

**TOURISM DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNITY RESPONSE:  
THE CASE OF THE INHAMBANE COASTAL ZONE, MOZAMBIQUE**

Emídio Samuel Nhantumbo



Thesis presented in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts at Stellenbosch University.

Supervisor: Prof. SLA Ferreira

December 2009

## **Declaration**

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the owner of the copyright thereof (unless to the extent explicitly otherwise stated) and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

December 2009

Copyright © 2009 Stellenbosch University

All rights reserved

## ABSTRACT

Tourism development is a complex process which many researchers have attempted to understand from various social science perspectives. This study adopts a geography approach to analyse tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ) by using the Miossec (1976) and the Butler (1980) models as basic frameworks for analyses. Although both models were found to be useful, they require more accurate data than what was generally available for the ICZ.

Before the country's independence in 1975, Mozambique was considered one of many premier tourism destinations in Southern Africa and the tourism sector had played an important role in the economy of the country. The 16 years period of internal conflict (1976-1992) resulted in a rapid decline in the performance of the sector. Since the end of the armed conflict in 1992 and the democratic transition, a slow recovery of the tourism sector in Mozambique has set in. Tourism facilities for accommodation and leisure activities have increased considerably over the last ten years, despite the absence of any integrated tourism planning.

In this study questionnaire surveys of tourist establishment representatives and local residents as well as focus group discussions and interviews were conducted to acquire primary data to analyse the evolution of the ICZ as a tourist destination during the period 1992 to 2008. In addition, secondary sources such as reports, tourism plans, tourism statistics and maps of the study area were used.

It was found that tourism is developing slowly in the ICZ and the opening up (or rediscovering) of the zone as a destination remains limited due to the slow development of infrastructure in general. The tourism nodes are in different stages of their destination life cycle and the local residents living in the seven communities react differently toward tourism development. The ICZ has not progressed further than phase two in Miossec's model. The Miossec model was found a suitable tool for analysing tourism development in the ICZ but it remains a challenge to identify both the evolutionary stage of the ICZ as a destination and the stage of each tourism node. The study also found that local residents in the ICZ expressed positive views about tourism development but they are still not satisfied with the current benefits they acquire from the current development status of tourism in the zone.

Future research should aim to examine the sustainability of responsible tourism development in the ICZ, as well as the integrated tourism planning that will enable the participation of all tourism stakeholders in the tourism development process.

**KEYWORDS:** coastal tourism; community reaction to tourism; tourism destination; tourism development; tourism nodes

## OPSOMMING

Baie navorsers het reeds gepoog om die komplekse proses van toerisme-ontwikkeling vanuit verskeie sosiaal-wetenskaplike benaderings te verstaan. Hierdie studie volg 'n geografiese benadering ten einde toerisme-ontwikkeling in die Inhambane Kussonne (ICZ) met behulp van die Miossec (1976) en Butler (1980) modelle as basiese raamwerke te analiseer. Alhoewel beide modelle as bruikbaar bevind is, benodig hierdie modelle meer akkurate data as wat algemeen vir die ICZ beskikbaar is.

Voor die land se onafhanklikheid in 1975, was Mosambiek gereken as een van vele vername toerisme bestemmings in Suidelike Afrika en die toerisme sektor het 'n belangrike rol in die ekonomie van die land gespeel. Die 16 jare lange interne konflik (1976-1992) het tot 'n snelle agteruitgang van die sektor se prestasie gelei. Sedert die einde van die gewapende konflik in 1992 en die oorgang na 'n demokrasie, het die toerisme sektor in Mosambiek 'n stadige herstel beleef. Toerisme fasiliteite vir akkommodasie en ontspanningsaktiwiteite het, ten spyte van die afwesigheid van geïntegreerde toerisme beplanning, aansienlik toegeneem.

In hierdie studie is daar deur middel van 'n vraelysopname aan verteenwoordigers van toerisme verwante besighede en plaaslike inwoners, asook fokus-groep besprekings primêre data in gesamel ten einde die evolusie van die ICZ as toeriste bestemming gedurende die tydperk vanaf 1992 tot 2008 te analiseer. Daarbenewens is sekondêre bronne soos verslae, toerisme planne, toerisme statistieke en kaarte van die studiegebied gebruik.

Daar is bevind dat toerisme in die ICZ stadig ontwikkel en dat die herontdekking van die sone as bestemming beperk bly as gevolg van die stadige ontwikkeling van die infrastruktuur in die algemeen. Die toerisme nodusse is in verskillende stadia van hulle individuele bestemmingsiklusse, en die plaaslike inwoners in die sewe gemeenskappe reageer verskillend teenoor toerisme ontwikkeling. Die ICZ het nie verder as fase twee van die Miossec model gevorder het nie. Daar is ook vasgestel dat die Miossec model 'n gepaste instrument is vir die analise van toerisme ontwikkeling in die ICZ, maar dit bly 'n uitdaging om die evolusionêre stadium van die ICZ as 'n bestemming in geheel asook die stadium van elke toerisme-nodus te kan identifiseer. Die studie het ook bevind dat plaaslike inwoners van die ICZ positiewe menings oor toerisme ontwikkeling het, maar nog steeds nie tevrede is met die huidige voordele wat hulle uit die huidige ontwikkelingstatus van toerisme in die sone ontvang nie. Toekomstige navorsing behoort te poog om die volhoubaarheid van verantwoordelike toerisme ontwikkeling in die ICZ, sowel as die geïntegreerde toerisme beplanning wat die

deelname van alle toerisme belanghebbendes in die toerisme ontwikkelingsproses tot gevolg kan hê, te ondersoek.

**TREFWOORDE:** kus-toerisme; gemeenskapsreaksie tot toerisme; toerisme-bestemming; toerisme ontwikkeling; toerisme-nodus

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank the following people and organizations that gave me support during my studies:

- my family, parents, brothers and sisters, for their understanding and allowing me the time and space to work on this thesis;
- my colleagues at the ESHTI-UEM for their encouragement;
- the AED and the W.K. Kellogg Foundation for offering me the study grant;
- those who helped arrange the fieldwork for me;
- my supervisor, Prof SLA Ferreira for her patience, generosity and advice;
- Dr PH de Necker for comments on the research;
- all my friends for their emotional and spiritual support.

I also thank others who directly or indirectly provided support to make a dream come true.

## CONTENTS

<i>Declaration</i> .....	ii
<i>Abstract</i> .....	iii
<i>Opsomming</i> .....	v
<i>Acknowledgements</i> .....	vii
<i>Contents</i> .....	viii
<i>Tables</i> .....	xii
<i>Figures</i> .....	xiii
<i>Acronyms</i> .....	xv
<b>CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION</b> .....	<b>1</b>
1.1 INTRODUCTION .....	1
1.2 BACKGROUND .....	2
1.2.1 Tourism in Mozambique .....	2
1.2.2 Tourism in Inhambane province .....	3
1.2.3 Context of the study .....	6
1.2.4 The study area in the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ) .....	7
1.2.4.1 Climate .....	10
1.2.4.2 Natural attractions .....	11
1.2.4.2.1 Beaches .....	12
1.2.4.2.2 Marine attractions .....	13
1.2.4.3 Socio-cultural attractions .....	14
1.2.4.3.1 Historical town of Inhambane .....	14
1.2.4.3.2 Other socio-cultural attractions .....	15
1.2.5 Why an analysis of tourism development? .....	16
1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM .....	17
1.3.1 Research questions .....	18
1.3.2 Research aim and objectives .....	18
1.4. CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS .....	19
1.4.1 The tourism phenomenon .....	19
1.4.2 Concepts .....	21
1.4.2.1 Tourism .....	21
1.4.2.2 Development .....	22



1.4.2.3 Tourism development .....	22
1.4.3 Geographical space and scale .....	23
1.4.4 Tourist destinations, resorts and tourism nodes .....	24
1.4.5 Tourism development and spatial transformation .....	24
1.4.5.1 Tourism and the coastal zone .....	25
1.4.5.2 Social perspectives on coastal tourism .....	26
1.4.6 Models of tourism development .....	27
1.4.6.1 Miossec's tourism development model .....	27
1.4.6.2 Destination life cycle model .....	29
1.4.7 Local community reaction toward tourism development .....	31
1.4.8 Factors affecting residents' support for tourism development .....	33
1.5 REPORT STRUCTURE .....	35
<b>CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS .....</b>	<b>36</b>
2.1 RESEARCH STRATEGY .....	36
2.2 RESEARCH DESIGN .....	37
2.3 RESEARCH SETTINGS .....	39
2.3.1 Inhambane Coastal Zone .....	39
2.3.2 People involved in the study .....	40
2.3.3 Number and choice of informants .....	40
2.4 RESEARCH METHODS .....	42
2.5 RESEARCH AIDS AND INSTRUMENTS .....	42
2.6 PROCEDURES FOR COLLECTING DATA .....	43
2.6.1 General procedures .....	43
2.6.2 Focus group discussions .....	44
2.7 DATA PROCESSING, ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION .....	45
2.8 GENERAL PROFILE OF THE FOCUS GROUP MEMBERS .....	46
<b>CHAPTER 3: DESTINATION INFRASTRUCTURE, TOURIST SUPERSTRUCTURE AND TOURIST ARRIVALS IN THE ICZ</b> .....	<b>49</b>
3.1 DESTINATION INFRASTRUCTURE .....	49
3.1.1 Transportation in the ICZ .....	50
3.1.1.1 Air transport .....	50
3.1.1.2 Land transport .....	52
3.1.1.3 Water access .....	58

3.1.2 Power supply in the ICZ .....	61
3.1.3 Drinkable water supply in the ICZ .....	66
3.1.4 Telecommunications .....	68
3.2 DESTINATION TOURIST SUPERSTRUCTURE .....	70
3.2.1 Tourist accommodation in the ICZ .....	70
3.2.1.1 Evolution and characteristics of accommodation .....	71
3.2.1.2 Spatial distribution of accommodation in the tourism nodes ...	74
3.2.1.2.1 Barra .....	75
3.2.1.2.2 Jangamo .....	77
3.2.1.2.3 Tofo .....	77
3.2.1.2.4 Paindane .....	78
3.2.1.2.5 Coconuts and Ligogo .....	79
3.2.2 Employment in the accommodation establishments .....	80
3.3 TOURIST ARRIVALS IN THE ICZ .....	81
3.3.1 Evolution in number of visitors .....	82
3.3.2 Seasonal variation in tourist arrivals .....	84
3.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS .....	85

## **CHAPTER 4: LOCAL COMMUNITY REACTION TOWARD TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE ICZ ..... 87**

4.1 RESIDENTS' GENERAL PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE ICZ .....	88
4.1.1 Positive aspects of tourism development .....	88
4.1.2 Negative aspects of tourism development .....	90
4.1.3 Miscellaneous aspects of tourism development .....	92
4.2 INTERCOMMUNITY VARIATIONS IN PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE ICZ .....	94
4.2.1 Positive aspects of tourism: community perceptions compared .....	94
4.2.2 Negative aspects of tourism: community perceptions compared .....	96
4.2.3 Intercommunity comparison of miscellaneous effects of tourism .....	99
4.3 PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE FUTURE OF TOURISM IN THE ICZ .....	101
4.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS .....	103

<b>CHAPTER 5: APPLICATION OF THE MIOSSEC MODEL TO THE ICZ .....</b>	<b>105</b>
5.1 DEVELOPMENT OF THE ICZ AS TOURIST DESTINATION .....	106
5.1.1 The role of transport networks in tourism development in the ICZ .....	106
5.1.2 Development of the tourism nodes and resorts in the ICZ .....	108
5.1.3 Tourist behaviour and tourism development in the ICZ .....	111
5.1.4 Local community reactions to tourism development in the ICZ .....	112
5.2 CLASSIFYING THE ICZ AS A TOURIST DESTINATION .....	118
5.3 CONCLUDING REMARKS .....	122
<b>CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>	<b>123</b>
6.1 CONCLUSIONS .....	123
6.1.1 Tourism development in the ICZ .....	123
6.1.2 Local community reaction to tourism development .....	124
6.1.3 Applicability of Butler's and Miossec's models .....	124
6.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY .....	125
6.3 FURTHER RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....	125
REFERENCES .....	127
APPENDIXES .....	141
Appendix A: Interview schedule for tourism officers .....	142
Appendix B: Interview schedule for tourist establishment representatives .....	143
Appendix C: Questionnaire for tourist establishment representatives .....	145
Appendix D: Interview schedule for local community leaders .....	146
Appendix E: List of participants in a focus group .....	147
Appendix F: Questionnaire on local community reactions to tourism development .....	148
Appendix G: Template for local community focus group discussion .....	149
Appendix H: Permission request to conduct the survey (English) .....	150
Appendix I: Permission request to conduct the survey (Portuguese) .....	151

## TABLES

Table 1.1 Indicators of growth in the tourism sector in Inhambane province, 2004-2008.....	6
Table 1.2 Temperature and precipitation in the ICZ .....	11
Table 1.3 Irritation index model of tourism development and related stress .....	32
Table 2.1 Tourism nodes, beaches and communities involved in the study .....	39
Table 2.2 Summary of informants .....	41
Table 2.3 Composition of the focus groups .....	47
Table 3.1 Tourism nodes by road .....	55
Table 3.2 Main roads in the ICZ .....	55
Table 3.3 Expansion of the EDM electricity network in the ICZ .....	65
Table 3.4 Source of electricity for tourist establishments in the ICZ .....	65
Table 3.5 Source of water for tourist establishments in the ICZ .....	67
Table 3.6 Accommodation establishments in tourism nodes in the ICZ .....	72
Table 3.7 Proportion of beds per size of establishments in the ICZ .....	73
Table 3.8 Accommodation establishments in the Barra tourism node .....	76
Table 3.9 Accommodation establishments in the Jangamo tourism node .....	77
Table 3.10 Accommodation establishments in the Tofo tourism node .....	78
Table 3.11 Accommodation establishments in the Paindane, Coconuts and Ligogo tourism nodes .....	79
Table 4.1 Responses to statements about tourism development in the ICZ .....	89
Table 5.1 Development stage of each tourism node in the ICZ according to Butler's life cycle model.....	110
Table 5.2 Modelled stages of local community reactions to tourism development based on Doxey's irritation index .....	117
Table 5.3 Tourism development phases of the ICZ according to the Miossec model	118

## FIGURES

Figure 1.1 International visitor arrivals in Mozambique, 1999-2007 .....	3
Figure 1.2 Inhambane province, Mozambique .....	4
Figure 1.3 Distribution of hospitality beds per province in Mozambique, 2007 .....	5
Figure 1.4 Visitor arrivals in Inhambane province, 2001-2006 .....	5
Figure 1.5 The study area: A section of the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ), Mozambique	8
Figure 1.6 Sectoral contribution to the Inhambane provincial economy, 2008 .....	9
Figure 1.7 Average monthly precipitation in the ICZ (1971-2000) .....	10
Figure 1.8 Rocha beach and Tofo beach in the Inhambane municipality .....	12
Figure 1.9 Four of the aquatic “big five” in the ICZ .....	13
Figure 1.10 Souvenirs market at Barra Lodge in Barra .....	16
Figure 1.11 Miossec’s model of tourist development .....	28
Figure 1.12 The tourist area cycle of evolution .....	30
Figure 2.1 Research design for exploring the evolution of the ICZ as a tourist destination .....	38
Figure 2.2 Gender representation in the focus groups .....	47
Figure 2.3 Marital status of focus group participants .....	47
Figure 2.4 Educational levels attained by focus group members .....	48
Figure 3.1 International tourist arrivals at Inhambane airport .....	51
Figure 3.2 The ICZ road network in 1992 and 2003.....	53
Figure 3.3 Road network in the ICZ in 2008 .....	54
Figure 3.4 Alternative entryway for 4x4-vehicles in the ICZ .....	57
Figure 3.5 Growth in the number of cruise ships anchoring in Barra, 2004 to 2008 ...	59
Figure 3.6 Growth in the number of cruise tourism visitors to Barra, 2004 to 2008 ...	59
Figure 3.7 Products vendors at Barra beach in November 2008 .....	60
Figure 3.8 Percentage of population with access to electricity in Inhambane province	62
Figure 3.9 The EDM power supply network in the ICZ, 1992 and 2003 .....	63
Figure 3.10 Electricity supply network in the ICZ, 2008 .....	64
Figure 3.11 Tanks storing borehole water in Guinjata .....	67
Figure 3.12 Coverage of the mobile cellular phone network in tourism nodes in the ICZ	69
Figure 3.13 Star ratings of tourist accommodation in the ICZ .....	72
Figure 3.14 Number of tourist accommodation establishments opening per year in the ICZ, 1993 to 2007.....	73
Figure 3.15 Distribution of beds per tourism node in the ICZ, 2008 .....	75
Figure 3.16 An accommodation establishment in Barra showing the use of natural	

building materials .....	76
Figure 3.17 Permanent and seasonal employment in accommodation establishments in the ICZ, 2008 .....	81
Figure 3.18 Visitor arrivals in Inhambane province, 2001 to 2006 .....	82
Figure 3.19 Visitor arrivals and overnight stays in the Inhambane province, 2001 to 2006 .....	83
Figure 3.20 Visitor arrivals in a tourist accommodation establishment in Barra, 1999 to 2007 .....	84
Figure 3.21 Seasonal distribution of visitors at four accommodation establishments in the ICZ, 2007 .....	85
Figure 4.1 Opinions about job opportunities in tourism in ICZ communities .....	95
Figure 4.2 Perceptions regarding tourism benefits in ICZ communities .....	96
Figure 4.3 Opinions about negative effects of tourist behaviour in ICZ communities	97
Figure 4.4 Opinions about tourism and rising cost of living in ICZ communities .....	97
Figure 4.5 Beach erosion at Tofo beach in the ICZ .....	99
Figure 4.6 Opinions about community participation in tourism decision making in the ICZ .....	100
Figure 4.7 Opinions about satisfaction with tourism development in ICZ communities	101
Figure 5.1 Miossec's model depicting the current tourism development phases of the ICZ .....	121

## ACRONYMS

ANE	National Roads Administration ( <i>Administração Nacional de Estradas</i> )
CIA	Central Intelligence Agency
DEPTUR	Inhambane Provincial Directorate of Tourism
EDM	State electricity company ( <i>Electricidade de Moçambique</i> )
EN1	National main road number 1
FIAS	Foreign Investment Advisory Service
FIPAG	water supply company ( <i>Fundo de Investimento e Património do Abastecimento de Água</i> )
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOM	Government of Mozambique
GPS	Global Positioning System
ICT	Information and Communication Technologies
ICZ	Inhambane Coastal Zone
INAM	National Meteorology Institute ( <i>Instituto Nacional de Meteorologia</i> )
INE	National Statistics Institute
Irridex	Doxey's Irritation Index
MSC	Mediterranean Shipping Cruises
NDPB	National Directorate of Planning and Budget
NGOs	Non-governmental Organizations
PATI	Priority Areas for Tourism Investment
PGM	Portal of the Government of Mozambique
PPPs	Public-private partnerships
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SNV	Netherlands Development Organization
SPDTM	Strategic Plan for the Development of Tourism in Mozambique (2004-2013)
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
TALC	Tourism Area Life Cycle
TDM	Telecommunications company ( <i>Telecomunicações de Moçambique</i> )
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
WTO	World Tourism Organization

# 1: INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 INTRODUCTION

Tourism has long been considered an effective means of achieving economic and social development in destination areas. Geography has a long-established record of tourism studies on tourist destinations, their identity and the changes occurring in them as a result of tourism development (Butler 2004; Telfer & Sharpley 2008). The contemporary worldwide growth of the tourism industry has precipitated an increase in the number of countries hosting tourists, particularly in the developing world. The social, economic, environmental, and political changes occurring in tourist destination areas require new approaches to tourism research so that the various disciplines involved fashion their own approaches to tourism studies (Saarinen 2004; Hall & Page 2006; Cooper *et al.* 2008). In this study, a geographical approach is adopted.

Mozambique was considered one of the premier tourism destinations in Africa before the country's independence in 1975 and the sector played an important role in the economy of the country, but the internal conflict lasting 16 years (1976-1992) resulted in a rapid decline in the performance of the sector (SPDTM 2004). Since the end of the armed conflict in 1992, a slow recovery of the tourism sector in Mozambique has set in. Demand for beach-based tourism has stimulated the development of facilities in the country's coastal areas. In the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ), tourism facilities for accommodation and leisure activities developed spontaneously without any integrated master plan. Although the growth of the tourism sector in the ICZ over the past decade has contributed to the diversification of the local economy, it is agricultural production that sustains most rural inhabitants in the coastal communities of the ICZ. This present situation is an exciting and opportune time for the study of the ICZ as a tourist destination and its changes over time. The fundamental problem lies in understanding the indigenous evolution of tourism in the ICZ: How has coastal tourism unfolded in the ICZ since 1992?

This dissertation highlights some aspects of tourism development in the destination area. More specifically, the discussion centres on the evolution of the ICZ as a tourist destination and the way local people react to the development of the tourism sector.



## 1.2 BACKGROUND

This section gives an overview of tourism development in Mozambique, the context in which the study was carried out, a brief description of the study area, and a justification for the investigation.

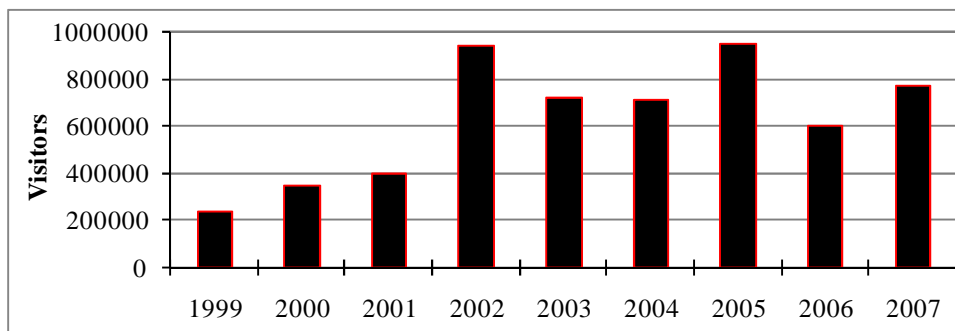
### 1.2.1 Tourism in Mozambique

Before independence in 1975 Mozambique was one of the premier tourism destinations in Southern Africa particularly for South Africans and Zimbabweans. The tourism sector played an important role in the economy of the country from 1959, when the national department of tourism was created, until 1975. The sector contributed generously to the Mozambican GDP, but more than 19 years of armed conflict put a stop to international arrivals and adversely affected the country's economy (FIAS 2006a). Since the end of the armed conflict, Mozambique has experienced a significant recovery in tourist numbers with an average annual growth rate of 8% in the period 1992 to 2002 (FIAS 2006a). Mozambique's comparative advantage as a tourist destination includes an abundantly rich marine and terrestrial wildlife resource base and singular historical and cultural heritages that attract international tourists (SPTDM 2004). The natural environment is extremely important for tourism in Mozambique, especially beach areas like the Bazaruto Archipelago, the Quirimbas Archipelago, Wimbe, Barra, Tofo and Bilene. Added to these are national parks such as Gorongosa National Park, Limpopo National Park and Niassa National Park which have become especially popular in recent years.

To foster tourism since 1994, the Government of Mozambique (GOM) has adopted a number of policies and passed legislation such as the Land Law (1997), the Forestry and Wildlife Law (1999) and the Tourism Policy and Implementation Strategy (2003). The Ministry of Tourism was created in 2000 to further develop the sector and in 2004 the Ministry established Provincial Directorates of Tourism in all the provinces. The GOM initiated a strategic plan for the development of tourism in Mozambique for the period 2004 to 2013 (SPTDM 2004) and adopted a new Tourism Law in 2004 to nurture the growth of the sector. Currently, tourism's share of GDP is relatively small but it increased from 1.2% in 2003 to 1.5% in 2006. In 2005 tourism was the second largest investment sector. In 2007 new projects were approved with investments of US\$980 million in the tourism sector (PGM 2008). Revenue from international tourists reached US\$108 million in 2005, rose to US\$144 million in 2006 (Games 2007), and by 2007 had increased to US\$163 million (PGM 2008).

Since 1993 demand for beach-based tourism has stimulated the development of accommodation facilities in the coastal areas of the country. Capital investments predominantly comprise lodges, campsites and self-catering accommodation targeted at Southern African markets (SPTDM 2004).

Mozambique is one of the countries with a significant growth of international tourist arrivals in the Southern Africa region (Jones & Ibrahim 2008). Since the Peace Accord in 1992 international arrivals of tourists in Mozambique have grown considerably. According to WTO (2008a), international tourist numbers to Mozambique showed a steady increase from 240 000 in 1999 to 401 090 in 2001 and in 2002 the number of tourists more than doubled to 942 880 but experienced a see-sawing of numbers thereafter (see Figure 1.1). In 2007 771 000 visitors arrived (PGM 2008).



