, and despite the lack of consensus over its definition and viability, urban ecotourism is the future for many urban areas in developing countries. It is generally acknowledged that in the urban ecotourism world, the more exclusive, unique and exceptional a city is, the more chances it stands of prospering.

The urban ecotourism adoption process is depicted as a phased array of development that uses sustainability as an entry and existing theme throughout the operation process (Taylor & Murphy 2004:283). Therefore governments and policy makers should involve the community when structuring and developing policies in order for them to have a successful urban ecotourism industry. Hence the following chapter will focus on the importance of policies and how they influence community perceptions and participation in urban ecotourism, as well as on the role of communities during the implementation processes of urban ecotourism.

CHAPTER 3

URBAN ECOTOURISM

DEVELOPMENT PLANNING

AND MANAGEMENT

3

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Urban ecotourism has been identified as a method of sustainable tourism that is expected to subsidise to both conservation and development in urban areas (Tsaur, Lin & Lin 2006:640)**.** However, tourism development is a multifaceted process encompassing the coming together of national and international development negotiators and key stakeholder groups with policy, planning and regulations (Tefler & Sharpley 2008:80). Therefore it goes without saying that the impacts of many modern tourism activities on nature and the environment are influenced by the national and international policies (Reid, Mair & George 2004:624; van der Straaten 2006:221)**.**

Although the concept *principal planning* has been around for some time, the need for maximum level of strategic planning involving the obvious enduring consent between all stakeholders within the urban ecotourism destination is the ultimate social variation in which all citizens are demanding (Sala 2010:871). This is important, especially when there is a higher level of participation in the formulation of which has an impact on their lives (Goeldner & Ritchie 2009:413). Hence, the essential aspect towards the success of tourism development is the balance of the consistent relationship between the tourists, host communities, the environment, and the organisations and businesses that offer tourism product services (Zhang, Inbakaran & Jackson 2006:182).

Support and pride from the host communities in tourism development is imperative, especially in urban ecotourism where the host community forms part of the product; hence community involvement in planning is likely to result in more appropriate decisions, and protection of the environment is most likely to be supported (Cole

2008:58; Cobbinah 2015:182). When collaboration with host communities in urban ecotourism projects is experienced, these projects convert to a form of community development (Reiner & Walter 2013:123). Hence, without the host community's support, the urban ecotourism industry will be prone to encounter difficulties concerning the growth and expansion of amenities which may result in failure of development (Scholtz 2014:19).

For purposes of this study, public green spaces within urban areas are regarded as urban ecotourism attractions. Therefore this chapter elaborates on an important definition of major policies reflecting on urban ecotourism and the long-term impact they may have on the environment, economy and society. Secondly, host communities' participation in urban ecotourism development is examined. Lastly, selected strategies of development as potential tools to assist in meeting the developmental goals of a destination and potential benefits are discussed. Figure 3.1 below demonstrates the layout of this chapter.
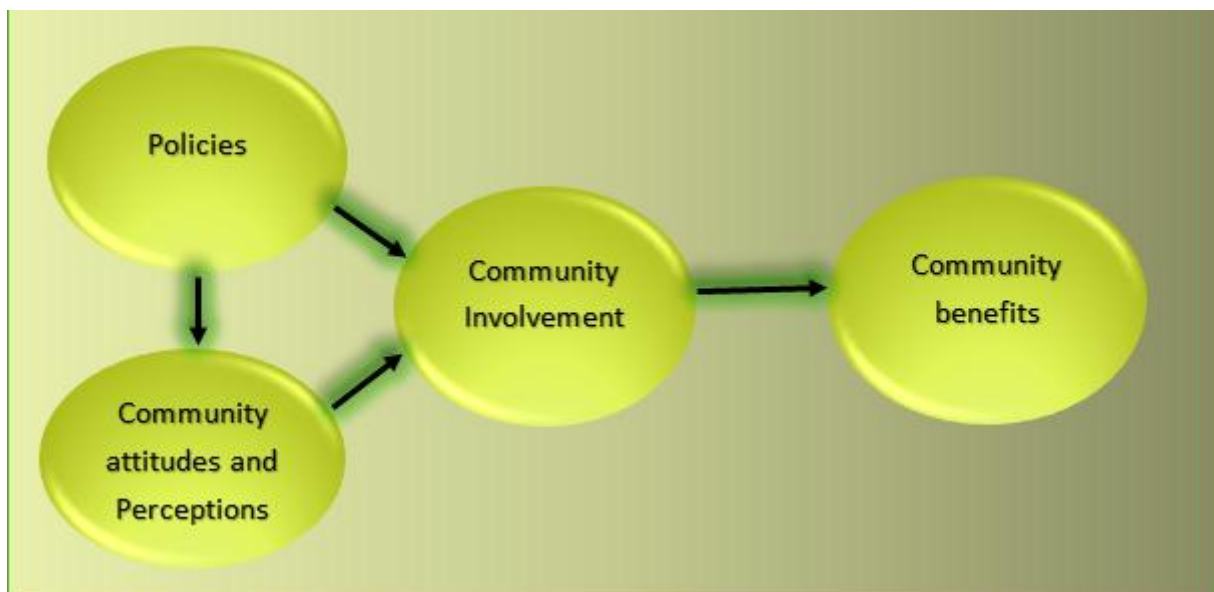
Figure 3.1: Urban ecotourism theory
Source: **Adapted from Reiner and Walter (2013:123); Scholtz (2014:19); Cobbinah (2015:123)**

3.2 IMPORTANCE OF URBAN ECOTOURISM

The value of urban ecotourism planning goes beyond the mere influence of air quality and its impact on social behaviour, it refines and recognises protected areas in cities as a central component of a community's overall green structure (Young 2010:314). The Department of Transport, Local Government and the Regions in the United Kingdom (DTLR 2002:78) highlights the significance of urban parks as a treasured and precious resource as these contribute greatly towards the attractiveness of neighbourhoods, comfort and health of host communities as well as the development of educational opportunities (de Jong 2014:103).

Moreover, urban parks are regarded as vital assets within the local community's infrastructure as well as essential mechanisms in addressing a broader range of environmental and societal issues (Young 2010:314). The Sheffield City Council (2008:5) also stresses the importance of well-managed green spaces as attributes to urban areas becoming more attractive for working and living in. In essence, urban green spaces should be recognised as they play a critical role in backing urban environmental and social systems (de Jong 2014:101). Therefore the number of green spaces conveyed within a city or town as well as the impact of these green spaces, and the ease of access to them are fundamental forces towards economic, social and environmental functions within urban areas (Barbosa, Tratalos, Armsworth, Davies, Fuller, Jonhson & Gaston 2007:187).

However, despite these treasured contributions of urban green spaces, the Department of Transport, Local Government and the Regions (2002:78) quantified that these instrumental resources are often ignored, resulting in a loss of potential benefits. Therefore, in order to enhance the potential and benefits these urban areas can deliver, it is critical to concentrate on the quality of the green spaces, involvement of all stakeholders as well as the management of these spaces when formulating policies. Hence the following section will focus on the impact governments have on urban ecotourism as regulatory bodies behind policy formulation and implementation.

3.3 URBAN ECOTOURISM PLANNING

In order for tourism projects to be executed, the involvement of certain key role-players such as the government, private sector and host communities is imperative (Boniface & Cooper 2010:10). Government interventions are considered necessary for the urban ecotourism sector, since it is closely linked to the public and social equity (Anderson & Getz 2009:847). Moreover, while the urban ecotourism policy is related to sustainability, social responsibility, governance, stakeholder participation, attitudes and perceptions of host communities (Getz & Page 2016:848), there has been a growing interest in government policy aspects that mirror the scale of the urban ecotourism sector and its related controversies (Lee 2016:188).

3.3.1 Government Policy on Urban Ecotourism

Policy can be defined as a set of regulations, rules, guidelines, directives and development objectives and strategies that provide a framework of collective and individual decisions that have an impact on the long-term tourism development and daily activities within a destination (Saayman & Swart 2004:16; Hall 2009:42; Goelder & Ritchie 2009:414). According to Bridgman and Davis (2004:3), policy is the vehicle that drives government officials towards making a difference in society. Moreover, Sharma (2013:16), regards policy as an initiative implemented by government through legislation. However, Dye (1978:3), assert that policy is everything that government chooses to implement or side-step. This definition provides a thorough understanding of what policy is, as it simply implies that governments make final decisions about what is significant and insignificant and therefore which issues receive responsiveness and resources and which issues do not (Dredge & Jenkins 2007:5). Therefore from the above explanations, policy can be regarded as the instrument that guides supremacy; these are principles that direct the use of public resources.

It is imperative to recognise that policies cannot emerge in separation, but as a result of the interests and morals of all stakeholders who have an impact on the development and management procedures of urban ecotourism (Hall 2003:21).Thus, as indicated in Chapter 2, before policies can be formulated it is of utmost importance to have a clear and thorough understanding of urban ecotourism aims and objectives. Hence it is imperative for policy makers to take the following questions into consideration when developing policies:

- Who should be involved in urban ecotourism policy development?
- Which principles will be used as guidelines for urban ecotourism development?
- Why would individuals and organisations want to be involved in urban ecotourism?
- Where will urban ecotourism take place?
- What type of activities make up the urban ecotourism industry?
- How should urban ecotourism be carried out, if at all? (Björk 2007:31).

As mentioned above, the main aim and principle of successful urban ecotourism planning is the application of quality and effective management (Barbosa *et al.* 2007:187), because without effective planning it may result in unforeseen and undesirable impacts. Therefore planning is imperative to rejuvenate the urban ecotourism sector and to maintain its feasibility for the future (UNWTO 1994:4).

Equally imperative in urban ecotourism planning is the ease of access to public green spaces (Barbosa *et al.* 2007:187). Shackleton and Blair (2013:105), assert that ease of access refers to the spreading of public green space within cities including the closeness of these public green spaces to where people live and work, without hurdles that prevent access such as long distances, unsafe routes and entrance fees. This is an important trait that has an impact across different spheres of society. For example, urban areas are more exposed to losing private green spaces due to the paving of private gardens. Therefore the presence of green spaces enhances the image of the location; thus increases value of life (Lange *et al.* 2007:245). This then results in situations whereby the cost of renting a room will be directly linked to the quality of the surrounding area.

The formulation of urban ecotourism, policies, plans and implementation is inhibited as a result of power wrestles among the key role-players (Yasarata, Altiny, Burns & Okumus 2010:345). This is due to the lack of consensus regarding the general definition of urban ecotourism which creates challenges for regulation (Hall 2004:139). Secondly, planning takes place in an institutional context. Healey (2007:13) advocates that the institutional context can be understood within two perspectives, namely the hard structures and the soft structures. The hard structures entail the legal framework

that outlines the rights and duties of all stakeholders involved in policy formulation, while the soft structures include the written and verbal rules of participation and the benefits and ethics of individuals involved (Healey 2007:13).

Thirdly, a range of issue drivers push the focus of government to encourage their own interest in urban ecotourism planning (Dredge & Jenkins 2007:18). Bridgman and Davis (2004:24) assert that issue drivers are internal and external forces that influence the regulation of urban ecotourism planning as indicated in Table 3.1. These drivers correspond with one another and influence the way in which urban ecotourism policies are perceived and accepted (Dredge & Jenkins 2007:18). Therefore it can be concluded that policy formulation is a complex process and demands a solid commitment and compromise from all stakeholders involved in order to acquire an in-depth understanding of other people's views, so that effective and viable policies can be regulated.

Table 3.1: Drivers of urban ecotourism planning

DRIVERS	EXTERNAL	INTERNAL
Economic	Regional and urban decline Employment generation Add value to natural resources Economic measures (e.g. tax, incentives, grants)	Factory closures in a particular locality Availability of local investment capital
Sociocultural	The valuing of different cultures Drive to increase standard of living (through employment generation and increased economic activity) To promote skill development population growth and patterns of population movement	Availability of skills and expertise of the local community Community support and interest Availability and marketability of local cultural resources
Environmental	Increasing consumer awareness about sustainability Increased political pressure to protect and enhance natural environments	Availability of skills and expertise within the local community Community support and interest

	Government commitment towards environmental awareness and appreciation	Availability and marketability of local cultural resources
Public Administration	Implementation of liberal public management ideas including downsizing, outsourcing, enabling, emphasis of cost-effectiveness and efficiency of government	Outsourcing of local destination marketing functions Local budgets
Political	International community pressures (e.g. international conventions) Interest group pressures (e.g. community groups, peak industry associations) Media coverage and commentary	The extend of urban ecotourism interests and support within a local community Political influence of urban ecotourism stakeholders
Technological	Advances in transport technology Advances in information dissemination e.g. Internet, booking services	Availability of technological advances in the local community

Source: **Dredge and Jenkins (2007:19)**

Policies for urban ecotourism should concentrate on the theory of uplifting local communities in order to create an induction or solid groundwork for a more community-oriented and environmentally sustainable culture (Cowan, Lakeman, Leis, Lerch, & Semenza 2006:11). Therefore the following section will be based on different policy initiatives related to urban ecotourism from an international perspective, and will then be narrowed down to the national perspective (South African context) to align the content with the purpose of this study.

3.3.2 International Context

Amongst others, the following policies were adopted as the most viable regulators for urban ecotourism on an international scale:

a) The Green Tourism Association, Toronto

The Green Tourism Association (GTA) was initiated in Toronto, Canada in 1996 as a viable mechanism for developing and taming a more green tourism industry (Miles & Currie 2000:1). As a high class city rich in cultural and natural attributes, Toronto's

need to consider the economic, environmental and social impacts of tourism was unquestionable due to high volumes of tourism activity taking place in the city (Gibson, Dodds, Joppe & Jamieson 2003:325). Therefore a need for a sustainable form of tourism was advocated, which lead to the birth of GTA. The GTA defines urban ecotourism as a phenomenon that encompasses four aspects, namely:

- Environmental responsibility: guarding and improving nature and the physical environment;
- Local economic vitality: promoting local businesses to guarantee economic sustainability and life;
- Cultural Sensitivity: Respecting and promoting cultural diversity to ensure local security of host cultures; and
- Experiential richness: Delivering satisfying experiences through active participation (Gibson *et al* 2003:325).

The GTA's main objective is to 'develop and foster a green tourism industry within the Toronto region and around the world; an industry which is ecologically sound, promotes the respect and appreciate varied cultural and natural heritage and toughens local economies and communities (Jobbe & Dodds 1998:35).

Dodds and Joppe (2003:36), highlight that the GTA is the first institute in the world to emphasise the expansion and advancement of urban ecotourism, and one that offers the best training and education that promotes the development of a sustainable approach towards tourism. Moreover the association also inspires tourism businesses to take responsibility of the operations of their businesses (Dodds & Joppe 2003:36). Therefore it can be said that the GTA paved the way for global adoption of urban ecotourism as an engine for sustainable urban development.

b) The Urban White Paper, England

It was after a substantial drop in the quality of green spaces experienced in England since the 19th century that the new Labour Government saw to recognise the need to develop a new urban ecotourism policy in 1997, one that acknowledges the significant contribution of urban ecotourism planning as the bridge towards quality of life (Wilson & Hughes 2011:207).

The Urban White Paper was therefore executed in order to set out the policy agenda with measures to improve the quality of urban ecotourism planning (DETR 2000). These measures are subjected but not limited to:

- Urban Parks Initiative: aimed at renovating and refining parks and gardens;
- Taking environmental action: permitting and funding conservation volunteer groups to increase the quality of local environments;
- Sustainable Communities Programme: aimed at the crafting and refining of green spaces that are considered by local communities to be important;
- Raising standards: enlightening the provision and management of urban parks and public open spaces.

Another urban ecotourism strategy originated in England and certifies biodiversity conservation to be an essential part of sustainable urban communities. England's Biodiversity Strategy is implemented in towns, cities and other developments with ease of access as one of the main indicators directing this strategy (Barbosa *et al.* 2007:188).

In turn, the Urban Green Spaces Taskforce was recognised in 2001 and published the report named 'Green Spaces, Better Places' in May the following year, regarding the upgrading of green space provision, design, control and maintenance (Wilson & Hughes 2011:213). In order for these measures and frameworks to be implemented, Planning Policy Guidance (PPG) highlighted the national objectives (Wilson & Hughes 2011:213). These objectives include:

- Sport and recreation
- Supporting an urban regeneration;
- Promotion of social presence and community unity;
- Endorsing health and well-being; and
- Promoting sustainable urban development (Wilson & Hughes 2011:214).

The above objectives were not specifically for the purpose of urban ecotourism planning and sport, but dominant in the government's urban revival agenda and

therefore highlights the essential role of urban ecotourism planning in urban regeneration (Wilson & Hughes 2011:215).

c) *eco*Budget, United Nations (UN)

Another international methodology in the interest of urban ecotourism planning is the application of the ecoBudget, realised by the United Nations Human Settlement Programme (UN HABITAT). Robrecht and Meyrick (2008:4), state that ecoBudget is an environmental administration system (especially designed for local government) whereby natural resources and environmental features are measured within a budget in order to assist with sustainable urban development and efficient control of urban environments (Robrecht & Meyrick 2008:8). The initiative was adopted by countries such as Sweden, India and the Philippines to test its viability that is measured by means of specific indicators, chosen to reflect the financial status of each country and the ecosystems (Robrecht & Meyrick 2008:4).

The ultimate goal of the ecoBudget is to plan, control, monitor, report, and evaluate the intake of natural resources such as climate stability, air quality, land, water, raw materials, and biodiversity (Robrecht & Meyrick 2008:9). It therefore mirrors the cycles and phases of the country's financial budget (Robrecht & Meyrick 2008:9).

The advantage of environmental budgeting is that it contributes to and supports sustainable performance of local governments as well as improved devotion to natural resources and environmental quality (Robrecht & Meyrick 2008:16).

Table 3.2: Summary of international urban ecotourism planning initiatives

INITIATIVE/PROJECT	AIM
The Green Tourism Association, Toronto	'Develop and foster a green tourism industry within the Toronto region and around the world; an industry which is ecologically sound, promotes the respect for and appreciates varied cultural and natural heritage and toughens local economies and communities'

Urban White Paper, England	To set out the policy agenda with measures to improve the quality of urban ecotourism planning
*eco*Budget, United Nations (UN) (Sweden, India and the Philippines)	To plan, control, monitor, report, and evaluate the quality of natural resources such as climate stability, air quality, land, water, raw materials, and biodiversity
	To mirror the cycles and phases of the country's financial budget

Adapted from: **de Jong (2014:118)**

The following section will focus on policies adopted within the national context with specific reference to South Africa.

3.3.3 South African Context

The challenges faced by developing countries such as South Africa regarding urban ecotourism planning and maintenance of public green spaces in towns differ from those of the developed world as discussed in the previous section (Shackleton & Blair 2013:104). Developing countries undergo high levels of urbanisation and population growth preventing urban planning organisations to keep up with planning in areas that are being targeted for land invasion (McConnachie & Shackleton 2009:245). Therefore, South Africa as a developing country, provides a thought-provoking platform to examine the distribution of public green space in a developing country in relation to those of developed countries (McConnachie & Shackleton 2009:245).

The section that follows will elaborate further on initiatives adopted by South African cities regarding urban ecotourism. Attention will be centred on Johannesburg's initiatives as it is the focus of this study. However, policies implemented in other cities will also be highlighted.

a) Johannesburg

Since the post-apartheid era (1994), numerous initiatives have been adapted and implemented to transform Johannesburg into a "world-class city". One such initiative, amongst others, is the RDP (Reconstruction and Development Programme) housing

project. This dynamic housing policy and programme was implemented with the aim of delivering large numbers of houses for the poor and previously disadvantaged at the lowest cost (Shackleton & Blair 2013:105).

However, these RDP suburbs were found to be consuming higher housing concentrations; therefore depriving the presence of green spaces (McConachie & Shackleton 2009:246). This is therefore evident in that communities with RDP houses in most cases experience poor public green space planning due to the size of available spaces for public green space (McConachie & Shackleton 2009:246). Odindi and Mhangara (2012:657), point that this speedy decline in green space planning is caused by the rapid influx of urbanisation associated with the transition from the apartheid era into democracy. As a result, there is greater increase in percentage of buildings, roads, vehicles and people, which result in less public open green spaces; hence the escalation of urban development issues and negative environmental impacts (Sheffield City Council 2008:1; City of Johannesburg 2012:4).

Therefore, as one of the most rapidly growing cities on the African continent (AFSB 2015), hope was restored in Johannesburg after a municipal-owned entity within the City of Johannesburg emerged in the year 2000 (City of Johannesburg 2012:12). The Johannesburg City Parks (City Parks) is an organisation that is known for supporting ground-breaking initiatives within the Johannesburg metropolitan (City of Johannesburg 2012:32). The role of City Parks has predominantly become important in protecting the City of Johannesburg's environmental legacy, through the establishment of greenbelts initiatives, rehabilitation of waterways, development of conservation principles and joining forces with other organisations, forming partnerships to help reach greater heights (City of Johannesburg 2012:4). The following section highlights some of the initiatives that form part of the City Parks mandate:

- Xtreme Park Makeover- This is an initiative stimulated by overnight makeovers and immediate transformation seen on the television reality show Xtreme Makeover Home. The main objective of the project is to create a park in an open public space within 24 hours, with a long list of criterion to adhere to, the Xtreme Park Makeover meets the guidelines to fast-track economic, environmental and social benefits to the host communities (City of

Johannesburg 2012:15). Beneficiaries of this initiative include Ivory Regional Park, Diepsloot Park, Diepkloof extreme makeover Park, Thokosa Park, Innes Free Park, Joubert Park, Rose Park, Orange Farm Regional Park and Tanzania Park. This initiative coincides with Word Environmental Week. According to the Johannesburg Open Space System (2002), Johannesburg's guideline states that 20–40m² of public green space should be available for every region although distance and accessibility are not mentioned.

- 2010 City Greening – 2010 created an opportunity for the City to create the solid groundwork systems and environmental legacy that will afford benefits for the present and future generations. Tons of soccer fields were improved and natural resources such as rivers including streams were reformed (City of Johannesburg 2012:5).