Source: WTO (2008a) and PGM (2008)

Figure 1.1 International visitor arrivals in Mozambique, 1999-2007

In most countries the tourism sector is labour intensive and the indirect contribution to the rest of the economy through linkages to other industries can be quite significant depending on how well tourism is integrated with the rest of the economy (Telfer & Sharpley 2008). In Mozambique, employment numbers in the tourism sector have risen from 25 000 in 2000 to about 35 000 in 2006 (Williams 2006). By 2007 the number of people working in the tourism sector had increased to 37 000 of which, significantly, 50% were female (PGM 2008). Mozambique's tourism sector is now at a crucial stage in its development as Jones & Ibrahim (2008) have observed that it remains relatively moderate in size but shows potential to make a significant contribution to the development of the country.

### 1.2.2 Tourism in Inhambane province

Inhambane province, located in the southern zone of Mozambique, is at the forefront of tourism development in Mozambique owing to its coastline of over 700km of pristine Indian Ocean beaches, natural vegetation, marine life and a fascinating cultural and historical

heritage. In a tourist context, Inhambane province is certainly one of Mozambique's greatest assets (Visser 2003). The province also houses the Zinave National Reserve, the Bazaruto National Park and the Pomene National Reserve. It has two of the country's three most important (type A) Priority Areas for Tourism Investment (PATI) selected in the strategic plan for the development of tourism in Mozambique (SPTDM 2004), namely the ICZ (see its districts in Figure 1.2) and the Bazaruto Vilankulo Zone.

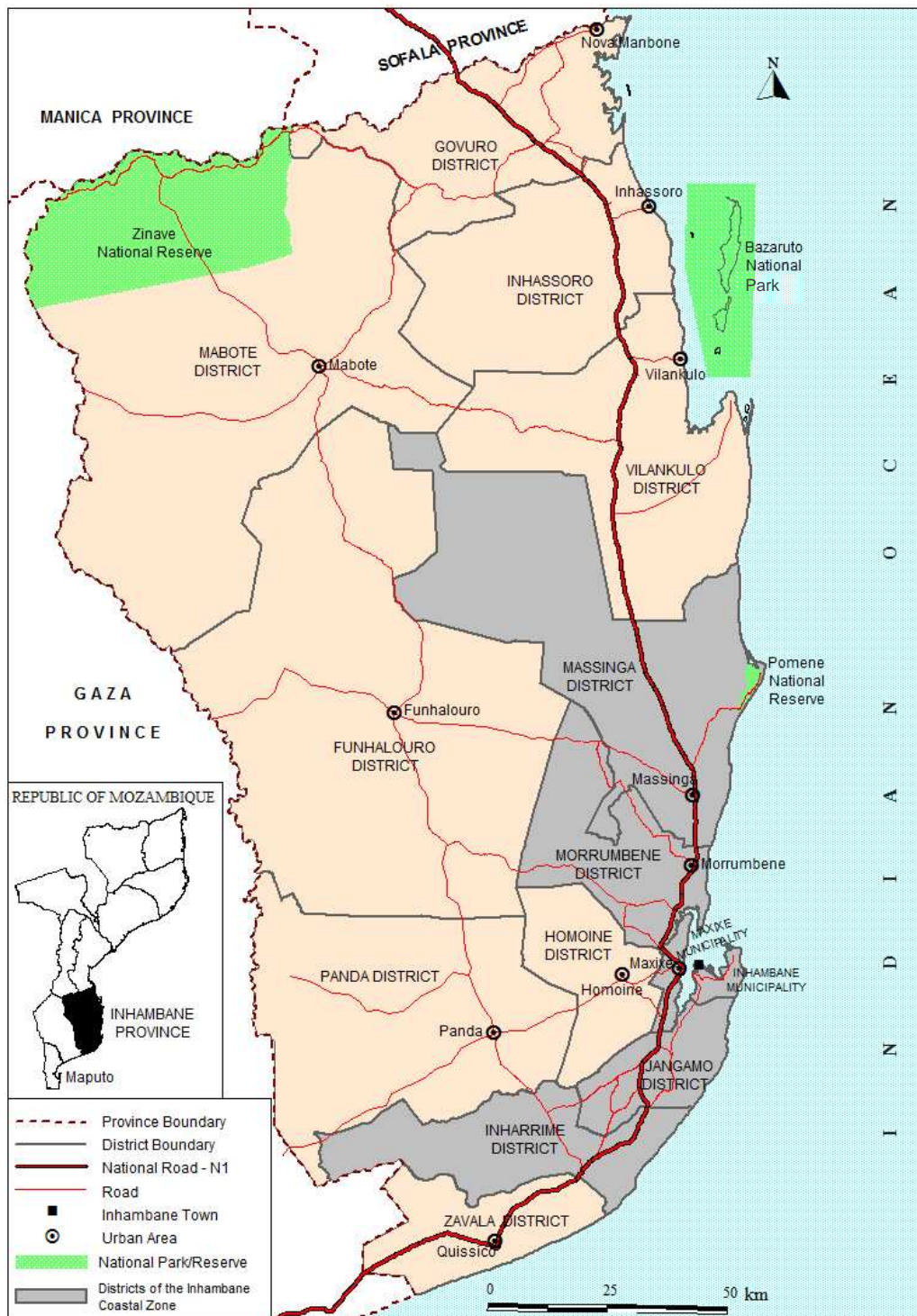
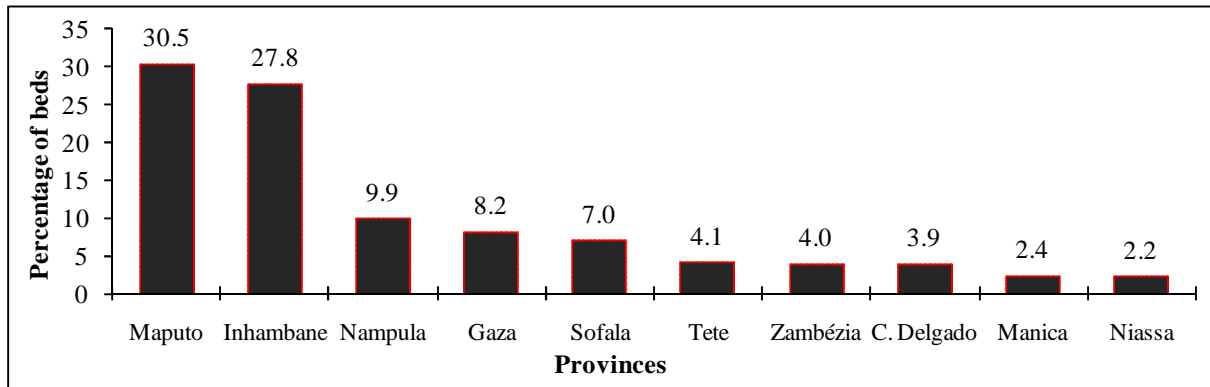


Figure 1.2 Inhambane province, Mozambique

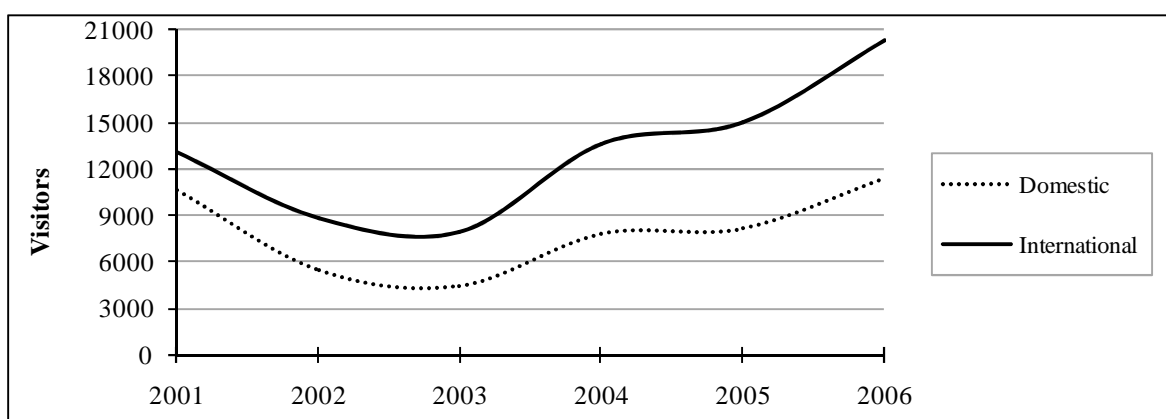
According to National Statistics Institute (INE) (2007) Inhambane province ranks second in size after Maputo in terms of tourist accommodation (number of beds) (see Figure 1.3). Accommodation in hotels, self-catering establishments and guesthouses totalled 4574 beds in 2007 (Muatxiwa & Eberherr 2007). The province has the second largest offer of beds in the provinces and it is welcoming an increasing flow of domestic, regional and international tourists.



Source: Direcção Nacional do Turismo (2008)

Figure 1.3 Distribution of hospitality beds per province in Mozambique, 2007

INE (2007) reveals that international tourist arrivals in Inhambane province have grown from 13 170 in 2001 to 20 280 visitors in 2006, while domestic visitor numbers increased from 10 590 to 11 400 in the same period. The total number of visitors increased from 23 760 to 31 680 in the five-year period (see Figure 1.4). Fluctuations in international and domestic visitor numbers are significant, although domestic visitor figures have not increased significantly.



Source: INE (2007)

Figure 1.4 Visitor arrivals in Inhambane province, 2001-2006

Fiege *et al.* (2002) state that tourism is one of the main opportunities for the economic and social development of Inhambane province. In 2000, with a contribution of less than 1% to provincial GDP, tourism was not yet a significant player in the formal local economy (Visser

2003). Muatxiwa & Eberherr (2007) report that the number of people employed in the tourism sector increased from 2050 in 2003 to 3350 in 2006. Table 1.1 displays some indicators of the province's tourism sector growth.

Table 1.1 Indicators of growth in the tourism sector in Inhambane province, 2004-2008

Indicator	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	% average annual growth
Establishments	270	296	322	378	431	14.9
Rooms	1 025	1 200	1 672	2 789	3 701	65.3
Beds	3 750	4 300	4 535	8 786	10 620	45.8
Employees	2 222	2 542	3 351	3 833	4 521	25.9
Projects approved	18	33	27	47	52	47.2
Investment (10 <sup>3</sup> USD)	2 779	3 200	18 420	89 057	150 538	1 329.3

Source: Moçambique (2009: 23)

The number of tourist establishments<sup>1</sup> grew by 60% from 2004 to 2008, rooms by 261% and beds by 180%. Investment in the tourism sector grew impressively from only US\$2.8 million in 2004 to US\$150.6 million in 2008 (Moçambique 2009). The number of employees in the tourism sector more than doubled from 2004 to 2008 and the number of approved tourism projects increased by nearly 200%. These indicators clearly reflect the increasing flow of tourists to the province and underscore the need to investigate this evolution scenario.

### 1.2.3 Context of the study

The Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ) was selected by the SPTDM (2004) as one of the three most important Priority Areas for Tourism Investment (PATI) in Mozambique. Administratively, this zone is not clearly defined but extends from the Inharrime district to the Massinga district and includes the Inhambane municipality and Jangamo district where important beaches are located (see Figure 1.2).

In the early 1990s the ICZ attracted tourists through its natural resources such as tropical beaches, coral reefs and marine life which invited tourists to relax and experience pristine nature. Subsequently, the ICZ has attracted investments in the tourism sector which are reflected in the use of land for tourism. Since the signing of the Peace Accord in 1992, tourism establishments such as Casa Barry Lodge (1993), Coconuts Bay Resort (1994), Guinjata Bay Resort (1994), Paindane Resort (1995), Barra Lodge (1996), Barra Reef Lodge (1997), Bamboozi Bach Lodge (1998) and Flamingo Bay Water Lodge (2004), have been developed. Tourism-operating companies such as Barra Dive (2000), Barra Reef Diving

<sup>1</sup> Tourist establishment: corresponds to a commercial tourist accommodation establishment (e.g. resort, hotel, lodge or guesthouse)

(2002), Discover Scuba-diving (2004), Diversity Scuba-diving (2005) are providing leisure activities (Lombard & Boonzaaier 2007).

Tourism in the ICZ is developing at some beaches where investors are creating facilities to accommodate tourists from over the world, mainly from South Africa, the United Kingdom, Germany, the Netherlands and Australia (Fiege *et al.* 2002). In this zone, tourism superstructure is being developed without any master plan or any land use plan. In 2006 the government of Inhambane province started to prepare investment incentive schemes in specific tourist investment areas with special attention given to the coastal zone. As a result, one local tourism development plan in the Inhambane municipality was produced – the Praia da Rocha Tourism Development Plan. In 2007 the Inhambane Provincial Directorate of Tourism produced a five-year (2008 to 2013) strategic plan to guide tourism development in the province.

#### **1.2.4 The study area in the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ)**

The ICZ is part of Inhambane province located in the southern coast of the Republic of Mozambique. This area along the Indian Ocean is characterized by a tropical climate. This subsection of coast consists of high dunes and north-trending capes and barrier lakes. The ICZ extends from the Inharrime district through the Jangamo and Morrumbene districts to the Massinga district and includes the Inhambane and Maxixe municipalities. Tourism development in this zone has produced facilities for tourist accommodation and leisure activities.

For the purposes of this research, the study area is a coastal segment stretching southwards from Barra Beach to Dongane Beach over a distance of about 60 kilometres of coastline along parts of the Inhambane municipality and Jangamo district (see Figure 1.5). This area has many sandy beaches such as Barra, Tofo, Rocha, Coconuts, Jangamo, Nhaguilunguane, Guinguane and Dongane. Between the beaches are some bays protected by rocky coral reefs. The natural attractions available in these areas lure many tourists and investors and consequently tourism has been developing considerably with the creation of clusters of accommodation facilities. The study area also includes seven rural communities, namely Ligogo, Paindane, Guinjata, Gumula, Massavana, Josina Machel and Conguiana areas surrounding the tourism nodes.

The terrain in the study area is sandy with varying altitudes above sea level and there are long dune ridges along the coastline and lower-lying land in the interior. The outer faces of the

dune ridges are steep and bare except where special dune-binding plants withstand exposure to the salty winds blowing from the Indian Ocean. The gentler inner slopes of the dunes are covered with natural vegetation. The interior consists of interrupted lines of lower dunes roughly orientated in a north-south direction (Lombard & Boonzaaier 2007).

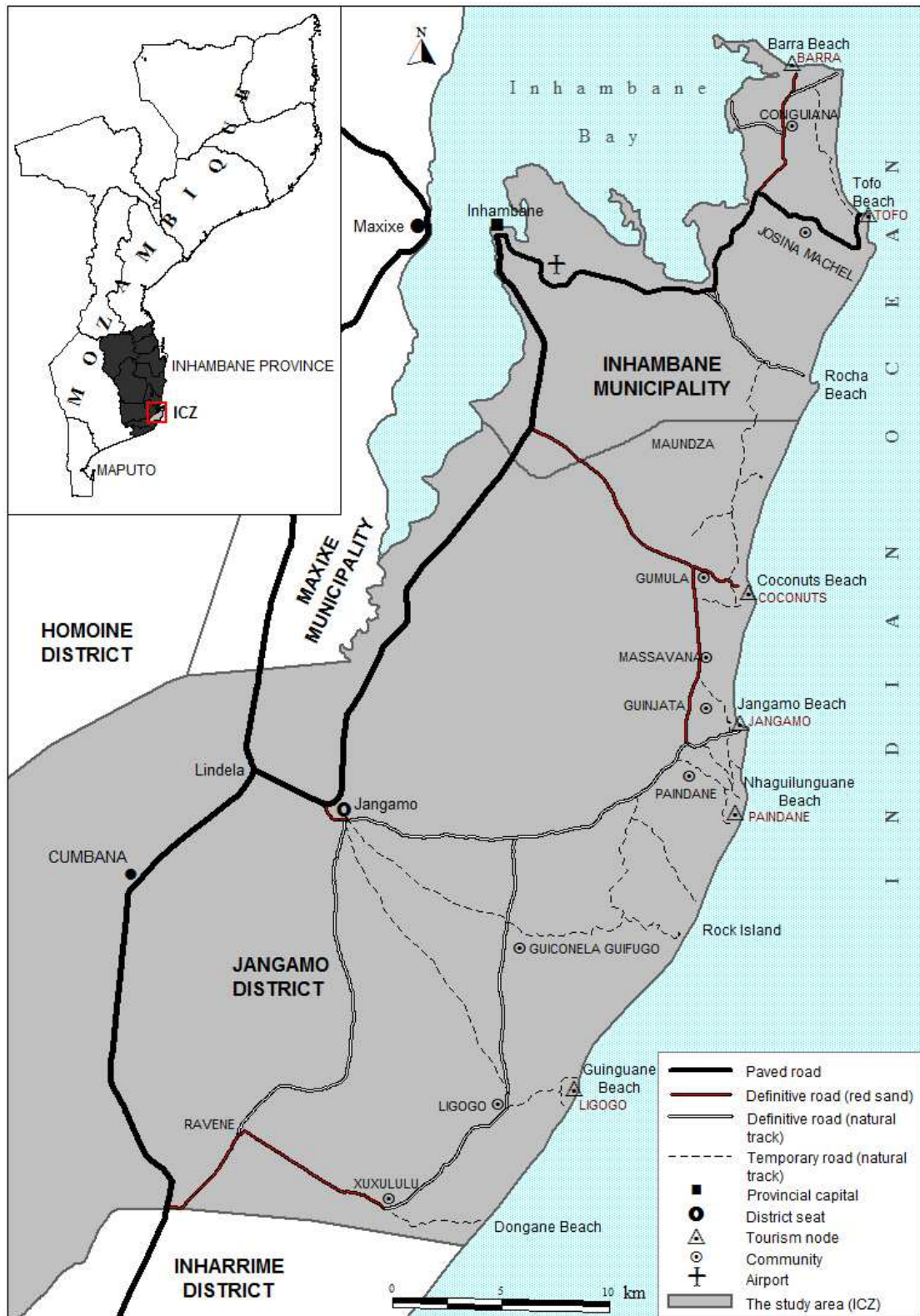
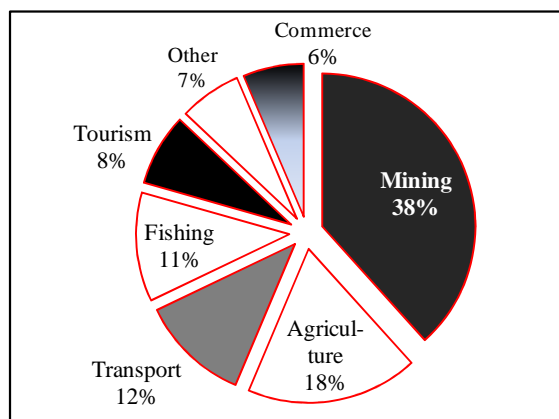


Figure 1.5 The study area: A section of the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ), Mozambique

According to the 2007 population census, the population of Inhambane province was recorded as 1 252 480 inhabitants living in 286 780 households with an average size of 4.4 persons. Most people (79%) live in rural areas, while 21% live in urban areas. The proportion of the population that was economically active was 57%, with 68% of the workers being male. In Inhambane province the economically active population was distributed as follows: agriculture (79%), industry (6%), service (11%), and other (4%). The total population of the Inhambane municipality and Jangamo district was recorded as 158 550 according to the 2007 population census (INE 2008).

Fox, Bardasi & Van den Broeck (2005) maintain that Mozambique is socio-economically one of the poorest countries in the SADC region. Among the estimated population of 18.3 million in 2003, nearly 10 million people were still living in poverty. According to The World Bank (2004), 29% of the Mozambican population was living on less than US\$1 per day in 2003. In the same year, the national poverty headcount was about 54%. Inhambane province had the highest rate of poverty in the country where 81% of the 1.3 million inhabitants were living in poverty in 2003 (NDPB 2004).

According to Moçambique (2009) mining, agriculture, and transport sectors contributed most to the provincial economy in 2008, followed by fishing and tourism (see Figure 1.6). The tourism sector increased with an average rate of 16% in the last four years thereby contributing to the diversification of the provincial economy. Agricultural production that sustains most rural inhabitants in the province increased between 2004 and 2008 by 14%.



Source: Moçambique (2009: 6)

Figure 1.6 Sectoral contribution to the Inhambane provincial economy, 2008

The coastal communities of the Inhambane municipality and the Jangamo district live in rural areas where the local infrastructure, such as primary schools and health centres, is not easily accessible to residents living far from these services. Agriculture and fishing are the primary

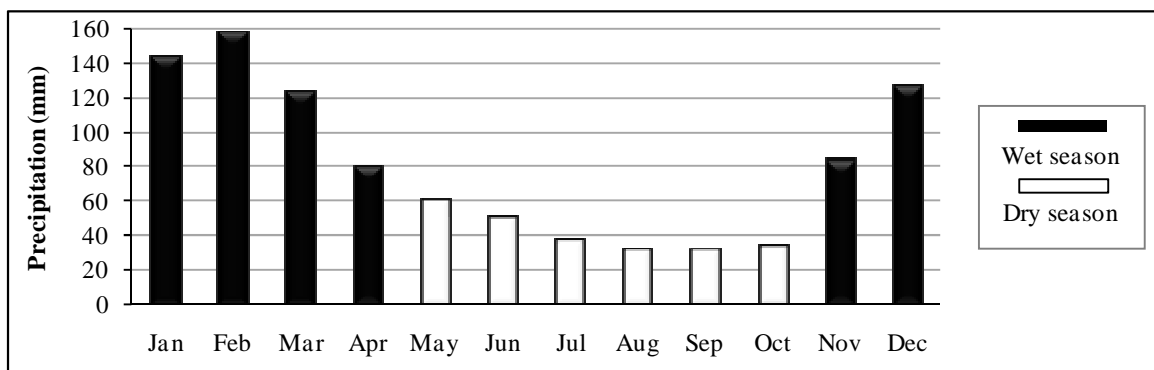


means of livelihood in rural areas and there is also a strong reliance on natural resources such as land for subsistence agriculture, wood for energy and building materials, and fish (Fiege *et al.* 2002). Most of the agricultural activities comprise family subsistence agriculture producing cassava, beans, peanuts, maize and some vegetables, while cashew nut and coconut production is more commercialized. Although fishing is practiced by local residents, most of the production is sold in local markets in all the communities except in Gumula. Local communities in the ICZ live in areas where opportunities for income generation are scarce and limited to agriculture and fishing. Consequently, significant value is attached to employment opportunities in the zone's tourism sector.

The study area has been attracting visitors as a tourist destination. For many tourist destinations worldwide, it is their attractions that motivate people to visit them. Each tourist destination has a distinctiveness developed over time combining natural, man-made structures and socio-cultural elements. This begs the question what attractions the ICZ offers as a tourist destination. The next subsections explore some of the elements that attract tourists to the ICZ.

#### 1.2.4.1 Climate

The ICZ is characterized by a tropical climate with two main seasons – a wet summer season from November to April and a dry winter season from April to October. In the wet season rainfall is heavy along the coast and decreases from the coast inland. Average monthly precipitation varies from 158mm (February) to 32mm (September) depending on the season and the annual average total is 964mm. Precipitation is concentrated in the four months from December to March (see Figure 1.7). The number of days with precipitation per month ranges from 6 in September to 14 in February. These climatic conditions favour the development of tourism in the ICZ.



Source: INAM (2008)

Figure 1.7 Average monthly precipitation in the ICZ (1971-2000)

The average annual maximum temperature in the ICZ is about 28°C and the average annual minimum is high at 19.4°C. The highest temperatures are recorded in January and February and the lowest in June and July (see Table 1.2). In Mozambique, cyclones and floods are common during the wet summer season, whereas droughts are frequent in the dry winter season. January, February and March have the most rainy days, while August, September and October are the driest months each with only a few days of precipitation. The temperature and precipitation figures confirm humid tropical nature of the ICZ's climate (see Table 1.2).

Table 1.2 Temperature and precipitation in the ICZ

Month	Average temperature (°C)		Precipitation (mm)	Number of days with precipitation
	Minimum	Maximum	Average per month	
January	22.7	31.2	143.3	12.2
February	22.6	31.1	157.5	14.0
March	21.9	30.7	122.6	12.8
April	20.2	29.2	80.8	11.2
May	17.9	27.4	61.8	9.5
June	15.8	25.8	51.0	9.2
July	15.4	25.1	38.0	8.5
August	16.1	25.6	32.1	6.2
September	18.0	26.6	31.7	5.7
October	19.2	27.7	34.3	6.6
November	20.8	28.9	84.0	9.1
December	21.8	30.3	126.6	9.6
<b>Annual</b>	<b>19.4</b>	<b>28.3</b>	<b>963.7</b>	<b>9.6</b>

Source: INAM (2008)

The climatic conditions of the ICZ are important for tourism development considering that the area is known as a sun, sand and sea tourism destination and that the climate influences tourism seasonality. For example, in resort advertisements it is common to refer to the period between April and September as the most appropriate time to travel to Mozambique due to the good weather experienced in the dry winter season. At the height of the rainy season, between December and February, many roads are not traversable, particularly in rural areas. Flooding is common and temperatures, particularly along the coast, soar in summer and the risk of malaria increases during the wet and hot months.

#### 1.2.4.2 Natural attractions

Mozambique boasts a special coastline which is conducive to tourism development. A SWOT analysis of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats to tourism in Mozambique has

shown that its beaches are key components in the existing tourism product mix (SPDTM 2004). According to Lombard & Boonzaaier (2007), the ICZ is part of the Mozambican southern coastal zone characterized by quaternary formations consisting of coastal dunes. The coastline comprises sandy beaches formed by calcareous formations. The ICZ boasts natural resources such as tropical beaches, coral reefs, islands, and clear and warm sea with its marine resources. In the next two subsections, beaches and marine resources are discussed as the main attractions in the ICZ.

#### 1.2.4.2.1 Beaches

The ICZ is richly endowed with long sandy beaches and in some areas there are bays protected by rocky coral reefs. These beaches attract bathers, divers and fishing enthusiasts and consequently, there is a marked concentration of tourist establishments near beaches. Three main beaches are located in the Inhambane municipality, namely Barra, Tofo and Rocha (see Figure 1.8). Jangamo district has Coconuts, Jangamo, Nhaguilunguane, Guinguane and Dongane beaches.



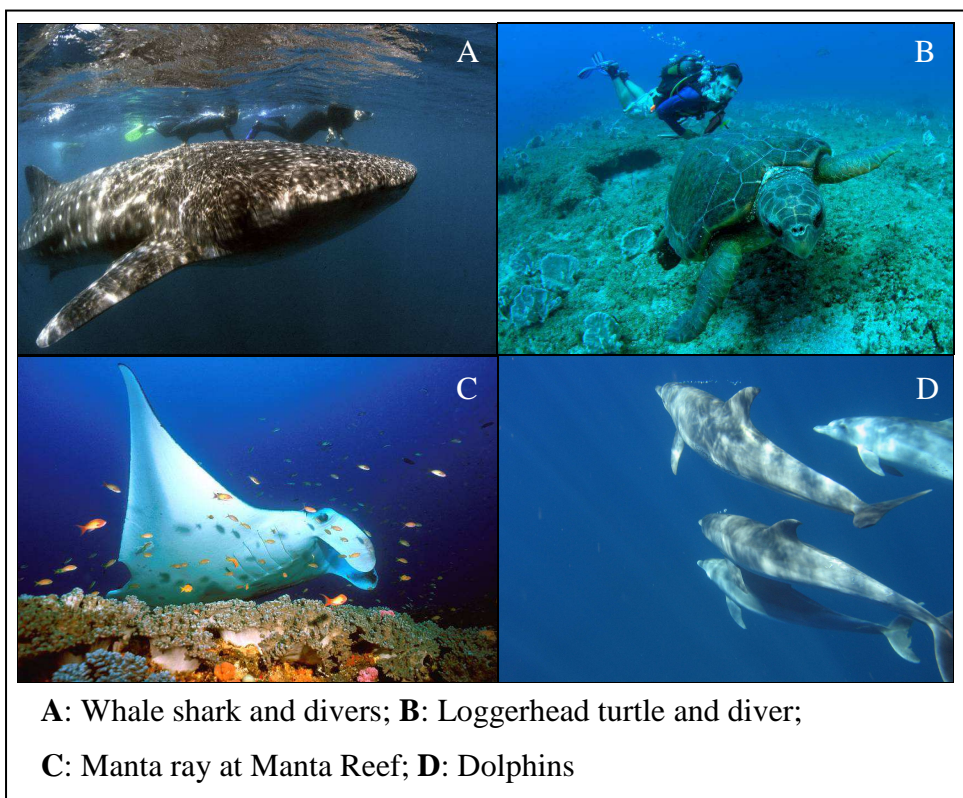
Figure 1.8 Rocha beach (left) and Tofo beach (right) in the Inhambane municipality

Generally, the seawater is warm all year round – the water temperature in the Indian Ocean varies from 23 to 29°C – and waves are usually small, but based on the shape of coastline and the daily weather conditions, medium to big waves occur in some areas (INAM 2008). For instance, Tofinho Point, located in Tofo beach, normally has the most consistent and best-shaped waves in the ICZ (Fiege *et al.* 2002). Most visitors, especially surfing enthusiasts, report that Tofinho Point is pleasant and the waves are probably the best for surfing and swimming anywhere in Mozambique.

The floral landscape of the ICZ is dominated by large groves of coconut palms and natural vegetation. The first dune line offers pleasant views of the sea and inshore reefs, and visitors enjoy taking photographs and relaxing in this natural environment.

#### 1.2.4.2.2 Marine attractions

SPDTM (2004) asserts that the rich marine biodiversity of the Inhambane coast is valued for its quality by international diving and fishing experts. Large marine species like the so-called aquatic “big five” – dolphins, sharks, turtles, whale sharks and manta rays (see Figure 1.9) – provide for a diverse and interesting eco-adventure experience. Concerning marine diversity, Mozambique's reefs are on a par with Australia’s Great Barrier Reef. Muchanga (2007) points out that in the seas of the ICZ there are whales, whale sharks, manta rays, dolphins, turtles, marlins, small fish and crustaceans. Therefore, sea lovers can take part in a variety of marine activities, namely snorkelling, fishing, surfing, and dolphin and whale watching safaris.



Source: Pierce & Marshall (s.a.)

Figure 1.9 Four of the aquatic “big five” in the ICZ

Pierce & Marshall (s.a.) report that there are many diving reefs of the ICZ coastline of which two are famous, namely Manta Reef and Praia da Rocha where the rocks and corals form a spectacular landscape of pinnacles, gullies and overhangs. According to Whittington *et al.* (2000), the primary attractions for divers visiting the area are the abundance of manta rays

and whale sharks which can be seen on most of the reefs. Manta Reef is famous for its marine biodiversity, so that this site has attracted marine biologists, photographers and divers from around the world. Muchanga (2007) maintains that the main attraction for divers are whale sharks.

The marine attractions in the ICZ play a very important role in tourism development and although these resources are still unspoilt the significantly increasing number of divers and fishing enthusiasts over the last few years could spell danger (Muchanga 2007). She insists that although the negative impacts of this increase in the number of visitors are still unnoticeable, measures must be taken to avoid unsustainable exploitation of the marine resources.

#### 1.2.4.3 Socio-cultural attractions

Although the main tourism attraction in the ICZ is its very rich natural resource endowment, the zone also offers cultural attractions. Given the diversity of cultural attractions, as well as the complex nature of the concept “culture”, only selected elements important for this study are considered here, namely the historical town of Inhambane, the hospitality of the native people, gastronomy, and handcraft. These four drawcards were selected for their notable contributions to the attractiveness of the ICZ as a tourist destination.

##### 1.2.4.3.1 Historical town of Inhambane

In the ICZ the only historical town is Inhambane, the capital of the province. Inhambane was presumably built before the 16<sup>th</sup> century by Muslims and it is the oldest existing settlement in Mozambique south of Beira, and also one of the oldest towns in Southern Africa (Murphy *et al.* 2007). Inhambane is situated in Inhambane Bay, about 460km north of Maputo. According to Mubai (2006), when Vasco da Gama rounded the African continent in the late 15<sup>th</sup> century he sailed into Inhambane Bay to replenish stocks and explore the bay. He was impressed by the way he was received by the local people and he named the area *Terra de Boa Gente* or Land of the Gentle People.

The architecture of buildings in Inhambane was influenced by the Arabs and the Portuguese. Architecture really worth seeing is that of the Cathedral of Our Lady of the Conception built more than 200 years ago. The mosque, built in 1840 and situated on the beachfront on Marginal Avenue, houses a 380-year-old Koran. A popular tourist venue is the museum where artefacts like musical instruments, agricultural utensils used in the rural areas, and photographs from the colonial times are on display.

As the provincial capital, Inhambane concentrates all the provincial and municipal administrative services, with the provincial hospital also situated in the town. Commercial activities, financial institutions (banks), telecommunication services, service stations, educational institutions, NGOs and other services are present.

#### 1.2.4.3.2 Other socio-cultural attractions

Telfer & Sharpley (2008) maintain that many destinations present themselves through different cultural attractions such as food, drink, dress, handicrafts, music, dance, tradition, religion and all other elements. Beyond the historical town of Inhambane there are other socio-cultural attractions in the ICZ such as typical local food (particularly seafood), handcrafted products, traditional music and dance, as well as the hospitality of the local people.

In Mozambique, particularly in the ICZ, cuisine revolves around fresh seafood, stews, corn porridge, rice, millet, and cassava. Steak and chicken are often accompanied by beans, cassava chips, cashew nuts, coconut, potatoes, and a variety of spices. Seasonal fresh fruit like papaya and pineapples are known as some of the juiciest in the world. Puddings made of fruits and rice, and fried balls of flour paste, most often accompanied by tea, make for a delicious ending to any meal (Food Every Country 2007).

Handcrafted products are a popular socio-cultural attraction. These products are useful and decorative devices made by hand using only simple tools. Usually the term handicraft is applied to traditional means of making goods usually bought by tourists (Wehmeier 2005). Handicraft in Mozambique is produced in various parts of the country and then sold in cities and tourist areas at markets or in souvenirs shops in resorts. Wooden statues and masks, bags, sun hats, domestic utensils, and many other handmade products are displayed for sale. These souvenirs are vended in the central market in the Inhambane town, in tourist resorts (see Figure 1.10) and along the roads leading to tourism nodes. On the road from Lindela to Inhambane handfired clay pots, jugs and other objects are on offer.

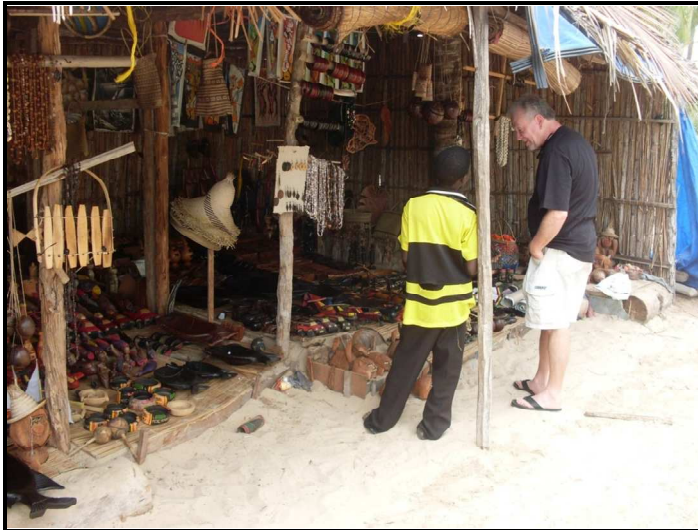


Figure 1.10 Souvenirs market at Barra Lodge in Barra

Tourists can also enjoy periodic events such as the *Festival da Barra*, an annual music festival which takes place once a year to celebrate World Tourism Day on 27 September. Musicians and traditional dancers from different parts of the country are invited to participate in this festival. Although natural attractions are the primary reason for visiting the ICZ, it should be noted that the special combination of natural and socio-cultural attractions adds to the remarkable nature of the ICZ as a tourist destination.

### 1.2.5 Why an analysis of tourism development?

This researcher's interest in the geography of tourism was piqued by working in this field for four years. His research experience and training had been in spatial analysis of geographical phenomena. In 2002 he analysed the differences in occupation and land use of suburban areas in Beira and in 2007 he investigated land use changes toward tourism development in the Inhambane Municipality (Nhantumbo 2002; 2007).

Long before 1992, some tourism development had been taking place in the ICZ. The ending of the armed conflict in 1992 started a slow recovery process of the country's tourism sector, particularly in the ICZ where tourism facilities for accommodation and leisure activities were developed. This process has increased considerably over the last ten years, despite the absence of any integrated tourism planning. An investigation into tourism development in the ICZ is overdue and the findings of this study should be invaluable to the government of Inhambane province, especially the Inhambane Provincial Directorate of Tourism.

The overarching aims of this study are to analyse tourism development and spatial transformation in the ICZ during the period 1992 to 2008, and to assess community responses

to this type of development. Although the scope of a basic tourism plan is much wider than that aimed at by this study, the results of an analysis of tourism development and community response can inform and positively influence the tourism planning processes and integrated tourism development. As a resident of Inhambane and participating citizen in the tourism planning process, the author believes that this study will inform and assist stakeholders and tourism developers in Inhambane. The further intention is to contribute to the knowledge about and understanding of the field of coastal resort development in a developing world context. The next section formulates the research problem investigated in this study.

### 1.3 RESEARCH PROBLEM

The development of coastal resort tourism destinations in developing countries has attracted limited attention by researchers compared to other kinds of tourism destinations in the world (Shaw & Agarwal 2007). In the tourism literature, academic research on coastal resorts has been largely confined to developed countries such as the UK, USA, Canada, Spain and New Zealand, due to an urgent concern about the decline of mature destinations as predicted in the life cycle model (Agarwal 1997).

A number of models that examine changes in tourist destinations over time have been presented in the literature. Miossec's model in 1976 and Butler's model in 1980 have attracted particular attention and have been tested repeatedly with the majority of these studies focusing on mature destinations in developed countries. A small number of researchers has paid attention to emergent destinations in developing countries, particularly in Africa (Sharpley & Telfer 2002).

Given this lacuna in the literature, this study endeavours to contribute to the exploration of the evolution of the ICZ as a tourist destination in the period 1992 to 2008 by looking at the process of its development as a destination and the way local communities react to tourism development. This process must be understood in order to promote integrated tourism development planning in the ICZ.

This study is restricted to the post-war period because during the war period tourism activity stagnated due to the deteriorating security situation which made Mozambique generally an unsafe place for tourists. According to Ricardo (2004), the war for independence lasted for 10 years (1964-1974) and was followed by a destabilization war lasting another 16 years (1976-1992). These wars prevented the expansion of the tourism industry.



From a geographical perspective, the researcher wishes to increase his knowledge about the ICZ as a tourist destination where economic and social exchanges occur between tourists and local communities. From a tourism perspective, one would wish to promote integrated tourism development in which all stakeholders can contribute to successful development. From the point of view of the community, one would wish to understand how the host communities respond to the tourism development in the zone.

### 1.3.1 Research questions

Given the research problem, this research intends to answer the primary question: How has tourism evolved in the ICZ since the end of armed conflict in 1992? In addition, five secondary questions are considered:

1. What general infrastructure and tourist superstructure exist in the ICZ?
2. How did tourist arrival numbers evolve in the ICZ?
3. How does the local community react toward tourism development in the ICZ?
4. Are the Miossec model and the life cycle model applicable to better understanding tourism development in the ICZ?
5. What stage in the life cycle of tourism development has the ICZ reached?

These questions provide insights into the research problem and help to identify the aim and objectives of this study.

### 1.3.2 Research aim and objectives

The aim of this study is to analyse tourism development and the spatial transformation in the ICZ during the period 1992 to 2008. In order to achieve this aim, six objectives have been identified:

1. Depict the general infrastructure and the tourist superstructure in the ICZ.
2. Examine tourist arrivals in the ICZ.
3. Assess local community reaction to tourism development in the ICZ.
4. Trace the path of tourism development in the ICZ from 1992 to 2008 by using the Miossec model and the life cycle model.
5. Test the applicability of Miossec's model and the life cycle model to the ICZ.
6. Identify the current stage of tourism development in the ICZ as a tourist destination.

Tourism development is a complex process by which tourist destinations evolve, creating facilities and services for tourists. The objectives outlined above only partially cover tourism development aspects in a coastal destination. By applying the Miossec model with a focus on

the ICZ as a tourist destination and the tourism area life cycle model with a focus on each tourism node, it is hoped that these complementary analytical tools will aid an understanding of how tourism has evolved in the ICZ. The following section provides the conceptual base of the investigation.

## 1.4 CONCEPTUAL UNDERPINNINGS

This section overviews important and appropriate concepts for this study and provides the theoretical framework for tourism development, followed by an examination of models of tourism development and their applicability for this study.

### 1.4.1 The tourism phenomenon

Tourism is one of the major social and economic phenomena of modern times (Sharpley & Telfer 2002; Carlson 2003; Hall & Page 2006; Weaver & Lawton 2006; Telfer & Sharpley 2008). The need for researchers to understand tourism development and tourism planning requires an understanding of the nature of tourism, especially its dynamic character.

Owing to its rapid and continuing growth and associated potential economic contribution, it is not surprising that tourism is widely considered in practice and in academic circles as an effective means of achieving development, especially in destination areas Cooper *et al.* (2008). Pearce & Butler (1999: 2) note that "...tourism is either already widely established as a major sector of national, regional and local economies in many parts of the world or being actively considered or fostered as a development option in many others." This is true for developed and developing countries. However, Telfer & Sharpley (2008: 28) refer to this as a "tourism development dilemma" that represents the great challenge for tourism destinations in developing countries. They argue that tourism is adopted as development strategy due to its potential contribution to the national economy, but it is associated with a variety of costs and impacts both positive and negative. An example was given by Lee & Chang (2008) of how the natural environment, an important component of tourism, presents a problem for policy makers who may find it hard to make relevant and timely decisions, since many tourists are attracted by nature, yet at the same time many citizens of the destination wish to keep the natural environment intact.

The contribution of tourism to the national or local economy, or to development in general, varies according to a variety of factors. It is likely that greater dependence will be placed on tourism in less-developed countries with highly limited resource bases, such as islands and

micro-states where, according to Sharpley & Telfer (2002) and Lepp (2007), tourism has become the dominant economic sector. They list Caribbean islands, the Indian Ocean islands of Seychelles and the Maldives, and the South Pacific islands as examples. However, in all cases the contribution of the tourism sector is measured in quantifiable terms of tourism receipts, contribution to exports, contribution to the GDP, and employment levels (Andrioti 2006; Cooper *et al.* 2008). Certainly, these are indicators of the economic contribution of tourism as an economic sector, but it is less clear whether they are also indicators of the contribution of tourism to development in general.

Tourism is a double-edged sword: the industry may bring in more money to the local population and government and thereby raise living standards, but at the same time there can be socio-cultural costs associated with the tourism development (Sharpley & Telfer 2002; Freeman 2004). Weaver & Lawton (2006) argue that in the context of a developed world, tourism has a formidable economic impact and this sector is the primary agent of globalization involving billions of host/guest contacts and incorporating most places into an integrated global tourism network. However, the global tourism network requires a developed technological infrastructure such as information and communication technology (ICT) that is unfortunately underdeveloped in many developing countries (Scott, Baggio & Cooper 2008).

Hall & Page (2006) explain that, by nature, tourism is a phenomenon which depends not only on transport, service and trading networks but also on social, political and environmental relationships between the producers and the consumers of the tourist experience. Not surprisingly, these issues are of interest to geographers. Butler (2004: 156) recognizes that geographers have made significant contributions to the understanding of the tourism and recreation phenomena and contends that "...in engaging in research on... [tourism] topics, it is surely essential for geographers to retain a strong spatial focus and a synthesizing approach [because] [t]hese are the two traditional characteristics of the geographer and are unique to the discipline."

Khadaroo & Seetanah (2007) acknowledge the role of infrastructure in tourism development. They argue that infrastructure and technology in a destination are key features that can influence the number of visitors. Simpson & Wall (1999) state that tourism development is influenced among other factors by the characteristics of the destination area, the provision of infrastructure and tourism superstructure, the success of mitigatory measures, the stage of tourism development, and the policy and management contexts in which tourism occurs. While a tourism zone develops and expands, satellite resorts or attractions such as village

tourism or ecotourism will open up if there are adequate transport links (Telfer & Sharpley 2008).

Tourism involves travel by land, sea or air and consequently, transport to, from and within a destination is crucial for destination development. Israeli & Mansfeld (2003) remind us that the need to improve transportation systems around, to and within destinations is in the interest of the two most important stakeholders of tourism: local residents and tourists. Local people's interests are to improve their standard of living as a result of tourism being introduced as an economic activity. Tourists visiting such destinations view the local transportation system as a manifestation of product quality. Furthermore, Weaver & Lawton (2006), Khadaroo & Seetanah (2007) and Dickinson & Robbins (2008) insist that tourism development would not be possible without roads, airports, harbours, electricity, sewage, and potable water as well as other technological infrastructure. In order to apply this geographical approach to tourism, relevant concepts and definitions are introduced and discussed next.

#### 1.4.2 Concepts

This subsection singles out concepts and definitions regarding the tourism phenomenon and tourism development for discussion. They have been selected according to their relevance to the purpose of this study. As Wearing & Wearing (2001: 151) assert, "...there is a need to move beyond simplistic typologies towards a more analytically flexible conceptualisation that allows for the exploration of the assumptions implicit in [tourism concepts]..."

##### 1.4.2.1 Tourism

Tourism has been defined by many authors, each giving the meaning according to their respective discipline. This reflects the multidisciplinary nature of the tourism phenomenon. Weaver & Lawton (2006: 3) define tourism as: "...the sum of the processes, activities, and outcomes arising from the interactions among tourists, tourism suppliers, host governments, host communities, origin governments, universities, community colleges and non-governmental organizations, in the process of attracting, transporting, hosting and managing tourists and other visitors." This definition satisfies the purposes of this research and is adopted as its working definition. Sharpley & Telfer (2002: 21) argue that "...it is important to establish a working definition of tourism as activity or process that allegedly acts as a catalyst of development." Meanwhile Sindiga (1999: 10), in his discussion of tourism concepts, advises that "...a scholar who is working on tourism must obtain an operational definition for his/her enterprise." Whichever definition is adopted, it is clear that tourism

comprises a number of activities, including travelling and visiting for leisure, or even business. Thus, tourism is an activity that involves individuals who travel within their own countries or internationally, and interact with other people and places (Cooper *et al.* 2008).

#### 1.4.2.2 Development

Development is an ambiguous term: an ambiguity that is compounded by different uses of the term in different contexts and disciplines. Pezzoli (1997) defines development as the promotion of social progress and improved standards of living in greater freedom. Sharpley & Telfer (2002: 23) discuss development extensively and for them it "...refer[s] to a process through which a society moves from one condition to another, and also to the goal of that process; the development process in a society may result in its achieving the state or condition of development." Telfer & Sharpley (2008) explain that development can be thought of as a philosophy, a process, the outcome or product of that process, and a plan guiding the process towards desired objectives. Development is a concept that relates to all parts of the world at every level, from the individual to the respective society, from a local to a global level.

#### 1.4.2.3 Tourism development

Tourism development is a common expression used in tourism studies in different contexts. Pearce & Butler (1999) observe that tourism development is an expression that encompasses not only destinations, motivations and impacts, but also the complex linkages that exist between all the people and institutions of that interconnecting, global supply and demand system. They extend their observation by saying that tourism development is a hybrid term, that research in the field consists of two essentially separate literatures. Thus, scholars should study more deeply the concept of tourism development for a better understanding and application thereof. With a focus on tourism supply, Pearce (1989: 15) suggests the term "tourist development," which is defined as "the provision or enhancement of facilities and services to meet the needs of tourists." He raises the point that tourism as a sector might also be seen as a means of development in a much broader sense, meaning the path to achieve some end state or condition. It implies that the focus is not on tourism as an agent of development, but on the process that strengthens tourism as an agent of socio-economic development. Both definitions support the purpose of this study, however particular consideration is given to the former definition because this study offers an analysis of the evolution of tourism in the destination.

### 1.4.3 Geographical space and scale

Another notion essential to the concept of tourism is space. The term is used somewhat differently in different fields of study, hence it is difficult to provide an uncontroversial and clear definition outside of specifically defined contexts. Whittlesey (in Blaut 1961: 1) maintains that “[s]pace is the basic organizing concept of the geographer.” This suggests that geographers have their own definition of space that must be considered in their research. The question is: What is geographical space? The definition of geographical space adopted for this research is offered by Prevelakis (s.a.: 2) who states that “[g]eographical space is the space occupied by Mankind: the Ecumene of the Ancients. It is limited, since it cannot go beyond the technological capacities of Man; however, as those capacities develop, geographical space is constantly extending its limits.” He expands the definition by noting that “[g]eographical space is subdivided into territories occupied, organized and dominated by different groups which form simple or more elaborate political societies” (Prevelakis s.a.: 2).

Related to space is the one fundamental concept that identifies and distinguishes geographical studies from other sciences, that is “scale”. Hall & Page (2006) hold that for geographers, it is the scale at which phenomena are studied, analysed and explained which differentiates geography from many other areas of social science. The ability to recognize phenomena at different geographical scales ranging from global, national, regional to local, and to understand the interactions of processes and changes at each scale, are hallmarks of geography. In the context of planning, Gunn & Var (2002) have suggested three scale levels, namely site scale (individual property development for hotels, restaurants, resorts, roads, and attractions), destination scale (community-attraction complexes and destination zones) and regional scale (nation, province or state).

In the systematic approach to tourism development, Carlson (2003) points out that the tourism system comprises three geographic and social elements. The geographical elements are the traveller-generating region, the transit-route region (where travel operations are located) and the tourist-destination region (where tourist products and services are provided). The interactions that occur in the three geographic areas take place within broader human, socio-cultural, economical, technological, physical, political and legal settings or ‘environments’ that influence the social and geographic elements of tourism (Carlson 2003). In this study the destination scale is suitable and can provide an understanding of tourism development in the ICZ as a tourist destination. The place where tourist products and services are provided is the subject discussed next.