- Key Environmental Learnings - City Parks (2012:18), has acknowledged that environmental education for the host community is crucial to understand the environment better, and in order to go a long way towards defending and conserving natural resources.

b) Durban

Durban is another South African city that has adopted initiatives for urban ecotourism planning. As part of their climate protection initiative, the eThekwini Municipality has joined forces with the South African Police Services (SAPS) with the aim of building a responsive, safer and sustainable city (eThekwini Municipality 2011:2). This is because local communities are considered to be exposed to climate change impacts because of the uneven sea temperatures and on-going fossil fuel emissions (eThekwini Municipality 2011:6). Hence provision of green infrastructure and useful and well-organised green spaces is significant. Urban green space planning is important in that not only does green space planning add to the influence of ecosystem services, but also has a social significance in helping to control climate change (Wilson & Hughes 2012:21).

c) Port Elizabeth

Port Elizabeth is one of the cities that has adopted the conservation method as part of their sustainable urban development projects (de Jong 2014:120). As one of the four

cities in South Africa that has implemented the Metropolitan Open Space System (MOSS), two foresters were based in the city in order to launch and organise the city's urban greening and forestry programmes through the Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (Odindi & Mhangara 2012:659).

Table 3.3: Summary of South African urban ecotourism planning initiatives

INITIATIVE/PROJECT	AIM
Reconstruction Development Programme (RDP), Johannesburg	To provide housing for the poor and previously disadvantaged communities at the lowest cost possible
Xtreme Park Makeover, Johannesburg	Creating public parks on open spaces within 24 hours
2010 City Greening, Johannesburg	Improving and reforming natural resources such as river streams
Environmental Learnings, Johannesburg	To provide environmental education for the host communities for a better understanding of environmental issues,
Climate Protection, Durban	Building a responsive safer and sustainable city
Metropolitan Open Space System (MOSS)	To organise the city's urban greening and forestry programmes

Adapted from: **eThekwini Municipality (2011:7); City of Johannesburg (2012) & Odindi and Mhangara (2012:659)**

Thus, from the above discussions it can be concluded that policy formulation is not only vital for building lively green spaces to enhance attractiveness of urban areas, but also promotes the platform for sustainable urban development which is a requirement in urban communities. Therefore one of the most important aspects that needs to be taken into consideration is the difference in the existence of green spaces in prosperous suburbs (i.e. international context) compared to the available green spaces in previously racially defined townships (i.e. South African context) (McConnachie & Shackleton 2009:244). In developed countries planning is much easier and consistent, compared to developing countries. However, an important technique when it comes to planning and establishing green spaces is to notice and identify these imbalances, in order to provide rapid and better planning processes and

initiatives concerning the endowment of green infrastructure within urban communities (McConnachie & Shackleton 2009:244).

As a result, viable strategies as well as a set of relevant planning procedures for green spaces are essential to ensure that the needs and expectations of host communities are met (Wilson & Hughes 2011:216). Host communities can be involved in many ways including the setting goals, approving activities, implementing or delivering urban ecotourism services as well as evaluating the movement towards sustainable urban development (Robrecht & Meyrick 2008:17).

Within the context of this study, communities are regarded as key role-players within the urban ecotourism industry; hence the following section will focus on the different attributes that form perception, which in turn influences the involvement and participation level of host communities in urban ecotourism projects.

3.4 COMMUNITIES IN URBAN ECOTOURISM

Tourism is highly dependent on the goodwill and cooperation of host communities (Cole 2006:94). As a service based industry, in order to understand the modern widespread of the term 'community', an understanding of what makes a community is essential (Muganda, Sirima & Ezra 2013:54). In the case of Scherl and Edwards (2007:71), communities are regarded as collections of people with a common identity and who are likely to be involved in a range of connected aspects of livelihoods. Furthermore, they state that communities often have accustomed rights related to the area and its natural resources as well as a strong relationship with the area culturally, socially, economically and spiritually (Olsder & van der Donk 2006:155).

This definition of community is crucial to understand how community participation features in order for the community to contribute towards and improvement of urban ecotourism development. Community participation is said to emphasise the need to include and involve local residents in the development of tourism activities (Cobbinah 2015:183; Cole 2006:94; Mowforth & Munt 2003:213). The main purpose for community participation is to strengthen and improve communication between stakeholders in the interest of facilitating better decision-making for sustainable urban development (Nampila 2005:29). Moreover, community participation provides a sense

of community to take responsibility for others, and a readiness to share and interact (Aref, Ma'rof, & Sarjit 2010:17).

Community participation has been widely accepted as a viable tourism development strategy (Tosun 2005:336). Like any other concept in the tourism industry, debate still persists regarding the mutual agreement on scholars' definition of terms. Simpson (2008:1), asserts that community participation is regarded as the level of control, ownership or influence in a tourism initiative. Moreover, community participation can be seen as a flexible illustration that allows local communities in numerous tourism destinations and at different levels of development to contribute towards decision making processes and reap the benefits of development (Tosun 2005:336). However, Arnstein (1969:216) asserts that community participation entails the circulation of power that enables host communities to be included in building the future. This is the means in which they can encourage substantial social reform, which will in turn enable them to share benefits. However, these benefits can only be seized if they become active participants within the urban ecotourism industry.

On the other hand, while it is expected that the local communities will benefit from urban ecotourism activities, this is not always the case; numerous studies reveal that in many protected areas in developing countries lack of local participation is a mutual flaw in urban ecotourism projects (Lai & Nepal 2006:1119; Ormsby & Mannie 2006:274; Stronza & Gordillo 2008:449 ; Xu *et al.* 2009:33). Therefore the level and form in which community participation takes place may not result in meeting host communities' expected and potential benefits (Tosun 2004:493). As a result, this may contribute to the negative attitudes of host communities towards urban ecotourism projects. Previous research discloses that community attitudes towards protected areas can be attributed to various factors such as the educational background of host communities as well as benefits and costs perceived by the local people (Lai & Nepal 2006:1118; Ormsby & Mannie 2006:273; Stronza & Gordillo 2008:449; Xu, Lu, Chen, & Liu 2009:32). These aspects will be reflected upon in the section that follows.

3.4.1 Community Attitudes towards Urban Ecotourism

Community attitudes is a vital aspect for the success of sustainable tourism development (Clapp 2004:839; Sharma & Dyer 2009:187); therefore an understanding

of host communities' attitudes and perceptions and how these perceptions are formed regarding the ecotourism development would be valuable knowledge for decision makers (Adeleke 2015:317). Host communities are the most significant parties, since they are the most affected either positively or negatively by tourism planning and development (Sharma & Dyer 2009:187; Eshliki & Kaboudi 2012:335). Dynamics that impact residents' perceptions and attitudes, as well as the nature and extent of influence are likely to be different in each community. The social structure of the local community has a major influence on the ability to respond positively on the different norms and values brought by tourists (Mansfield 1992:379). Response to any form of tourism development will vary across an array of acceptance to rejection. Some residents may be in favour of the development while on the other hand, some residents may not like the outcome of tourism to such an extent that they even counterattack the activity, and as a result, certain performances may occur (Telfer & Sharpley 2016:185). Numerous models and theories have been formulated to address the impacts of tourism (including urban ecotourism) and the way in which these impacts might be perceived by host communities (Thetsane 2010:50). One such model is the Doxy's Irritation Index (1975). The model elaborates on the tourist-host relationship.

Doxey's (1975) Irridex model suggests that host communities' responses towards urban ecotourism development progress through a series of stages (Telfer & Sharpley 2016:185), establishing that adverse impacts of tourism development in the community might lead to irritation. Furthermore, the model articulates that with the increase in the number of tourists and development of urban ecotourism activities, the host communities' attitudes change from 'euphoria' to 'apathy' to 'annoyance' and then to 'antagonism' (Zhang, Inbarakan & Jackson 2006:185).

Doxey also argues that residents' irritation is determined by the degree of mismatch between residents and tourists (1975:196). However, Butler's (1980) Tourism Destination Lifecycle Model highlights that urban ecotourism development at a destination undergoes six stages, namely exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation and then either decline or rejuvenation. Furthermore, it is also put forward that when tourism activities lead to high-volume mass tourism then impacts may eventually reach a level that will annoy and provoke the host community (Zhang, Inbarakan & Jackson 2006:185).

Table 3.4: Doxey's irridex model

STAGE	HOST COMMUNITIES' ATTITUDES	CHARACTERISTICS
1	Euphoria	-Small number of tourists -Tourists seek to merge with the host community -Host community welcomes tourism
2	Apathy	-Tourists are taken for granted -Tourist numbers increase -Contact between tourists and hosts
3	Annoyance	-Numbers of tourists increase significantly - Increased competition of resources -Hosts are annoyed
4	Antagonism	-Irritation is openly exposed -Tourists are seen as being the cause of problems

Source: **Doxey (1975:197); Zhang, Inbarakan & Jackson (2006:185).**

These two models are valuable to the extent that they highlight the fact that negative social impacts will most likely be extended if urban ecotourism is not well planned, managed and developed (Zhang, Inbarakan & Jackson 2006:185). Hence, within the context of this study, the host community empowerment is emphasised, which aims at fostering community empowerment through education to enable host communities to make sound and beneficial decisions when it comes to participation.

The Social Exchange Theory is another theory that makes a valuable contribution regarding attitudes towards urban ecotourism within communities. Social Exchange Theory is also a predominant theoretical base for many studies related to host communities' perceptions (Zhang, Inbarakan & Jackson 2006:185).Furthermore, Ap (1992:668) states that the social exchange theory is a general sociological theory concerned with understanding the exchange of resources between individuals in an interaction situation. Moreover, Zhang, Inbarakan and Jackson (2006:185) regard exchange theory as originally being a relationship maintenance theory that looks at how people arrive at their decisions in relationships. Seen from a tourism perspective,

social exchange theory assumes that exchanges must take place in order to have tourism within a community (Telfer & Sharpley 2016:180), and host communities must be active participants in developing and promoting it, which will then serve the needs of the tourists (Andereck, Valentine & Knopf 2005:1061). Some community members are able to seize the benefits, while others are negatively affected. Social exchange theory highlights that the society assesses an exchange based on the costs and benefits gained as a result of that exchange (Zhang, Inbarakan & Jackson 2006:185).

Therefore community members that perceive the exchange to be beneficial are most likely to appraise it positively. On the other hand, those that see it as costly are likely to evaluate it negatively (Thetsane 2010:59). People participate in interactions where they have something of value and gain, be it material, social, or psychological. Hence people choose to take part in an exchange once they have analysed the rewards and the costs of such an exchange. (Andereck, Valentine & Knopf 2005:1061). According to Bignoux (2006:619) the model for social exchange theory also entails the following aspects:

- Behaviour is predicted based on demographics;
- Exchange is voluntary;
- Exchange occurs within the social system;
- Exchange is not opposed (Bignoux 2006:619).

For the purpose of this study, in order for urban ecotourism projects to prosper, social exchange must take place; it can either be positive or negative. However, it should be recognised that social exchange's positive outcome goes hand in hand with the willingness of communities to participate in the exchange or any other ecotourism activities.

Pretty's (1995:23) typology of community participation model, describes community participation at seven levels that run from manipulative participation to self-mobilisation. Moving from manipulative participation to self-mobilisation, people's participation becomes less passive and more active. Therefore, as people participate more enthusiastically, they have an option of seeking technical support in accordance with their own perception of need rather than with that of external assessment. Pretty's

model was grounded on the analysis of community participation of both successful and unsuccessful projects, and came to a conclusion that development is more likely to be accomplished when community participation stretches towards the interactive participation stage meaning co-learning and mobilisation being collective action (Catley 1999:8).

However, Arnstein (1971) asserts that community participation entails eight levels which are divided into three categories, the lowest category represents community manipulation, while the middle category symbolises degrees of citizen tokenism and the highest category indicates the degree of citizen power. The solitary measure of participation in Arnstein's model is the power to make decisions, and obtaining this control is the true aim of citizen engagement. Hence, the different stages on the ladder significantly relate to the degree to which citizens reach decision-making power and citizen control being defined as the highest point, while the lower stages are distinguished by the limitations of citizen power and its replacement with participation that does not necessarily influence decision-making (Tritter & McCallum 2006:157).

However, Arnstein's ladder in the development context is not highly recommended. Residents of low income communities want more than power alone, but dual objectives is what they are striving for, these being the empowerment to influence decisions that affect them and the delivery of services, they might be eager to contribute their labour, time and the little money they may have to get them, predominantly in instances where they can see the benefit themselves in doing so for (Choguill 1996:434; Mbaiwa 2006:49; Spenceley 2008:208).

Therefore, after reviewing the literature on community development, Tosun (1999a:115) developed three overall categories based on models created by Pretty and Arnstein. In his classification, community participation entails three main categories, which are spontaneous participation, induced participation and coercive participation. Tosun accredited each of Arnstein's and Pretty's types into one of these three groups, describing the characteristics of each cluster (Daldeniz & Hampton 2011:7). The reason behind Tosun's approach is that it relates to the tourism industry, whereas Pretty and Arnstein's approaches where formed in the context of developmental studies in general (Tosun 2006:494; Daldeniz & Hampton 2011:6). Therefore it is imperative to provide an in-depth explanation of Tosun's model of

participation in order to establish a comprehensive framework for the empirical part of this study.

In Tosun's model (Figure 3.5) coercive participation corresponds with passive participation as well as manipulative participation in Pretty's typology and non-participation in Arnstein's typology. The main objective is to deprive the host community of the opportunity to participate in ecotourism development processes, but to enable major holders to instruct and lure residents to turn away from potential and actual threats towards future tourism development. Whereas in the Induced type of participation, in which Arnstein's model relates to the degree of tokenism and in Pretty's functional participation, participation for material incentives and participation by consultation, the host community is afforded an opportunity of voicing their opinions, but they do not have the power to certify that their suggestions are taken into consideration by other stakeholders such as government officials and policy makers (Buchy & Hoverman 2000:7).

Hence the host community can participate in the execution phase of tourism and receive benefits, but still not in the decision-making process. However, in the high stages of the ladder, spontaneous participation in tourism development is paired with Pretty's self-mobilisation as well as interactive participation, while in Arnstein's model is paired with degrees of citizen power. In this type, the host community is granted full decision-making responsibility and authority to the host community. This is the ideal type of community participation (Tosun 1999a:616; Tosun 2006:495; Daldeniz & Hampton 2011:9)

These typologies may be beneficial to finding the range of community participation from a more passive manipulation form to those which are more authentic or interactive. However, it must be considered that these models of community participation hold restrictions; for example, they do not consider the number of citizens to be included and the strength and the durability of community participation is not effectively addressed (Buchy & Hoverman 2000:7; Tosun 2006:495).

Table 3.5: Normative typologies of community participation

Pretty's (1995) Typology of community Participation		Arnstein's (1971) Typology of Community Participation		Tosun's (1999a) Typology of community participation
7.Self-Mobilisation 6. Interactive Participation	←	8.Citizen Control 7.Delagated Power 6.Partnership	Degrees of citizen power	→ Spontaneous participation Bottom-up; active par direct participation; par in decision making; authentic participation; self-planning
5.Functional Participation 4.Participation of material incentives 3.Participation by consultation	←	5.Placation 4.consultation 3.Informing	Degrees of Tokenism	→ Induced Participation Top-down; formal Mostly indirect; degree of Tokenism; manipulation; Pseudo-participation; Participation in implementation; Sharing benefits; Choice between proposed; alternatives and feedback
2. Passive participation 1.Manipulative Participation	←	2. Therapy 1.Manipulation	Non-Participation	→ Top-down; formal Mostly indirect; participation in implementation manipulation; but not sharing benefits Choice between proposed limited; alternatives and no choice; high degree of Tokenism and manipulation
Pretty's (1995) Typology of community Participation		Arnstein's (1971) Typology of Community Participation		Tosun's (1999a) Typology of community participation

Source: **Tosun (2006:494)**

The following section will discuss the benefits and costs of host communities participating in urban ecotourism.

3.5 URBAN ECOTOURISM MANAGEMENT

Although urban ecotourism might be contextualised differently by different people, it is generally recognised that it should have low impacts on the biosphere, with the goal of benefitting both the environment, economy and the host community (He, Chen, Lui, Bearer, Zhou, Cheng, Zhang, Ouyang & Lui 2008:1018). Urban ecotourism is a market-oriented conservation strategy that combines not only the promotion of economic incentives but also the use of various disciplinary methods intended to expose local residents to 'urban ecotourism sermons' (Fletcher 2010:177).

There is no doubt that the adoption of urban ecotourism has increased social capital in most urban communities in Gauteng. This is demonstrated by the sustainable project that was initiated by Johannesburg City Parks to revamp previously disadvantaged communities such as Ivory Park, with a recreational park that will bring abundant benefits to the host community. As stated in Cole (2006:89), urban ecotourism holds the potential to enhance the image of the destination through improved infrastructure which in turn attracts more tourists to the destination.

Urban ecotourism can support economic growth, poverty alleviation and environmental management through various magnitudes based on infrastructural and organised proficiency (Cobbinah, Erdiaw-Kwasie & Amoateng 2015:66). Therefore local residents are encouraged to live modestly and environmentally friendly lives, while it is concurrently recommended that they must seize benefits associated with urban ecotourism development projects (Youdelis 2013:162). These benefits are set to fall under three categories, namely, economic, environmental, and social, including building skills and influence (Raina & Agarwal 2004:38; Rátz 2006:36; Fletcher 2013:198).

In the context of this study, and therefore this chapter, the relationship between social, environmental and economic impacts of urban ecotourism will be emphasised.

3.5.1 Social Impacts

Urban ecotourism, with reference to public green spaces, carries numerous social benefits and costs. The social impacts of urban ecotourism relates to the customs, beliefs, perceptions, ethics and the conduct on the impacts that may potentially have an influence on the quality of life of the host community (Ramoliki 2013:33).

Social benefits can be obtained when these green spaces serve as meeting places, giving a shared focus to diverse communities and neighbourhoods (Barbosa *et al.* 2007:187). Maintenance of public facilities leading to higher levels of community participation (Gursoy, Kim & Uysal 2004:171); exercising and experiencing fresh breathing space, improving the quality of life and well-being of communities (Shackleton & Blair 2013:108), attending events, concerts, spiritual and alternative functions creating a networking stand. There is an improved awareness of the importance of play and learning environments for child development, and an increased attention focused on specific outdoor spaces (D'souza 2012:22). Children are the future generation for all communities; therefore they need a safe space where they can play and intermingle to form social ties, and physical and intellectual development (Clayton & Opotow 2003; Sherer 2006). Furthermore, parks create a platform for the development of strong and united communities.

However, it is undisputable that urban ecotourism also carries with it negative social impacts. The host-guest interaction holds the potential of affecting the community's basic values, norms and logic system (Fletcher *et al*. 2013:194). This is evident from the demonstration effect, where the host community aspires to the lifestyle of tourists and copies their way of life (Thetsane 2010:80). The overall crime rate is often perceived to increase due to tourists being present in the region.

Crime is often associated with rowdy behaviour, including drug and alcohol abuse (Andereck, Valentine, Knopf & Vogt 2005:1056; Huh & Vogt 2008:446). It is without any doubt that with increased urban ecotourism facilities comes increased entertainment facilities and alcohol consumption as well as many tourists visiting a destination. These ingredients can also lead to increased prostitution (Jago, Fredline & Deery 2006:100). For many tourists, gambling is regarded as an activity that one should undertake while on holiday (Lee & Back 2006: 447). As a consequence, an

increase often occurs in gambling facilities being available in destinations where tourism activities take place. This in turn poses social problems for the locals who visit such facilities afterwards (Deery, Jago & Fredline 2012:68). This may result in the disruption of the host communities' way of life in trying to meet the needs of tourists while compromising their own values and principles. A summary of social impacts of urban ecotourism is presented in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Summary of social impacts of urban ecotourism

POSITIVE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF URBAN ECOTOURISM	NEGATIVE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF URBAN ECOTOURISM
Improves quality of life	Demonstration effect
Promotes cultural exchange	Crime
Enhances community pride	Gambling
Facilitates development	Prostitution
Strengthens the community	Acculturation

Adapted from: **Loots (2010:31); Deery, Jago & Fredline (2012:68); Anya-Anyi (2014:72)**

3.5.2 Economic Impacts

The driving force behind urban ecotourism development is the prospective contribution it has to make for destination economies. This is particularly so in developing countries where urban ecotourism is regarded as the catalyst for economic growth and development (Telfler & Sharpeley 2008:180). Therefore many urban ecotourism projects without a doubt enable direct local employment or generate some revenues that enhance local income or help support community projects (Kiss 2004:234). These benefits generally bring about economic development, usually in terms of improvements in measures such as gross domestic product (GDP). This is the total number of goods and services produced within a country over a period of one year (Page 2007:394).

The economic benefits of parks also include providing increased property values of surrounding residential areas (D'sounza 2012:23). This means that the higher the value of these homes, the higher the property taxes. More opportunities for local

businesses resulting in more money being spent by tourists visiting the area to stimulate the economy (Page & Connell 2006:350) which confirms that urban ecotourism holds the potential of re-distributing wealth through tourist spend, and other derivatives from economic subdivisions servicing the urban ecotourism industry, also known as the agglomeration benefits Coccossis (2008:8); Matarrita-Cascante (2010:1141); AngelevskaNajdeska and Rakicevik (2012:210); Lazano-Oyola (2012:659).

Notwithstanding the preceding benefits, urban ecotourism also poses some negative economic problems attached to it such as inflation, leakages, opportunity costs and seasonality (Acha-Anyi 2014:64). According to Page and Connell (2014:284), urban ecotourism creates inflation on local communities through land property and goods. This means that the more demand there is for land, the higher the increase in prices. Therefore local communities are forced into competition for land and housing with urban ecotourism development (Page & Connell 2014: 284). Leakages in the urban ecotourism industry occur from importing either goods or services or labour for urban ecotourism purposes. This leads to income generated from urban ecotourism to be used for paying for these imported aspects, which result in the outward flow of income from the local economy (Keyser 2009:333).