#### 1.4.4 Tourist destinations, resorts and tourism nodes

In tourism studies the concept of tourism destination is paramount. According to Howie (2003), tourism destinations are places of interest to tourists, implying that a place that is not visited by tourists is not a tourist destination. Keyser (2002: 168) states that tourist “[d]estinations are the reason why tourism exists” and a destination is the location of the supply of facilities and services (tourism products) created to cater for the tourist’s needs. The term destination can be arbitrarily defined, and it can be equivalent to destination zone (Gunn & Var 2002). The three scale levels (site scale, destination scale and regional scale) suggested by Gunn & Var (2002) are applicable to destination areas. There are different types of destinations. Howie (2003) has categorized six destination types which are used in this research: cities; villages and small towns; resorts; protected areas, notably rural areas with extensive nature-based attractions; regions; and countries. However, many other categories can be found in Keyser (2002), Weaver & Lawton (2006) and Cooper *et al.* (2008).

A fundamental concept related to tourist destination is the term resort. Prideaux (2004) avers that “resort” may denote any visitor centre to which people resort in large numbers. The term can be applied in the macro sense referring to a specific holiday locality, or in the micro sense referring to a specific hotel property or establishment. The latter application of the term “resort” may be confusing if the name of a specific hotel is similar to the name of the place of its location. For this reason this study adopts the term “tourism node”. Haggett (2001: 394) defines a nodal region as “an area that surrounds a human settlement and which is tied to it in terms of its spatial organization.” This definition is suitable for this study since in the ICZ there are coincidences as far as names of locations and tourist establishments are concerned.

#### 1.4.5 Tourism development and spatial transformation

The geographers Hall & Page (2006), have mapped and analysed the changing dynamics of resort development and in their analysis they have examined the roles of stakeholders, developers and planners. In the USA and Australia, historical studies of coastal tourism have considered resorts, their life cycle and development in a longitudinal context. “The historical geography of specific resorts has provided a focal point for research, where a range of factors explain why resorts developed where they did, why they developed and the scale of change” (Hall & Page 2006: 300). Tourism development may result in significant environmental, social, economic and landscape changes in an almost infinite diversity of tourism developmental contexts (Telfer & Sharpley 2008). Furthermore, Terkenli (2002) surmises that

these developments occur on the basis of changing forms of place and landscape varying in time and space among the various actors in the tourism industry.

In most tourist destination areas there are tourism development gaps. Such gaps can be defined as the existence of socio-economic imbalances and unequal distribution of tourism demand and supply between different areas inside the destination area resulting to a series of positive and negative outcomes to destinations and their communities (Andrioti 2006). Regarding the African context, Preston-Whyte & Oelofse (2007) lament that tourism resort development often takes place in close proximity to social conditions of extreme poverty in countries with large gaps between rich and poor people. Examples are given by Preston-Whyte & Oelofse (2007) of exclusive private resorts in the Eastern Cape in South Africa where resorts are being developed in nodes along sections of coastline containing impoverished communities. These resort development projects tend to form enclaves that are neither economically nor socially linked to their hinterland. Telfer & Sharpley (2008:101) point out that “[w]hile these resorts bring in large numbers of tourists, there is lively debate over their overall benefit to the destination.” In addition, these resort enclaves are often controlled from abroad, generating high rates of leakages as there is more interest in profit than in establishing strong links with the local community.

#### 1.4.5.1 Tourism and the coastal zone

Tourism is frequently associated with sea, sand and sun, often referred to as the 3Ss. The use of coastal areas for tourism dates from Roman times. However, bathing at seaside resorts became widespread only after the mid 18<sup>th</sup> century. But “[t]oday, a wide variety of seaside resorts, some planned and others unplanned, can be found in the world’s coastal areas” (Wong 1993: x). Importantly, because of the highly dynamic nature of the coastal environments any development which interferes with the natural coastal system may have severe consequences for the long-term stability of such environments (Cicin-Sain & Knecht in Hall & Page 2006). Several contributions have reflected on the environmental impacts of tourism development on coastal areas (Meyer-Arendt 1993; Simpson & Wall 1999; Hall & Page 2006; Shaw & Agarwal 2007; Marafa 2008).

Wong (1993) reminds us that the coastal zone constitutes an important place of human habitation and it is the source of a number of resources that give rise to distinctive activities, including tourism. The vulnerability of coastal environments for tourism development and for many coastal communities dependent on coastal ecosystems for sustenance, livelihood and quality of life calls for sustainable development (Marafa 2008) or for responsible and



integrated tourism development (Telfer & Sharpley 2008). For these areas to continue to be useful and support such numerous activities, sustainable tourism development needs to be encouraged and promoted. The explanation about how tourism can also influence society in coastal zones is the subject of the following subsection.

#### 1.4.5.2 Social perspectives on coastal tourism development

The social impact of tourism refers to the manner in which tourism effects changes in collective and individual value systems, behaviour patterns, community structures, lifestyle and the quality of life. Researchers from a number of disciplinary backgrounds have conducted studies on the social impacts of tourism and the major focus of these is on the tourist destination and host population (Hall & Page 2006).

Hashimoto (2002) maintains that tourism development is a means for socio-economic development, and thus successful tourism development should bring reasonable economic profit to the parties involved. This, in turn, should improve the quality of life of the local population by providing a modern lifestyle and amenities. Henderson (2007), Lepp (2007) and Eshghi & Larson (2008) all report on ways in which tourism disturbs residents' lifestyles in destination areas.

The social impacts of tourism are complex and need to be examined within the context of the various economic, environmental, political and social factors that contribute to tourism development in destinations. As Hall & Page (2006) point out, residents' attitudes are undoubtedly a key component in the identification, measurement and analysis of tourism impacts. However, investigations of community attitudes towards tourism are not just academic exercises: such attitudes are important in determining local policy, planning and management and in establishing the extent to which public support exists for future tourism development.

Commenting on community attitudes, Hashimoto (2002: 215) avers that "[h]ow a host community responds to the introduction of tourism will vary from destination to destination and, if planned correctly, may increase the well-being of the host population." An infusion of tourists into a destination can generate economic benefits for those involved as well as promote social and political stability and protect cultural and heritage traditions but it can also destroy these values. Telfer & Sharpley (2008) argue that while some fortunate sections of society may benefit from tourism, the poor are getting poorer not only materially but also in terms of their culture and resources. Henderson (2007) highlights that beach resorts and hotel

resorts have specific socio-cultural and socio-economic disadvantages that can offset their advantages. However, the relationship between tourism and the host population is complicated and therefore standard socio-economic indicators cannot adequately measure these changes (Hashimoto 2002). In the next subsections the models of tourism development in coastal zones are described and it is shown how these models can, under certain conditions, be used to predict changes in a tourist destination.

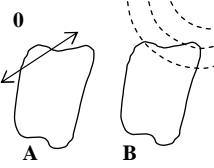
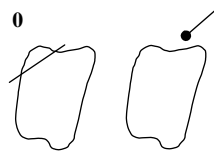
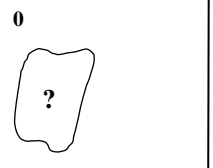
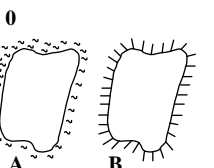
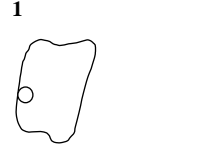
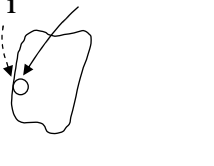
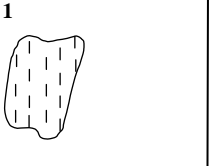
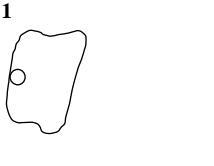
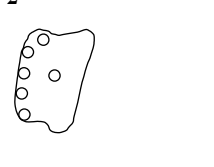
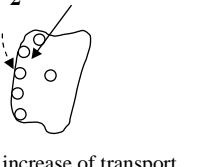
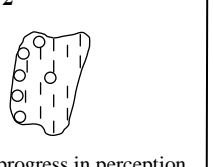
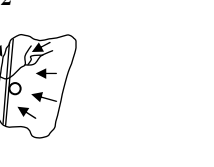
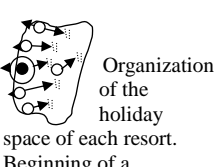

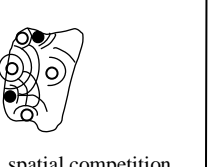
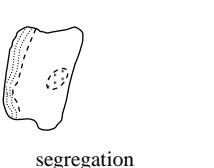
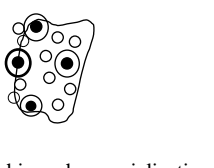

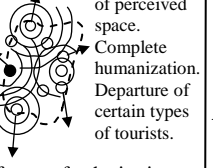
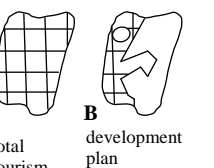
#### **1.4.6 Models of tourism development**

The processes of tourism development and change in destination areas have been treated theoretically in various ways in tourism studies. Studies in tourism development have adopted various frameworks to understand tourism development processes, such as the Miossec (1976) model, the Leiper (1979) framework, the Butler (1980) model, and the development spectrum framework advanced by Prideux (2000). In this subsection the relationships between two models of tourism development as well as their applicability in coastal tourism development studies are described. The models selected are Miossec's tourism development model and the destination life cycle model.

##### **1.4.6.1 Miossec's tourism development model**

The Miossec model, published in France in 1976 (see Figure 1.11), examines the interactions of four key elements in the resort development process during different phases of tourism destination's evolution through time and space (Miossec 1976). It explains the destination itself and its characteristics, the role of transport, tourist behaviour patterns, and attitudes of the decision makers and residents of the destination (Howie 2003).

Pearce (1989) describes the model as follows. In the early phase (0 and 1) of development, the area scarcely merits the term destination – only occasional visitors are present and residents and decision makers hold no particular attitude toward them. In phase 2, once an area is discovered by tourists, a 'pioneer' resort may be distinguished. Attitudes toward the development change both positively and negatively. As the destination develops, an increasingly complex hierarchical system of resorts and transport networks evolves, while changes in local attitudes may lead to the acceptance of tourism. The development pattern arrived at through conscious decision making reflects the desires of all stakeholders (phases 3 and 4). Meanwhile, the tourists have become more aware of what the region has to offer with some spatial specialization occurring, while some tourists change their behaviour and move on to other areas.

RESORT	TRANSPORT	TOURIST BEHAVIOUR	ATTITUDES OF DECISION-MAKERS AND POPULATION OF RECEIVING REGION
phase	phase	phase	phase
<p><b>0</b></p>  <p>A B territory</p> <p>traversed distant</p>	<p><b>0</b></p>  <p>transit isolation</p>	<p><b>0</b></p>  <p>lack of interest and knowledge</p>	<p><b>0</b></p>  <p>A B mirage refusal</p>
<p><b>1</b></p>  <p>pioneer resort</p>	<p><b>1</b></p>  <p>opening up</p>	<p><b>1</b></p>  <p>global perception</p>	<p><b>1</b></p>  <p>observation</p>
<p><b>2</b></p>  <p>multiplication of resorts</p>	<p><b>2</b></p>  <p>increase of transport links between resorts</p>	<p><b>2</b></p>  <p>progress in perception of places and itineraries</p>	<p><b>2</b></p>  <p>infrastructure policy servicing of resorts</p>
<p><b>3</b></p>  <p>Organization of the holiday space of each resort. Beginning of a hierarchy and specialization.</p>	<p><b>3</b></p>  <p>excursion circuits</p>	<p><b>3</b></p>  <p>spatial competition and segregation</p>	<p><b>3</b></p>  <p>segregation demonstration effects dualism</p>
<p><b>4</b></p>  <p>hierarchy specialization saturation</p>	<p><b>4</b></p>  <p>connectivity → maximum</p>	<p><b>4</b></p>  <p>Disintegration of perceived space. Complete humanization. Departure of certain types of tourists.</p> <p>forms of substitution saturation and crisis</p>	<p><b>4</b></p>  <p>A B total tourism development plan ecological safeguards</p>

Source: Pearce (1989: 17)

Figure 1.11 Miossec's model of tourist development

Miossec's model is notable for incorporating coordination between the local authorities and private developers in combining their objectives. In this regard Howie (2003: 59) notes that "[t]he sometimes conflicting nature of these objectives has led in recent years to an increasing desire for 'public-private partnerships' for action and development in an effort to derive more complementarity between objectives." According to Pearce (1989), the Miossec model remains the clearest and most explicit conceptualization of the process of tourism development. Notably, the model can be used for site-scale, destination-scale and regional-

scale cases to understand tourism development and spatial transformations. Apparently the model has not attracted much attention from researchers. In South Africa, Ferreira & Hanekon (1995) used Miossec's model as a framework at a regional level to analyse the emergence of Warmbaths as a tourism region.

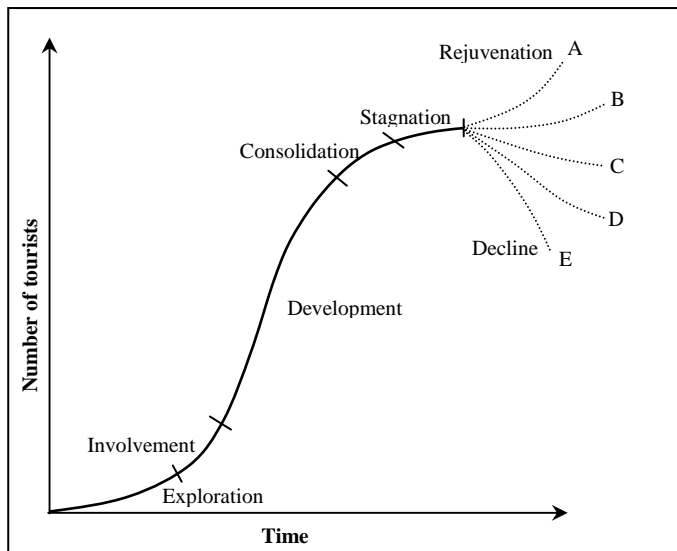
Pearce (1989: 18) points out two features of the model that make it useful as a tourism development framework. First, it incorporates a dynamic element: "the development of the region through time and space" is very important in analysing past progress and in planning development. Second, it provides an overview of this evolution by examining changes in tourist behaviour, attitudes of hosts and decision makers as elements directly involved in tourism development and the expansion of transport networks.

The model is suitable for understanding the evolution and dynamics of tourism development in the ICZ because it is possible to analyse the whole zone by looking at each tourism node as a tourist destination and because the model can be combined with the destination life cycle model.

#### 1.4.6.2 Destination life cycle model

Butler (1980) created a model of resort development which led to the tourism area life cycle (TALC) derived from the product life cycle concept in marketing. It is a useful model concerned with the hypothetical evolution of a tourist area. In this model the number of tourists replaces the number of products sold. The model is based on knowledge of the development of a range of established tourist destinations that predate the contemporary period where increasing attention is given to planning and sustainable development (Agarwal 1997; Howie 2003).

According to Agarwal (1997) the destination life cycle model identifies six main stages: exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, and rejuvenation or decline (see Figure 1.12). After the discovery of the destination, the first stage – *exploration* – is characterized by a small number of visits to the place. There is no tourism development in the destination and the environmental quality is high. In the second stage, *involvement*, the local communities and authorities decide whether they wish to encourage tourism development by providing facilities assumed to be desired by tourists. Appropriate tourism organizations may be set up in the destination. The *development* stage sees growth of tourism in the destination



Source: Meyer-Arendt (1993: 128)

Figure 1.12 The tourist area cycle of evolution

while decision-making power may move from local authorities to institutions. Psychocentric<sup>2</sup> tourists become the majority of the visitors, while the allocentrics<sup>3</sup> move on in search of new places (Meyer-Arendt 1993; Agarwal 1997).

The *consolidation* stage is characterized by a decline in the rate of visits, although total numbers are still increasing, and the destination has begun to experience economic, social and environmental problems. In the *stagnation* stage the destination has failed to retain a fashionable status and environmental quality may be declining through a failure to invest. Social and economic problems may arise through a loss of income and negative consequences emerge. The *rejuvenation* or *decline* stage depends on how the destination is managed. Decline is the consequence of inadequate or inappropriate destination management. According to the adopted measures in destination management, the situation may change positively or the destination continues to decline. Rejuvenation is the outcome of successful strategies arising from a period of introspection and of drawing inspiration and lessons from other destinations (Howie 2003).

Butler's model, like any useful theoretical model, has been applied, criticized, and modified over the years (Bennett 1995; Agarwal 1997; Johnston 2001; Hovinen 2002; Bennett &

<sup>2</sup> Psychocentric tourists are inclined to travel to more familiar destinations enjoying commonplace activities and staying in typical accommodation. They tend to be conservative in their travel patterns, preferring specific destinations and often taking many return trips (Mynhardt 1995; Cooper *et al.* 2008).

<sup>3</sup> Allocentric tourists are characterized by a sense of adventure, self-confidence and willingness to see and do new things and discover new destinations. They rarely return to the same place twice (Mynhardt 1995; Cooper *et al.* 2008).

Stydom 2005; Rodriguez, Lopez & Estevez 2008). However, the model is useful as a portrayal of resort development, though it is more descriptive than normative (Johnston 2001). Although Butler (2004) admits that the model does not always fit reality, he maintains that it can be used to test its validity in a particular destination. Moreover, the model is still being used to describe and interpret destination development, thereby showing that TALC remains relevant. For example, Agarwal (1997) discusses the applicability and validity of the model by analysing seaside tourism; Oppermann (1998), Weaver (2000) and Hovinen (2002) have revised the destination life cycle model; and Johnston (2001) and Prideaux (2004) have proposed other models based on TALC. The many case studies based on Butler's model which refer to mature destinations, are perhaps a desire to avoid the fatalistic path shown by the model (Rodriguez, Lopez & Estevez 2008).

The TALC model is adaptable for site-scale, destination-scale and for regional-scale situations in order to better understand tourism development and spatial transformations. The life cycle model works well for resorts where tourism is the principal activity, but less so in more complex places (Howie 2003). The contribution of the life cycle and Miossec's models appears to be appropriate for gaining an understanding of the evolution of beach tourism nodes in the ICZ since 1992.

#### **1.4.7 Local community reaction toward tourism development**

Residents' reaction toward tourism development has received increasing attention from academics, policy makers, and tourism industry managers. Public reactions to tourism development will typically range across a continuum from acceptance to rejection accompanied by certain behaviours (Telfer & Sharpley 2008). More commonly, research into residents' attitudes toward tourism has been used to judge tourism's appropriateness for a particular community (Lepp 2007). Lepp (2007) argues that positive attitudes are an indication that the social and cultural obligations of tourism development are being met. A number of theories and models have been put forward to help explain why residents respond to tourism as they do, and under what conditions residents react to tourism development. After assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the various models, Horn & Simmons (2002) propose that the most familiar theoretical perspective on how hosts and guests interact is the irritation index (Irridex) (Doxey 1975).

An understanding of the changing attitudes towards tourism development held by the host community of a destination as it progresses through the stages in the life cycle is provided by Doxey's Irridex. The stages of the destination life cycle are the result of interacting social,

environmental, economic and political changes taking place in the local area. Irridex is concerned with the social relationships between tourists and locals as tourism evolves (Gibson & Bentley 2006). According to the irritation index, tourist-host relationships are characterized by four phases – euphoria, apathy, annoyance, and antagonism – as a destination evolves from beginning to decline (see Table 1.3).

Table 1.3 Irritation index model of tourism development and related stress

Stages	Characteristics	Symptoms
First stage	Euphoria	In this stage locals welcome visitors positively but there is little evidence of planned development.
Second stage	Apathy	Stage two sees an element of casual acceptance in relation to visitors and more commerciality in terms of the relationship.
Third stage	Annoyance	In this part of the model, locals' concerns about impacts of tourism are manifesting and there is a concomitant effort made to improve the tourism infrastructure.
Final stage	Antagonism	The fourth stage infers that there is an eruption of open hostility from locals while attempts are made to limit damage arising from tourism flows.

Source: Gibson & Bentley (2006: 68)

The model assumes that communities are homogenous and that large numbers of tourists cause tension which ultimately leads to antagonism. Fritsch & Johannsen (2002), Horn & Simmons (2002) and Howie's (2003) description of the phases is summarized below.

In the *euphoria* stage, visitors to the destination are few in number and they are allocentrics, being there primarily because the destination is still undeveloped. They cause little, if any environmental or social impacts while the money they spend is welcomed and their presence adds some interest to the host people. As visitor numbers grow they are increasingly taken for granted – the *apathy* stage. Informal hospitality gives way to formalized contracts between tourists and the residents offering services. The need for planning new opportunities is recognized, primarily in times of marketing.

In the *annoyance* stage – as the emerging tourism grows within the destination – some of the residents become critical of the various negative effects of tourism. Policy makers, such as the local authority, may be unwilling to intervene in the growth of an economically successful industry (indeed they may develop further infrastructure to support this growth) and so there is a continuing growth of tourism to a point of saturation. In the final phase – that of *antagonism* – irritation is no longer covert: it is openly expressed (Howie 2003). Butler (1980) described tourism development as a series of stages through which a destination evolves,

namely exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, and stagnation. Residents' attitudes depend, in part, on these stages.

The Irridex model has been tested in a number of tourism environments to determine the level of resident irritation generated by tourism (Fritsch & Johannsen 2002; Gibson & Bentley 2006). Some researchers suggest the theory is dated and overly simplistic in its nature because of the way it tends to ignore the heterogeneity of populations as Gibson & Bentley (2006) have claimed. However, scholars do agree that the model has value for studying tourism impacts. In particular, the model has been used often and it has led to the acknowledgement that negative social impacts can affect the host populations' perceptions if tourism development is not managed satisfactorily (Fritsch & Johannsen 2002; Horn & Simmons 2002; Gibson & Bentley 2006).

Local community involvement or exclusion in tourism development have been analysed accordingly. Telfer & Sharpley (2008) suggest that the principle of community involvement appears to reduce critical elements of sustainable tourism development. However, it is generally accepted that sustainable tourism development is an idealistic concept that is difficult, if not impossible, to put into practice (Freeman 2004; Henderson 2007; Telfer & Sharpley 2008). Lepp (2007) has analysed host attitudes toward tourism using cost and benefits comparison and his findings show that Irridex remains relevant and applicable.

The Irritation index can help to understand how a local community responds to the introduction of tourism in the ICZ as a tourist destination, and it can detect insufficiencies in planning and management in a tourist destination. Irridex can provide valid knowledge for tourism planning analysis of the ICZ by combining its results with those from analyses of secondary sources.

#### **1.4.8 Factors affecting residents' support for tourism development**

Numerous studies have been conducted as part of the effort to identify the key factors influencing residents' perceptions and attitudes toward tourism development (Horn & Simmons 2002; Amuquandoh & Dei 2007; Lepp 2007; Farahani & Musa 2008). Several studies found that residents benefiting from tourism have a higher level of support for it. Gursoy & Rutherford (2004) agree that locals are likely to participate in tourism development if they believe that they are likely to gain benefits without incurring unacceptable costs. Variables that have been examined include: socio-demographic characteristics; expectations of economic benefits; geographical proximity to activity concentrations or contact with



tourists; stage of tourism development; seasonality in patterns of tourism activity; involvement in decision making regarding tourism; and involvement in the tourism sector.

Most studies that examined socio-demographic variables found them having a significant influence on residents' attitudes toward tourism (Fredline & Faulkner 2000; Jackson & Inbakaran 2006). In examining economic variables, studies have found that economic benefits are one of the most important elements sought by locals (Amuquandoh & Dei 2007). Lepp (2007) argues that local communities can maintain positive attitudes despite negative impacts as long as economic benefits are forthcoming. Some studies report that geographical proximity to tourism facilities and activity concentrations influences locals to be more supportive of tourism development because they see associated economic benefits and employment opportunities. Conversely, Haley, Smith & Miller (2005) found that those living closer to tourism activity concentrations were less positive and supportive of tourism than those living further away. However, Doxey's irritation index and the Butler life cycle model predict that the reactions of locals to tourism development will depend on the stage of tourism development of the destination.

Fredline & Faulkner (2000) argue that the seasonality factor is relevant considering the extent to which tourism events might ameliorate or exacerbate peaks and troughs in the level of general tourism activity. Jackson & Inbakaran (2006) and Farahani & Musa (2008) posit that residents support tourism when they perceive themselves as being able to influence decisions and outcomes related to tourism development. However, Fredline & Faulkner (2000) insist that involvement by locals in a business or employment interests that are positively affected by tourism leads to support for tourism development.

In general, the local residents' perception of tourism development is varied according to a cumulative number of factors. Some view tourism as having both positive and negative impacts; some are likely to perceive it as having negative social and cultural impacts; and some view it as having positive economic, social and cultural impacts.

The determinants of the community support model proposed by Gursoy & Rutherford (2004) suggest a suitable way of identifying factors affecting residents' support for tourism development by examining the perceived impacts of economic benefits, social benefits, social costs, cultural benefits, and cultural costs as the antecedents of community support for tourism. The model suggests that residents' "...perceptions are influenced by the concern locals have for their community, their emotional attachment to it, the degree to which they are

environmentally sensitive, and the extent to which they use the same resource base that tourists use” (Gursoy & Rutherford 2004: 497).