It also cannot be avoided that in order for urban ecotourism development to occur, something must be compromised. This is known as opportunity cost, which relates to the time, effort and money of developing urban ecotourism products and services at the cost of other areas of investment such as schools (Acha-Anyi 2014:65). Another major hurdle in the urban ecotourism industry is seasonality. As much as the tourism industry creates prospects for generating sufficient income, this means that the economic gain must also be adequate to support the staff and economy throughout the year. A regular occurrence of seasonality results in employees only having jobs during some part of the year (on-peak season) which also means that investment in urban ecotourism will only be for some part of the year (Page & Connell 2014:285). Therefore it is important that stakeholders build long-lasting partnerships with all investors to ensure a financially sustainable urban ecotourism industry. Figure 3.2 provides a summary of economic impacts of urban ecotourism.
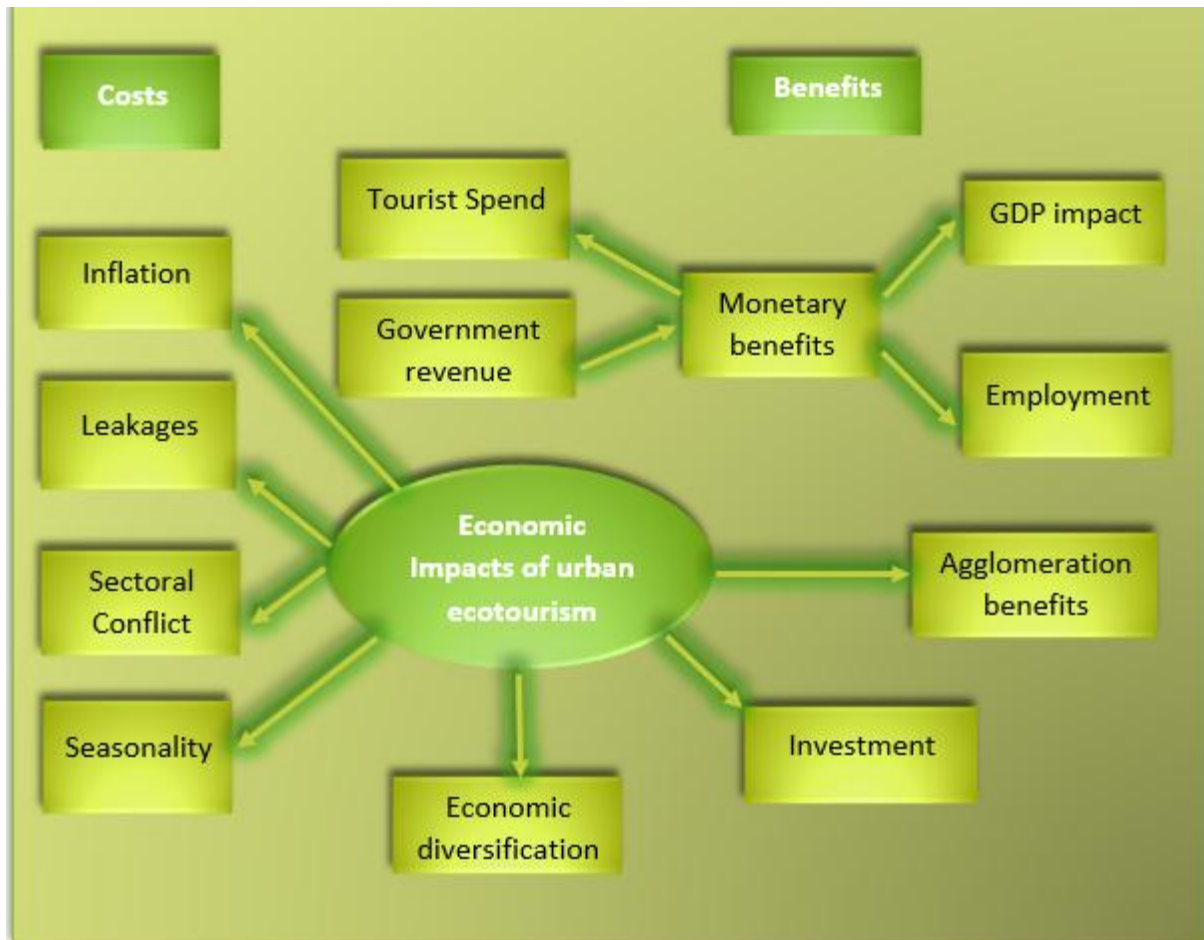
Figure 3.2: Summary of economic impacts of urban ecotourism
Adapted from: **Keyser (2009:307); Acha-Anyi (2014:65)**

3.5.3 Environmental Impacts

Some of the environmental benefits of urban ecotourism include open space and habitat halls (Shackleton & Blair 2013:108) and aesthetics relating to the support for green spaces towards the decent appeal of the community and/or environment (Saayman 2009). Urban ecotourism can contribute positively towards the environment as it can offer financial means for revamping and preserving historic buildings (de Witt 2011:73). This includes conservation of biodiversity including botanical gardens as green spaces (Shackleton & Blair 2013:109). Lastly, the attraction of green spaces result in tourism attractions which also contribute to the potential provision of jobs. Therefore, if local governments regard urban ecotourism as an essential source of revenue, they will increase facilities and improve services in order to maintain increased numbers (Page & Connell 2009:435). Table 3.7 highlights the environmental benefits of urban ecotourism.

Table 3.7: Positive Environmental Impacts of urban ecotourism

ENVIRONMENTAL BENEFITS OF URBAN ECOTOURISM
Improves the environment   **Aesthetics**   **Encourages awareness and appreciation by the community of natural assets and the environment and other resources on which tourism relies**   **Enhances management and stewardship of natural resources**   **Potential provision of jobs**

Source: **Simpson (2008:3); Weaver (2008:94); Wearing and Neil (2009:126)**

Even when all reasonable measures have been taken to evade negative impacts that accidentally arise from urban ecotourism, negative impacts may still occur (Weaver 2006:99). Agarwal (2004:342) underpins that some imbalances always occur between urban ecotourism and the environment. This is due to the fact that tourism is one of the major industries that contribute negatively towards the environment. Therefore the agony is inescapable as urban ecotourism is highly dependent on natural resources (Ramoliki 2013:35). Hence in some instances costs may often be influenced by factors that are beyond the destination's control (Tefler & Sharpley 2008:176).

The existence of ecotourism will attract more visitors to an area. However, this will in turn lead to impacts such as soil erosion; trampling; disturbance of wildlife modification and/or loss of habitats; deforestation or destruction of vegetation resulting from the construction of urban ecotourism amenities and infrastructure (de Witt 2011:73). Overcrowding of tourists at a destination will also result in traffic congestion, which will exceed the carrying capacity of a destination (Newsome *et* al. 2002:83; Shaw & Williams 2002:305; George 2008:308; Geldenhuys & Saayman 2009:35). Urban ecotourism activities can also lead to negative ecological consequences. This may be due to the mobility of tourists, of which some penetrate deeply into relatively undisturbed areas as well as different forms of pollution ranging from air, noise, water, solid waste and littering (Loots 2010:35; Keyser 2009:358; Weaver 2006:99).

Activities that can negatively impact on the environment can be categorised into three groups, namely building, waste generation and tourist activities (Weaver 2006:99;

Buckley 2004:5). Figure 3.3 illustrates precisely the negative impacts of urban ecotourism on the environment.

The potential indirect ecological costs of ecotourism include the effects of induced buildings and placing an economic assessment on nature-based attractions (Weaver 2004:11). Induced building refers to physical developments undertaken to support urban ecotourism, such as housing constructed for urban ecotourism purposes such as hotels, bed and breakfasts and guard houses for employees.

A large part of the urban ecotourism industry is just a substantial addition to urban accommodation infrastructure and existing transport works. In addition, the production of goods and services for the tourism industry involves other sectors of the economy, which results in consequential increases in consumption and waste disposal (Buckley 2004:10). Sewage and other liquid wastes are predominantly dangerous if the area is not properly maintained by waste treatment infrastructure (Weaver 2006:103). Other benefits associated with urban ecotourism entail health benefits and building of skills and influence. This can be achieved through awareness and education.
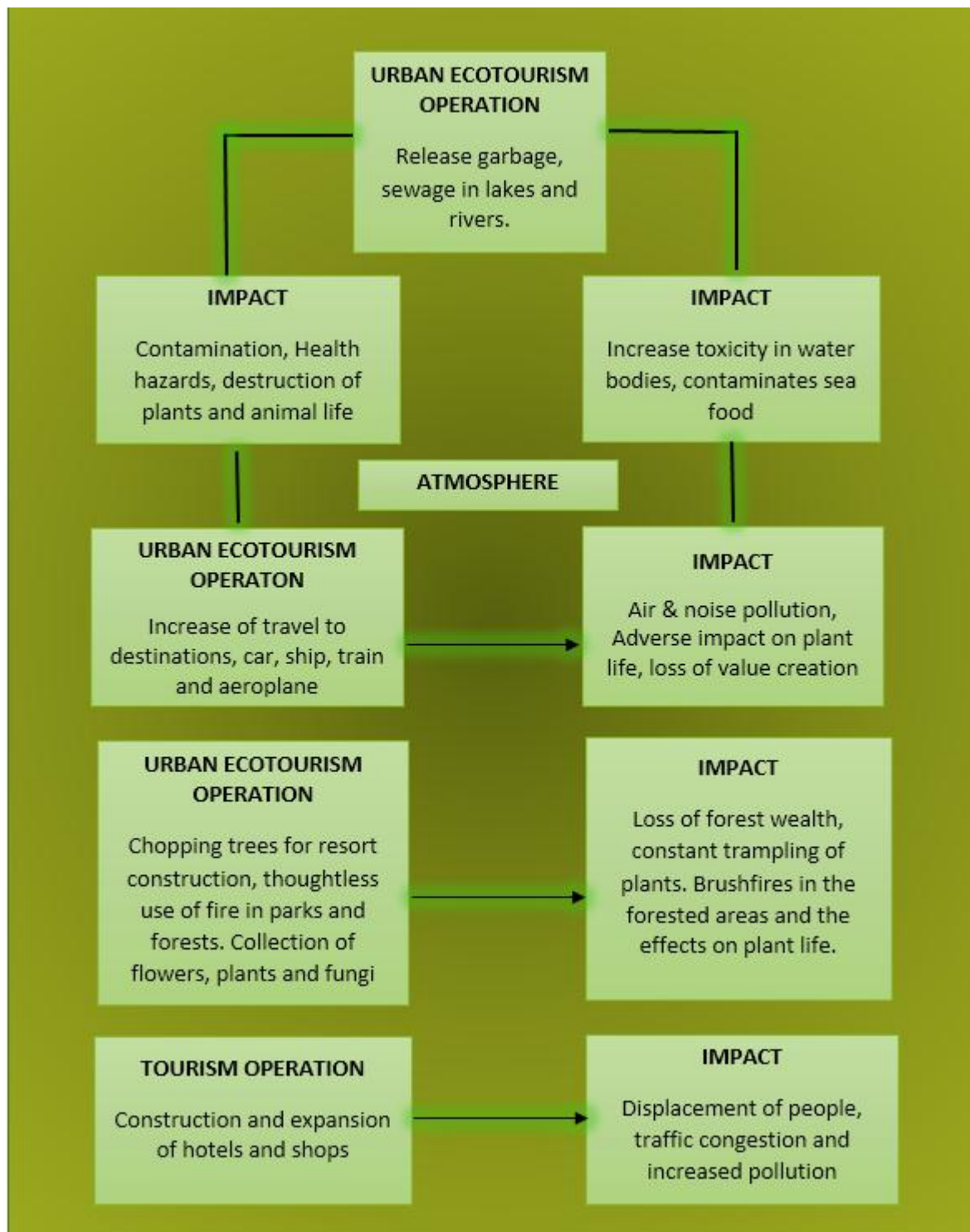
Figure 3.3: Negative environmental impacts of urban ecotourism

Source: **Agarwal (2004:347); Tefler & Sharpley (2008:177); Ramoliki (2013:36)**

3.5.4 Awareness and Education

The enticement for education and learning about the natural environment differentiates urban ecotourism from other types of tourism (Weaver 2008:193). The urban ecotourism's dependence on nature and urban areas, compared to other forms of tourism where nature is related to the experience, embraces the motivation of fulfilling an educational need which is derived from interactions with the natural environment (Wearing & Neil 2009:13). The majority of urban ecotourism travellers are generally aware of nature-related issues and therefore have the desire to learn more (Okech 2009:3; Wearing & Neil 2009:12). However, with regard to the host communities it is the opposite.

Thus urban ecotourism operators have to provide appropriate educational methods for environmental and cultural interpretation. However, this educative role does not only refer to tourists – but includes all stakeholders involved in providing the urban ecotourism experience such as industry operators and host communities (Wearing & Neil 2009:12). However, Blangy and Epler-Wood (1992:1) argue that the need to circulate information to travellers regarding proper behaviour in fragile ecological and social settings is regarded as an obligation of industry operators.

Vincent and Thompson (2002:153) assert that in order for urban ecotourism sustainability to occur, community leaders should, however, develop and support programs for local residents to learn more about environmental conservation. This can be done by means of workshops, exhibitions, trade shows, seminars, competitions, clean-up campaigns as well as one-on-one consultation (Harrill 2004:25). This could awaken improved appreciation for the uniqueness and value of host communities' cultural traditions as well as environmental heritage, as Mandela (2003) once said: '*education is a weapon people can use to change the world*'.

Therefore the alteration of the host communities' quality of life is influenced by tourist-host relationship and the industry itself. Tourist-host encounters occur when the tourist has to purchase some goods or services from the host and are forced to have a conversation and share ideas. This is where tourism often fails in promoting a mutual understanding among different stakeholders; therefore stereotype prevails (Hall & Richards 2006:36).

Greater negative impacts are usually related to the high volume of tourism activities that take place. However, this also depends on the type of tourists and their attitudes towards environmental conservation (Telfer & Sharpley 2008:178). Figure 3.4 on the next page demonstrates the relationship between tourists and environmental values as well as their consequent actions.
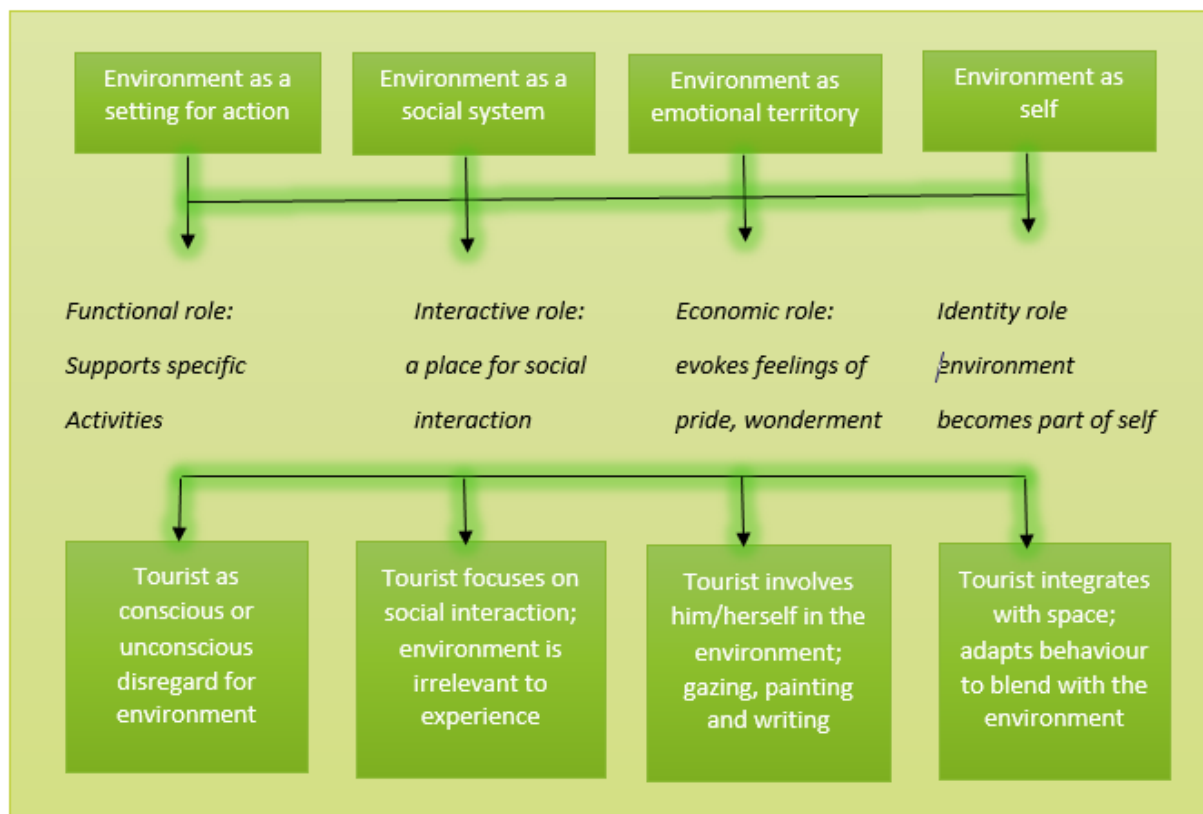

Figure 3.4: Tourists experience of destination environment
Source: **Holden (2000:50); Tefler and Sharpley (2008:178)**

3.6 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to elaborate on the importance of planning and management of urban ecotourism and the impact they may have on the environment, economy and society in the long term. This was firstly achieved by highlighting the importance and significance of urban ecotourism. Secondly, it was emphasised that all stakeholders, namely government bodies, the private sector and host communities need to be involved in the decision-making processes, from policy formulation to implementation. This is because community members form part of the urban ecotourism product. This was then followed by analysis of different policies regarding urban ecotourism with specific reference to green open spaces within the developed and developing countries.

It was also stressed that challenges faced by developed countries are different from those encountered by developing countries. This is due to the rapid increase in urbanisation in developing countries resulting in the reduction of open green spaces. However, developed countries play a vital role in forming partnerships with the less developed world. The necessity for understanding the lack of participation of host communities in urban ecotourism was elaborated upon as a result of the social exchange theory. It was indicated that the perception of host communities regarding the costs and benefits of urban ecotourism influencing their participation. However, it was highlighted in Doxey's model that even though communities welcome tourism developments, they are bound to somehow become irritated as numbers of tourists increase.

Although the urban ecotourism adoption process is depicted as a phased array of development that uses sustainability as an entry and existing theme throughout the operation process, Governments and policy makers should involve the community during the structuring and development of policies in order for them to have a successful urban ecotourism industry. The following chapter elaborates on the methodology followed when pursuing this study.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Urban ecotourism is regarded as a dynamic mechanism to secure conservation and promote development in urban areas (Neth 2008:10).The main objective of this study was to determine perceptions of host communities' regarding urban ecotourism and to also critically assess the influence of the perceptions of host communities. These aspects were elaborated on in the theoretical framework provided in the preceding chapters. Therefore it was decided that a field survey be administered within host communities in the east of Gauteng with the aim of determining whether the issues highlighted in the literature are evident in a South African context. This then formed part of the empirical section of this study.

The purpose of this chapter is, however, to define the research methods used in this study and also substantiates those chosen methods. The selected research design and approaches are discussed. Moreover, the sampling procedure, the manner in which data collection was done and techniques were applied to scrutinize the data, are described. Lastly, issues of reliability and validity are also highlighted. These aspects will be discussed in the sections that follow.

4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design refers to the overall strategy the researcher chooses for assimilating the different components of the study in a rational and coherent manner so as to successfully address the research problem (Trochim 2006). Moreover, research design can be defined as a planning strategy that is centred on a sampling technique and it essentially includes objectives, sampling, tools and techniques for collecting evidence (Signh & Bajpai 2008:129). Eriksson and Kovalainen (2008:2) point out that research process improves thorough a circular procedure which involves revising and revisiting original ideas and thoughts, reviewing plans and rewriting the chapters. In this study, research design included the selection of the demarcation,

obtaining permission to conduct the study, training of field workers, data collection and analysis of results recorded from completed questionnaires. Therefore, for this reason, it can be concluded that research design encompasses planning, preparation and execution of the research study. However, during the course of conducting research, various techniques can be applied for providing a framework for conducting the study. This framework is illustrated in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Summary of various research designs

DESIGN	OBJECTIVE	RESEARCH STUDY	OUTPUT
Exploratory	Research that is carried out to clarify and define, in detail, the real nature of the problem.	Qualitative studies that use literature searches, case studies, focus groups and in-depth interviews	Provides valued insights leading to a clear understanding of purpose of the research
Explanatory	To find the nature of relationships between two or more variables where one variable determines the value of the other	Quantitative studies using field experiments, laboratory experiments, observation and interviews	Examines relationships, time chains, variations and interactions of factors underlying behaviour
Descriptive	To define the existing scenario, division characteristics, with respect to variables and conditions that exist during the period of exploration	Quantitative studies using panels, longitudinal studies and applying various sample survey methods	The research problem is systematically defined with a view to point out specific likenesses and to recommend a final course of action

Source: **Khan (2007:35)**

For purposes of this study, both exploratory and descriptive designs are applied. The data collected are explained using descriptive statistics while explanatory methods are

used to gain a thorough understanding of relationships between the different results obtained from the statistics. These research designs were selected since they are highly accurate when attempting to test empirical findings (Dlodlo 2009:66).

Descriptive design is applied to obtain information concerning the current status of the situation (Lee & Lings 2008:247). Therefore in this study, descriptive design was applied to analyse the demographic characteristics of respondents, visiting behaviour as well as their motivations for visiting IRP. Both community involvement and participation of host communities were also analysed. Motivation for applying this research design to this study is that it enables the examination of relationships between variables (correlational) and allows the researcher to study larger groups of individuals more easily (Jackson 2012:12).

With only a few studies done on determining perceptions of host communities regarding urban ecotourism, an exploratory design was also applied to this study. Exploratory research entails undertaking research with the purpose of either exploring an area of which little is known, or of investigating the possibilities of undertaking a particular research study (Kumar 2014:13). An exploratory design is a research design which is accompanied by the aim of more precisely clarifying and defining the real nature of the problem (Khan 2007:35). With regard to this study, exploratory design was applied to analyse respondents' perceptions regarding urban ecotourism. The following section discusses the chosen research methodology.

4.3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Generally either one of two basic approaches can be followed when conducting research, namely qualitative or quantitative research. However, a third approach merges the aspects of both the qualitative and quantitative approaches, known as the mixed method approach (Jack & Amitabh 2006:346; Hoque, Covaleski & Gooneratne 2013:1171). The qualitative approach is rooted in the philosophy of observation, follows an open, flexible and unstructured approach to analysis and underlines the description and narration of feelings (Kumar 2014:14). Moreover, the qualitative approach relies on words rather than on quantification in collecting and analysing data and provides a thorough understanding of a situation (Bryman & Bell 2007:28). A quantitative approach, however, is concerned with gathering numerical data and is

derived from the positivism paradigm with a view to explain social incidents, and has an objective notion of social reality (Donnelly 2004:139; Zou, Sunindijo & Dainty 2014:318). Furthermore, a quantitative approach is mainly adopted when testing relationships between variables (Creswell 2009:4). Mixed methods approach is formed by combining both qualitative and quantitative approaches to become one research approach (Bryman 2008:607).

Hence it was deemed appropriate to implement a quantitative research approach in this study with a view to obtain a thorough understanding of the perceptions of host communities. Motivation for this chosen research approach is that it is rational, and follows a firm, structured and encoded set of measures to explore (Kumar 2014:14). This research deals with facts and it is considered objective and cheaper in terms of budget and time limitations (Ostlund, Kidd, Wengstroom and Rowa-Dewar 2011:371). The quantitative approach is furthermore applied in this study due to its power in obtaining accurate and reliable statistics as well as its ability to capture large samples. Therefore, with this approach, flexibility is limited and bias is prevented in the presentation of the results. Table 4.2 summarises the features of both qualitative and quantitative studies:

Table 4.2: Summary of qualitative and quantitative studies

FEATURES	QUALITATIVE	QUANTITATIVE
Objective	To obtain a qualitative understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations of a certain behaviour	To quantify data and generalise ample results to the population, using inferential statistics
Sample	A small number of non-representative cases	A large number of non-representative cases
Data Collection	Is unstructured/Informal and subjective	Is structured/formal and objective
Outcome	Develops preliminary insights and understanding	Recommends a final course of action and makes inferences
Types of data	Verbal statement	Numbers/ statistics

Data Collection instruments	Focus groups, observation, case studies, interviews	Surveys, questionnaires, experiments, personal interviews

***Source*: Malhotra (2004:137); Dlodlo (2009:66)**

4.3.1 Literature Review

A literature review is regarded as an inclusive documentation of published work from secondary sources based on empirical results in areas of explicit interest to the researcher (Jennings 2010:440). Further to this, a literature review is a portion of academic writing that needs to be logically structured and clear (Welman, Kruger & Mitchell 2005:43). It is important to conduct a comprehensive literature review in order to disclose the gaps that may validate further research.

To meet the objectives of this research, various sources were used including online databases such as Social Science Index, Humanities Index, Science Direct, EBSCO Host, Google Scholar, conference papers and books to form the empirical part of this study. A Nexus search was also conducted to determine the existence of the preceding, current and similar studies, which could not be traced.

A literature review was done to ascertain the current knowledge and information available on the perceptions of host communities regarding urban ecotourism. In the collection, classification and analysis of the literature, the emphasis was on *ecotourism* (Jones 2004:303; IES 2008; Neth 2008:19; Wearing & Neil 2009:6; Kuo 2012:503; Singh 2010:145; Cheia 2013:57; Cheia 2013:56; Cobbinah 2015:180), *urban ecotourism* (Gibson *et al* 2003:324; UED 2006; Wu, Whang & Ho 2009:740; Okech 2009:2), *community involvement* (Olsder and van der Donk 2006:155; Scherl & Edwards 2007:71; Muganda, Sirima & Ezra 2013:54), *perceptions* (Sharma & Dyer 2009:187, Eshliki & Kaboudi 2012:335; Adeleke 2015:317; Telfer & Sharpley 2016:185) and *policies* (Saayman & Swart 2004:16; Dredge & Jenkins 2007:5; Hall 2009:42; Goelder & Ritchie 2009:414; Anderson & Getz 2009:847; Boniface & Cooper 2010:10; Lee 2016:188). These topics also served as **keywords** for obtaining information for the literature analysis.

4.3.2 Empirical Study

Empirical research is based on observed and measured phenomena and obtains knowledge from actual experience rather than from theory or belief (Dlodlo 2009:66). Kothari (2004:115) defines an empirical study as one that reports the results that use data derived from actual observation or experimentation. The following section will discuss the methodology of the empirical research.

4.3.2.1 Sampling and Description of Sampling

Sampling is perceived as a technique used to select a large group with a view to determine the characteristics of the entire population from the identified cluster (Brynard & Hanekom 2006:54). This is due to the fact that it is usually impossible to include the whole population in a study, because of constraints such as cost and time (Maree & Pietersen 2008:172). Sampling techniques used in research are probability and non-probability sampling.

With probability sampling, units are accurately selected, with each population having a non-zero chance of being selected; thus allowing for statistical interpretations to be made (Bradley 2007:172). Statistical projections of the sample can then be generalised to represent the target population (Acharya, Prakash, Sexena & Nigam 2013:330). Such methods include simple random, systematic, stratified, cluster and multi stage sampling.

With respect to non-probability sampling, it relies on personal discretion. The population to be included in the sample is selected using the researcher's personal instinct, judgement and past experiences which may be biased and contain errors (Bradley 2007:172). Quota, convenience, purposive, snowball and self-selection

sampling are all approaches of non-probability sampling. These methods are highlighted in Figure 4.1.
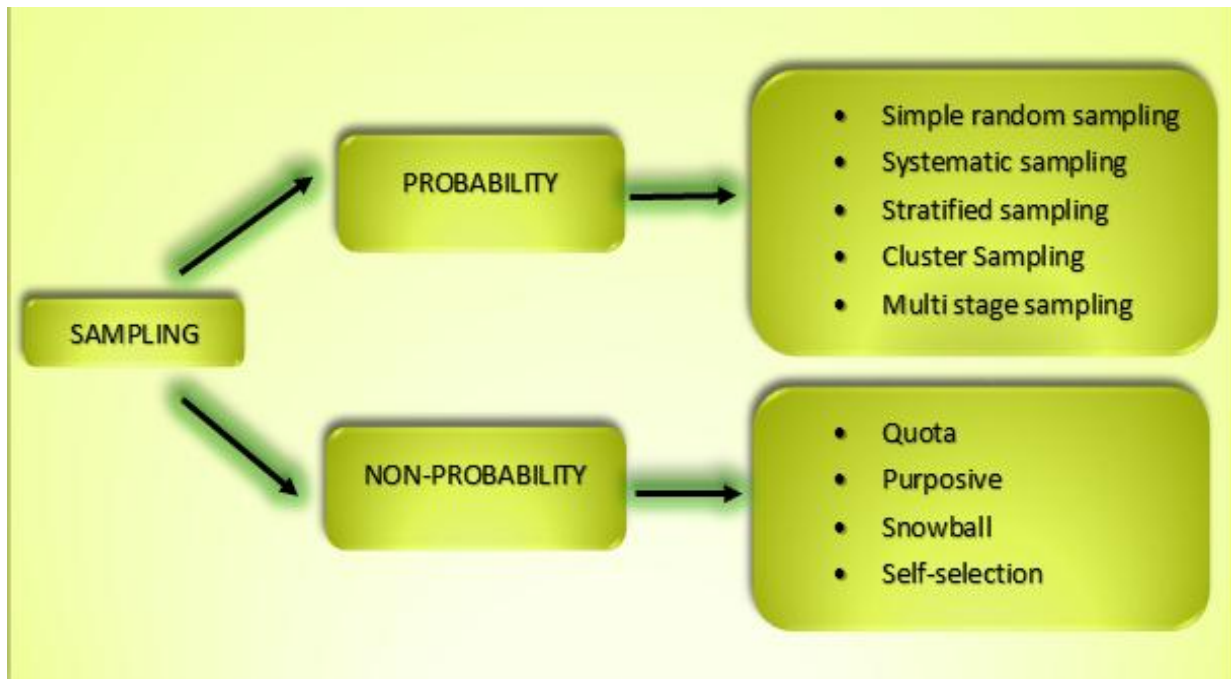

Figure 4.1: Probability and non-probability sampling techniques
Source: **Sophonthummapharn (2008:129)**

The sampling technique followed in this study is discussed in the following traits of the sampling procedure.

4.3.3. Target Population

A target population is the sum of total units where individual samples are selected (Neuman 2006:219); therefore the samples of this study were drawn from communities that are adjacent to IRP which is located in Johannesburg, Gauteng. These communities are Ivory Park, Ebony Park and Kaalfontein. Perceptions of community members residing in these townships were assessed, as well as motivation for visiting IRP and community involvement. With a view to avoid misrepresentations presented by members residing in different regions and provinces, to ensure participation of the correct respondents, community members were asked in which area they reside before taking part in the survey. Figure 4.2 depicts the exact location of the Ivory Regional Park.
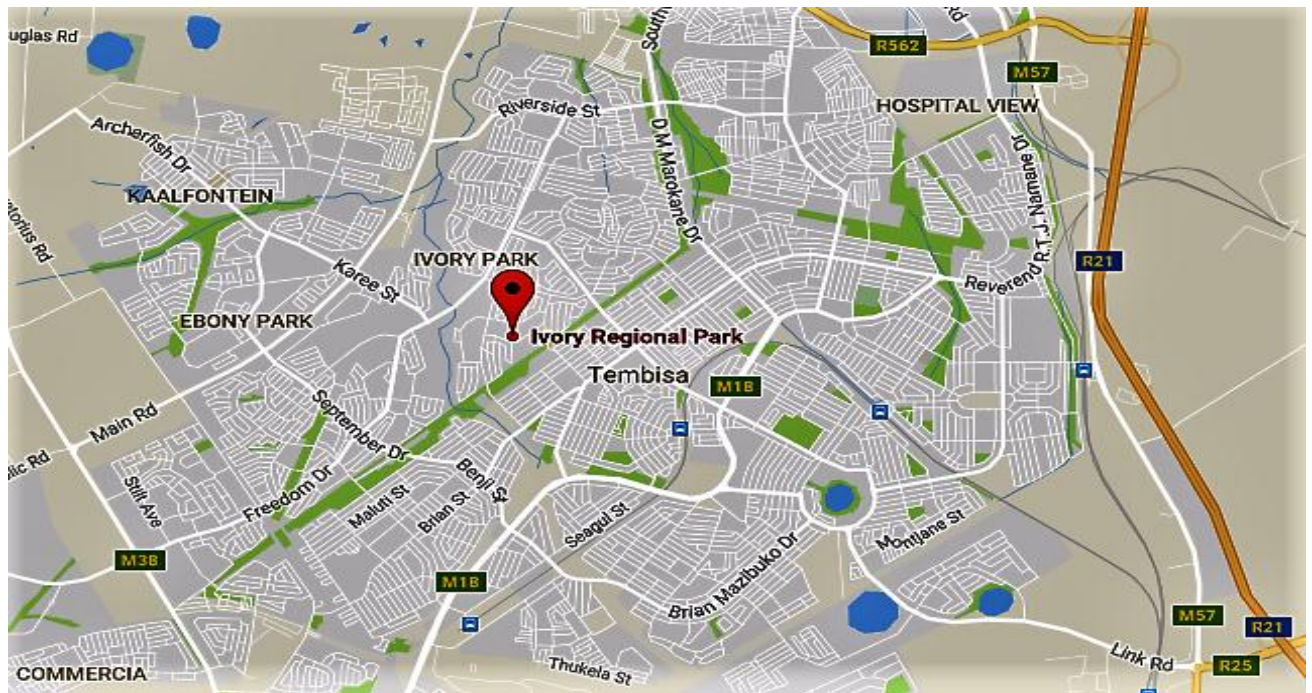
Figure 4.2: Location of the Ivory Regional Park
Source: **AfriGIS (2016)**

4.3.3.1 Sampling Method

For purposes of this study, a combination of both stratified and convenience probability sampling was implemented. Stratified sampling is a sampling method whereby the population is separated into mutually exclusive groups, and random samples are drawn from each group (Fowler 2013:15). The incitement for using this method is that it guarantees a representation of responses from all communities (Dlodlo 2009:65). Stratification was based on the residential areas of respondents. However, due to the informal structure of the demarcation of this study (townships), convenience sampling followed stratified sampling (in each stratum), questionnaires were distributed at convenience, to select households from which representatives would participate. This is a method that utilises the units that are readily available for conducting the study (Leedy & Ormrod 2014:197).

4.3.3.2 Sample Frame

A sample frame can be defined as the complete list of elements or population from which the sample for the study is drawn (Cooper & Schindler 2001:170). After having identified the target population, information on the estimated population size of selected communities was derived from Statistics South Africa. According to the

census conducted in 2011, the estimated population size of Ivory Park was 184 383, of Ebony Park was estimated to be 22 309 and lastly Kaalfontein's population size was estimated to be 46 174 (Stats SA 2011). Therefore a sample size of this study was derived from these strata.

4.3.3.3 Sample Size

Sample size denotes the number or size of the sample from which the required information is obtained (Kumar 2011:194). Blumberg, Cooper, & Schindler (2005:232) explain that, when determining the sample size, it is important to determine how well it represents the features of the population and this is influenced by truthfulness and accuracy. Accuracy is the extent to which prejudice is absent from the sample, and exactness is measured by the standard error of estimate – the smaller the standard error of estimate, the greater the accuracy of the sample. The main goal with sampling is to conclude, by applying facts, whether whatever is relevant for the sample will also be true for the population (Ramoliki 2013:70).

For purposes of this study, a sample size of 400 was deemed appropriate as it conforms to the sample size necessary to validate the study (Sekaran 2003:294; Krejcie & Morgan 1970:608). As highlighted by Krejcie and Morgan (1970:608), as the population increases at a lessening rate (plateau) it eventually remains constant at slightly more than 380 cases. There is little to be gained to warrant the expense to sample beyond more or less 384 cases. Previous studies were also compared, which served as a guideline for supporting the chosen sample size as indicated in Table 4.3. From the 400 questionnaires distributed, 378 were adequately completed.

Table 4.3: Sample size determination based on historical approach

AUTHOR	YEAR	SCOPE OF RESEARCH	SAMPLE SIZE
Acha-Anyi, P.N.	2014	Developing a sustainable community tourism strategy for townships: The case of Soshanguve	401

Ramoliki, M. J.	2013	Determining Sasolburg residents' perceptions of tourist safety and security in South Africa	450
Maloi, R.	2011	An approach to integrate visitors' behaviour as a key driver in developing tourism marketing and planning strategies in the Vaal region of South Africa	400
Loots, I.	2010	Social Determinants of community support for the Klein Karoo National Arts Festival	500

Source: **Researcher's own compilation**

4.3.3.4 Measuring Instrument

A measuring instrument is a measure which combines the values of several variables into a composite measure in order to predict underlying results which can only be measured by a single item of a variable (Kothari 2004:120). A structured questionnaire was used for this study. According to McNabb (2004:37), the benefits of using a questionnaire as a research method include its flexibility, and its customisation to meet the objectives of almost any type of research. Moreover, it is a relatively fast method for gathering information and responses in a standardised manner, which makes it to be more objective (Constationos, Phellas, Bloch & Seale 2011:272). Therefore questionnaires can be regarded as a simple way of acquiring the desired information, provided it is logically structured and does not contain any ambiguity.

The instrument was divided into five sections:

- Section A of the questionnaire contained the demographic profile of each respondent. These demographic profiles of respondents included aspects such as gender, age, location, level of education, number of park visits and knowledge of IRP. For this section, closed-ended questions were used to acquire the demographic information of respondents.

- Section B covered motivations for visiting IRP. For this section of the questionnaire, questions were adapted from the works of Clayton & Opotow (2003), Shere Neil (2009:12), D'Souza (2012), Ramoliki (2013) and Acha-Anyi (2014), which all

resulted in a Cronbach-Alpha being above 0.06 indicating an internal consistency among variables. The focus of this section was centred on the motivations of respondents for visiting the Ivory Regional Park. Closed-ended questions were used to obtain information.

- For section C, a set of forty-two (42) questions were distinct to obtain an understanding of the respondents' perceptions of impacts regarding urban ecotourism. For this section, a five-point Likert scale was used to determine perceptions of host communities with regard to urban ecotourism. It is therefore significant to note here that the objective of exploring the perceptions of host communities was to establish how this could influence their participation in ecotourism projects. It was therefore deemed appropriate to extract constructs in this section based on subsequent questions that were notices through literature focusing on the urban ecotourism system. The works of Clayton and Opotow (2003), Sherer (2006), Wearing and Neil (2009:12) and D'Souza (2012:22) were used for referencing.

- Section D's focus was based on community involvement and participation. The theoretical foundation here indicates that participation in urban ecotourism is influenced by issues such as education, accessibility, culture, past experiences and preferences, and expectations and images (Ormsby & Mannie 2006:273; Lai & Nepal 2006:1118; Page & Connel 2006:350; Stronza & Gordillo 2008:449; Weaver 2008:193; Xu *et al* 2009:32; Tosun 2005:336;; Aref, Ma'rof, & Sarjit 2010:17; Acha-anyi 2014:102). Once more, a five-point Likert scale was used for this section. Here attention was mainly focused on the importance of community involvement and participation as well as the barriers thereto.

- The last part of the questionnaire, section E, set out to establish inputs and suggestions of respondents regarding urban ecotourism. Open-ended questions were used for this section. The reason here was to enable respondents to express themselves freely without adhering to any formal structure.

4.4 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Research is a form of human demeanour that has to imitate the generally accepted norms and values of society (Mouton 2003:238). To conduct research entails not only proficiency and persistence, but also morality and integrity (Resnik 2011). Hence,

ethical considerations are compulsory in research in order to remove transgression in science. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, research was carried out after written permission had been granted by the Johannesburg City Parks as they are the custodians and management of parks within the Johannesburg municipality. Respondents who participated in this research had to be above eighteen years of age and willing to participate in the survey and anonymity of respondents was ensured.

4.5 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is a procedure that entails inspecting, cleaning, transforming, and modelling data with the main objective of emphasising useful information, suggesting conclusions, and supporting decision making (Adèr, Mellenbergh & Hand 2008:54). Data analysis is conducted to allow the researcher to distinguish consistent patterns within the data and furthermore, to enable the researcher to generalise the findings from the sample used in the research to the larger population in which the research has taken place (Bles & Higson-Smith 2000:137).

For this study, soon after the data collection process, the researcher captured the data on an Excel spread sheet with the aim of simplifying the input of the data. The inspection and cleaning process of the data was also done by the researcher, which resulted in 378 usable questionnaires. The data was then analysed by means of Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) (version 24), processed by Statistical Services of North-West University and analysed by the researcher.

All sections of the questionnaire were firstly analysed using descriptive statistics. Descriptive statistics are methods that help to state the appearance of the data. These measures assist in summarising data in a manner that it captures the most important aspects in a given data set (Stangor 2007:114). Tallies were used to determine the number of cases falling within common categories and these were assembled into frequency tables. In some instances, a central value was essential for describing the series of the data; therefore arithmetic means were calculated.

Secondly, exploratory factor analyses were used to analyse Sections B, C and D. An exploratory factor analysis is a name that includes techniques for probing data sets for purposes of identifying factors or latent variables (Elliot & Woodward 2016:271). A

factor analysis is described as a co-dependent procedure which is used for defining the underlying arrangement among variables in the analysis (Hair, Black, Anderson & Tatham 2006:71). Furthermore, this method is used to establish variables that tend to relate to one another, and then to establish magnitudes of these correlations (Malhotra 2007:609). Therefore, by using this method, it becomes easy for the researcher to detect a reasonably small number of factors that explain observed correlations between variables (Martin 2007:102). Exploratory factor analysis was used to determine attributes that influence the perceptions of host communities regarding urban ecotourism.

Thirdly, the results of the factor analyses were used to analyse the effect of socio-demographic characteristics on the economic impacts, social impacts, environmental impacts, educational impacts as well as involvement of the community. This was achieved by applying independent *t*-test and one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

A *t*-test is well-thought-out to be one of the most common versatile tests in the territory of empirical research and survey methodology (Knapp 2014:90). An independent *t*-test is a statistical method used to compare two sample means (Cunningham & Aldrich 2012:105). This statistical method is furthermore used to conclude whether the unknown means of two populations are different from one another (Elliot & Woodward 2016:82). Elliot and Woodward (2016:82) also state that the samples for a two-sample *t*-test can also be obtained from a single population that has been randomly divided into two-subgroups. However, in this study samples were drawn from two separate populations. An independent *t*-test was applied to determine the influence of gender (male and female) on the impacts of urban ecotourism.

The one-way analysis of variance is a technique that tests significant differences between three or more means (Longest 2012:144). It determines significance via the calculation of the (f) statistic. The value of (f) is calculated when the variance of the total group is compared with the variance of the individual group (Cunningham & Aldrich 2012:12). The ANOVA test is similar to a *t*-test, expect that the *t*-test compares two groups of continuous variables with one another and ANOVA compares three or more groups simultaneously (Knapp 2014:120). In this study, ANOVAS were applied

to compare the influence of demographic profile of respondents namely: age, location, education, number of park visits and knowledge to impacts of urban ecotourism.

Once the *t*-test and ANOVAS had been implemented, correlation analyses were applied to the data. Correlation analysis refers to a statistical method used for measuring the closeness of an association among two or more variables in terms of direction, strength of relationship and type (Longest 2012:148). Direction is indicated by the (r) value. Positive correlations materialise when the two variables move into the same direction (r= +1), while negative correlations develop when two variables move in different directions (r= -1) (Knapp 2014176). It is the degree to which deviations in one variable are recognised with variations in another variable which is identified by correlation coefficients (r) (McDaniel & Gates 2006:407).

For purposes of this study, Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was used to determine the strength of the relationship among factors. Cunningham and Aldrich 2012:157) point out that Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is used when both variables are measured at a scale interval/ratio. The variables also need to be roughly distributed and have a linear relationship. Hence Person's coefficient is referred to as a parametric descriptive statistic (Cunningham & Aldrich 2012:157).

In order to determine the reliability of the measuring instrument, Cronbach Alpha Values were calculated for the different factors. Longest (2012:183) describes Cronbach Alpha as being an indicator that assesses how well a set of variables group or "hang together". Further to this, it is used to establish whether a group of variables can be genuinely joined into a single index or scale.It can range from 0 to 1, with values close to 1 indicating that the items are closely related and have a high internal consistency, which forms an effective index (Longest 2012:183). Therefore, the higher the correlation coefficient, the greater the reliability of the measuring instrument (Malhotra 2004:267).

4.6 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to provide an overview of the research process followed in this study with specific attention to methods and analyses. Attention was given to the manner in which the literature study was conducted and how it added value to the study. This research followed both descriptive and explanatory research designs which were based on quantitative research. A survey method, namely the questionnaire, was administered to acquire the necessary information, and three hundred and seventy-eight (378) questionnaires were used for analysis.