In developing tourism in a community, the goal is to achieve outcomes that best balance benefits and costs for all stakeholders, particularly residents, tourists, and those working in the tourism industry. For tourism authorities and tourism planners, understanding the way locals react to tourism development in the ICZ would be most useful, since they could then hypothesize likely reactions of the host population to planning actions.

## **1.5 REPORT STRUCTURE**

In this chapter the literature was reviewed to provide the background for the study and to overview the theoretical framework about tourism development. The rest of the report is structured as follows: Chapter 2 describes the methods and research procedures used in this study to achieve the outlined objectives. Chapter 3 focuses on the ICZ destination infrastructure; the tourist superstructure; and the evolution of tourist arrivals in the zone. Chapter 4 explores the results of the questionnaire survey of local community reaction toward tourism development and the results of focus group discussions. Chapter 5 interprets the results presented in Chapters 3 and 4, and tests the applicability of the Miossec and the life cycle models to the ICZ. Concluding remarks pertaining to the assessment of the research strategy in achieving the stated objectives of this study and avenues for further research are dealt with in Chapter 6.

This chapter has presented the background to the study by providing an overview of tourism in Mozambique and the context in which the study is to be carried out. It stated the study’s research problem, research questions, research aim and objectives. Moreover, it examined the literature on tourism development regarding general concepts, specific topics directly relating to tourism development, and models of tourism development. The next chapter presents the research design and methods used in this study.

## CHAPTER 2: METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

This chapter describes the methods used to achieve the aim and objectives of the study. First, the research strategy involving triangulation is explained. Second, the research design is set out in diagram format. Third, the context in which the study was conducted, including an overview of the study area regarding the distribution of tourism nodes and the target subjects involved in the study, is explained. Fourth, the data collection methods and instruments used as well as the fieldwork procedures are described. Fifth, the data processing and analysis procedures, as well as how the results were interpreted, are explained. Finally, the general profile of the participants in focus group discussions is provided.

### 2.1 RESEARCH STRATEGY

A case study is defined in many ways, but Punch (2005) agrees that a case study is a method or technique of studying social phenomena through the thorough analysis of an individual case. He continues that the case can be a phenomenon of some sort occurring in a bounded context. To investigate tourism development both as a process and as a state, the way in which it develops and the concomitant spatial transformations in a given period of time, is a complex undertaking. The case study approach is suitable for this research because it allows for an in-depth analysis of sufficient detail to understand the complexity of tourism development using various methods and techniques.

According to Denscombe (2007: 37), “[o]ne of the strengths of the case study approach is that it allows the researcher to use a variety of sources, a variety of types of data and a variety of research methods as part of the investigation.” By using a case study approach it is possible to obtain multiple perspectives on tourism development analysis. The ICZ, as a tourist destination, is chosen with the belief that understanding how tourism evolved in this zone between 1992 and 2008 will lead to a better understanding of tourism development and possibly a better modelling of tourism development in coastal areas. To make it clear, the case is tourism development and the entity of analysis is the ICZ with particular focus on the research question outlined as: How has tourism evolved in the ICZ since the end of armed conflict in 1992?

Triangulation, the mixing of qualitative and quantitative methods, is useful to this study because “[i]nformation coming from different angles can be used to corroborate, elaborate or illuminate the research problem” (Decrop 1999: 158). This research employed a triangulation

of qualitative and quantitative methods as well as an analysis of the applicable conceptual base.

Qualitative research uses descriptions to record aspects of the world. Qualitative research tends to assess the quality of things using words, images and descriptions (Berg 2007). Qualitative methods reinforce the extensiveness of the different cultural, economic and environmental components examined by the researcher. Qualitative research in geography is used to address a wide range of issues, events and places (Winchester 2000). In this study, primary and secondary sources i.e. document analysis, visual observation, and structured interviews are used to gather data about tourism development in the ICZ.

Quantitative research relies on measurement to compare and analyse different variables. It also refers to counts and measurements of things (Bless, Higson-Smith & Kagee 2006). The quantitative approach in this study is limited to an analysis of tourism statistics and surveys, and to questionnaire survey data analysis to assess local community reaction to tourism development in the ICZ. The framework used here engages local residents in the research process. This entailed asking people not just to respond to the questionnaire on local community reactions to tourism development, but also to participate in focus group discussions.

Remote sensing is defined as “the science and art of obtaining information about an object, area, or phenomenon through the analysis of data acquired by a device that is not in contact with the object, area, or phenomenon under investigation” (Lillesand & Kiefer 2000: 1). Aerial photographs are used for a range of applications (Gibson 2000; Lillesand & Kiefer 2000). Remote sensing was used to determine the distribution of tourism nodes and to identify infrastructure and tourism superstructure in the ICZ.

## **2.2 RESEARCH DESIGN**

The research design for exploring the evolution of the ICZ as a tourist destination is illustrated in Figure 2.1. In the ICZ tourist resorts are being developed in nodes along sections of coastline containing beaches, natural vegetation and local communities. This resort development tends to form clusters of superstructure in tourism nodes and networks linking these nodes. Due to the extent of the coastline in the ICZ and the location of tourism nodes and surrounding settlements, six tourism nodes and seven communities were selected to analyse tourism development in the ICZ (see Table 2.1). The selection of the nodes was determined by data availability and the presence of tourism facilities. Another reason is the

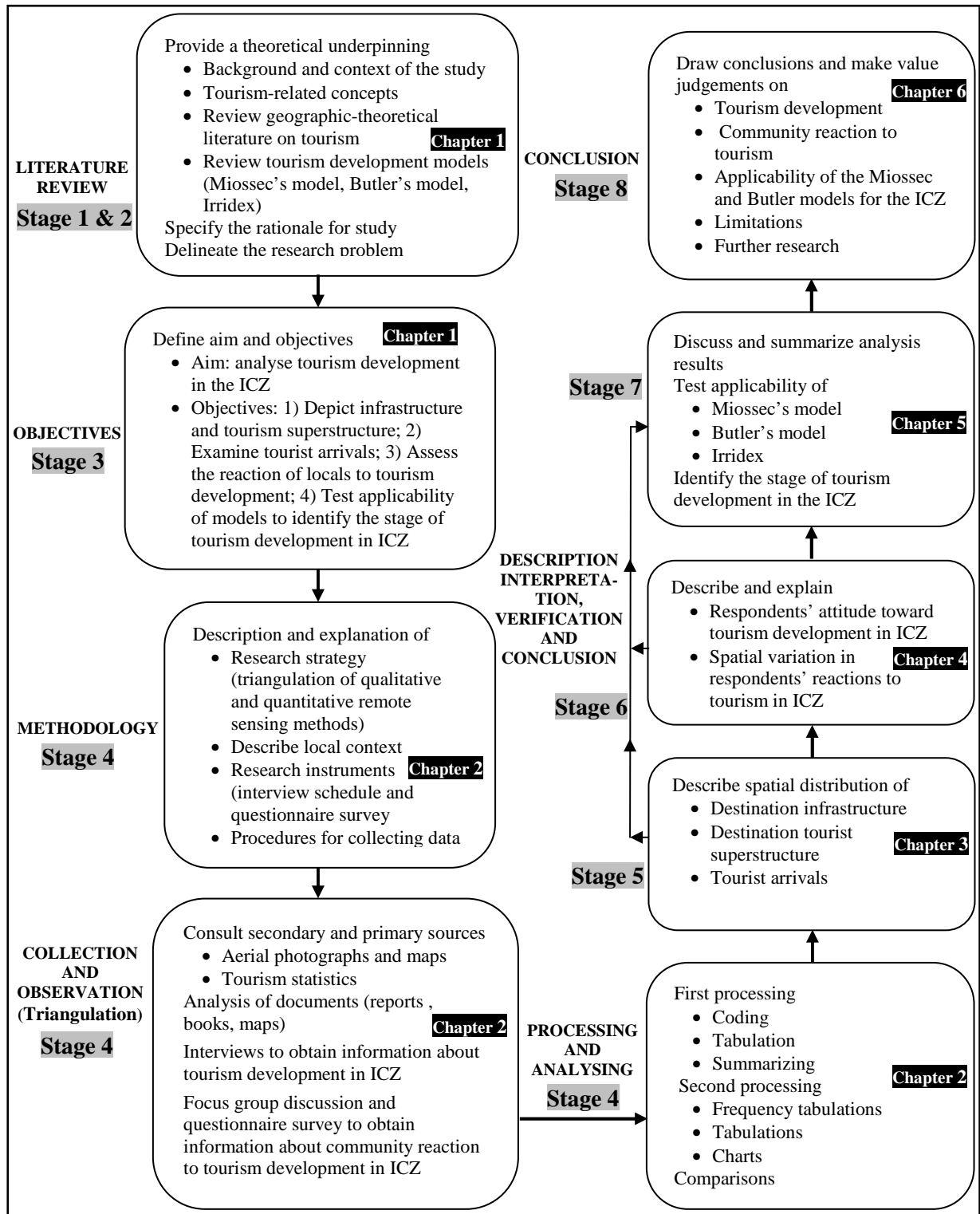


Figure 2.1 Research design for exploring the evolution of the ICZ as a tourist destination

relationship between tourism nodes and their significance in the ICZ considering the applicability of the Miossec and the life cycle models proposed as the theoretical framework. The analysis was done in eight stages as described below.

In the first stage, the literature review was done to provide the background and give an overview of the theoretical framework about tourism development, followed by an examination of models of tourism development and their applicability in this study. The second stage was the delineation of the rationale and the research problem and research questions of this study, followed by a description of the research aim and objectives (stage three). In the fourth stage, the research methodology was described (Chapter 2) with details about data collection and data processing and analysis. Chapter 3 provides the description of three elements suggested in the Miossec model, namely destination infrastructure, destination tourist superstructure, and tourist arrivals (stage five). Chapter 4 (stage six) explores local community reaction to tourism development by discussing the results from the questionnaire survey and focus groups discussions. Chapter 5 discusses the results presented in Chapters 3 and 4 and tests the Miossec model and the life cycle model (stage seven). The final stage (Chapter 6) presents the conclusions drawn about the findings and reconsiders the objectives.

## 2.3 RESEARCH SETTINGS

The first two sections in this chapter described the research strategy and the research design proposed for this study. This section lists the places and subjects involved, and provides a brief description of the process of selection of informants.

### 2.3.1 Inhambane Coastal Zone

The study was done in the ICZ, in six tourism nodes located along the coastline of the Inhambane municipality and the Jangamo district in Inhambane province. Along the 60km-stretch of coastline more than eight beaches exist of which six boast tourist accommodation superstructure. Barra, Tofo, Coconuts, Jangamo, Nhaguilunguane and Guinguane were selected as the six tourism nodes to be investigated (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 Tourism nodes, beaches and communities involved in the study

No	Tourism node	Beach	Community
1	Barra	Barra	1. Conguiana
2	Tofo	Tofo	2. Josina Machel
3	Coconuts	Coconuts	3. Gumula
4	Jangamo	Jangamo	4. Massavana
			5. Guinjata
5	Paindane	Nhaguilunguane	6. Paindane
6	Ligogo	Guinguane	7. Ligogo

The study also includes seven communities (Ligogo, Paindane, Guinjata, Massavana, Gumula, Conguiana and Josina Machel) distributed within the area surrounding the tourism nodes (see Figure 1.5). A description of the subjects involved in this study is provided in the next subsection.

### **2.3.2 People involved in the study**

In qualitative research, the number of people one interviews, the communities one observes, or texts one reads are less important than the quality of who or what one involves in the research, and how one conducts the research (Bradshaw & Stratford 2000). In this study, participants were selected according to their relevance, using what Punch (2005) termed, deliberate sampling or purposive sampling as described in the following paragraphs.

Five groups of tourism development stakeholders in the ICZ were involved: tourism officers, tourist establishment representatives, local community leaders, local community inhabitants, and tourism consultants. Tourism officers work for the government in the tourism sector. Tourist establishment representatives work in the private sector, creating facilities and services for tourists. Local community leaders represent the local residents (local community). The local community inhabitants are residents living in and around the tourism nodes. Tourism consultants work as tourism advisors or academics specializing in tourism.

Each of the targeted participant groups has a relevant role in tourism development but with different degrees of importance. For each target group a specific research instrument was used to gather the information required, as explained later in Sections 2.5 and 2.6. A limited number of informants were selected in each group, as explained in the next subsection.

### **2.3.3 Number and choice of informants**

The numbers of informants involved in the field surveys (interviewees and focus group members) are summarized in Table 2.2. One hundredth and thirty-seven (137) informants were involved in this case study. Sixty-four people who were interviewed (47%) are directly involved in the tourism industry; seven informants (5%) are local community leaders who are not directly involved in the tourism industry, but they do participate as stakeholders in the sector; and 66 informants (48%) are residents in local communities. The four tourism officers and four tourism consultants who were interviewed were randomly selected in the ICZ.

Table 2.2 Summary of informants

Nature of informants	Number of informants/instruments		Total
	Interviewees	Questionnaires	
Tourism officers	4	-	64
Tourism consultants	4	-	
Tourist establishment representatives	6	56	
Local community leaders	7	-	7
<b>Total</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>71</b>
<b>Local communities</b>	<b>Focus group members</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>
1. Ligogo	10	10	66
2. Paindane	10	10	
3. Guinjata	9	9	
4. Massavana	10	10	
5. Gumula	8	8	
6. Conguiana	9	9	
7. Josina Machel	10	10	
<b>Total</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>66</b>	
<b>Total involved</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>-</b>	<b>137</b>

The six representatives of the tourist establishments who were interviewed were selected according to the characteristics of their tourist establishments, which include the number of rooms and beds, the period of existence of the establishment, the number of employees in the establishment, and also the location of the establishment. The elected number of tourist establishment representatives to be interviewed was nine, but only six took part due to the others being unavailable during the fieldwork period. Fifty-six tourist establishment representatives, including those who were interviewed, completed the questionnaire for the tourist establishment representatives.

In the ICZ, seven local communities were selected on the strength of their living in close proximity of tourism nodes. The leaders of each local community were interviewed. In the focus group discussions, ten participants were fixed as the number of group members to represent each identified community. Cameron (2000) recommends that the size of each group cannot be fewer than four because this limits discussion, while more than ten restricts the time for participants to contribute. In three communities it was not possible to include ten members. Focus group meetings were held at the seven places listed in Table 2.2. Each group was supposed to be composed of ten people selected to represent each of the following categories: a tourism worker (male); a tourism worker (female); a fisherman/-woman; a trader; a vegetable vendor; a peasant; a teacher; a builder; a craftsman/-woman; and a local community leader. A wide range of age and occupational groups was sought, with a focus on gender balance.



## 2.4 RESEARCH METHODS

Information and data were collected from aerial photographs, structured interviews, focus group discussions, questionnaire surveys, visual observation and document study. The study was conducted following three ways:

- aerial photograph interpretation and analysis were done to depict the general infrastructure and tourism superstructure;
- document analysis, that is, a systematic review of the theoretical underpinnings and knowledge obtained from relevant sources (scholarly articles, reports, tourism plans and maps of the study area) and;
- empirical fieldwork carried out in the ICZ between 18 June and 7 July 2008. The structured interviews, focus group discussions, questionnaire survey, visual observation, and review of documents were done during the fieldwork and the procedures used in the field are set out in Section 2.6.

Some of the empirical data used in this study were collected through visual observation and note-writing during the fieldwork period. The following section describes the methods used.

## 2.5 RESEARCH AIDS AND INSTRUMENTS

Several sources of information, research instruments and aids were used or involved in this research and the purpose of using each research instrument is explained as follows:

- Aerial photographs and maps were interpreted and analysed to identify the spatio-temporal evolution of tourism development of the ICZ from 1992 to 2008.
- The interview schedule for tourism officers guided the interviews to gather information about tourism development (see Appendix A). The questionnaire captured biographical details of the respondents and the answers to 12 questions regarding tourism infrastructure; government actions to promote tourism in the ICZ; and other factors influencing tourism development in the ICZ.
- The interview schedule for tourist establishment representatives, covered the biographical details of the respondents as well as 14 questions regarding tourists at their establishments (see Appendix B).

- The questionnaire for tourist establishment representatives elicited biographical details of the respondents and answers to 16 questions regarding their establishments (see Appendix C).
- The interview schedule for local community leaders was designed to collect information regarding tourism development in the ICZ (see Appendix D). This instrument was composed to acquire biographical details of the respondents and answers to 13 questions concerning tourism development.
- Two instruments were prepared for guiding the focus group discussions. As an introduction the members filled in a questionnaire on local community reactions to tourism development in the ICZ (see Appendix F). Twenty-six statements – covering issues such as positive and negative aspects of tourism development and other aspects regarding the perceptions of local residents towards tourism – were made about which respondents were asked to indicate their degree of agreement or disagreement. The second instrument was a template to facilitate local community focus group discussions (see Appendix G). Six discussion topics were raised.
- A camera was used to take photographs when making visual observations in the field. The GPS receiver played the essential role of recording the location of resorts and roads in the ICZ.

Each tool had a specific function for gathering and recording data that were processed and analysed later. Specific instruments were used according to the nature of the information required. In the next section, the procedures used for collecting data in the field are discussed.

## **2.6 PROCEDURES FOR COLLECTING DATA**

This section describes the procedures used for collecting data in the ICZ. Because several actions were carried out during this process, the description is divided into two subsections. First, the general procedures are explained and, second, the procedures used in focus group discussions are described.

### **2.6.1 General procedures**

A letter in English requesting permission to conduct interviews and discussions was obtained from Stellenbosch University. An official document in Portuguese was obtained from the Eduardo Mondlane University. These two documents were used by the researcher to identify

himself in the field (see Appendixes H and I). Initially the researcher approached the authorities of Inhambane municipality and Jangamo district for their sanction. From 18 June to 7 July 2008, the researcher conducted fieldwork in the ICZ.

Secondary sources (reports, tourism plans and topographical charts of the study area) were consulted in government departments and libraries. For example, documents were collected at the Inhambane Provincial Directorate of Tourism and the library of the High School of Hospitality and Tourism of Inhambane. Unstructured interviews with tourism consultants were conducted after gathering information about factors that influence tourism development in the ICZ. The information elicited by the interviews was compared and combined with the information gathered from secondary sources.

In-depth face-to-face interviews were conducted with 21 informants, including tourism officers, tourist establishment representatives, and local community leaders. The answers were recorded on the interviews schedules or by making notes in a notebook. Interviews were held in Portuguese, the national language of Mozambique, but with some local community leaders the researcher often used the local languages Gitonga, Xitswa and Chopi, mixed with Portuguese. These interviews were interactive, with respondents openly expressing their knowledge, visions, and opinions about tourism development in the ICZ.

The field observations involved the help of an experienced guide and covered topics such as the type of tourism establishments; the spatial distribution and the type of building material used; tourism facilities in each tourism node in the ICZ; the nature and distribution of tourism infrastructure; and economic and socio-cultural issues. The researcher walked around and observed in the tourism nodes, took notes and interviewed people. Photographs were taken while making observations in the field to complement the information gathered, and the GPS receiver was used to record each resort's location and the roads in the tourism nodes.

### **2.6.2 Focus group discussions**

Inhambane has a long tradition of using discussion groups as part of a community procedure for communication and problem resolution. Rural communities use this mechanism to spread information, discuss issues pertaining to the local residents and to organize communal work or events. Participants in the focus group discussions were invited by the researcher, in collaboration with the local community leaders, to participate in the discussions. They were selected by the researcher and the community leaders to be representative, as defined and explained above (see Subsection 2.3.3). In each focus group discussion participants were

carefully selected and well informed about the purpose of the discussions. The venues for discussion were usually chosen by the local community leader and in most cases the communal meeting spot was used.

Participants were first asked to fill in the questionnaires on local community reactions to tourism development. After clarifying the procedures of discussion, the topics in the template for the local community focus group discussion were considered. The focus group discussions were always lively, with people openly expressing opinions about their feelings, visions, and the changes brought about by tourism in their communities. Sixty-six people participated in the focus group discussions and 66 questionnaires were completed.

The exercises were carried out in local languages, using examples from other communities to illustrate changes in livelihoods and the differences before and after tourism development started in the respective tourism node. All discussions were conducted by the researcher as primary facilitator and two auxiliary facilitators, clarifying points as they were raised.

The above descriptions of the procedures used in fieldwork give an overview of the data collected through various instruments in the field. In the next section, the processing and analysis procedures applied to the data are described.

## **2.7 DATA PROCESSING, ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION**

Data processing and analysis are two processes not mutually exclusive and separate from other dimensions of research as a whole. Data collection, analysis, and writing are interrelated parts that do not occur in a clearly distinct and progressive stage (Marvasti 2004). This was true of this study.

To gain an idea of the general profile of the focus group members, they were listed using the form in Appendix E. Then, descriptive statistical analyses of data were carried out to generate frequency distributions of age, gender, marital status, occupations, and educational level. All the information in the questionnaires on local community reactions to tourism development were coded, processed and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows 15. Descriptive statistical analyses of the questionnaire data were done to produce frequency distribution of the questionnaire data. Descriptive statistics and frequencies were used to categorize, group and summarize data in the form of tables and graphs produced in Microsoft Excel.

Four main tools were used during the data processing and analysis, namely ArcGIS-9 for aerial photograph analysis and the production of maps; Microsoft Excel was used to process and display interview and questionnaire data; SPSS for processing questionnaire data; and Microsoft Word to word-process the research report.

The qualitative information collected during the interviews and focus group discussions was summarized in worksheets using Microsoft Excel. This process helped to display results in order to find similarities and disparities in the information. The same process was followed with records/notes taken during the focus group discussions and while making observations in the field. Subsequently, the results from the initial analysis were compared with the information collected from document analysis.

Marvasti (2004), Punch (2005) and Berg (2007) agree that comparison is the central activity in analysis. Indeed, it is fundamental to all systematic inquiry, whether the data are quantitative or qualitative. In this study, comparisons were made at different stages as described in the following examples. The information gathered from interviews was compared with that from secondary sources and it was possible to identify the factors that influence tourism development in the ICZ. Information from the focus group discussions was compared with the questionnaire results. When discussing the findings, the results presented were compared with the literature and the tourism development models to identify the current phase of tourism development in the ICZ. Having described the data processing and analysis procedures, the next section profiles the focus group members.

## **2.8 GENERAL PROFILE OF THE FOCUS GROUP MEMBERS**

Data collected from focus groups using questionnaires were processed and presented as percentage frequency distributions. In each focus group, members were mixed in terms of age, with a minimum age of 19 and a maximum of 72. The average age was 40 and the median 38. Most of the respondents were youthful: 44% being in the 19-35 cohort. Thirty-eight per cent were middle-aged (36-55 years), and 18% were elderly (56-72 years).

The discussants were unequally mixed regarding gender, with men being in the majority in all the focus groups and clearly so overall (82% versus 18%) (see Figure 2.2 and Table 2.3). Women were invited to attend the discussions but domestic duties probably kept them from attending.

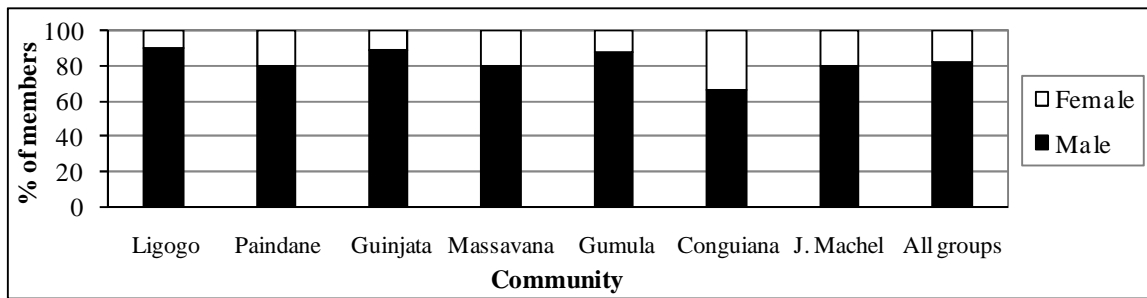


Figure 2.2 Gender representation in the focus groups

Regarding marital status, in total nearly two thirds (64%) were married, more than one fourth (27%) were single and some (9%) declared “other” marital status. There were, however, different compositions from one community’s focus group to another (see Table 2.3 and Figure 2.3).