The analyses were done through descriptive and inferential statistics so that a fair representation of the population can be provided and the research problem be solved. Thus the following chapter (chapter 5) presents the results of this study.

CHAPTER 5

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

5

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study is to determine the perception of host communies regarding urban ecotourism in the Ivory Regional Park and provide insight into current viewpoints of community members as well as to present viable strategies on improving these perceptions. The preceding chapter described the design and research methodology used in the study. The procedure used to collect, capture, process and analyse data was also presented. All organisational and essentially methodological components relevant to the study were taken to ensure validity and reliability of the study.

Therefore this chapter will focus on the results obtained from the survey and the subsequent statistical procedures applied to analyse these findings. The significance of the findings will be discussed in the context of the overall aims of the research. To acquire a thorough understanding and the context and reality of participating respondents, four hundred questionnaires were distributed among the residents of selected areas of Johannesburg, of which 378 were completed in full, captured and analysed by means of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, version 24).

The following sections therefore present the empirical results from the survey of visitors to the IRP, starting with the demographic profile, community involvement and participation.

5.2 DESCRIPTIVE RESULTS

The descriptive results of this study are divided into four sections. Firstly, the socio-demographic information of the respondents is discussed, followed by visiting behaviour of respondents. In the third section attention is given to motivations for visiting IRP of respondents and in the fourth section community involvement and participation are discussed.

5.2.1 Socio-Demographic Profile of Respondents

Before analysing the perceptions of host communities it is imperative to understand who they are. Hence the following section focuses on the demographic information of respondents that participated in this study. This formed part of Section A of the questionnaire. The issues under consideration were: gender, age, place of residence and level of education (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Summary of Socio-Demographic Information of respondents

VARIABLES	CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Gender	Male	231	**61%**
	Female	147	**39%**
Age	Under 21	54	14%
	21-30	**182**	**48%**
	31-40	**80**	**21%**
	41-50	30	8%
	50+	32	9%
Place of Residence	Ivory Park	**216**	**57%**
	Ebony Park	78	21%
	Kaalfontein	84	22%
Level of Education	Below Grade 10	62	16%
	Grade 10-11	68	18%
	Grade 12	**185**	**50%**
	Diploma/Degree	**63**	**16%**

Table 5.1 depicts the demographic information of respondents that participated in this study. Therefore it is evident that of the 378 respondents included in the survey, 231 respondents (61%) were male and 174 female (39%). This indicates that more males visited Ivory Regional Park at the time of the survey.

The largest proportion of respondents was between 21 and 30 years of age (48%). This was then followed by the 31 to 40 years age group (21%). However, the average age of respondents that participated in this study was 31 years. Therefore, it can be concluded that the majority of respondents in this study fall within the category of the youth, which could be attributed to the fact that the data collection was collected in June 2016, also known as youth month in South Africa.

Table 5.1 also reflects that the majority of respondents reside in Ivory Park with the frequency representation of 216 (57%). This is then followed by Kaalfontein with a 22% and Ebony Park with a 21% representation of the sample. According to Table 5.1, the educational level of most respondents that participated in this study was grade 12 (50%). Very few respondents were in possession of either a diploma or degree qualification (16%).

5.2.2 Visiting Behaviour of Respondents

Table 5.2 reflects that the visiting behaviour statistics reveal that the majority of respondents (67%) that participated in this study visited the IRP more than five times. This accounted to an average of 4.23. Respondents indicated that they know the Park very well (67%). Only 6% of the visitors were not familiar with the park.

Table 5.2: Summary of visiting behaviour of respondents

VARIABLES	CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Number of previous visits to Ivory Regional Park per year	Once	13	3%
	Twice	44	12%
	3 times	40	11%
	4 times	28	7%
	5+ times	252	67%
Knowledge about Ivory Regional Park	Very well	253	67%
	Well	65	17%
	Fairly well	37	10%
	Not much	23	6%

5.2.3 Motivations for Visiting Ivory Regional Park

This question was aimed at providing a thorough understanding of the reasons why the respondents visit IRP. This is important as the motives for visiting IRP determines whether or not the facilities provided by the park meet the needs of the community which will enhance intention to return.

Table 5.3 gives a summary of the representation of respondents' motivations for visiting IRP. Variables with the mean value greater than 3.0 were considered as

"important to very important", while mean value less than 3.0 were considered to be "less important to not important".

Table 5.3: Motivations for visiting Ivory Regional Park

MOTIVATION I visit IRP to:	Not Important	Less Important	Important	Very Important	Mean Values (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
To get away from my daily routine	10%	14%	27%	**49%**	**3.17**	±.99
To Relax	3%	9%	28%	**68%**	**3.47**	±.76
To explore a new attraction	6%	14%	**48%**	32%	**3.06**	±.85
To spend time with family and friends	4%	10%	32%	**54%**	**3.36**	±.83
To let the children play	10%	12%	31%	**47%**	3.15	±.99
To learn about plants	12%	20%	**35%**	33%	3.89	±.99
To meet new people	5%	11%	40%	**44%**	3.24	±.82
To learn about other people's cultures	7%	14%	**45%**	34%	3.07	±.90
To exercise	7%	10%	41%	**42%**	3.17	±.88
To get away from problems at home	10%	12%	34%	**44%**	3.13	±.97
To attend an event	6%	12%	33%	**49%**	**3.26**	±.90
To take photographs	11%	17%	29%	**43%**	3.04	±1.02
To unite with nature	16%	19%	**45%**	30%	3.99	±.86
To appreciate the green open space	7%	12%	35%	**46%**	3.20	±.91
To do bird-watching	30%	**37%**	22%	11%	**2.86**	±.97
To experience peacefulness	7%	11%	29%	**53%**	**3.30**	±.92

Therefore, as indicated in Table 5.3, the top five motivations for visiting IRP that were considered to be "important" to "very important" can be summarised as follows:

- To relax   96% (3.47; ±.76)
- To spend time with family and friends   86% (3.36; ±.83)
- To attend an event   82% (3.26; ±.90)
- To experience peacefulness   82% (3.30; ±.92)
- To explore a new attraction   80% (3.06; ±.85)

However, it is also evident that the majority of respondents considered bird watching as a "less important" to "not important" motivation for visiting IRP with a representation of 67% (2.86; ±.97).

5.2.4 Community Involvement and Participation

In order for urban tourism development to be successful, it is imperative to involve the host community as they form part of the tourism product. To emphasise this phenomenon, South African Tourism (SAT) regards host communities as the backbone of the tourism industry (SAT 2016). This means that tourism development will be more successful with the involvement of the local communities as their perceptions and attitudes are important for decision makers to achieve a sustainable urban ecotourism (Eshliki & Kaboudi 2012:333). Therefore this section focuses on the extent to which community members would like to participate in urban tourism developments.

5.2.4.1 Protection of Natural Resources

As illustrated in Figure 5.1, it is evident that the majority of respondents would like to be involved and participate in the protection of natural resources within IRP (95%), while only 5% of the respondents felt that they do not want to be part of this function. This corroborates with literature supporting the involvement of communities (Cobbinah 2015:182; Cole 2008:58, Huybers 2007:167, Zhang, Inbakaran and Jackson 2006:182).

Protection of natural resources

No, 5%

Yes , 95%
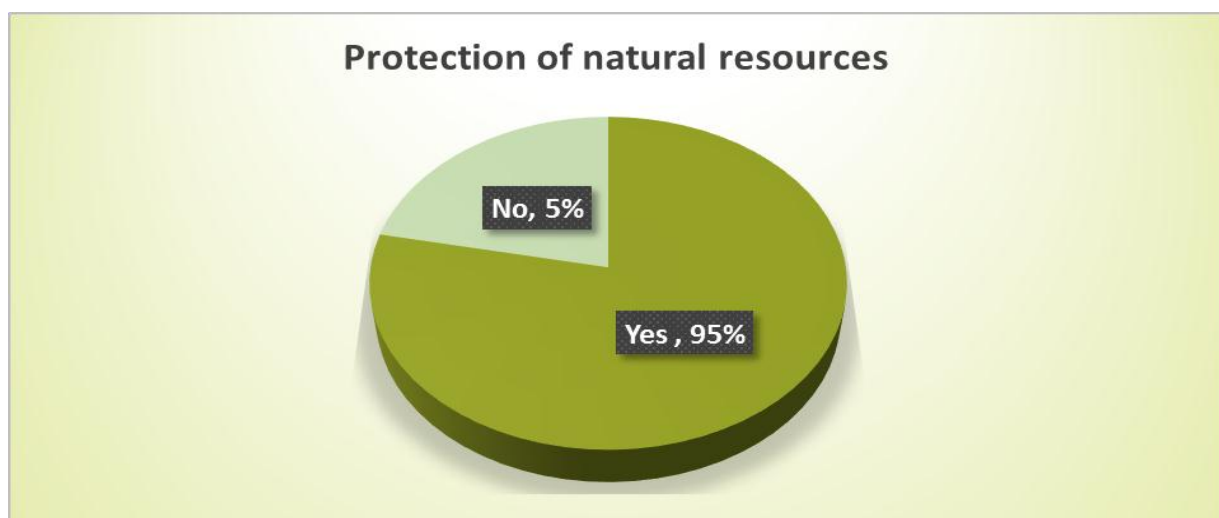
Figure 5.1: Protection of natural resources

5.2.4.2 Preferred Method of Communication

The focus of this question was to gain more insight into how community members would like to be consulted or communicated with, if they were to be involved and participate in urban tourism developments. The responses are presented in Table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4: Summary of preferred method of communication

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Method of communication	Volunteer groups	93	26%
	City Council Website	54	15%
	Public Exhibitions	48	13%
	Public meetings	127	34%
	SMS	38	11%

From the respondents that said they would like to be involved and participate in urban tourism developments, the majority indicated that they would prefer to be consulted by means of public meetings (34%), followed by those that wanted to be informed through volunteer groups (26%). However, attendance to these public meetings are questionable as it has not been a success in other areas.

5.2.4.3 Access to Ivory Regional Park

The enquiry on how community members access IRP was also deemed appropriate in order to assess the feasible location of the IRP. Table 5.5 depicts their responses.

Table 5.5: Access to Ivory Regional Park

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Access to the Ivory Regional Park (IRP)	Walk	361	**96%**
	Taxi	11	3%
	Car	6	1%

From Table 5.5 above, it is evident that most respondents walk to this park (96%) and are thus locally situated. Only 1% (6) of the respondents used a car to access IRP. This urban park should adhere to the needs of the immediate communities surrounding the park.

5.2.4.4 Concerns Regarding Ivory Regional Park

Respondents were asked to indicate their biggest concern when it comes to the IRP and Table 5.6 depicts their responses.

Table 5.6: Concerns regarding Ivory Regional Park

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTAGE
Biggest concern regarding IRP	Access	28	7%
	Rules	60	16%
	Safety	101	27%
	Damage to facilities	122	**32%**
	River	19	5%
	Litter	48	13%

From Table 5.6 it can be concluded that the majority of respondents are concerned about the damage of facilities (32%) as well as safety within IRP. These can be aspects that might inhibit future visits to the park and need attention.

5.2.4.5 Favourite Aspect about Ivory Regional Park

Having indicated their biggest concern regarding IRP in the previous section, respondents were also requested to provide an indication of their favourite aspect regarding IRP. Table 5.7 shows that most respondents are in favour of the fact that IRP serves more than one community (29%) followed by the fact that this park caters for everyone (including children) (22%). This proves that the location of the IRP is viable as most residents from different communities can access the park.

Table 5.7: Favourite aspect about Ivory Regional Park

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	FREQUENCY	PERCENTATGE
Favourite aspect about IRP	Easy to access	58	15%
	IRP is well taken care of	29	8%
	IRP is attractive	54	15%
	Serves more than one community	110	**29%**
	Clean compared to other local parks	43	11%
	Caters for everyone including children	84	22%

The following section was aimed at determining perceptions of respondents regarding the impacts of urban ecotourism on the IRP. A summary of these impacts is provided below.

5.3   IMPACTS OF URBAN ECOTOURISM ON IVORY REGIONAL PARK

As highlighted in the literature chapters of this study, the host communities' support for urban ecotourism depends on the perceived impacts tourism development will bring. This is furthermore emphasised by the social exchange theory that community members will engage in activities that will benefit them (Lee 2013:2; Weaver and Lawton 2013:166; Stylidis & Terzidou 2014:211). Therefore it was the aim of Section C in the questionnaire to determine the host communities' perceptions of the specific economic, socio-cultural, environmental and educational impacts that tourism development in the IRP will have on their community and themselves.

5.3.1 Economic Impacts

As highlighted in the preceding chapters, urban ecotourism is regarded as the catalyst for economic growth and development (Telfler & Sharpeley 2008:180). This is achieved through direct employment opportunities such as administration, guided tours, transportation, construction, hospitality and management; indirect employment, environmental management and entrepreneurship (Wearing & Neil 2009:126). Table 5.8 sums up the economic impacts perceived by host communities.

Table 5.8: Economic impacts of urban ecotourism

ECONOMIC IMPACT STATEMENTS	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean Values(M)	Std. Deviation (SD)
IRP provides job opportunities for local people	16%	11%	19%	**29%**	25%	**3.36**	**±1.38**
Local residents can sell their goods and services to visitors at IRP	12%	10%	14%	**39%**	25%	**3.55**	**±1.29**
There are increased business opportunities because of IRP	12%	7%	22%	**34%**	25%	**3.53**	**±1.27**

An entrance fee should be charged to access IRP	**44%**	23%	12%	10%	10%	**2.20**	**±1.35**
Because of IRP, prices of goods and services have increased	21%	14%	25%	**25%**	15%	3.02	±1.36
Visitors will spend money in the area so more visitors mean more wealth in the area.	18%	11%	19%	**29%**	23%	3.3	±1.40

From Table 5.8 it is clear that respondents agreed to strongly agreed with the following economic impacts:

- local residents can sell their goods to visitors to IRP: 64%
- there are increased business opportunities because of IRP: 59%
- IRP provides job opportunities for local people: 54%

Respondents strongly disagreed to disagreed with the following economic impacts:

- an entrance fee should be charged to access IRP: 67%

The mean values of the various economic impacts also support the importance of locals' opportunity to sell their goods at the park and the fact that due to the park, there are more business opportunities. Since it is only local residents that visit this park one might have to review the role of a tourist in an urban park. It is also evident that a large number of respondents disagree to strongly disagree that an entrance fee should be charged in order to access IRP. Therefore this correlates with the finding of Shackleton and Blair (2013:105), namely that public green spaces within cities should be accessible without hurdles that may prevent access, such as long distances, unsafe routes and entrance fees.

5.3.2 Social Impacts

Table 5.9 provides a summary of host communities' perceptions regarding social impacts of urban ecotourism. From the results presented in Table 5.9, it can be concluded that a significant number of respondents agreed to strongly agree with the following statements:

- residents would like tourists to visit IRP: 82%

- residents feel safe when visiting IRP during the day: 73%

- local communities must be involved in the development of tourism around Ivory Regional Park: 72%

- open green spaces in IRP are important as they help improve mental and physical health: 72%

- IRP improves the image of local communities: 71%

- IRP should be promoted as a tourism attraction: 70%

Since tourism is a service-based industry that is highly dependent on the goodwill and cooperation of host communities (Cole 2006:94), the main purpose of community involvement is to strengthen and improve communication between stakeholders in the interest of facilitating better decision-making for sustainable urban development (Nampila 2005:29). It was elaborated upon in the previous chapters that in order for tourism to take place in communities, the social exchange theory must occur (Telfer & Sharpley 2016:180). This means that community members generally participate in interactions where they have something of value and gain, be it material, social, or psychological. Hence people choose to take part in an exchange once they have scrutinised the rewards and the costs of such an exchange (Andereck, Valentine & Knopf 2005:1061).

Table 5.9: Social impacts of urban ecotourism

SOCIAL IMPACT STATEMENT	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean Values (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
IRP is visited by tourists on a regular basis	12%	12%	22%	**35%**	19%	3.36	±1.25
I like to interact with tourists in IRP because I learn about their cultures	7%	7%	20%	31%	**35%**	3.81	±1.18
IRP should be promoted as a tourism attraction	4%	5%	21%	**40%**	30%	3.88	±1.25
Jo'burg City Parks involves local communities in the planning of events that will be hosted in IRP	30%	**38%**	19%	7%	6%	3.78	±1.18

I want tourists to visit IRP	1%	6%	11%	**42%**	40%	**4.17**	±1.01
I feel safe when I visit IRP during the day	3%	4%	19%	**37%**	36%	**3.99**	±1.13
Local communities must be involved in the development of tourism around IRP	6%	7%	15%	**43%**	29%	3.80	±.87
Because of IRP there is an increase in rape charges	22%	19%	**23%**	18%	18%	**3.92**	±1.01
Because of IRP there is an increase in criminal activities e.g. mugging	20%	10%	**28%**	26%	12%	3.10	±1.13
There is vandalism in IRP	11%	10%	28%	**35%**	18%	3.38	±1.34
IRP is safe for tourists	9%	8%	27%	**36%**	20%	3.51	±1.20
Since the upgrade of the park, safety and security in the IRP has improved	6%	11%	26%	**38%**	19%	3.56	±1.08
IRP improves the image of local communities	3%	3%	23%	**44%**	27%	**3.9**	±0.91
Open green spaces in IRP are important as they help improve mental and physical health	3%	7%	18%	34%	**38%**	**3.97**	**±1.04**
IRP is one of the most attractive parks around Midrand	3%	5%	23%	32%	**37%**	**3.95**	±1.03
Because of IRP, there is more traffic congestion in the area	8%	7%	17%	**36%**	32%	3.77	±1.20
Sporting facilities in IRP are in good condition	15%	11%	**23%**	**23%**	13%	3.47	±1.02
There are many recreational facilities for community members in IRP	6%	14%	**34%**	30%	16%	3.39	±1.08
Because of IRP, local infrastructure has improved	8%	10%	**38%**	30%	16%	3.42	±1.12

The Table 5.9 depicts that respondents moderately agree to the following social impacts:

- Because of IRP, local infrastructure has improved: 38%
- There are many recreational facilities for community members in IRP: 34%

Respondents strongly disagreed to disagreed with the following social impacts:

- Jo'burg City Parks involves local communities in the planning of events that will be hosted in the IRP: 66%
- Because of IRP there is an increase in rape charges: 41%

The mean values of the various social impacts indicate that IRP has created a platform for local residents to engage with other people as it provides them with the opportunity to learn other people's cultures as well as improve their mental and physical health (=3.97). They feel that IRP is one of the most attractive parks around Midrand (=3.95), that they feel safe when visiting the park during the day (=3.99) and that the park improves the image of local communities (=3.90). Gursoy, Kim and Uysal (2004:171) emphasise that maintenance of public green spaces lead to higher levels of community participation in a form of exercise and experiencing fresh breathing space, which in turn improves the quality of life and well-being of community members (Shackleton & Blair 2013:108).

5.3.3 Environmental Impacts

The following table (Table 5.10) portrays a summary of the statistics based on the environmental perceptions of host communities regarding IRP.

Table 5.10: Environmental impacts of urban ecotourism

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT STATEMENT	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Moderately agree	Agree	Strongly agree	Mean Values (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
There are many rubbish bins placed around IRP	9%	8%	18%	**31%**	18%	**3.61**	±1.17
The river flowing through IRP is clean	17%	7%	23%	**30%**	23%	3.37	±1.35
Protecting IRP is important, so that children can play in a clean environment	3%	7%	16%	**41%**	33%	**3.95**	±1.00
Living in a clean environment around IRP reduces health problems	4%	7%	19%	**41%**	29%	3.85	±1.04
Community members should act as protectors of natural resources such as the river of IRP	9%	10%	18%	**33%**	30%	**3.65**	±1.27

There is clear communication of park rules at IRP e.g. Do's and Don'ts when visiting the park	11%	15%	24%	**29%**	21%	3.37	±1.26
The environment is dirty because of tourists that litter when visiting IRP	8%	15%	**32%**	29%	16%	3.29	±1.15
IRP is well managed	5%	11%	32%	**37%**	15%	3.47	±1.03
It is important to have a greater variety of indigenous plants in IRP	4%	13%	**31%**	29%	23%	3.56	±1.09
Because of IRP, there is greater protection of the river	10%	19%	**33%**	22%	16%	3.37	±3.13
There is not a lot of litter in IRP	6%	17%	**33%**	22%	22%	3.38	±1.16

With regard to the environmental impacts respondents agreed to strongly agreed with the following statements:

- Protecting IRP is important, so that children can play in a clean environment: 74%

Respondents moderately agreed with the following statements:

- Living in a clean environment around IRP reduces health problems: 70%
- Because of IRP, there is greater protection of the river: 33%
- There is not a lot of litter in IRP: 33%
- The environment is dirty because of tourists that litter when visiting: 32%

Environmental protection encourages awareness and appreciation of natural assets and the environment and other resources on which tourism relies, moreover it enhances management and stewardship of natural resources for the host community (Simpson 2008:3). This research supports the findings of Clayton and Opotow (2003) and Sherer (2006) that stated that as future generations for all communities, children need a safe space where they can play and intermingle to form social ties, and physical and intellectual development (Clayton & Opotow 2003; Sherer 2006). Therefore open green spaces create a platform for the development of strong and united communities. Hence the protection of the environment is emphasised.

5.3.4 Educational Impacts

The educational impacts of urban ecotourism are discussed below in Table 5.11.

Table 5.11: Educational impacts of urban ecotourism

EDUCATIONAL IMPACT STATEMENT	Strongly Disagree	Agree	Moderately Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Mean Values (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)
I am interested to learn more about the ways of protecting the environment in IRP	6%	9%	21%	**34%**	30%	**3.96**	±1.24
Cultural activities will allow tourists to learn about other cultures when visiting IRP	2%	8%	23%	**42%**	25%	**3.82**	±0.96
IRP gives me an opportunity to learn about people outside my community's way of life	3%	7%	24%	**41%**	25%	3.78	±1.00
It would make me proud if tourists learn about the history of communities around IRP	3&	9%	21%	**38%**	31%	**3.8**	±1.05
Awareness is created about saving water around IRP	5%	7%	21%	**38%**	29%	3.79	±1.09
Community members are not involved in protecting the environment because they don't know about environmental protection in IRP	7%	14%	24%	**34%**	21%	3.47	±1.18

According to Table 5.11, the majority of respondents (69%) agreed to strongly agreed that it would make them proud if tourists learn about the history of the communities around IRP. It was also found that respondents agreed to strongly agreed that cultural activities will allow tourists to learn about other cultures when visiting the IRP. This is represented by the mean value of 3.82 (±0.96). Heritage and cultural exchange is an important dimension of sustainable urban development as it forms part of the urban ecotourism offering. Hence cultural heritage is regarded as a mechanism for creating an authentic atmosphere within local communities, which in turn creates an identity for the place as an urban ecotourism destination (Ivanovic 2008:125).