Table 2.3 Composition of the focus groups

No	Community	Group members	Male	Female	Marital status			Max age	Min age
					Married	Single	Other		
1	Ligogo	10	9	1	4	6	0	72	23
2	Paindane	10	8	2	8	1	1	61	25
3	Guinjata	9	8	1	5	1	3	67	26
4	Massavana	10	8	2	7	3	0	64	19
5	Gumula	8	7	1	7	1	0	71	26
6	Conguiana	9	6	3	6	1	2	63	32
7	Josina Machel	10	8	2	5	5	0	51	27
<b>Total</b>		<b>66</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>18</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>72<sup>†</sup></b>	<b>19<sup>‡</sup></b>

<sup>†</sup> = Maximum age in all groups; <sup>‡</sup> = Minimum age in all groups

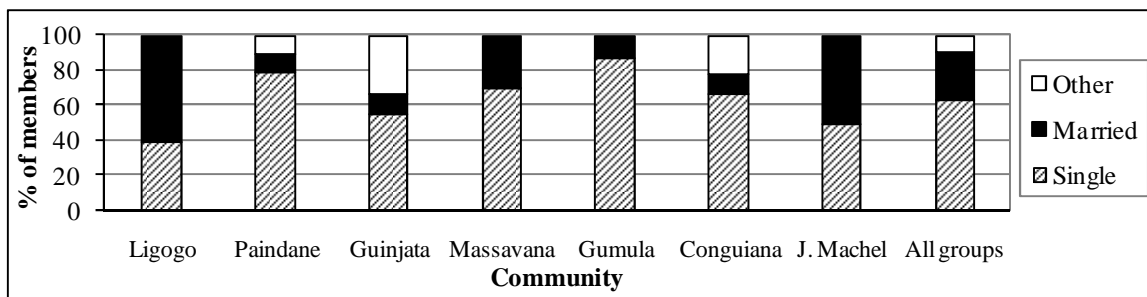


Figure 2.3 Marital status of focus group participants

The discussants were mixed regarding years of residence in their communities. Overall, the focus groups mainly comprised residents who had lived in the ICZ for 16 or more years (85%), showing that the majority of discussants experienced tourism development in the zone during the period studied. Those who had lived there for fewer than 16 years made up the small balance.

There was a good mix of respondents regarding their level of formal education attained. In general, the education level of focus group members was low (45% having 5 or fewer (even none) years of schooling) this being typical in Mozambique's rural communities (see Figure 2.4).

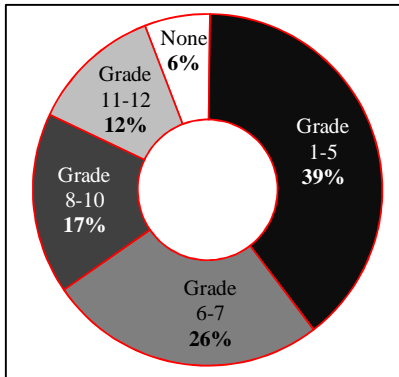


Figure 2.4 Educational levels attained by focus group members

Finally, the occupation of the focus group members is a criterion used to select them. Each group was supposed to consist of ten members but, unfortunately, not all groups fulfilled this requirement. Fortunately, in general no significant discrepancies were registered in the different occupation categories except for a low presence of craftsmen (only 6%) with this category being absent in all the groups but in Josina Machel, Guinjata and Paidane.

In summary, the general profile of focus group participants shows that a cross section rural community residents was engaged. The information provided by the informants is credibly representative of the communities' opinions, valid and reliable given that the information was proffered in sessions where participants openly expressed their opinions which could be discussed, accepted or gainsaid.

This chapter has presented the study's research strategy and research design as well as the methods for collecting data during fieldwork. It described the research aids and instruments, and the research procedures for collecting data and detailed the procedures followed to process and analyse the data and present the results. Finally, it has provided the general profile of the focus group members and commented on the merit of the information they provided. The next chapter describes the destination infrastructure, the tourism superstructure, and the evolution of tourist arrivals in the ICZ.

## **CHAPTER 3: DESTINATION INFRASTRUCTURE, TOURIST SUPERSTRUCTURE AND TOURIST ARRIVALS IN THE ICZ**

When tourism is seen as a system constituted by the three geographical dimensions of tourist generating area, tourist route, and tourist destination area (Cooper *et al.* 2008), then the majority of the facilities and services sought by tourists are found at the destination area (Pearce 1989) making most studies in tourism destination-orientated. Elements of supply such as attractions, infrastructure, superstructure (buildings such as tourist accommodation and recreational facilities), supporting facilities and services are crucial for tourism development in the destination. This chapter first describes the destination infrastructure, second the tourist superstructure, and finally the evolution of tourist arrivals in the ICZ.

### **3.1 DESTINATION INFRASTRUCTURE**

According to Keyser (2002), infrastructure represents all forms of construction, above or below ground that are required by a populated area and which form the basis for tourism activity, while superstructure refers to the facilities and services created for tourists by the private sector.

Infrastructure can be used as an input or development factor by tourism enterprises in tourism destination areas (Lehtolainen 2004). Gunn & Var (2002) have cited the infrastructure base of a country as a potential determinant of the attractiveness of a destination. Cooper *et al.* (2008) maintain that when tourism is developed in a destination area the local infrastructure is often improved to meet the needs of this development. Indeed Jessen (2008, pers com) argues that to become a premier tourist destination in the region, Mozambique needs to invest heavily in infrastructure. In this study, the term infrastructure includes the services provided by the following sectors: transport, water supply, power supply and telecommunications. As Crouch & Ritchie (1999) state, tourism development would not be possible without roads, airports, harbours, electricity, sewerage, and potable water.

Although the aforementioned infrastructure is not used exclusively for tourist purposes, but also for other purposes including local residents, this study pays particular attention to the tourism sector. Khadaroo & Seetanah (2007) note that coastal tourism development also depends on the level of infrastructure development, particularly transport infrastructure, which can be an important determinant of tourist arrivals. Infrastructure in the ICZ is described below starting with transport, then power supply, water supply and telecommunications.



### 3.1.1 Transportation in the ICZ

A number of authors, including Crouch & Ritchie (1999), Keyser (2002) and Khadaroo & Seetanah (2007) have cited the transport infrastructure of a country as a potential determinant of the tourism development. Prideaux (1999) states that efficient transport is an important factor in tourism development. Tourism is about travelling and, consequently, the function of transport in a tourism system is one of transit, carrying tourists between generating areas and tourist destination areas (Cooper *et al.* 2008). Transport is also important within destination areas as Khadaroo & Seetanah (2007) observe that a destination area should be easy to get to and easy to move around in.

The transport network is broadly viewed as the sum of airport, road, railways and seaport facilities. Cooper *et al.* (2008) point out four modes of transport, namely road, water, rail and air. Since both domestic and international tourists tend to move around, to and within a destination area, a developed transport network is needed at regional and destination level. Prideaux (1999) argues that if the ability of tourists to travel to preferred destinations is inhibited by inefficiencies in the transport system, there is the likelihood that they will seek alternative destinations. The transport network in the ICZ is fundamentally composed of an airport and local roads as well as the water access.

#### 3.1.1.1 Air transport

Due to the long period of armed conflict, air transport and all other transport infrastructure in Mozambique is relatively poor. However, international airports are important for international business and leisure travellers beyond SADC countries and for the development of tourism in Mozambique. In Mozambique, air access between priority areas and air linkages between national and regional destinations are crucial to cost and time efficiencies and also to the possibility of integrating different products and exposing visitors to diverse experiences.

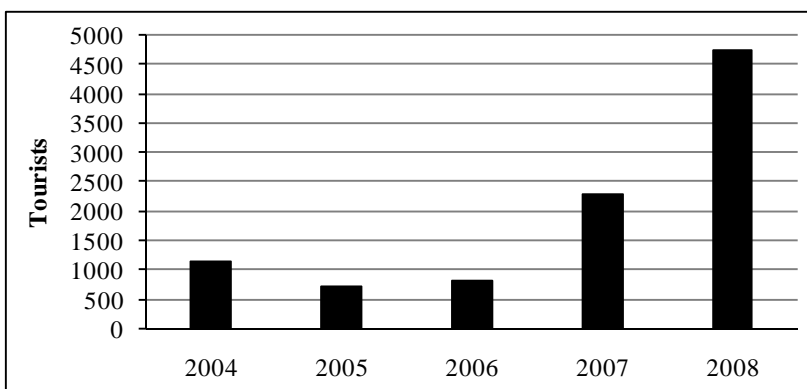
The ICZ has been accessible by air since 1948 when the airport of Inhambane was constructed. Before 1975 the airport was mostly used for military purposes by the Portuguese army. The airport has a runway of 1500 metres in length with a capacity to handle aircraft with a maximum mass of 33 000kg and transporting not more than 54 people including the crew. Moreover, the airport does not have facilities to operate at night (Cabo 2007).

During the war the airport accommodated domestic flights, but with restrictions. After 1992 the airport of Inhambane was opened to national and international flights but it did not expand its capacity. Due to tourism development in the ICZ, the airport serves regular flights to and

from two Mozambican cities (Maputo and Beira) and also some South African cities. Cabo (2007) reports that the airport of Inhambane receives a total of 34 regular domestic flights per week from Maputo, Vilankulo and Pomene. Moreover, it receives 62 occasional domestic flights per month from Maputo, Vilankulo and Bazaruto. Travellers from other parts of the country wishing to fly to Inhambane are forced to first catch the aircraft to one of the aforementioned places and then to Inhambane.

According to Macicame (2008, pers com), at the international level the airport of Inhambane has only received flights from South Africa since 2005. A total of 18 regular flights from Johannesburg and Lanseria are received per week, while 68 occasional flights per month are received from Lanseria, Kruger Park, Polokwane and Nelspruit. These connections with important cities and tourist destinations in South Africa, including the OR Tambo International Airport which is the regional hub, enables tourists from these areas to include Inhambane in their itineraries in the SADC region. Consequently, records for the airport of Inhambane provided by Macicame (2008, pers com) show that since 2005 the airport has experienced an increasing number of flights annually. Landing and take-off flights, counted twice, have increased from 1134 in 2005 to 1815 in 2006, reaching 2525 in 2007.

Notably, the airport of Inhambane has been a gateway to the ICZ for domestic, regional and international tourists. Macicame (2008, pers com), without providing figures, reports that it is mostly tourists from South Africa, the USA, Europe and Asia who arrive at the airport of Inhambane. Figure 3.1 depicts the international arrivals at Inhambane airport from 2004 to 2008. In 2004 international arrivals counted 1162 having decreased to 730 in 2005, increasing thereafter to 820 arrivals in 2006, 2291 in 2007 and 4738 in 2008.



Source: Provincial Department of Home Affairs of Inhambane (2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008)

Figure 3.1 International tourist arrivals at Inhambane airport

Apparently the airport of Inhambane is still not very important for tourist arrivals. Of the 56 tourist establishment representatives who answered the questionnaire fewer than half (48%)

provide transport for tourists travelling by airplane, while 52% do not. Moreover, Müller (2008, pers com) and Rudman (2008, pers com) observed that most tourists visiting their establishments travel by car.

The transport system is responsible for connecting tourism-generating regions to destinations as well as providing transport within the latter. The roads linking the airport and each tourism node are vitally important for tourism development in the ICZ. Although the average distance from the airport to the six tourism nodes is 31km, the poor condition of roads call for improvements. The next subsection details land transport in the ICZ.

#### 3.1.1.2 Land transport

In many parts of Mozambique most roads are unpaved and very often a large proportion of these roads are not easily traversable, particularly during the rainy season (SPDTM 2004). A paved road is one that has been covered with a hard surface such as stones, brick, tiles, concrete, or asphalt (Wehmeier 2005). In this study, a hard surface is seen as one covered with asphalt, this being the only kind of paved road in the ICZ. The unpaved roads are divided in two types, namely unpaved roads covered with red sand and unpaved roads without any kind of cover, also called natural tracks. The red-sand unpaved roads provide better accessibility than natural tracks and therefore any kind of motor car can traverse the red-sand roads. However, it is recommended that one uses 4x4-vehicles on red roads while only 4x4-vehicles have access to natural tracks.

Mozambique is one of the countries with a poor road transport infrastructure in the SADC where member states need paved roads that can take visitors to the farthest corners of the region. According to the National Roads Administration (ANE 2008), of a total of 17 805km of roads in Mozambique less than one third (28%) are paved while 72% are not paved. However, the total length of paved roads is increasing because the road network was identified as an area of major concern by the Government of Mozambique. As a result 69 road construction and reconstruction projects are taking place in the country, involving 6176km of road (ANE 2006).

In the ICZ, the road infrastructure enhances the accessibility by tourists to different tourism nodes in the zone. The road network is dominated by unpaved roads linking the main roads (the EN1 and the N5) and tourism nodes located in coastal area. Figure 3.2 portrays the evolution of the ICZ road network from 1992 to 2003 based on an analysis of maps produced before 1992 and aerial photographs taken in 2003.

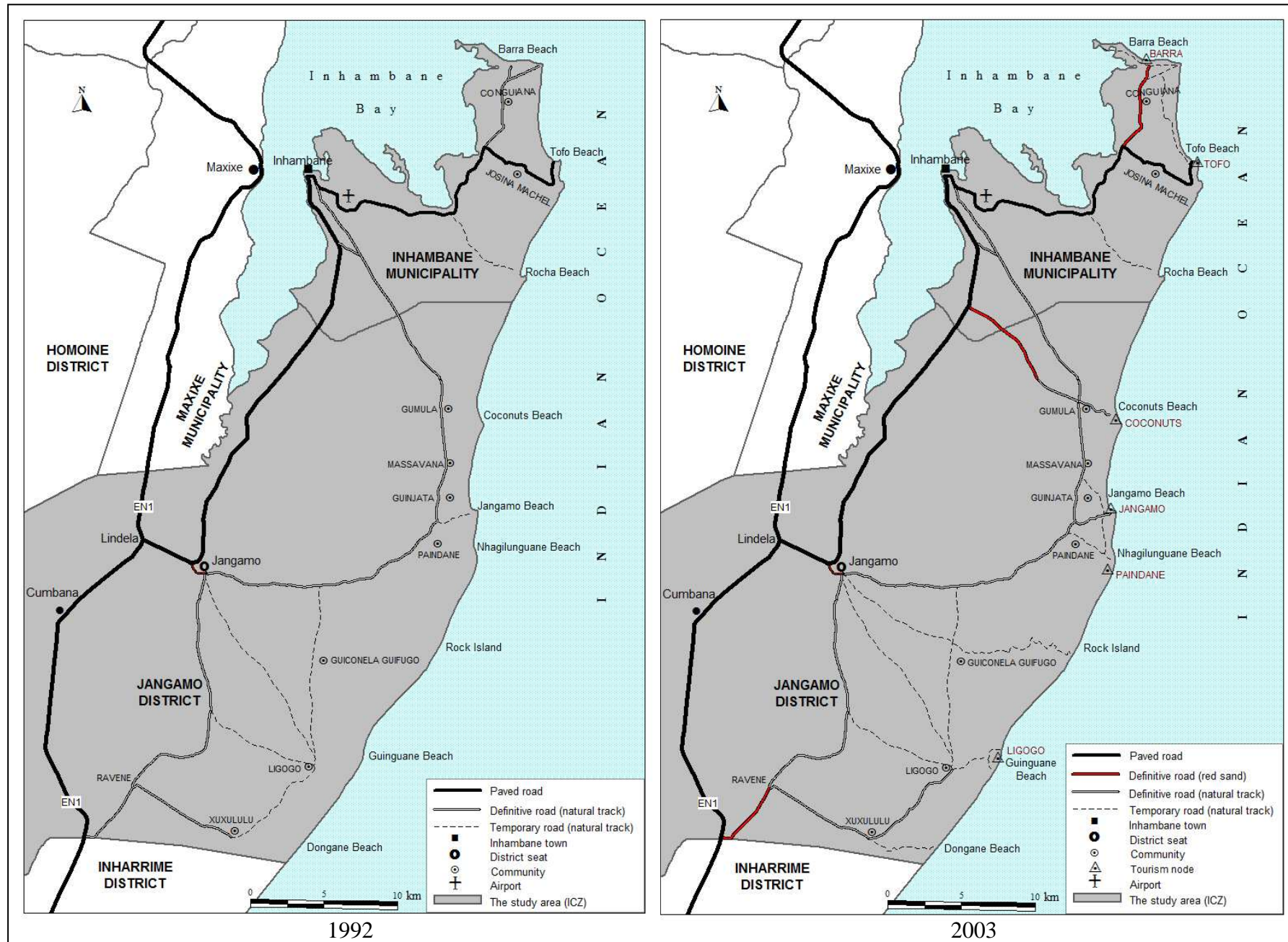


Figure 3.2 The ICZ road network in 1992 and 2003

The road network in the ICZ in 2008 is presented in Figure 3.3. Tofo is the only tourism node accessible via paved road in the ICZ, however this road is always full of potholes making travel uncomfortable.

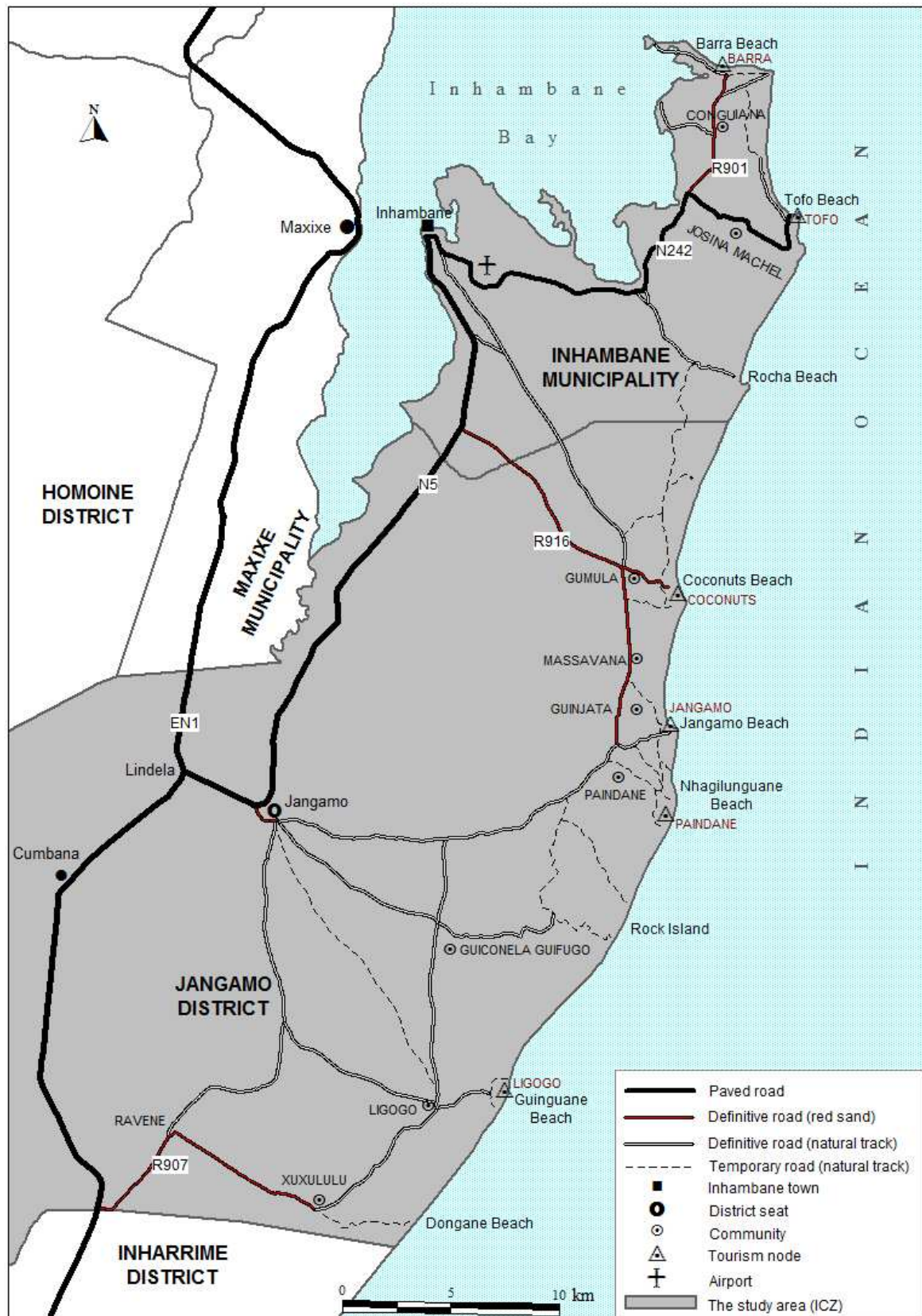


Figure 3.3 Road network in the ICZ in 2008

According to Table 3.1, only one out of six nodes is accessible via paved road while the other nodes are only accessible by various types of unpaved roads. Half of the nodes are only traversable by 4x4-vehicles and the other three by any type of vehicle, although use of 4x4-vehicles is advisable.

Table 3.1 Tourism nodes by road

Tourism node	Type of road	Classification	Distance	Type of vehicle
Tofo	Paved	N242	22km – asphalted	Any ordinary motor vehicle
Barra	Unpaved	R901	17km – asphalted 7km – red sand (slippery after rain)	Any type, but 4x4 recommended
Coconuts	Unpaved (red sand)	R916	12km – red sand (slippery after rain)	Any type, but 4x4 recommended
Jangamo	Unpaved (red sand and natural track)	R916	21km – red sand (slippery after rain) and 2km – sand	Only 4x4
Paindane	Unpaved (natural track)	N/C	23km – red sand (slippery after rain) and 5km – sand	Only 4x4
Ligogo	Unpaved (natural track)	N/C	N/A – sand	Only 4x4

N/C = Not classified; N/A = Not available

Source: Fiege *et al.* (2002), Moçambique (2005) and fieldwork observations

The roads listed in Table 3.2 evolved over time, for example the N242 from Inhambane town to Tofo was paved in 1970. Thereafter no more roads were paved in the ICZ due to the prolonged internal armed conflicts before independence in 1975 and post-independence until 1992. The peace accord of 1992 initiated the recovery of the transport infrastructure: the unpaved road R901 was improved in 2001 by creating two lanes covered with red sand as was the R916 from N5 to Paindane in 2006. Additionally, the government enlarged the non-classified road from Ravene to Xuxululu in 2005.

Table 3.2 Main roads in the ICZ

Road	Classification	Distance (km)	Year
Inhambane-Tofo	N242	22	1970
Babalaza-Barra	R901	7	2001
N5-Paindane	R916	23	2006
Jangamo-Paindane	N/C	24	N/A
Jangamo-Ligogo	R907	18	N/A
N1-Xuxululu	N/C	15 <sup>†</sup>	2005

N/C = Not classified; <sup>†</sup> = Estimated distance; N/A = Not available

Source: Fiege *et al.* (2002) and field research

These road-improvement efforts by government tend to integrate the ICZ by providing better access to tourism nodes but the general road situation in the study area is nevertheless not conducive to tourism development. However, in the case of some forms of tourism development, such as eco-adventure tourism, the lack of a complete network of modern roads may be advantageous in that the absence of the network acts as a deterrent to the penetration of mass tourism into environmentally sensitive areas (ESCAP 2001). According to Muatxiwa (2008, pers com), more roads at local level are expected to be improved in the coming years as envisaged in the national road strategy for 2007-2011 (ANE 2006). Accordingly, the Jangamo-Paindane and Xuxululu-Ligogo links will be improved with red sand hard surfaces (ANE 2006).

Meanwhile, locally each tourism node has particular characteristics regarding its road network. Three tourism nodes (Tofo, Barra and Coconuts) are relatively more accessible than the other tourism nodes in the ICZ because their access roads have a hard surface. However, one common characteristic of these roads is that in the tourism nodes one usually requires a 4x4-vehicle to visit a particular establishment. Moreover, the tracks are mostly very sandy and after rains some areas are slippery, making it challenging for vehicle drivers.

Most roads within the tourism nodes were opened by the owners of tourist establishment when they started to explore tourism nodes. For example, roads were identified in Barra during field observation while crossing the mangrove lowlands and wetlands to tourism establishments located in the north-western area of this tourism node. In the eastern area many roads were created without any governmental intervention to access the tourism establishments. All the tourist establishment representatives interviewed confirmed that they opened their own access roads to their establishments and that they also undertake regular maintenance. Müller (2008, pers com) observed that the provision and upkeep of access roads to tourism establishments is the one constraint tourist accommodation suppliers experience because visitors regularly complain about the condition of roads, occurrences of which may influence a tourist's decision whether to visit the tourism destination or not. In addition, Müller (2008, pers com) pointed out that an improvement in accessibility not only contributes to more visitor arrivals, but also reduces visitors' vehicle maintenance costs.

Although fieldwork confirmed the link between the tourism nodes via the main roads N5 and R242, a yet unexplored new entryway that can reduce the distance from one tourism node to another was identified (see Figure 3.4). For example, a 4x4-vehicle adventure route from Jangamo to Tofo or from Ligogo to Barra passing from Paindane, Jangamo, Coconuts and Rocha is feasible. This entryway can be improved and explored by tour operators and tourists

in the ICZ, so creating more opportunities for tourists to visit different tourism nodes in the destination area.

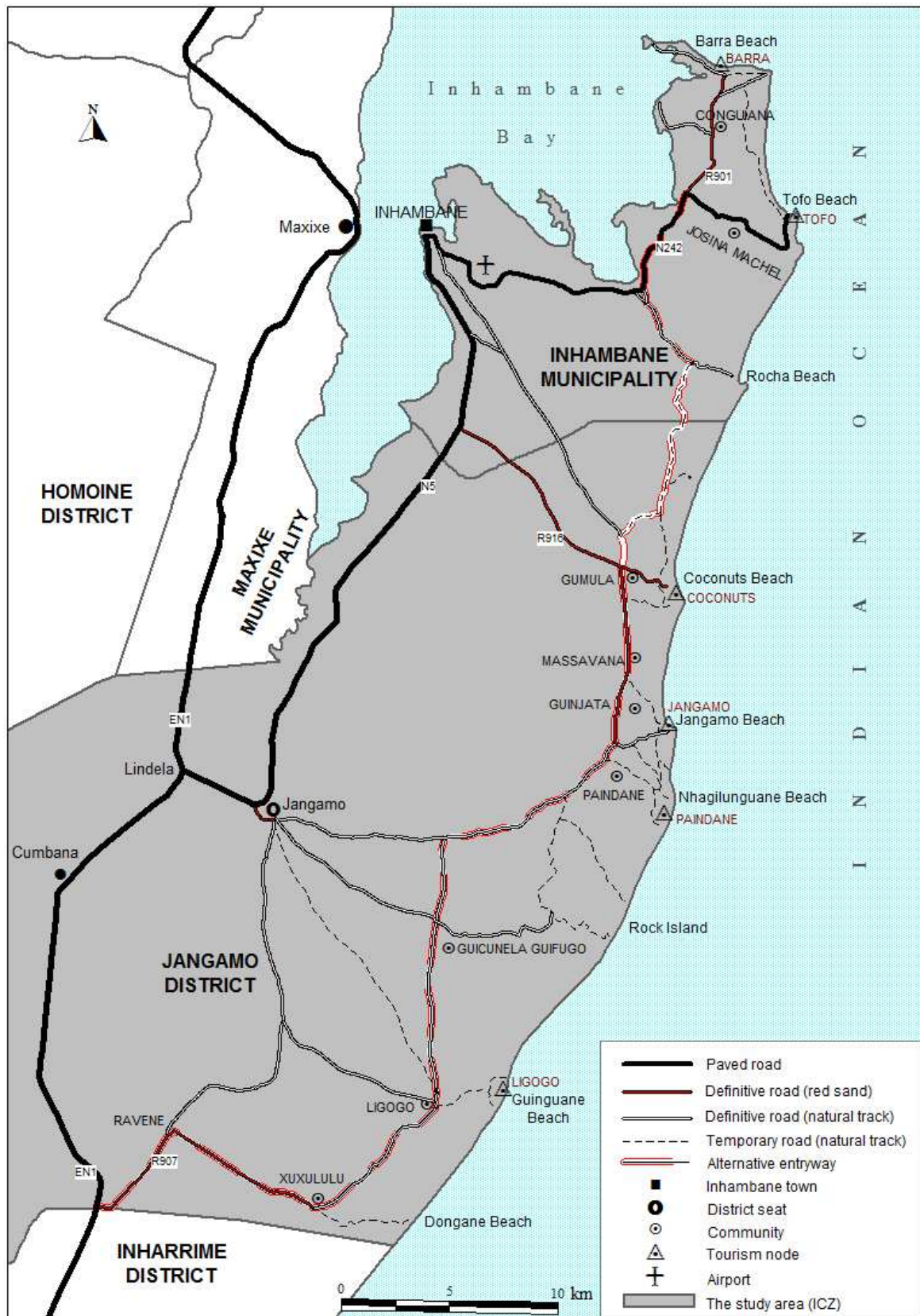


Figure 3.4 Alternative entryway for 4x4-vehicles in the ICZ



The road network in the ICZ is still being developed but it is not well planned and managed by the government. It is clear that the existing roads play a crucial role in tourism development in the ICZ by providing access, albeit difficult, to tourism nodes.

#### 3.1.1.3 Water access

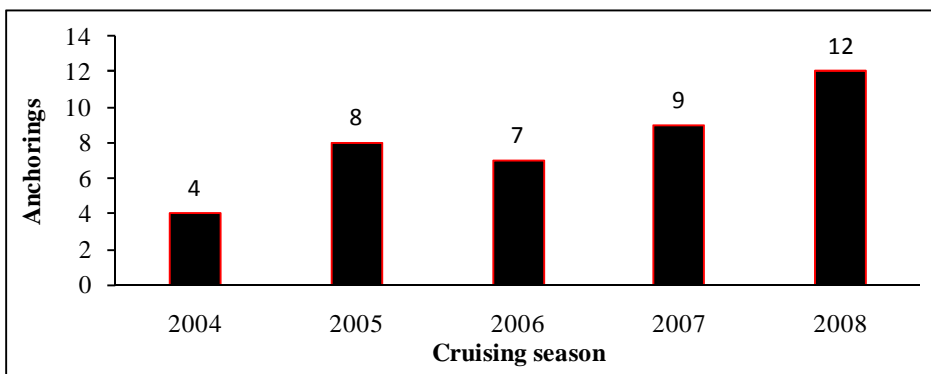
Cooper *et al.* (2008) suggest that water transport can be categorized into ferry transport and ocean-going cruises. Other categories exist such as inland waterway craft and small pleasure craft, however they are principally products at tourism destinations. Cruise ships are recognized worldwide as the predominant category of water tourist transport (Wie 2005; Telfer & Sharpley 2008). Therefore, this subsection enquires into the importance of the cruise line industry's contribution to the increase in numbers of visitors to the ICZ in general and to Barra in particular.

The cruise line industry has become one of the fastest growing segments in the travel industry over the past two decades, experiencing an unprecedented capacity expansion (Douglas & Douglas 2004; Wie 2005; Gibson & Bentley 2006). With safety and security becoming an issue in the travel industry, the cruise companies are searching for destinations that are perceived as safe (Gibson & Bentley 2006). While the November to April period is a low cruising season in the Northern Hemisphere it is conducive to a positive cruise experience in the Southern Hemisphere. A review of the cruise line literature and websites indicates that in Southern Africa, cruise ships are normally in transit and in the Atlantic Ocean they have regular ports of call in Namibia and South Africa. In the Indian Ocean they regularly visit South Africa, Mozambique, Madagascar, Tanzania, Mauritius and Reunion.

In the ICZ, water transport is mostly used to link tourism establishments with places where tourists can see marine resources and attractions like scuba-diving areas, but marine transport is also used for linking tourism nodes. Furthermore, water transportation is used for local cruises around the neighbouring islands and dhow trips to the nearby saltwater mangrove swamp. Rudman (2008, pers com) confirmed that local cruises in boats are common from Tofo Beach to Barra Beach or to Rocha Beach because some visitors want to visit specific places, for example, Inhambane Island and Lingalinga. In addition, Müller (2008, pers com) commented that when the weather is good visitors often use their own boats from Paidane Beach to visit Coconuts Beach and Jangamo Beach, but his tourist establishment also provides an ocean safari for tourists. These activities are not regular and occur only when tourists ask for them and when the weather is favourable. Furthermore, the Barra tourism

node is one of the favourite tourist destinations for Indian Ocean cruises along with Bazaruto Island, Portuguese Island and Ponta de Ouro in Mozambique.

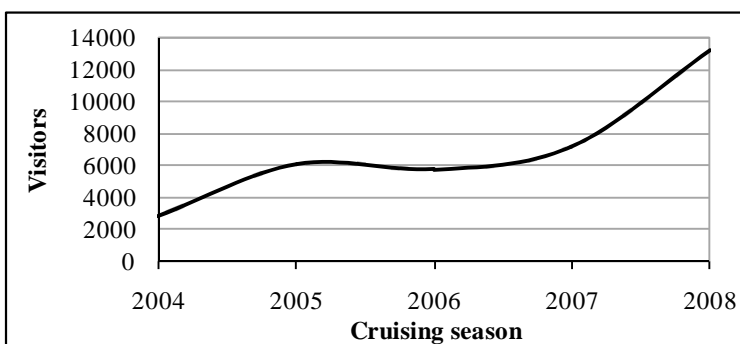
Barra is the only tourist destination in the study area that is a stop-over for cruise ships in transit. Since 2004 MSC Rhapsody and MSC Melody cruises have included Barra in their itineraries of the places visited in transit along the Indian Ocean coast. Figure 3.5 shows that the number of cruise ships anchoring at Barra is increasing steadily each cruising season. Barra does not have a port as such, so ships are anchored in close proximity of the coast and passengers are taken by boats to the beach. When the weather is unfavourable the shore visits are cancelled. According to Quissico (2009, pers com) tourists stay on land for seven hours and after re-embarkation the ship leaves for another destination. The local cruising season is from November to April.



Source: Provincial Department of Home Affairs of Inhambane (2005, 2006, 2007 and 2008) and Quissico (2009, pers com)

Figure 3.5 Growth in the number of cruise ships anchoring in Barra, 2004 to 2008

Naturally, there is a relationship between the number of ships and the number of visitors so that the number of visitors in 2004 (2800) increased by 218% in 2005 to 6100 passengers arriving at Barra, decreased in 2006 by 5% to 5800, grew again in 2007 by 24% to 7200 visitors and in 2008 the number increased by 84% to 13 225 visitors (see Figure 3.6).



Source: Provincial Department of Home Affairs of Inhambane (2008)

Figure 3.6 Growth in the number of cruise tourism visitors to Barra, 2004 to 2008

There are benefits to the local economy when passengers disembark for seven hours and spend money in Barra. A first group of beneficiaries are the providers of food and beverages, and recreational facilities. Quissico (2009, pers com) believes that restaurants are the main beneficiaries because when the cruise passengers arrive at Barra all the restaurants become crowded to the extent that it is difficult to cater to all the visitors' needs. The suppliers of recreational facilities are a second group of beneficiaries. According to Quissico (2009, pers com) diving centres like Barra Dive are full of tourists looking for recreational opportunities such as scuba-diving, snorkelling, horse-riding and dhow trips to neighbouring islands.

A third group of beneficiaries are service providers such as transportation services, car hire firms, and banks. Quissico (2009, pers com) reports that some passengers, after disembarking, hire cars in Barra and go to Inhambane town where they exchange their money to buy services and products while they visit the town. Product vendors form another group of beneficiaries from cruise tourism in Barra. This group is composed of souvenir vendors, local art and crafts vendors as well as those who sell young coconut water, cashew nuts, peanuts, fruits and other edible products. Quissico (2009, pers com) estimated that 100 vendors display their products on Barra beach when a ship arrives (see Figure 3.7).



Source: Law (2009: 25)

Figure 3.7 Product vendors at Barra beach in November 2008

Quissico (2009, pers com) commented that local people are realizing the importance and grasping the benefits that occur from cruise ship travellers as the ship stop-overs become more regular each cruising season. There are more impacts of ship passengers, but the above overview of the importance of the cruise line industry's contribution to increasing numbers of visitors to the ICZ in general and to Barra in particular, should suffice.

Cruise ship stop overs constitute a relatively new phenomenon in Mozambique. The benefits of the cruise industry are only recently becoming significant in Bazaruto, Barra, Maputo town and Ponta Douro. It is foreseeable that more cruise ships will stop over at Barra, creating an opportunity for Barra and other the tourism nodes in the ICZ to be recognized as destinations for cruise ships or as turnaround points where passengers can embark and/or disembark at the start and/or end of an Indian Ocean cruise.

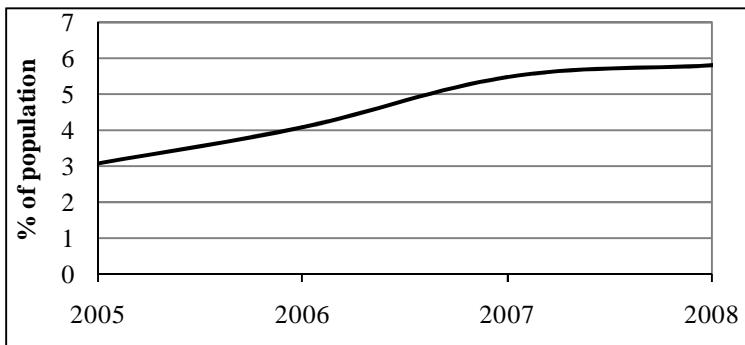
The transport infrastructure (particularly roads) in the ICZ plays a vital role in tourist arrivals. Although the airport of Inhambane has been an entryway for domestic, regional and international tourists, its contribution to tourist arrivals in the zone is still small. The road infrastructure is (although not up to standard) crucial for tourism development in the ICZ because it provides access for most of the arrivals in the zone and ensures links between tourism nodes. Finally the cruise industry's importance is growing in the zone and its economic contribution is especially significant in the Barra tourism node. The chapter now turns to explore the power supply in the ICZ.

### 3.1.2 Power supply in the ICZ

Infrastructure development for power supply is a key factor for regional development, raising productivity in a specific area. However, the power supply is severely inadequate in many regions and countries in the developing world (World Bank 2009). In Southern Africa, apart from South Africa, Mozambique, with 9.6 billion kWh, was one of the countries with the highest electricity consumption in the SADC region in 2007 (CIA 2008).

The electricity distribution and transmission system in Mozambique was affected by the war from 1976 to 1992, but has subsequently been rehabilitated and extended. The cities of Maputo, Matola, Beira and Nampula, and some other large towns, are the main consumers of electricity, whereas in rural areas where the majority of the population lives, access to electricity is very poor (EDM 2006). The percentage of population with access to electricity in Mozambique was 8.7% in 2007 (PGM 2007).

According to EDM (2006) the electricity network in Inhambane province is very poor. The population with access to electricity in Inhambane province in 2007 numbered 10 351 inhabitants or only 5.4%. Currently, the state electricity company, *Electricidade de Moçambique* (EDM), is extending the national network to rural areas. Consequently, the percentage of the population in Inhambane province with access to electricity has been growing every year (see Figure 3.8).



Source: Ministério de Energia (2008)

Figure 3.8 Percentage of population with access to electricity in Inhambane province

Before independence in 1975 only the provincial capital Inhambane and Maxixe had electricity in Inhambane province. Since 1964 the electricity was produced locally by generators with a low capacity so that electricity shortages and power cuts were common. The main challenges facing government was to increase electricity supply, to reduce the dependence on petroleum imports, to cut the cost of electricity generation, and to reduce environmental impacts. Consequently, the authorities expanded the electricity high-voltage line (110KV) from Gaza province to Inhambane province, and opened a transformer station at Lindela in 2002 when EDM completed the construction of a 300km transmission line (Halar 2008, pers com).

Figure 3.9 shows the EDM power supply networks in the ICZ in 1992 and 2003. The maps were compiled from maps produced before 1992, aerial photographs of 2003 and field observations. Tofo was the first tourism node to be connected to the EDM power supply network in 1985, followed by Barra in 1999. Halar (2008, pers com) reports that in 2002 EDM started to extend the electricity grid in Inhambane and to date six tourism nodes, namely Tofo, Barra, Coconuts, Jangamo, Painsane and Ligogo, including the localities of Massavana and Ligogo have been connected to the national electricity grid. The electricity network in the ICZ in 2008 is shown in Figure 3.10.

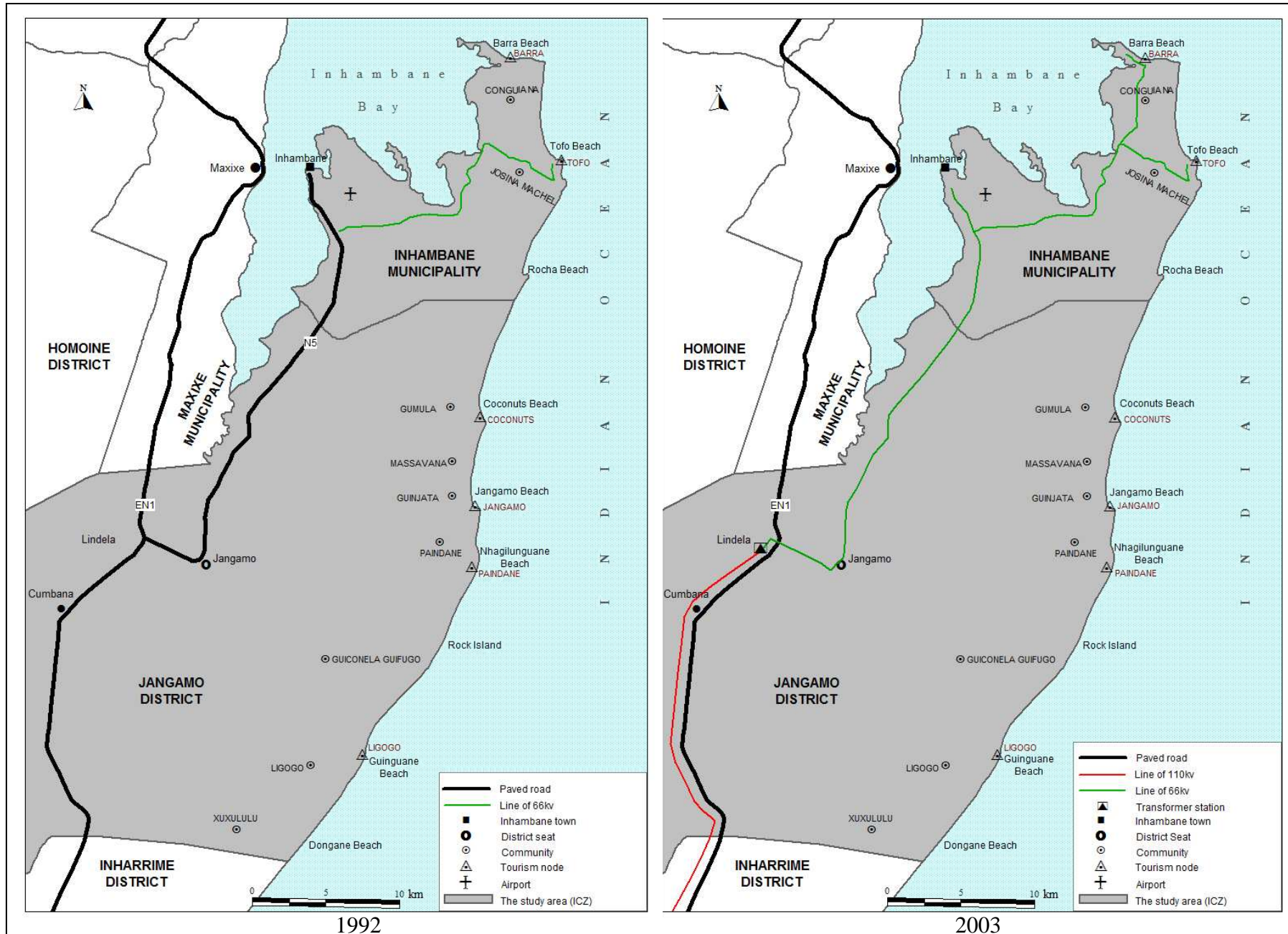


Figure 3.9 The EDM power supply network in the ICZ, 1992 and 2003

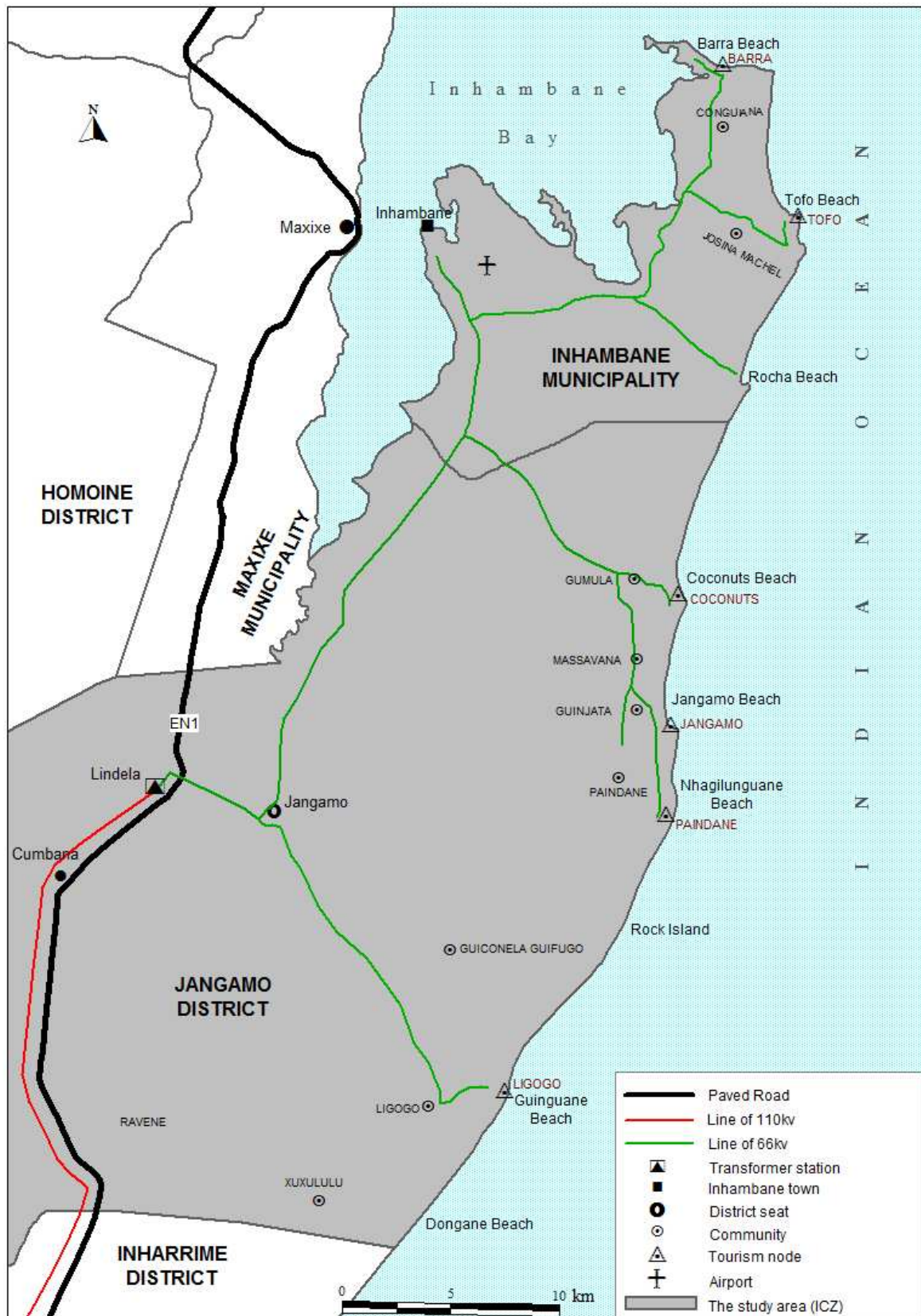


Figure 3.10 Electricity supply network in the ICZ, 2008

In Ligogo and Coconuts, only some tourist establishments use electricity supplied by EDM. Residents in Gumula and Ligogo do not benefit from the expansion of the electricity network.

Table 3.3 sets out the temporal expansion of the EDM electricity network in the ICZ. Naturally the expansion of the electricity network follows the development of the tourism nodes in the ICZ, Tofo (the pioneer tourism node) was connected to the EDM power supply network in 1985, followed by Barra in 1999, then Ligogo in 2007 and in 2008 Coconuts, Jangamo and Paindane were also connected.

Table 3.3 Expansion of the EDM electricity network in the ICZ

Line	Year	Number of transformers
Inhambane-Tofo Beach	1985	17
Babalaza-Barra Beach	1999	14
Jangamo-Coconuts Beach	2008	19
Jangamo-Jangamo Beach	2008	
Jangamo-Paindane Beach	2008	
Jangamo-Ligogo Beach	2007	2

Source: Halar (2008, pers com)

Despite the fact that electricity is currently distributed to all the tourism nodes in the ICZ except Rock Island, electricity shortages occur often, especially in the rainy season. Rudman (2008, pers com) commented that the power supply by EDM is satisfactory for much of the year, but during the peak tourism season the electricity supply cannot match Tofo's demand and periodic shortages are experienced. The electricity infrastructure is manifestly still not conducive to tourism development. In Paindane, McQueen (2008, pers com) expressed his satisfaction with the new electricity line which was being tested. In Rock Island, tourist establishments still use petroleum-powered generators to supply electricity because EDM has yet to extend the electricity line to that area. Most (95%) of tourist establishments surveyed in the ICZ use electricity supplied by EDM, while 5% use generators (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Source of electricity for tourist establishments in the ICZ

Tourism node	Number of establishments	Number using EDM	Number using P.Gen	Number using both
Tofo	14	12	2	5
Barra	32	32	0	0
Coconuts	1	1	0	0
Jangamo	5	5	0	0
Paindane	2	2	0	1
Ligogo	2	1	1	0
<b>Total (ICZ)</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>6</b>

P.Gen = Petroleum generator; Both = EDM and petroleum generator

Power supply was the common problem faced by accommodation establishments in the ICZ before EDM started its electricity network expansion programme. Many of them were not connected to the national power grid and depended on generators or other expensive sources



of electricity (e.g. batteries, solar panels). It is hoped that the power supplied by EDM will positively affect tourism development in the ICZ, especially in tourism nodes reached by new power lines.

### 3.1.3 Drinkable water supply in the ICZ

Water is a crucial resource with great implications for African development. The World Bank (1994) defines access to safe water as the share of the population with reasonable access to an adequate amount of potable water. Potable water includes treated surface water and untreated but uncontaminated water from springs, sanitary wells, and protected boreholes. Pigram (1999: 14) writes: “Water is desirable and even essential attribute of the physical infrastructure of tourist resorts and facilities and the provision of water-related activities for visitors is a common feature of tourism developments.” The World Travel Market (2007) asserts that because boreholes enable tourism businesses to directly access ground water, many hotels have boreholes and many of them have to be deepened each year to counter the drop in the water table that results from a difference in water replenishment and consumption rates.