Respondents also stated that awareness is created about saving water (67%). This correlates with Vincent and Thompson's study (2002:153), that in order for urban ecotourism sustainability to occur, community leaders should develop and support programs for local residents to learn more about environmental conservation.

Respondents also indicated that IRP gives them the opportunity to learn about people outside their community's way of life (66%). This is evident in Cole (2008:17), Ivanovic (2008:10), Sigala and Leslie (2005:06), that urban ecotourism enables people from outside the host community to experience the destination's culture and artistic and scientific lifestyle offerings of a community or region.

Up to this point, the findings have been analysed descriptively, but the inferential and multivariate statistical techniques are needed to acquire an in-depth understanding of the host community's perceptions regarding urban ecotourism. This is highlighted in the following section.

5.4 EXPLORATORY RESULTS

While the previous section focused on the frequency segments of the data, this section focuses on the factor analyses that were applied to the data. Factor analysis is a multivariate statistical technique that allows the examination of groups of variables that tend to be related to each other and identify the underlying dimensions that explain these relationships (Malhotra 2007:609). The main purpose of this was to reduce the number of research variables into identifiable groups. The first part of this section therefore analyses the reasons for visiting IRP and perceptions thereof.

5.4.1 Factor analysis: Reasons for Visiting Ivory Regional Park

A factor analysis was conducted on the 16 motivation items to identify the underlying dimensions in the motivation for visiting IRP and to group the variables into factors. The extraction method employed was the principal component analysis with Kaiser Normalization rotation. This analysis revealed five factors from the 16 items with eigenvalues of greater than one. These factors were labelled: Factor 1: Activity participation, Factor 2: Social interactions, Factor 3: Explore, Factor 4: Nature experience and Factor 5: Relaxation. These factors described 56% of the variance and all variables had factor loadings of higher that 0.35. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was performed on the data to test whether variables are uncorrelated (Malhotra 2007:614). A chi-square for the variable determinants was undertaken in order to obtain a test statistic for sphericity. The approximate chi-square for visit motivations was 1098.549 with 120 degrees of freedom which is significant ($p < 0.000$).

The Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) of sampling adequacy was also implemented to test the suitability of the data for factor analysis. A KMO value close to one indicates that the factor analysis may be applied to the data, therefore the large value ranging from 0.50 and greater is desirable (Malhotra 2007:615). In this study, the KMO value was discovered to be 0.676 which is acceptable for exploratory studies. In order to determine the internal reliability of the factors Cronbach's Alpha is calculated. Cronbach values ranging from 0.60 and greater indicate a reasonable reliability. Therefore, the higher the correlation coefficient, the greater the reliability of the measuring instrument (Malhotra 2004:267).Table 5.12 portrays a factor analysis on reasons for visiting IRP.

Table 5.12: Factor analysis: Reasons for visiting IRP

FACTOR LABEL	Factor 1 Activity Participation	Factor 2 Social Interactions	Factor 3 Explore	Factor 4 Nature Experience	Factor 5 Relaxation
To get away from problems at home	.800				
To attend an event	.795				
To take photographs	.564				
To learn about other people's cultures		.710			
To meet new people		.646			
To exercise		.577			
To spend time with family and friends		.550			
To let the children play		.375			
To learn about plants			.695		
To explore a new attraction			.614		
To do bird-watching			.389		
To appreciate the green open space				.476	
To experience peacefulness				.730	
To unite with nature				.436	
To relax					.743
To get away from daily routine					.697
Cronbach Alpha	.615	.588	**.461**	.575	**.363**
Inter item mean values	.353	.225		.310	

| Mean Values and Standard Deviations | 3.14 (±.72) | 3.19 (±.54) | | 3.16 (±.16) | |

Factor one was labelled *Activity participation* and includes aspects such as getting away from problems at home, attend an event and take photographs. This factor revealed a Mean value of 3.14 indicating that it is considered respondents to be important. Factor 2 was labelled *Social interactions* and revealed a CA of 0.588. This factor focuses on motivations such as to learn about other people's cultures, to meet new people, to exercise, to spend time with family and friends and to let the children play. The mean value revealed is 3.19 which is the highest mean value for the three factors.

Aspects that were included in Factor 3 *(Explore)* included to learn about plants, to explore a new attraction and to do bird watching. This factor exposed a CA of 0.461 and therefore this factor will not be utilised in further analyses. Factor 4 was labelled *Nature Experience* and consisted of variables such as to appreciate the green open space, to experience peacefulness and to unite with nature. From this factor, a mean value of 3.16 was revealed. Variables that made up Factor 5 *(Relaxation)* were to relax and to get away from daily routine. This factor reported a CA of 0.363 and again this will not be used in further analyses.

All means were found to be relatively similar, thus one motivation is not considered more important than the other. However, the main motivator to visit the Park is for *Social interactions*. These aspects lead to greater awareness and exposure of other people's way of life and as a result create greater and satisfying urban ecotourism products that meet the visitors' expectations. In the following section a factor analysis is performed on perceptions of the different impacts.

5.4.2 Factor Analysis: Economic Impacts of IRP

As indicated in Table 5.13, a factor analysis was conducted to determine the underlying variables of perceptions of the economic impacts of IRP. Variables were analysed using the Principal Component Analysis, initially rotated through the Varimax method with Kaiser Normalisation. Based on the examination of Table 5.13, two factors were revealed accounting for 67% of the total variance. According to Malhotra

(2007:617), the recommended level of satisfaction for extracted factors should amount to at least 60% of the total variance. Two factors were identified from 6 variables of which eigenvalues were greater than 1.0 and labelled: Factor 1: *Economic opportunities; Factor 2: Entrance fee.* Factor two only has one aspect and can therefore not be considered a factor on its own. This aspect will be individually analysed in any further analyses.

From Table 5.13 it is evident that *Economic Opportunities* yielded a Cronbach Alpha of 0.822 which is highly acceptable. There is thus a high level of internal consistency in this factor. Economic Opportunities include aspects such as IRP provides job opportunities for local people, local residents can sell their goods and services to tourists in IRP, there are increased business opportunities because of IRP, because IRP prices of goods and services have increased and tourists will spend money in the area, therefore more tourists mean more wealth in the area. The mean value of 3.35 was revealed and indicated that the majority of respondents considered IRP to create economic opportunities.

Table 5.13: Factor analysis: Economic impacts

FACTOR LABEL	Factor 1 Economic Opportunities	Factor 2 Entrance Fee
IRP provides job opportunities for local people	.796	
Local residents can sell their goods and services to tourists at IRP	.838	
There are increased business opportunities because of IRP	.851	
Because of IRP, prices of goods and services have increased	.638	
Tourists will spend money in the area so more tourists mean more wealth in the area.	.658	
An entrance fee should be charged to access IRP		.948
Cronbach Alpha	**.822**	
Inter item mean value	**.484**	
Mean Value and std deviation	**3.35(±.1.02)**	

5.4.3 Factor Analysis: Social Impacts of IRP

The nineteen factors influencing the perceptions of host communities based on the social impacts of urban ecotourism yielded six factors (Table 5.14) with 60% of the total variance explained and eigenvalues greater than 1.0. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was 0.679 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($p<0.000$). These factors were labelled as: Factor 1: Community improvement, Factor 2: Amenities, Factor 3: Crime, Factor 4: Involvement, Factor 5: Safety and security and Factor 6: Vandalism. The latter only has one aspect and can therefore not be considered a factor on its own, this aspect will be individually analysed in any further analyses.With all Cronbach's Alpha values measuring above 0.5, it can be considered acceptable for exploratory research. Factor 1 was labelled *Community improvement* and it includes aspects such as IRP should be promoted as a tourism attraction, I want tourists to visit IRP, open green spaces are important as they help improve mental and physical health, IRP is one of the most attractive parks around Midrand and because of IRP there is more traffic congestion in the area. This conforms to the study by Cowan, Lakeman, Leis, Lerch, and Semenza (2006:11) that urban ecotourism's mandate concentrates on improving local communities in order to create an initiation and solid basis for a more community-oriented and environmentally sustainable culture. The factor revealed a mean value of 3.94.

Factor 2 was labelled *Amenities* made up of aspects such as local communities must be involved in the development of tourism around IRP, IRP is safe for tourists, sporting facilities in IRP are in good condition, there are many recreational facilities for community members in IRP and because of IRP, local infrastructure has improved. This factor exposed a mean value of 3.52.

Factor 3 (*Crime)* entailed aspects such as because of IRP there is an increase in rape charges and that because of IRP there is an increase in criminal activities such as mugging. From this factor, a mean value of 3.01 was revealed. Factor 4 was labelled Involvement and consisted of aspects such as IRP is visited by tourists on a regular basis, I like to interact with tourists in IRP because I learn about their cultures, and Jo'burg City Parks involves local communities in the planning of events that will be hosted in IRP. This factor revealed a mean value of 3.65.

Factor 5 *(Safety and Security)* consisted of aspects such as I feel safe when I visit IRP during the day, since the upgrade of the park, safety and security in the IRP has improved, IRP improves the image of local communities. This factor revealed a mean value of 3.81.

It is evident from the above discussion that the factor with the highest mean value for the social determinants among host communities was *Community improvement* ($\bar{x}$=3.94). This means that improvement of host community surroundings is imperative when planning urban ecotourism projects, as the absence of this could result in loss of potential benefits.

Table 5.14: Factor analysis: Social impacts

FACTOR LABEL	Factor 1 Community Improvement	Factor 2 Amenities	Factor 3 Crime	Factor 4 Involvement	Factor 5 Safety And Security	Factor 6 Vandalism
IRP should be promoted as a tourism attraction	.465					
I want tourists to visit IRP	.515					
Open green spaces in IRP are important as they help improve mental and physical health	.724					
IRP is one of the most attractive parks around Midrand	.721					
Because of IRP, there is more traffic congestion in the area	.602					
Local communities must be involved in the development of tourism around IRP		.592				
IRP is safe for tourists		.717				
Sporting facilities in IRP are in good condition		.550				
There are many recreational facilities for community members in IRP		.607				
Because of IRP, local infrastructure has improved		.500				
Because of IRP there is an increase in rape charges			.854			
Because of IRP there is an increase in criminal activities e.g. mugging			.743			

IRP is visited by tourists on a regular basis				.847		
I like to interact with tourists in IRP because I learn about their cultures				.622		
Jo'burg City Parks involves local communities in the planning of events that will be hosted in IRP				.472		
I feel safe when I visit IRP during the day					.504	
Since the upgrade of the park, safety and security in the IRP has improved					.808	
IRP improves the image of local communities					.616	
There is vandalism in IRP						.767
Cronbach Alpha`	.658	.683	.704	.569	.596	
Inter-item mean values	.352	.159	.150	.253	.306	
Mean Values and Standard deviations	**3.94 (±.67)**	3.52 (±73)	3.01 (±1.20)	3.65 (±.87)	**3.81 (±.74)**	

5.4.4 Factor Analysis: Environmental Impacts of IRP

As demonstrated in Table 5.15, factor analysis based on the perceptions of the environmental impacts of urban ecotourism was conducted. The extraction method employed was the principal component analysis followed by the Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation rotation method. From this, four factors were revealed from the 10 items with eigenvalues greater than one. These factors were labelled: Factor 1: Environmental benefits, Factor 2: Participation, Factor 3: Nature conservation and Factor 4: Rules. Due to the low Cronbach Alpha of Factors 3 and 4 these factors will not be used in further analysis. These factors described 57% of the variance. The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was performed and resulted in 0.909 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was highly significant ($p < 0.000$).

Table 5.15: Factor analysis: environmental impact

FACTOR LABEL	Factor 1 Environmental benefits	Factor 2 Participation	Factor 3 Nature conservation	Factor 4 Rules
Protecting IRP is important, so that children can play in a clean environment	.585			

Living in a clean environment around IRP reduces health problems	.475			
IRP is well managed	.688			
There is not a lot of litter in IRP	.711			
Community members should act as protectors of natural resources such as the river of IRP		.774		
It is important to have a greater variety of indigenous plants in IRP		.664		
The river flowing through IRP is clean			.603	
The environment is dirty because of tourists that litter when visiting IRP			.768	
Because of IRP, there is greater protection of the river			.615	
There are many rubbish bins placed around IRP				.585
There is clear communication of park rules at IRP e.g. Do's and Don'ts when visiting the park				.733
Cronbach Alpha	.538	.528	**.327**	**.376**
Inter item mean values	.228	.363		
Mean Values and Std deviations	3.66(±.69)	3.60(±.97)		

Factor 1 was labelled environmental benefits and was made up of aspects such as Protecting IRP is important, so that children can play in a clean environment, Living in a clean environment around IRP reduces health problems, IRP is well managed, and there is not a lot of litter in IRP. This factor exposed a mean value of 3.66.

Factor 2 was labelled participation and includes aspects such as community members should act as protectors of natural resources such as the river of IRP and it is important to have a wider variety of indigenous plants in IRP. The factor resulted in a mean value of 3.60. It is therefore evident that the host community is aware that they need to participated in urban ecotourism protects.

5.4.5 Factor Analysis: Educational Impacts of IRP

In order to understand how a perception of urban ecotourism is formed, it was deemed appropriate to conduct a factor analysis based on the educational impacts. The results of the factor analysis revealed two factors as dimensions of educational impacts. These two dimensions with six attributes explained 56% of the total variance. The extraction method utilised is principal axis factoring and the rotation method was Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant

(p<0.001) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was 0.683, which is acceptable. The two factors were labelled: Factor 1: Community empowerment and Factor 2: Awareness. Due to the low Cronbach Alpha value of Factor 2 it cannot be considered a factor (0.475) (see Table 5.16).

Table 5.16: Factor analysis: Educational impacts

FACTOR LABEL	Factor 1 Community Empowerment	Factor 2 Awareness
I am interested to learn more about the ways of protecting the environment in IRP	.759	
Cultural activities will allow tourists to learn about other cultures when visiting IRP	.725	
IRP gives me an opportunity to learn about people outside my community's way of life	.636	
It would make me proud if tourists learn about the history of communities around IRP	.626	
Awareness is created about saving water around IRP		.863
Community members are not involved in protecting the environment because they don't know about environmental protection in IRP		.655
Cronbach Alpha	.657	.475
Inter item mean value	.334	
Mean Values and Standard deviation	**3.78(±.75)**	

Community empowerment included aspects such as I am interested to learn about the ways of protecting the environment in IRP, cultural activities will allow tourists to learn about other cultures when visiting IRP, IRP gives me an opportunity to learn about people outside my community's way of life, it would make me proud if tourists learn about the history of communities around IRP. This factor revealed a high mean value of 3.78, indicating that host communities are interested in being empowered to learn more about urban ecotourism.

5.4.6 Factor Analysis: Community Involvement

From Table 5.17 it is evident that a factor analysis was performed regarding community involvement. One factor was identified from the five variables, with the KMO of 0.717. The Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant (p<0.001). Data was analysed by means of the method of principal axis factoring. However, it is evident

that community involvement is imperative in urban ecotourism as they are the key service providers and form part of the product. This also conforms to the studies of Li (2006:133) and Youdelis (2013:162) that community involvement in urban ecotourism is likely to help increase the host communities' morale as they will be involved in decision making. This factor revealed a mean value of 4.18 and Cronbach Alpha of 0.682 indicating that there is high internal consistency.

Table 5.17: Factor analysis: Community involvement

FACTOR LABEL	Factor 1 Involvement
Community members should take the leading role as entrepreneurs in and around IRP	.672
Community members residing around IRP must voice their concerns during the decision making phase	.622
Community members should take the leading role as employees of tourism at all levels in and around IRP	.765
Local community members must participate in tourism planning and management	.704
Local community members must be consulted, but final decisions on tourism development in and around IRP must be made by formal bodies. e.g. government	.568
Cronbach Alpha	**.682**
Inter item mean value	**.306**
Mean Value and Std deviation	**4.18(±.60)**

5.4.7 Summary of Factor Analysis on Perceptions of Urban Ecotourism

The summary in Table 5.18 revealed three valid reasons for visiting IRP, one economic impact, five social impacts, two environmental impacts, one educational impact and one community involvement factor. These aspects will be utilised in the next section.

Table 5.18: Summary of factor analyses

VARIABLE	NUMBER OF FACTOR	FACTOR NAME
Reasons for visiting IRP	Factor 1	Activity Participation
	Factor 2	Social interaction
	Factor 4	Nature experience
Economic impacts	Factor 1	Economic opportunities

Social impacts	Factor 1	Community improvement
	Factor 2	Amenities
	Factor 3	Crime
	Factor 4	Involvement
	Factor 5	Vandalism
Environmental impacts	Factor 1	Environmental benefits
	Factor 2	Participation
Educational impacts	Factor 1	Community empowerment
Involvement	Factor 1	Involvement

5.5 INFERENTIAL RESULTS

It is not only important to know the perceptions of respondents regarding urban ecotourism, but equally imperative to see which aspects can influence these perceptions. Therefore the purpose of this section is to analyse gender, age, place of residence, level of education, number of visits and knowledge of IRP. This is done by means of *t*-tests and ANOVAs on the impacts and involvement.

A. ASPECTS INFLUENCING THE IMPACTS

This section aims at reporting on aspects influencing various impacts**.**

5.5.1 Influence of Gender on Impacts

Table 5.19 indicates the results of the independent samples *t*-test conducted with a view to determine the influence of gender on the impacts of urban ecotourism. The Table shows significant statistical differences ($p < 0.05$) between scores of both male and female on three impacts.

Table 5.19: *t*-test for comparison by gender

Impacts	Factor Label	Male (N=231)	Female (N=147)	F-Value	p-Value
Economic Impacts	Economic Opportunities	3.35(±1.01)	3.34(±1.03)	.000	.993
Social Impacts	Community Improvement	4.01(±.65)	3.84(±.69)	5.963	**.015**
	Amenities	3.51(±.73)	3.52(±.74)	.004	.948

	Crime	2.88(±1.23)	3.21(±1.24)	7.010	**.008**
	Safety and Security	3.84(±.78)	3.77(±.70)	.673	.412
	Vandalism	3.29(±1.23)	3.53(±1.14)	3.379	.054
Environmental Impacts	Environmental Benefits	3.38(±.72)	3.64(±.64)	.299	.585
	Participation	3.65(±.99)	3.54(±.93)	1.174	.279
Educational Impact	Community Empowerment	3.87(±.72)	3.66(±77)	7.564	**.006**
Involvement	Involvement	4.15(±.58)	4.23(±.64)	1.442	.231

p<0.05 *

The independent *t*-test yielded three significant variations among impacts and gender. Firstly, with regard to community improvement, male respondents ($\bar{x}$=4.01) rated Community Improvement more important than female respondents ($\bar{x}$=3.84). Secondly, in the case of crime, females ($\bar{x}$=3.21) perceived crime to be more important than males ($\bar{x}$=2.88). Thirdly, male respondents rated community empowerment ($\bar{x}$=3.87) higher than did female respondents ($\bar{x}$=3.66). Therefore it can be concluded that gender has an influence on perceptions of urban ecotourism.

5.5.2 Influence of Age on Impacts

An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) yielded two significant variations among age groups. Firstly, with regard to economic opportunities, significant differences were evident between the various age groups (p=0.000). The post-hoc Tukey test showed that respondents under 21 rated economic opportunities lower ($\bar{x}$=2.28) than all the other age groups between 21 and 30 ($\bar{x}$=3.37), between 31 and 40 ($\bar{x}$=3.43), between 41 and 50 ($\bar{x}$=3.79) and 50+ years ($\bar{x}$=3.50)). Secondly, with regard to crime, significant differences were evident between the various age groups (p=0.000). The post-hoc Tukey test revealed that respondents under 21 ($\bar{x}$=2.52) perceived crime less important than those between 21 and 30 years of age ($\bar{x}$=3.04), between 41 and 50 years of age ($\bar{x}$=3.70) as well as those that are 50 and above ($\bar{x}$=3.31).

Respondents between 21 and 30 years of age ($\bar{x}$=3.04) rated crime less important than those between 41 and 50 years of age ($\bar{x}$=3.70) and lastly respondents between 31 and 40 years of age ($\bar{x}$=2.09) rated crime less important than respondents between

41 and 50 years of age ($\bar{x}$=3.70). Therefore, one could deduct that younger respondents did not consider the IRP to influence the increase of criminal activities and that they do not consider this park to provide economic opportunities. Age does influence perceptions of economic opportunities and crime.

.Table 5.20: ANOVA for comparison by age

Impacts	Factor Label	Under 21 N= 54	21-30 N=182	31-40 N=80	41-50 N=30	50+ N=32	F-Value	p-Value
		Mean & Std dev	*Mean & Std Dev*	*Mean & Std Dev*	*Mean & std Dev*	*Mean & Std Dev*		
Economic Impacts	Economic Opportunities	2.28 (±1.09)	3.37 (±.93)	3.43 (±1.02)	3.79 (±1.22)	3.50 (±1.02)	5.162	**.000**
Social Impacts	Community Improvement	3.86 (±.62)	3.97 (±.66)	4.05 (±.63)	3.93 (±.74)	3.72 (±.84)	1.667	.157
	Amenities	3.47 (±.69)	3.52 (±.69)	3.51 (±.73)	3.59 (±.92)	3.53 (±.85)	.136	.969
	Crime	2.52 (±1.11)	3.04 (±1.81)	2.09 (±1.72)	3.70 (±1.20)	3.31 (±1.21)	5.631	**.000**
	Safety and Security	3.73 (±.71)	3.87 (±.73)	3.81 (±.76)	3.73 (±.71)	3.73 (±.92)	.955	.432
	Vandalism	3.33 (±1.33)	3.36 (±1.35)	3.26 (±1.24)	3.80 (±1.03)	3.50 (±1.34)	1.221	.302
Environmental Impacts	Environmental Benefits	3.73 (±.77)	3.70 (±63)	3.56 (±.58)	3.58 (±.81)	3.69 (±.95)	.725	.576
	Participation	3.60 (±1.03)	3.64 (±.94)	3.54 (±.85)	3.90 (±.96)	3.33 (±1.21)	1.497	.203
Educational Impact	Community Empowerment	3.74 (±.71)	3.79 (±.77)	3.87 (±.66)	3.56 (±.92)	3.88 (±.72)	1.804	.127
Involvement	Involvement	4.16 (±.58)	4.13 (±.65)	4.28 (±.45)	4.32 (±.63)	4.09 (±.67)	1.432	.223

p<0.05

5.5.3 Influence of Place of Residence on Impacts

Table 5.21 indicates that there were significant differences among place of residence. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) yielded three significant variations for location and various impacts. Firstly, with regard to economic opportunities significant differences were evident for respondents from different communities (p=0.000). The post-hoc Tukey test showed that respondents who reside in Ivory Park rated economic opportunities higher ($\bar{x}$=3.27) than those that reside in Kaalfontein ($\bar{x}$=3.62). Secondly, with regard to crime, significant differences were evident between various communities. The post-hoc Tukey test revealed that respondents from Ivory Park ($\bar{x}$=2.8) perceived crime to be less important than those from Kaalfontein ($\bar{x}$=3.43). Lastly, in terms of vandalism significant differences were found between various communities. Respondents located in Ivory Park considered crime to be less important ($\bar{x}$=3.21) than those located in Kaalfontein ($\bar{x}$=3.75). Therefore it can be concluded that residents who live in Ivory Park did not consider IRP to have economic benefits, they also did not regard crime or vandalism as a major concern. Place of residence does influence perceptions of economic opportunities, crime and vandalism.

Table 5.21: ANOVA for comparison by place of residence

Impacts	Factor Labels	Ivory Park N=216	Ebony Park N=78	Kaalfontein N=84	F-Value	p-Value
		Mean & Std dev	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*		
Economic Impacts	Economic Opportunities	3.27(±1.06)	3.34(±1.03)	3.62(±.89)	3.860	**.010***
Social Impacts	Community Improvement	3.95(±.72)	3.87(±.73)	4.00(±.48)	.543	.653
	Amenities	3.51(±.75)	3.45(±70.)	3.64(±.64)	2.429	.065
	Crime	2.8(±1.18)	3.01(±1.24)	3.43(±1.07)	6.228	**.000***
	Safety and Security	3.80(±.81)	3.84(±72.)	3.78(±.59)	.976	.404
	Vandalism	3.21(±1.27)	3.41(±1.08)	3.75(±1.00)	4.014	**.008***
Environmental Impacts	Environmental Benefits	3.68(±.73)	3.60(±.57)	3.69(±.63)	1.290	.277
	Participation	3.57(±.98)	3.69(±.87)	3.27(±.92)	.767	.513
Educational Impact	Community Empowerment	3.84(±.78)	3.73(±.65)	3.67(±.70)	2.034	.109
Involvement	Involvement	3.60(±.92)	3.60(±.85)	3.75(±.73)	1.613	.186

p<0.05 *

5.5.4 Influence of Education on Impacts

Table 5.22 indicates that there were significant differences for education. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) yielded nine significant variations among education and various impacts. Firstly, with regard to economic opportunities, significant differences were evident between respondents with different levels of education (p=0.000). The post-hoc Tukey test showed that respondents with education levels below grade 10 ($\bar{x}$= 3.69) considered economic opportunities to be more important than those with a grade 10 or 11 ($\bar{x}$= 3.09) as well as those with a matric (grade 12) qualification ($\bar{x}$=3.17). Secondly, with regard to community improvement, significant differences were evident between various levels of education. The post-hoc Tukey test revealed that respondents whose education is below grade 10 ($\bar{x}$= 3.84), rated community improvement to be less important compared to those with a grade 10 or 11($\bar{x}$= 4.15) and diploma or degrees ($\bar{x}$= 4.26). This reveals that the less information host communities have about urban ecotourism, the more likely they are to refrain from participation. Thirdly, significant differences were also found regarding amenities on various levels of education. The post-hoc Tukey test discovered that respondents who are in possession of a higher education qualification diploma/degree ($\bar{x}$= 4.60) rated amenities higher than all other educational levels including below grade 10 ($\bar{x}$=3.65); grade 10 or 11(3.44) and grade 12 (3.40).The fourth significant differences were discovered pertaining to crime on various levels of education.

It was revealed by the post-hoc Tukey test that respondents who had acquired a diploma /degree ($\bar{x}$=3.67), regarded crime to be more important than all other educational levels: below grade10 ($\bar{x}$=3.50); grade 10 or 11($\bar{x}$=2.64) and grade 12 ($\bar{x}$=2.85). The fifth significant differences were found with regard to vandalism on various levels of education. The post-hoc Tukey test showed that respondents with below grade 10 ($\bar{x}$=3.24); grade 10 or 11($\bar{x}$=3.08) and grade 12($\bar{x}$=3.37) perceived vandalism to be less important than those with a diploma or a degree ($\bar{x}$=4.00)

Sixth significant differences were discovered to be environmental benefits on various educational levels. The post-hoc Tukey test indicated that respondents with a diploma or a degree ($\bar{x}$=4.66) considered environmental benefits to be more important than all other educational level groups. This included below grade 10($\bar{x}$=3.76); a grade 10 or 11($\bar{x}$=3.58) and grade 12 ($\bar{x}$=3.61). The seventh significant differences were detected pertaining to environmental benefits on various educational levels. Once more, the

post-hoc Tukey test revealed that respondents with a diploma or a degree (=4.66) rated environmental benefits higher than all other educational levels below grade 10($\bar{x}$=3.76), a grade 10 or 11($\bar{x}$=3.58) and grade 12($\bar{x}$=3.61). With regard to community empowerment, significant differences were found among various educational levels. The post-hoc Tukey test showed that respondents whose education level is below grade 10 ($\bar{x}$=3.85); grade 10 or 11($\bar{x}$=3.84) and grade 12($\bar{x}$=3.67) perceived community empowerment to be less important than those with a diploma or a degree ($\bar{x}$=4.08).

Lastly, significant differences were found among involvement and various educational levels. The post-hoc Tukey test detected that respondents with a diploma or a degree ($\bar{x}$=4.11) considered involvement to be more important than all other educational level groups. This included below grade 10($\bar{x}$=3.53); a grade 10 or 11($\bar{x}$=3.91) and grade 12 ($\bar{x}$=3.52). From the above-mentioned results it can be concluded that the more educated people are, the more they become independent thinkers. This indicates that people who are more knowledgeable about urban ecotourism have more positive perception about the community's way of life, image of the areas as well as the economy (Andeleck *et al.* 2005:1057). Therefore education influences perception of urban ecotourism impacts.

Table 5.22: ANOVA for comparison by education

Impacts	Factor Label	Below Grade10 N=62	Grade 10-11 N=68	Grade 12 N=185	Diploma /degree N=63	F-Value	P-Value
		Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Economic Impacts	Economic Opportunities	3.69 (±1.17)	3.09 (±1.02)	3.17 (±.95)	3.38 (±.84)	7.827	**.000***
Social Impacts	Community Improvement	3.84 (±.78)	4.15 (±.56)	3.89 (±.68)	4.26 (±.61)	2.230	**.029***
	Amenities	3.65 (±.79)	3.44 (±.48)	3.40 (±.79)	4.60 (±.46	7.471	**.000***
	Crime	3.50 (±1.21)	2.64 (±1.81)	2.85 (±1.18)	3.67 (±1.13)	6.876	**.000***
	Safety and Security	3.71 (±.83)	3.93 (±.65)	3.79 (±.75)	4.67 (±.28)	3.882	**.004***
	Vandalism	3.24 (±1.26)	3.08 (±1.23)	3.37 (±1.19)	4.00 (±.86)	3.82	**.005***
Environmental Impacts	Environmental Benefits	3.76 (±.80)	3.58 (±.68)	3.61 (±.66)	4.66 (±.25)	5.892	**.000***
	Particip ation	3.70 (±1.08)	3.45 (±.88)	3.59(±.97)	4.16 (±.90)	1.357	.248
Educational Impact	Community Empowerment	3.85 (±.69)	3.84 (±.54)	3.67 (±.85)	4.08 (±.69)	2.586	**.037***
Involvement	Involvement	3.53 (±.83)	3.91 (±.67)	3.52 (±.89)	4.11 (±.88)	3.880	**.004***

p<0.05*

5.5.5 Influence of the Number of Park Visits on Impacts

Table 5.23 indicates that there were significant differences for number of park visits. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) yielded six significant variations between number of park visits and various impacts. Firstly, with regard to economic opportunities, significant differences were evident between respondents' number of park visits and various impacts (p=0.000). The post-hoc Tukey test showed that respondents who had visited IRP 4 times a year ($\bar{x}$= 3.71) measured economic opportunities to be more important than those who visited IRP once ($\bar{x}$=3.33); twice ($\bar{x}$=3.41); 3 times ($\bar{x}$=2.58) as well as those that visited IRP more than 5 times ($\bar{x}$=3.42).

Secondly, with regard to amenities, significant differences were evident between various number of park visits (p=0.000). The post-hoc Tukey test revealed that respondents who visited IRP 4 times ($\bar{x}$= 3.95), rated amenities to be more important compared to all number of categories, namely once ($\bar{x}$=3.29); twice ($\bar{x}$= 3.38); three time ($\bar{x}$=3.60); including those that have visited the park 5+ times ($\bar{x}$=3.93). With regard to crime, significant, differences were evident between respondents' number of park visits and various impacts. The post-hoc Tukey test showed that respondents who had visited IRP 4 times ($\bar{x}$=3.53) perceived crime to be more important than all the other categories, being once ($\bar{x}$=2.34); twice ($\bar{x}$=2.19); 3 times ($\bar{x}$=3.00) as well as those that visited IRP more than 5 times ($\bar{x}$=3.13). Significant differences were also found with regard to vandalism among number of park visits and various impacts. The post-hoc Tukey test indicated that respondents who visited IRP 4 times ($\bar{x}$= 3.39), regarded vandalism to be more important than all number categories, namely once ($\bar{x}$= 3.53); twice ($\bar{x}$= 2.70); three times ($\bar{x}$=3.77); plus those who have visited the park 5+ times ($\bar{x}$= 3.42).

For environmental benefits, significant differences were also found among number of visits and various impacts. The post-hoc Tukey test signposted that respondents who visited IRP once ($\bar{x}$= 3.53); twice ($\bar{x}$= 2.21); three times ($\bar{x}$=3.65); including those that had visited the park 5+ times ($\bar{x}$= 3.73) regarded vandalism to be less important than those that had visited IRP 4 times ($\bar{x}$= 3.80).

Significant differences were also found regarding community empowerment among number of park visits and various impacts. It was the post-hoc Tukey test that revealed

that respondents who had visited IRP once ($\bar{x}=$ 3.46); twice ($\bar{x}=$ 3.66); three times ($\bar{x}=$3.60); including those that had visited the park 5+ times ($\bar{x}=$ 3.82) regarded community empowerment to be less important than those that had visited IRP 4 times ($\bar{x}=$ 4.08). From these results it is evident that the more people visit the park, the more they get thorough experience of it and are able to assess accordingly. However, it can also be concluded that the more time people spend at the park, the more knowledgeable they become about the park. Therefore number of park visits does affect perception of impacts.

Table 5.23: ANOVA for comparison by number of park visits

Impacts	Factor Label	Once N=13	Twice N=44	3 times N=40	4 times N=28	5+ times N=252	F-Value	p-Value
		Mean & Std dev	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*		
Economic Impacts	Economic Opportunities	3.33 (±1.34)	3.41 (±.36)	2.58 (±1.15)	3.71 (±.78)	3.42 (±1.03)	**6.115**	**.000***
Social Impacts	Community Improvement	4.04 (±1.07)	4.09 (±.80)	3.84 (±.69)	3.95 (±.55)	3.93 (±.63)	.693	.629
	Amenities	3.29 (±1.10)	3.38 (±.68)	3.60 (±.64)	3.55 (±.61)	3.61 (±.72)	4.80	**.000***
	Crime	2.34 (±1.14)	2.19 (±86)	3.00 (±97)	3.53 (±1.07)	3.13 (±1.24)	6.983	**.000***
	Safety and Security	3.23 (±1.37)	3.92 (±.62)	3.55 (±.75)	3.86 (±.550)	3.87 (±.73)	1.708	.090
	Vandalism	3.53 (±1.19)	2.70 (±1.11)	3.77 (±.86)	3.39 (±1.25)	3.42 (±1.23)	3.920	**.002***
Environmental Impacts	Environmental Benefits	3.52 (±.94)	3.21 (±69)	3.65 (±.56)	3.80 (±.45)	3.73 (±.69)	4.836	**.000***
	Participation	2.92 (±1.53)	3.49 (±.88)	3.50 (±.82)	3.64 (±.96)	3.68 (±.96)	2.133	.061
Educational Impacts	Community empowerment	3.46 (±1.36)	3.66 (±.44)	3.60 (±.78)	4.08 (±.39)	3.82 (±.76)	2.407	**.036***
Involvement	Involvement	3.61 (±.88)	3.75 (±.75)	3.48 (±1.06)	4.01 (±.44)	3.63 (±.88)	2.146	.059

p<0.05*

5.5.6 Influence of Knowledge on Impacts

Table 5.24 stipulates that significant differences were reported for knowledge. An Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) yielded six significant variations concerning knowledge and various impacts. Firstly, with regard to economic opportunities, significant differences were found between respondents' knowledge and various impacts (p=0.000). The post-hoc Tukey test showed that respondents who know IRP very well ($\bar{x}$= 3.53) perceived economic opportunities to be more important than all other groups that know IRP well ($\bar{x}$=2.93); fairly well ($\bar{x}$=3.26) and those who do not know much about IRP ($\bar{x}$=2.25). Secondly, in terms of community improvement, significant differences were found among respondents' knowledge and various impacts. The post-hoc Tukey test revealed that respondents who know IRP very well ($\bar{x}$= 3.95) perceived community improvement to be more important than all other groups that know IRP well ($\bar{x}$=4.12); fairly well ($\bar{x}$=3.81) and those who do not know much about IRP ($\bar{x}$=3.93). Thirdly, with regard to amenities, significant differences were found between respondents' knowledge and various impacts. The post-hoc Tukey test revealed that respondents who know IRP very well ($\bar{x}$= 3.62) considered amenities to be more important than all other groups that know IRP well ($\bar{x}$=3.45); fairly well ($\bar{x}$=3.00) and those who do not know much about IRP ($\bar{x}$=3.39).

For crime, significant differences were also found between knowledge and various impacts. The post-hoc Tukey test discovered that respondents who know IRP very well ($\bar{x}$= 3.14), well (=4.12); fairly well ($\bar{x}$=3.81) perceived crime to be less important than those who do not know much about IRP ($\bar{x}$=3.39). Pertaining to safety and security, significant differences were found between respondents' knowledge and various impacts. The post-hoc Tukey test revealed that respondents who know IRP well ($\bar{x}$= 4.07) considered safety and security to be more important than all other groups that know IRP very well ($\bar{x}$=3.81); fairly well ($\bar{x}$=3.58) and those who do not know much about IRP ($\bar{x}$=3.39). Lastly, in terms of environmental benefits, significant differences were found between respondents' knowledge and various impacts. It was also the post-hoc Tukey test that discovered that respondents who know IRP very well ($\bar{x}$= 3.74) measured environmental benefits to be more important than those who know IRP well ($\bar{x}$=3.55); fairly well ($\bar{x}$=3.69) and those who do not know much about IRP ($\bar{x}$=3.32). Therefore it is evident that from the people's knowledge of the park has an

influence on how their perceptions are formed. As a result, knowledge influences host communities' perceptions.

Table 5.24: ANOVA for comparison by knowledge

Impacts	Factor Label	Very well N=253	Well N=65	Fairly well N=37	Not Much N=37	F-Value	P-Value
		Mean & Std dev	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*		
Economic Impacts	Economic Opportunities	3.53 (±.97)	2.93 (±1.10)	3.26 (±.85)	2.25 (±.85)	7.373	**.000**
Social Impacts	Community Improvement	3.95 (±.70)	4.12 (±.48)	3.81 (±.52)	3.93 (±.53)	7.506	**.000**
	Amenities	3.62 (±.75)	3.45 (±.51)	3.50 (±.40	2.91 (±.87)	9.885	**.000**
	Crime	3.14 (±1.22)	2.42 (±1.11)	3.00 (±1.08)	3.39 (±1.07	5.571	**.000**
	Safety and Security	3.81 (±.79)	4.07 (±.57)	3.58 (±.43)	3.65 (±.89)	4.081	**.003**
	Vandalism	3.39 (±1.25)	3.26 (±1.00)	3.62 (±.89)	3.39 (±1.37)	1.372	.243
Environmental Impacts	Environmental benefits	3.74 (±.70)	3.55 (±.52)	3.69 (±.50)	3.32 (±.84)	6.217	**.000**
	Participation	3.32 (±1.00)	3.67 (±.84)	3.55 (±.81)	3.50 (±1.13)	.670	.613
Educational Impacts	Community empowerment	3.80 (±.80)	3.63 (±.64)	3.86 (±.58)	3.90 (±.76)	.990	.413

p<0.05*

B. ASPECTS INFLUENCING INVOLVEMENT

Independent sample t-tests and one-way analysis of variance were also conducted to determine the factors influencing community involvement. The results are presented below:

5.5.7 Influence of Gender on Involvement

Table 5.25 depicts the independent t-test among impacts and gender and involvement. The results revealed that males ($\bar{x}$=4.15) as well as females ($\bar{x}$=4.23) considered involvement to be important. Therefore no significant differences were found between gender and involvement.

Table 5.25: t-test for the influence of gender

Factor Label	Male (N=231)	Female (N=147)	F-Value	p-Value
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std dev		
Involvement	4.15(±.58)	4.23(±.64)	1.442	.231

p<0.05*

5.5.8 Influence of Age on Involvement

Table 5.26 stipulated no significant differences among age and involvement.

Table 5.26: ANOVA for the influence of age

Factor Label	Under 21 N= 54	21-30 N=182	31-40 N=80	41-50 N=30	50+ N=32	F-Value	p-Value
	Mean & Std dev	Mean & Std Dev	Mean & Std Dev	Mean & std Dev	Mean & Std Dev		
Involvement	2.36 (±.56)	2.46 (±.59)	2.41 (±.52)	2.59 (±.33)	2.63 (±.46)	1.804	**.127**

p<0.05*

5.5.9 Influence of Place of Residence on Involvement

Table 5.27 stipulates that there were significant differences among place of residence and involvement. The post hoc Tukey test detected that respondents who reside in Ivory Park ($\bar{x}$=2.14) considered involvement to be less important than residents who reside in Ebony Park ($\bar{x}$=2.57) and Kaalfontein ($\bar{x}$=2.50).

Table 5.27: ANOVA for the influence of place of residence

Factor Labels	Ivory Park N=216	Ebony Park N=78	Kaalfontein N=84	F-Value	p-Value
	Mean & Std dev	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*		
Involvement	2.14 (±.56)	2.57 (±.45)	2.50 (±.58)	3.142	**.025**

p<0.05*5.

5.10 Influence of Education on Involvement

Table 5.28 depicts that significant differences were detected for education. The post hoc Tukey test revealed that significant differences were found among education and involvement. Respondents who attained diplomas/degrees ($\bar{x}$=3.25) perceived involvement to be more important as opposed to those whose highest education is below grade 10 ($\bar{x}$=2.55); grade 10 or 11 ($\bar{x}$=2.37) and grade 12 ($\bar{x}$=2.45). It can therefore be concluded that education creates awareness – when people study further, they become open minded and are able to critically analyse aspects.

Table 5.28: ANOVA for the influence of education

Factor Label	Below Grade10 N=62	Grade 10-11 N=68	Grade 12 N=185	Diploma /degree N=63	F-Value	p-Value
	Mean & Std dev	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*		
Involvement	2.55 (±.50)	2.37 (±.57)	2.45 (±.57)	3.25 (±.51)	.6288	**.000**

p<0.05 *

5.5.11 Influence of Number of Park Visits on Involvement

With regard to number of park visits, demonstrated in Table 5.29, there were no statistical differences between number of park visits and involvement.

Table 5.29: ANOVA for the influence of number of park visits

Factor Label	Once N=13	Twice N=44	3 times N=40	4 times N=28	5+ times N=252	F-Value	p-Value
	Mean & Std dev	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*		
Involvement	3.33 (±1.34)	3.41 (±.36)	2.58 (±1.15)	2.34 (±.65)	2.48 (±52)	2.072	**.068**

p<0.05 *

5.5.12 Influence of Knowledge on Involvement

It is also evident from Table 5.30 that there were no significant differences among knowledge and involvement. The post-hoc Tukey test showed that all respondents considered involvement as an important aspect, regardless of how much knowledge they have regarding IRP.

Table 5.30: ANOVA for the influence of knowledge

Factor Label	Very well N=253	Well N=65	Fairly well N=37	Not Much N=37	F-Value	P-Value
	Mean & Std dev	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*	*Mean & Std dev*		
Involvement	2.45 (±.55)	2.50 (±.53)	2.43 (±.56)	2.61 (±.65)	1.053	**.380**

p<0.05

C. CORRELATIONS BETWEEN IMPACTS AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient analyses were performed to statistically establish whether significant correlations occurred between the host communities' perceptions of impacts and community involvement. The purpose is to establish whether or not these aspects influence one another in any way. The output will therefore influence planning and management of these perceptions. A correlation of 0 indicates that there is no correlation among variables. However, a +1.0 correlation demonstrated a perfect positive correlation and a correlation of -1.0 showed a perfect negative. Although there are many interpretations regarding Pearson correlations, for

the purpose of this study, guidelines by Cohen (1988:79-81) were followed which suggest that r= 0.10 to 0.29 is small, r= 0.30 to 0.49 is medium and r= 0.5 to 1.0 is large.

5.5.13 Pearson Correlations for Impacts and Involvement

Table 5.31 depicts the different relationships among various impacts and involvement. Therefore based on Pearson's data, it is evident that a medium correlation exists between economic opportunities and amenities (r=0.387). This conforms to the works of Page and Connell (2006:350) and (Saayman 2000) highlighting that the more people travel, the higher demand for amenities, therefore economic opportunities increase. With reference to Community improvement, a medium correlation was discovered between community improvement and amenities (r=0.374). This means that when the host community capitalises on economic opportunities created through amenities, the status of the community will improve. Another medium correlation (r=0.333) was discovered by Pearson's data between crime and vandalism. This is due to the fact that the tourist-host relationship is often characterised by disproportions in material status (Keyser 2009:383), therefore some host community members may identify tourists to be rich and as easy targets and commit acts of crime which may lead to vandalism.

A medium correlation was detected between involvement and economic opportunities (r=0.355). This indicates that involvement of host communities in tourism properly planned tourism development will result in greater economic opportunities. These opportunities include direct and indirect employment opportunities, foreign exchange earnings as well as tax revenues (Lazano-Oyola, Blancas; Gonzalez & Caballero 2012:659; Coccossis 2008:8; Matarrita-Cascante 2010:1141; Angelevska, Najdeska & Rakicevik 2012:210). With regard to environmental benefits, Pearson's data revealed a large correlation (r=0.530) among amenities and environmental benefits. This signifies that since tourism is a service-based industry, and can only be consumed at the production point, a strong bond exists between the environment of the destination and its amenities (Fletcher *et al.* 2013:162). Hence it is the task of all stakeholders to ensure that the environment becomes a selling point within the attraction as it is the first point of contact tourism has with the destination or attraction.

A medium correlation was presented between participation and amenities (r=0.325), emphasising that host communities should actively participate in urban ecotourism projects by investing in amenities in order to reap benefits.

Table 5.31 also depicts a medium correlation between empowerment and environmental benefits (r=0.493). This indicates that as people become empowered with environmental education, environmental benefits increase as well. Lastly, a small correlation was detected among involvement and community improvement (r=0.278). This shows that when communities are involved in urban ecotourism projects, community improvement increases.

Table 5.31: Pearson correlations for impacts and involvement

		ECONOMIC IMPACTS	SOCIAL IMPACTS					ENVIRON MENTAL IMPACTS		COMMUNITY EMPOWERMENT	INVOLVEMENT
		Economic opportunities	Community improvement	Amenities	Crime	Involvement	Vandalism	Environmental benefits	Participation	Empowerment	Involvement
Economic opportunities	Pearson Correlation	1	.322**	**.387****	.321**	.355**	.012	.201**	.230**	.108*	.128*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000	.000	.000	.810	.000	.000	.036	.013
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378
Community improvement	Pearson Correlation	.322**	1	**.374****	.105*	.286**	.101*	.359**	.249**	.306**	.278**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.040	.000	.050	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378
Amenities	Pearson Correlation	**.387****	.374**	1	.169**	.339**	-.019	.530**	.325**	.196**	.103*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000		.001	.000	.710	.000	.000	.000	.046
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378
Crime	Pearson Correlation	.321**	.105*	.169**	1	.029	**.333****	.154**	.040	-.005	-.097
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.040	.001		.572	.000	.003	.443	.918	.059
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378
Involvement	Pearson Correlation	**.355****	.286**	.339**	.029	1	.082	.264**	.204**	.316**	.258**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.572		.113	.000	.000	.000	.000
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378
Vandalism	Pearson Correlation	.012	.101*	-.019	**.333***	0.082	1	.012	-.038	-.035	.076
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.810	.050	.710	.000	.113		.820	.464	.494	.141
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378
Environmental benefits	Pearson Correlation	.201**	.359**	**.530****	.154**	.264**	.012	1	.257**	.493**	.139**

	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.003	.000	.820		.000	.000	.007
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378
Participation	Pearson Correlation	.230**	.249**	**.325****	.040	.204**	-.038	.257**	1	.232**	.117*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.443	.000	.464	.000		.000	.023
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378
Empowerment	Pearson Correlation	.108*	.306**	.196**	-.005	.316**	-.035	**.493****	.232**	1	.304**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.036	.000	.000	.918	.000	.494	.000	.000		.000
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378
Involvement	Pearson Correlation	.128*	.278**	.103*	-.097	.258**	.076	.139**	.117*	.304**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	.000	.046	.059	.000	.141	.007	.023	.000	
	N	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378	378

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

5.6 CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of host communities regarding urban ecotourism with specific reference to the Ivory Regional Park. This is undertaken to gain insight into the opinions of community members and to provide viable solutions to the improvement of these perceptions. Therefore the main objective of this chapter was to present the findings of the survey.

Firstly, with regard to the demographic analysis, this section has revealed that most of the respondents were male, with Matric as their highest level of education. They lived in Ivory Park, which means they can walk to the park and can therefore also access the park often. It was also discovered that the majority of respondents would like to actively take part in the development of urban tourism products and services. However, they prefer to be consulted during public meetings. Although the majority of these respondents indicated that they like IRP due to the fact that it serves more than one community, a significant number of them also indicated that they are concerned about the damage of IRP's facilities.

Secondly, in terms of the motivations for visiting the Ivory Regional Park, the majority of respondents indicated that they visit IRP so they could relax, spend time with family and friends, attend an event, experience peacefulness and to explore a new attraction. However, it was also indicated that respondents considered bird watching to be a less important motivation.

Thirdly, with regard to impacts of urban ecotourism, precisely economic impacts, the majority of respondents indicated that they can sell their goods to visitors to IRP. However, most respondents also indicated that they do want do want an entrance fee to be charged when accessing IRP. On the social perspective, the majority of respondents indicated that they would like more tourists to visit IRP as this would bring them direct and indirect benefit. With regard to the environment, most respondents agreed to strongly agreed that protecting IRP is important, so that children can play in a clean environment and that living in a clean environment around IRP reduces health problems. With reference to the educational aspects, the majority of respondents revealed that it would make them proud for tourists to learn about the history of communities around IRP.

130

Forthly, in terms of exploratory results, the factor analysis revealed five factors regarding the respondents' reasons for visiting the park. These factors were activity participation, social interactions, explore, nature experience and relaxation. With regard to the perception of urban ecotourism impacts, two factors were revealed for economic impacts, namely economic opportunities and entrance fee. For social impacts, six factors were revealed, being community improvement, amenities, crime, involvement, safety and security and vandalism. With regard to environmental impacts, four factors were revealed which were labelled environmental benefits, participation, nature conservation and rules. For education impacts, two factors were revealed being community empowerment and awareness and lastly only one factor was yielded for involvement. Only factors with the Cronbach Alpha above 0.5 were used for further analysis.

Fifthly, it was deemed appropriate to determine the influence behind host communities' perceptions on urban ecotourism. This was achieved through inferential statistics with specific reference to *t*-tests and ANOVAS. From this, it was discovered that gender, age, place of residence, education, number of visits and knowledge influence perceptions of host communities. With regard to involvement, it was discovered that gender and knowledge do not have an influence on host communities' perceptions on involvement. However, it was revealed that age, place of residence, education, number of park visits and knowledge have an influence on host communities' perceptions of involvement.

Lastly, Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient analyses were performed to distinguish between the host communities' perceptions of impacts and community involvement. From this, small, medium and large correlations were revealed which indicates that there is a relationship between perceptions of host communities' impacts and involvement in urban ecotourism.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6

6.1 INTRODUCTION

This study set out to determine host communities' perceptions regarding urban ecotourism in the Ivory Regional Park. From the preceding chapters, the background to the research has been explained, the contextual literature reviewed, the research methodology explained and the empirical findings revealed. Therefore this chapter seeks to present key conclusions drawn from the research with the aim of providing recommendations for the theory and industry as well as highlighting prospects for future research.

The purpose of this study was to determine perceptions of host communities regarding urban ecotourism in the east of Johannesburg. The factors influencing fundamental host communities' perceptions were pursued, together with an understanding of urban ecotourism, key benefits and inhibitors towards host communities' participation. In order to accomplish this goal, the following objectives were set in Chapter 1 and met throughout the study:

To conduct a literature review regarding urban ecotourism and community involvement in urban ecotourism. This objective was achieved in Chapters 2 and 3. In Chapter 2 attention was given to describing ecotourism and urban areas. This was accomplished by analysing the following significant theories and aspects:

- o Understanding ecotourism
- o Ecotourism in urban areas
- o Sustainable urban development
- o Urban ecotourism in practice

In Chapter 3 community members as key role-players in urban ecotourism were emphasised. This was achieved by analysing and discussing the following facets:

- o Importance of urban ecotourism
- o Impact of government policies on urban ecotourism
- o Communities as key role-players in urban ecotourism
- o Benefits and costs of urban ecotourism

To determine perceptions of host communities regarding urban ecotourism with reference to Ivory Regional Park, Chapter 5 focused on the empirical survey and results of the study by discussing the following:

- o The socio-demographic information concerning the respondents;
- o Motivations for visiting Ivory Regional Park;
- o Perceptions regarding urban ecotourism in Ivory Park;
- o Perceptions of community involvement and participation.

To determine the factors influencing residents' perceptions of urban ecotourism impacts and its relationship with community involvement and participation was also achieved in Chapter 5 which focused on the results of the study. This objective was reached by discussing the factor analyses for perception of impacts and involvement, the *t*-test and the ANOVAs as well as Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient analysis. This resulted in specific factors influencing perceptions of urban ecotourism impacts and community involvement.

Various conclusions can be drawn and recommendations made from the research objectives. Hence the aim of this chapter is to present key conclusions drawn from this study with the aim of providing recommendations for the theory and industry as well as highlighting prospects for future research.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions are drawn in accordance with the objectives of the study:

6.2.1 Conclusions Regarding the Analysis of the Theoretical Framework for Urban Ecotourism and the Influence Thereof On the Urban Ecotourism Industry (Chapter 2 & Chapter 3)

- It is evident that the emergence of ecotourism was due to an increase in negative environmental impacts that accrue from mass tourism (c.f.2.2).

- Ecotourism is an environmental friendly type of tourism with the mandate to promote direct benefits through development (c.f.2.2.1).

- Due to the numerous scopes and themes ecotourism has, the main four dimensions were formulated, being: conservation of natural resources, preservation of cultural heritage, sustainable community development, participation in management and planning (c.f.2.2.2).

- Due to the constant evolution of ecotourism, tourists are also demanding environmental friendly products (c.f.2.2.2).

- The high competition among destinations has created opportunities for ecotourism to be used as a promotional tool (c.f.2.2.2).

- Ecotourism has always been associated with natural undisturbed areas, whereas the same characteristics are also found in urban areas (c.f.2.3).

- It was therefore such areas that stimulated the development of urban ecotourism (c.f.2.3).

- Urban ecotourism is divided into two sections: a) public urban ecotourism is developed with the aim of communities benefiting from it; and b) private urban ecotourism which only benefits the owner (c.f.2.3).

- The introduction of urban ecotourism has created opportunities for natural settings to be converted into tourism attractions such as: school playgrounds, grave yards, community parks and public gardens (c.f.2.3).

- Urban ecotourism is a new type of non-consumption tourism with the focus on developing and improving natural areas of disadvantaged urban areas (c.f.2.3).

- It is also regarded as a pioneer towards the appreciation of the natural and social culture of urban areas (c.f.2.3).

- Urban ecotourism is derived from traditional tourism; hence they have similar characteristics (c.f.2.3).

- For urban ecotourism to prosper, sustainability pillars need to be at the centre of development (c.f.2.3.1).

- The triple bottom-line pillars of sustainable development are: economic, social and environmental aspects (c.f. 2.3.1).

- Sustainable development is regarded as a champion in helping to address negative environmental impacts of the tourism industry (c.f.2.4).

- Sustainable development is embraced for its ability to promote and maintain prospects to achieve the required economic, social and ecological traits for both present and future generations (c.f.2.4).

- Sustainable development enables developers and environmentalists to work together (c.f.2.4).

- Johannesburg City Parks and Zoo (JCPZ) are regarded as the protectors of all cemeteries, and elected public open spaces fall within the Johannesburg municipality (c.f.2.5).

- JCPZ's main objective is to ensure environmental conservation, development and maintenance of all protected areas including municipal parks (c.f.2.5).

- One of the JCPZ's project beneficiaries is the Ivory Regional Park (c.f.2.5).

- Ivory Park's Regional Park, situated in Ivory Park, serves more than one community (c.f.2.5).

- Urban planning is refined and recognises protected areas in cities as a central component of a community's general green structure (c.f.3.2).

- Public green spaces are considered to be a luxury in urban planning, especially in disadvantaged communities due to the limited space (c.f.3.2).

- Urban planning can be regarded as a tool to achieve environmental conservation as it encapsulates various disciplines and stakeholders (c.f.3.2).

- In order for urban ecotourism to succeed, collaboration among various stakeholders is important for policy formulation (c.f.3.3)

- This study concludes that collaboration is important as it ensures that urban ecotourism will meet the needs of all stakeholders (c.f.3.3.1).

- Policies are regarded as a set of rules and strategies that guide the planning, development, and implementation of projects (c.f.3.3).

- There are numerous international policies in place regarding urban ecotourism, which include: The Green Tourism Association, The Urban White Paper, *eco*Budget amongst others (c.f.3.3.2).

- National policies that are in place in South Africa include: Reconstruction and Development Programme, Xtreme Park Makeover, 2010 City Greening, Key Environmental Learnings, Climate Protection, Metropolitan Open Space System (c.f.3.3.3).

- Urban ecotourism is a service-based industry; therefore it is dependent on host communities (c.f.3.4).

- Therefore it is deemed crucial that the community be involved in the conceptualisation, development, start-up, functioning and day-to-today management of urban ecotourism projects (c.f.3.4).

- Community participation has always been regarded as a feasible strategy that ensures the success of tourism development (c.f.3.4).

- This study also concludes that community participation is highly dependent on the attitudes towards the host communities (c.f.3.4.1).

- It can be concluded that the support of host communities towards urban ecotourism projects will depend mainly on the benefit they foresee coming to them (c.f.3.4.1).

- Similarly, various theories that conform to attitude and participation were acknowledged in the literature such as Doxey's Irridex Model, Butler's tourism Life Cycle, Social Exchange Theory, Pretty's, Arnstein's and Tosun's Typology of Community Participation models (c.f.3.4.1).

- It can be concluded that although urban tourism development is contextualised differently by different people, benefits and costs are associated with it (c.f.3.5).

- Furthermore, these impacts can be categorised economically, socially and environmentally (c.f.3.5).

- Out of all impacts, environmental impacts of urban ecotourism are the most prominent, simply because the majority of urban ecotourism resources are drawn from the environment (c.f.3.5.3).

Thus far, the over-all review of the conclusions of literature analysed in this study discloses that urban ecotourism is a structure that needs to be properly understood and planned and well-managed. The sustainability of urban ecotourism in any destination depends on how effectively the positive economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts are taken full advantage of while alleviating the negative impact.

6.2.2 Conclusions Regarding Perceptions of Host Communities about Urban Ecotourism (Chapter 5)

Based on the empirical study reported on in Chapter 5, the following conclusions are drawn:

***Socio-Demographic Profile*:**
- The majority of respondents that took part in this study were males (61%) (c.f.5.2.1).
- Forty eight percent (48%) of respondents were between 21 and 30 years of age (c.f.2.5.1).
- Ivory Park was a place where the majority of the respondents (57%) reside (c.f.2.5.1).
- Fifty percent (50%) of these respondents have studied up to grade 12 (matric) and only 16% of them have a diploma or a degree (c.f.2.5.1).

Visiting Behaviour:
- Sixty seven (67%) of respondents have visited Ivory Regional Park more than 5 times, indicating that they are also knowledgeable about the park (c.f.5.2.2).

Motivations for Visiting Ivory Regional Park:

The following motivations for visiting IRP were considered important to very important:

- To relax   96%
- To spend time with family and friends   86%
- To attend an event   82%
- To experience peacefulness   82%
- To explore a new attraction   80%
- The highest mean value was obtained for: *to relax* (96% $\bar{x}$3.47; ±.*76*) (c.f.5.2.3).
- Therefore it can be concluded that urban parks provide opportunities for local communities to venture outdoors, thereby increasing their contact with nature and enjoying the surroundings.

Community Involvement and Participation:

- The majority of respondents would like to be involved and participate in the protection of natural resources (95%), while only 5% of the respondents felt that they do not want to be part of this function (c.f.5.2.4.1).
- From the respondents that said they would like to be involved and participate in urban tourism developments, the majority indicated that they would prefer to be consulted through public meetings (34%), followed by those that want to be informed through volunteer groups (26%) (c.f.5.2.4.2).
- It can be concluded that the majority of respondents walk to IRP (96%), and only a small percentage (1%) of the respondents used a car to access IRP (c.f.5.2.4.3).
- Furthermore, this study can conclude that most of the respondents are concerned about the damage of facilities (32%) within IRP as well as the safety in the Ivory Regional Park (c.f.5.2.4.4).
- On the other hand, the majority of respondents revealed that they are delighted because IRP serves more than one community (29%) followed by the fact that this park caters for everyone (including children) (22%). (c.f.5.2.4.5).

This study can therefore conclude that IRP was strategically located with the purpose to benefit more than one community.

Perceptions of Impacts of Urban Ecotourism

Respondents agreed to strongly agreed to the following impacts regarding urban ecotourism:

Economic Impacts:

- that local residents can sell their goods to visitors to IRP: 64%
- that there are increased business opportunities because of IRP: 59%
- that IRP provides job opportunities for local people: 54% (c.f.5.3.1)

Social Impacts

- Residents would like tourists to visit IRP: 82%
- Residents feel safe when visiting IRP during the day: 73%
- Local communities must be involved in the development of tourism around Ivory Regional Park: 72%
- Open green spaces in IRP are important as they assist in improving mental and physical health: 72%
- IRP improves the image of local communities: 71%
- IRP should be promoted as a tourism attraction: 70% (c.f.5.3.2)

Environmental Impacts

- Protecting IRP is important so that children can play in a clean environment:

    74%

- Living in a clean environment around IRP reduces health problems: 70% (c.f.5.3.3)

Educational Impacts:

- The majority of respondents (69%) indicated that it would make them proud if tourists learn about the history of the communities around IRP (c.f.5.3.4).
- Moreover, the majority of respondents (67%) stated that awareness is created about saving water (c.f.5.3.4).It can be concluded that most respondents also

pointed out that IRP gives them the opportunity to learn about people outside their community's way of life (66%) (c.f.5.3.4).

- From the descriptive results, it is evident that respondents are aware that urban ecotourism has multiple benefits, hence they want to be involved and participate in urban ecotourism projects.

Perceptions of Impacts versus Community Involvement:

- One reliable factor was revealed from economic impacts labelled economic opportunities which indicated a high internal constancy among variables (c.f.5.4.2).

- For social impacts, five factors where applicable to this study which were labelled community involvement, amenities, crime, involvement and safety and security (c.f.5.4.3).

- From environmental impacts, two factors were valid for further analysis namely environmental benefits and participation (c.f.5.4.4).

- Empowerment was yielded from educational impacts (c.f.5.4.5).

- Only one factor was exposed for involvement (c.f.5.4.6).

- The significant difference between the means for perceptions of impacts and community involvement were tested by means of independent *t*-tests, ANOVAS and Pearson's product-moment correlation coefficient analysis. (c.f.5.5).

- There were mostly medium to large correlations between perceptions of impacts and involvement; therefore indicating that the way respondents' perceive urban ecotourism impacts influences their level of involvement and participation (c.f.5.5.13).

6.3 MAIN CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE RESEARCH

The main contributions of the study are as follows:

- Despite the volume of literature on traditional ecotourism, there is significantly scarce literature on ecotourism in urban areas. Therefore this study is of value to the newly established academic research within the urban ecotourism domain.

- This study is of value as it represents a platform for industry improvement in order to achieve sustainable objectives

- The perceptions of host communities identified in this study, will serve as a base for policy amendments

- This study will assist in the development of new urban ecotourism products and services in determining the role of each stakeholder

- This study also contributes to the existing literature of sustainable tourism, ecotourism and community involvement

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

Recommendations regarding perceptions of host communities on urban ecotourism will be made in this section as well as recommendations regarding further research in this field of study.

6.4.1 *Recommendations Regarding the Betterment and Improvement of Community Involvement in Urban Ecotourism:*

- This study recommends the encouragement of community involvement at the beginning of urban ecotourism development to acquire a thorough understanding of host communities needs and expectations. This is a complicated attribute, yet vital for the success of the urban ecotourism industry. The goal of community involvement is to achieve fair sustainable benefits which will serve immediate and future generations (c.f.3.4).

- Furthermore, this study recommends that the Johannesburg City Parks and Zoo together with community representatives to facilitate the implementation of government various programmes to increase the awareness, understanding ,support and involvement of in urban ecotourism including conservation to enhance capabilities and skills of host communities (c.f.3.3).

- There is a growing appreciation towards public green spaces in present times and this is reflected by people's preferences towards activities and location (which is seen in motivations for visiting the park); this provides opportunities for public and private sector to create and design objectives and incentives, while raising awareness among citizens to protect and maintain their natural and environmental communities. Hence it is recommended that more public

parks in other municipalities are developed and improved and graded to become urban ecotourism attractions in order to grow the urban ecotourism industry (c.f.5.3.4).

- Providing a better communication system through websites and by partnering with the local radio stations such as The Voice of Tembisa FM for regular events, developments and other announcements concerning local development (c.f.5.2.4.3).
- More media exposure is needed in the community to emphasise the importance of public green spaces in urban ecotourism.

Despite the thorough layout of this study, there is still possibility for further research to enhance the expansions for this study. The next section deals with areas for future research

6.4.2 Recommendations Regarding Future Research
- It is recommended that the same research be conducted in other communities located in different metropolitan municipalities within the Gauteng province namely: Ekurhuleni, Tshwane and Sedibeng, in order to determine the overall perceptions of host communities regarding urban ecotourism. This research can also be conducted in other provinces and cities to determine host communities overall perceptions of urban ecotourism.
- The effect of the socio-demographic profile on perception of urban ecotourism impacts can also be determined.

Limitations of this study are highlighted in the following section.

6.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY
The current study encountered the following limitations**:**

- Initially this study was limited to the Johannesburg area in the Gauteng Province which does not represent all potential urban ecotourism destinations in South Africa.Variations of local residents' perceptions on urban ecotourism between various urban communities would have been better understood if a

larger number of communities located outside the boundaries of IRP participated in the study. It is therefore considered a starting platform for further investigation.

- It was noted during the survey that some respondents were unenthusiastic to complete the questionnaires due to fear of ambiguity and anonymity, especially regarding their demographic information and perceptions. It was also for this reasons that income was not included in the survey and to have the questionnaire translated.