On average, only 64% of the African population has access to improved water supply, 86% in urban areas and 50% in rural areas (The World Bank 2009). While Mozambique is one of the countries with a low percentage of the population with access to water in urban and rural areas (26% and 72% respectively), Botswana, South Africa and Namibia all have higher percentages.

In Mozambique, 60% of the total population has access to safe water, however many households have long walks to get water. Moçambique (2009) reports that in Inhambane province the coverage rate of safe water supply in rural areas increased from 67.7% in 2007 to 77.9% in 2008 due to the implementation of the Poverty Reduction Strategy established by the government of Mozambique. According to Moçambique (2005), potable water supplies in the Jangamo district are frustratingly irregular and in many settlements residents live far (two to eight kilometres) from potable water sources. In 2008 the coverage rate of water supply in the Jangamo district was low (34.8%) and the majority of the district’s residents use water from wells (Moçambique 2009).

In the ICZ almost all tourism nodes do not have a piped water-supply system except Tofo where a local system provides water to local residents and tourist establishments but unfortunately this piped water supply does not extend to the whole area in Tofo. Some

accommodation establishments extract water from their own boreholes which allow tourism businesses to have direct access to groundwater that is safe for consumption. Representatives of three tourist establishments (Machava 2008, pers com; McQueen 2008, pers com; Müller 2008, pers com) interviewed during fieldwork reported that many tourist establishments have private boreholes from which potable water is pumped and stored in water tanks (see Figure 3.11).



Figure 3.11 Tanks storing borehole water in Guinjata

Of the representatives who completed the questionnaire in 56 tourist establishments, only 9% have tapped water in their establishments that is provided by the water supply company, *Fundo de Investimento e Patrimônio do Abastecimento de Água* (FIPAG). All these establishments are located in Tofo. Most tourist establishments (91%) in the ICZ use water from boreholes (see Table 3.5). Ninety-five per cent of the respondents confirmed that the water from boreholes is safe for drinking while 5% did not confirm that the water is safe. However, 80% of the respondents stated that tourists prefer to drink bottled water, while 20% indicated that tourists prefer tapped water provided by tourist establishments.

Table 3.5 Source of water for tourist establishments in the ICZ

Tourism node	Number of establishments	Number using FIPAG	Number using borehole	Number using both
Tofo	14	5	9	3
Barra	32	0	32	0
Coconuts	1	0	1	0
Jangamo	5	0	5	0
Paindane	2	0	2	0
Ligogo	2	0	2	0
<b>Total (ICZ)</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>3</b>

FIPAG = water supply company; Both = FIPAG and borehole

Water supply remains a considerable challenge to tourism developers in the ICZ because each tourist establishment has to rely on its own borehole, making the cost of water high compared

to places where water is supplied by water utilities as is the case in Tofo. Moreover, the many existing boreholes and wells in the ICZ, especially in Barra, can precipitate a drinking-water crisis with serious negative environmental impacts. In Spain, for example, the permanent lowering of the water table affects other economic activities, particularly agriculture (Cooper *et al.* 2008). The challenge to the tourism industry in the ICZ, particularly in the Barra tourism node, is to demonstrate its capacity to adopt sustainable management of drinking-water resources.

#### 3.1.4 Telecommunications

Scott, Baggio & Cooper (2008: 192) write: “Information and communication technology (ICT) has profound implications for the tourism industry and is being used extensively in a great variety of functions.” The World Bank (2009) argues that electricity, water, telephone lines, and Internet access all raise productivity but are severely inadequate in many developing regions. Given the increasing significance of the online environment to the modern tourism industry, (e.g. for marketing, planning itineraries, and booking travel and accommodation) it is important to describe the telecommunication system in a tourist destination with particular reference to the ICT infrastructure in Mozambique in general and in the ICZ in particular.

Mozambique was one of the first countries in Southern Africa to reform its telecommunications landscape after the peace accord had been reached in 1992. Even though the number of telephone lines has been increasing, the pace is slow compared with most of the SADC countries.

According to Daamen *et al.* (2008), access to ICT facilities in Mozambique remains very limited, especially in rural areas. Due to large variations in population density in Mozambique, parts of the country are better served with ICT facilities than others. Giroth (2008) reports that the development of ICTs in Mozambique is not satisfactory due to the limited expansion of the telecommunications network. Presently, the telecommunications network is being expanded in the country using telecommunications optical systems, which provide and support broadband communication services. There is one fixed-line operator (*Telecomunicações de Moçambique*, TDM) and two mobile phone operators (mCel and VodaCom) in Mozambique. According to Giroth (2008), the fixed-line network covers only 12% of the country’s area, while in 2005 the mobile phone network covered about 35-40% – a coverage that is expanding rapidly.

In the ICZ, fixed and mobile phone networks are available but they do not cover the whole zone. In certain areas the mobile cellular phone network coverage is not consistent so that communication restrictions are frequently observed, especially when one is moving from one tourism node to another. Apparently, the VodaCom network is better than mCel in tourism nodes in the ICZ. Of the 56 respondents to the questionnaire survey of tourist establishment representatives, 54% indicated that the VodaCom network is good in their establishments while 52% responded positively to mCel. Thirty-nine per cent of the respondents answered that the VodaCom network is perfect in their establishments and 23% for mCel (see Figure 3.12).

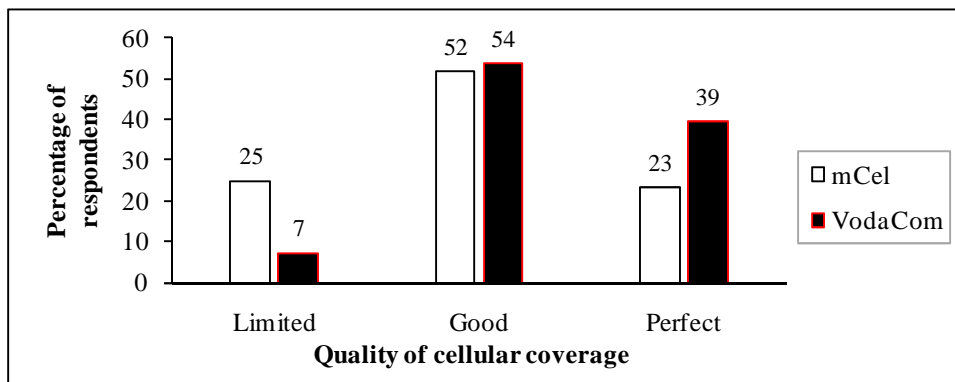


Figure 3.12 Coverage of the mobile cellular phone network in tourism nodes in the ICZ

Internet service providers available in all tourism nodes in the ICZ are linked to the tourist establishments. According to establishment representatives, most establishments (69%) do not have internet access for tourists while nearly one third (31%) do. Contrary, 60% of the representatives indicated that their establishments do provide Internet booking facilities for tourists while 40% responded that they do not.

Most tourist establishment managers in the ICZ acknowledge the importance of adhering to ICTs in order to improve their operations and market their products. Quissico (2009, pers com) made it clear that his tourist establishment is investing in ICTs particularly in marketing and booking services, and as a result his establishment has been sustaining the number of international visitors. In a competitive environment, establishments need to use a variety of strategies, including the Internet, to generate profits. However, Telfer & Sharpley (2008) question the degree to which tourism companies in the developing world are able to participate on the Internet, and whether there are adequate conditions for them to compete. In general, telecommunications start and end with consumers in tourism. Tourists, tour operators and local residents in the ICZ will use the services if telecommunication service providers can enable customers to receive services with satisfactory quality.

As the infrastructure base of the ICZ is one of the many determinants of its conduciveness as a tourist destination, this section discussed the basic infrastructure (transport, power supply, water supply and telecommunications). Although the transport infrastructure is not conducive to tourism development in the ICZ, it plays a very important role in tourist arrivals, particularly the road infrastructure which is crucial for tourism development in the study area. The power-supply network in the ICZ is evolving and all the tourism nodes use electricity supplied by EDM. Potable water supply remains a considerable challenge to tourism facility suppliers who have to resort to relying on boreholes for water. Most tourist establishments use ICT facilities to improve their operations and market their products. Although the basic infrastructure raises the efficiency of the tourism industry in the ICZ, improvements are required. As important as the ICZ's general infrastructure for tourism development is, the zone's tourist superstructure, particularly accommodation for tourists. The next section examines the accommodation sector in the ICZ.

### **3.2 DESTINATION TOURIST SUPERSTRUCTURE**

Blanke & Chiesa (2008) point out that in 2008 the Mozambican Tourist Infrastructure Index scored 2.2 on a scale of 1 to 7. This index captures a number of aspects of the general tourist infrastructure (discussed above) in each country and it also takes into account the destination tourist superstructure and the presence of major car rental companies in the country, as well as a measure of the financial infrastructure for tourists in the country. Following the examination of the general destination infrastructure of the ICZ, the destination tourist superstructure is set out in this section, specifically the accommodation facilities for tourists.

#### **3.2.1 Tourist accommodation in the ICZ**

Tourist accommodation performs an important function in tourist destinations by providing visitors the opportunity to stay in a destination for one night or longer. Cooper *et al.* (2008) state that accommodation is a necessary component in the development of tourism in any destination seeking to serve visitors. Numerous perspectives exist on the classification of tourist accommodation. Bennett & Schoeman (2005) classify tourist accommodation in four broad categories: self-catering, serviced, homes of friends and family, and other accommodation. A self-catering accommodation provides a place to sleep, but does not include any additional personal services (e.g. camping sites, caravanning, apartments, chalets, timeshares, rented flats, and any other type of self-catering establishment). Serviced accommodation refers to establishments having staff on the premises who are responsible for

providing various services such as room service, meals, laundry services, and more. This category comprises hotels, motels, guesthouses, farmhouses, game lodges, bed and breakfasts, and other types that provide services.

In aiming to examine those establishments providing places of rest and revival for tourists on a commercial basis, two of the aforementioned categories will be considered in this study, namely self-catering and serviced. It is important to consider the grading system for these accommodation establishments used in Mozambique. An official grading system gives protection to the interests of tourists, helping them to assess the variety of accommodation establishments in a destination (Keyser 2002). However, it is acknowledged that differences exist between the sub-sectors of accommodation and between operations in different countries and regions of the world, making comparison between countries a difficult task (Cooper *et al.* 2008).

In Mozambique, according to Decreto n<sup>o</sup> 18/2007 de 7 de Agosto (*Regulamento de Alojamento Turístico, Restauração e Bebidas*), a star system denoting four or five categories is employed for each type of accommodation, but certain types have only one category. Under this system, hotels, lodges and the so-called *estalagens* receive up to five stars, while *pensões* (boarding houses) and hotel-apartments receive up to four stars, and motels up to three stars. These ratings vary according to the minimum technical requirements relating to each type of accommodation. Guesthouses, residences, camping sites, holiday flats and other types of accommodation are graded in one category without using a star-rating system. The evolution and characteristics of tourist accommodation in the ICZ are reported next, followed by an account of the spatial distribution of accommodation facilities in the tourism nodes.

### 3.2.1.1 Evolution and characteristics of accommodation

According to Muatxiwa & Eberherr (2007) a total of 4574 beds were available in Inhambane in 2007, ranking the province in second position after Maputo city. They also estimated that in the Inhambane municipal area and Jangamo district there were more than 50 accommodation establishments in 2006. Muatxiwa & Eberherr (2007) further reported that the ICZ offered 60% of the beds available in Inhambane province, while the remaining 40% were distributed among the rest of the destinations in the province. In fact, the number of beds in the ICZ is considerably higher than statistics indicate, as many apartments available for tourists are not declared as such. Moreover, some accommodation establishments have been increasing their capacity without declaring it to the tourism authorities (Muatxiwa 2008, pers com).

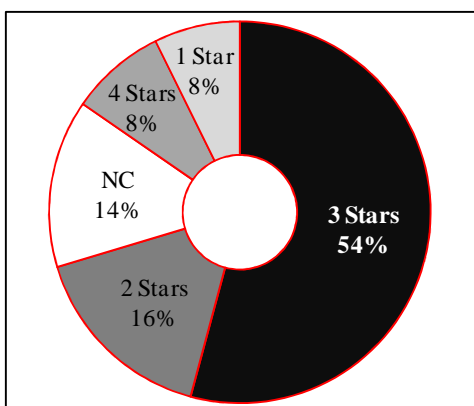
Furthermore, more tourism establishments are being built and some are operating without licences.

The figures for tourist accommodation given in the abovementioned studies were estimates. The survey done for this study did not include all the representatives of the accommodation establishments. There is a total of 65 tourist accommodation establishments in the tourism nodes in the ICZ of which 56 participated in the survey, giving a 86% response rate. Table 3.6 lists the categories and some of the indicators of tourist establishments that participated in the survey. Lodges offer 90% of the beds available in the ICZ while holiday flats offer 5% and the balance of 5% is distributed among all the other types of accommodation.

Table 3.6 Accommodation establishments in tourism nodes in the ICZ

Category of establishment	Establishments	Beds	Bedrooms	Chalets
Hotel	1	14	10	–
Lodges	39	2882	1045	546
Guesthouses	1	10	–	3
Motels	2	34	20	–
Holiday flats	8	176	117	46
Other types	5	81	44	36
<b>Total</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>3197</b>	<b>1236</b>	<b>631</b>

Two camping sites and lodges that provide camping facilities can accommodate over 1000 tourists in the ICZ. Self-catering in chalets, holiday flats and other types of accommodation in all the tourism nodes are the most common forms of tourist accommodation not only in the ICZ, but also in Inhambane province. The quality of accommodation, based on a grading system, shows that more than one half of establishments have a three-star rating, while 16% are graded with two stars, as illustrated in Figure 3.13. One- and two star-rating establishments shared 8% each.



NC = No classification

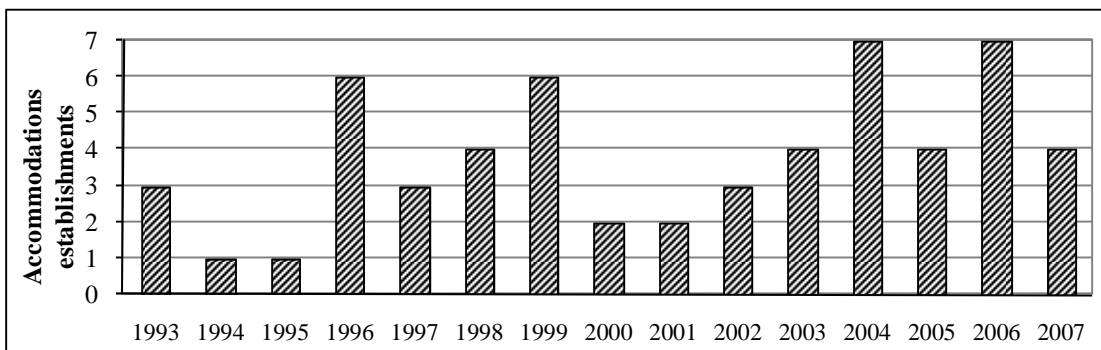
Figure 3.13 Star ratings of tourist accommodation in the ICZ

Table 3.7 illustrates the categories and percentages of beds the different sized establishments offer in those that participated in the survey. Three major lodges were identified each offering more than 200 beds, the total representing 33% of the zone's beds for tourists. About one third of the establishments offer from 31 to 90 beds, and 16% offer between 6 and 30 beds.

Table 3.7 Proportion of beds per size of establishments in the ICZ

Category (number of beds)	Establishments	Total of beds	Percentage
6-30	30	496	16
31-90	18	1005	31
91-200	5	642	20
>200	3	1054	33
<b>Total</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>3197</b>	<b>100</b>

By combining information from the database of the Inhambane Provincial Directorate of Tourism (DEPTUR) and the results of the present survey of tourist accommodation establishments, it is possible to sketch the evolution of tourist accommodation establishments in the ICZ from 1993 to 2007. Figure 3.14 illustrates the opening of 57 tourist accommodation establishments in the ICZ (establishments without the year of inauguration were excluded). In the first three years after the war (1993-1995) registrations were few with 1.7 establishments per year. In the following four years (1996-1999) 19 establishments were registered giving 4.8 establishments per year. Between 2000 and 2002 successive flooding in the Limpopo River led to a reduction in the rate of increase (2.3 establishments per year) during this period. Up to 26 registrations have occurred in five years (2003-2007) (post flood period) with 5.2 establishments registered per year.



Source: Data base of DEPTUR and the results of the survey conducted

Figure 3.14 Number of tourist accommodation establishments opening per year in the ICZ, 1993 to 2007

Although the tourist accommodation capacity of the ICZ is increasing, 27% of the 56 survey respondents said that their establishments have increased the number of beds in the last two



years while 73% had not. Contrarily, 60% of the respondents indicated they intend to increase the number of beds in the coming years and 40% had no such plans.

According to Moçambique (2009), more tourist establishments are under construction in the ICZ and shortly more beds will be available for visitors. Eighteen new projects for tourist accommodation were approved by DEPTUR in 2008, corresponding to 1008 beds with an investment estimated at US\$5 million. These projects are distributed among three tourism nodes in the ICZ, with Barra accounting for the most projected beds (75%), followed by Tofo (18%) and Jangamo (7%).

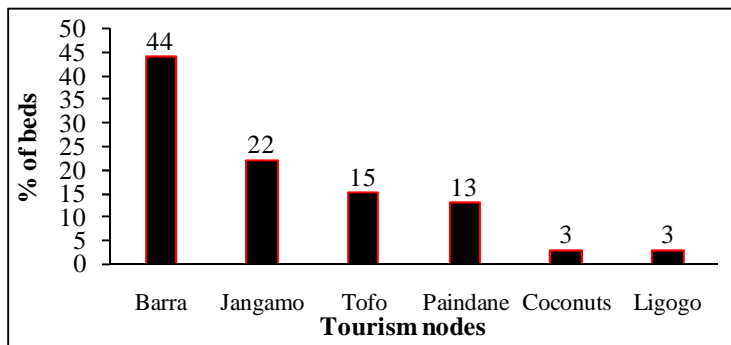
Regarding accommodation ownership, Cooper *et al.* (2008) contend that in most countries accommodation companies are dominated by small, family-owned operations. The Mozambican legislation gives the opportunity to nationals and foreigners to invest in the Mozambican tourism sector while complying with specific conditions like those identified in the investment law (Lei nº3/93 de 24 de Junho). In the ICZ, Nhantumbo (2007) found that in Barra and Tofo 53% of the tourist establishments were owned by South Africans, while only 31% were owned by Mozambicans. The remaining percentage was shared by owners with other nationalities. An examination of the database of Inhambane Provincial Directorate of Tourism reveals that 40% of tourist accommodation establishments in Inhambane province are owned by Mozambicans and 60% by foreigners without reference to specific nationalities. Telfer & Sharpley (2008) observe that international involvement in beach resort development can be strong generators of tourist numbers and foreign currency and, in many cases, are the best option for developing countries that initially do not have the capacity to effectively launch their own domestic tourism industry. This is the case in the ICZ where most establishments are owned by foreigners and even those owned by Mozambicans are mostly foreign investments in the form of joint ventures.

#### 3.2.1.2 Spatial distribution of accommodation in the tourism nodes

The various forms of tourist accommodation and other facilities offered in the ICZ are distributed in six main tourism nodes found along 60km of coastline. In almost all the tourism nodes the accommodation establishments are sited along the first dunes slopes on the coastline with direct views of and access to beaches so that they can be considered as seafront establishments. In some nodes, like Barra and Tofo, the continuing land occupation is increasing the density of buildings and consequently areas without direct access to the beach are also being occupied. This is one of the results of the absence of pre-development planning

in an area requiring certain restrictions to prevent the potentially negative aspects of this tourism development.

Barra is ranked first in size according to beds available in registered establishments in the ICZ, namely 44%, followed by Jangamo with 22% of the zone's beds (see Figure 3.15). The oldest tourism node in the ICZ, Tofo, is ranked third (15%) while Paindane ranks at number four with 13% of the beds in the ICZ.



Source: The results of the present survey of tourist accommodation establishments

Figure 3.15 Distribution of beds per tourism node in the ICZ, 2008

Coconuts and Ligogo tourism nodes are ranked at number five in size, each node having 3% of the beds available for tourists in the ICZ. Coconuts was established in 1994 and Ligogo only in 2006. Disparities in the evolution of each tourism node, as well as a variety of geographic settings and tourist attractions have led to differences in the spatial distribution of accommodation facilities in the ICZ. Each of the six nodes is discussed separately below.

#### 3.2.1.2.1 Barra

Barra, located in the northern part of the ICZ, 23km from Inhambane, was discovered by tourists before national independence in 1975, but it started to develop as a tourist destination only after the war in 1993. The first three major accommodation establishments began as campsites and were registered as lodges between 1996 and 1997. Most of the tourist accommodation establishments were constructed in the beginning of this century. Barra has experienced most of its growth in accommodation since 1996 and currently (2008) it has 38 operating accommodation establishments. Thirty-two representatives of establishments took part in the questionnaire survey. Barra has more establishments than any other of the tourism nodes and is ranked first in size with 44% of the beds in registered establishments. Lodges provide most beds (96%), followed by holiday flats (3%) and other types of accommodation with 1% (see Table 3.8). Two camping sites are present with a capacity to accommodate over 200 tourists.

Table 3.8 Accommodation establishments in the Barra tourism node

Category of establishment	Establishments	Beds	Bedrooms	Chalets
Lodges	24	1339	503	244
Holiday flats	4	46	35	14
Other types	4	16	12	9
<b>Total</b>	<b>32</b>	<b>1401</b>	<b>550</b>	<b>267</b>

More than half (60%) of the beds in lodges are in establishments with three-star ratings while nearly a quarter (12%) have four-star ratings and one third are distributed in one- or two-star rated lodges. Observations in the field show that developers are building new accommodation facilities. Most of these facilities are predominantly constructed using natural materials such as wood, palm leaves and grass (see Figure 3.16). The quality of these buildings, expressed in terms of durability, safety, and functionality is important considering the magnitude of investment involved and the competitiveness in the tourism industry. This type of building does not last long and requires regular maintenance. They are quite vulnerable to hazards such as fire and tropical storms. The structures are easy to build in short-term and consequently most investors in the ICZ prefer this type of building. One might infer that some of the investors in the ICZ are fly-by-nighters rather than people who are making long-term investments.



Figure 3.16 An accommodation establishment in Barra showing the use of natural building materials

In Barra, the catering facilities are directly linked to the accommodation providers and 11 out of 32 establishments have restaurants. For instance, in Barra no independent catering facilities are operating and all the restaurants and bars catering for tourists are linked to the lodges.

### 3.2.1.2.2 Jangamo

This tourism node is situated in the central part of the ICZ 32km from Inhambane. Jangamo is considered the major tourist area in Jangamo district, sharing its environment with three communities (Guinjata, Paindane and Massavana). The residential area for local people is clearly separated from the tourist area. The attractive beach, protected by a long reef, was discovered by tourists before 1975 but it only became a tourist destination in 1994 when the first camping sites were constructed, with the first lodge starting operations in 1995.

Jangamo ranks at number two in the ICZ regarding the number of beds with 22% of the zone's beds. Five operating tourist accommodation establishments were identified comprising four lodges and one motel. Almost all beds are offered by lodges (97%) and more than half of these beds are in lodges with three-star ratings. The other lodges have two-star ratings and provide 40% of the beds in lodges (see Table 3.9).

Table 3.9 Accommodation establishments in the Jangamo tourism node

Category of establishment	Establishments	Beds	Bedrooms	Chalets
Lodges	4	698	235	107
Motel	1	20	10	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>718</b>	<b>245</b>	<b>107</b>

Observations in the field showed that more accommodation facilities are being built. Catering services, water-sport facilities and souvenir shops are linked to the lodges and informal vendors of souvenirs are normally seen on the beach. Four out of the five establishments have restaurants.

### 3.2.1.2.3 Tofo

Tofo is situated in the north-eastern part of the ICZ, 22km from Inhambane and was also discovered by pioneer tourists before national independence in 1975. This was the first tourism node in the zone. The first holiday houses, still in use, were constructed during the 1960s, but after 1975 tourism stagnated due to the extended war. In 1993 tourism restarted when the first post-war tourist accommodation establishments were constructed soon followed by further foreign investment.

In Tofo, 17 tourist establishments providing accommodation were identified, but only 14 representatives participated in the survey. Although being the oldest tourism node in the ICZ, Tofo is only ranked third in size, comprising 15% of the beds in registered establishments in the ICZ but Tofo has mixed types of accommodations. Lodges provide the most beds (56%) followed by holiday flats with 22% (see Table 3.10).

Table 3.10 Accommodation establishments in the Tofo tourism node

Category of establishment	Establishments	Beds	Bedrooms	Chalets
Hotel	1	14	10	–
Lodges	5	276	195	82
Guesthouses	1	10	5	3
Motels	1	14	10	–
Holiday flats	4	109	62	20
Other types	2	71	38	28
<b>Total</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>494</b>	<b>320</b>	<b>133</b>

The highest grade awarded to the accommodation establishments is a three-star rating of the lodges and the hotel. The node's offering is dominated by low-rate accommodation with one- or two-star-ratings. Muatxiwa (2008, pers com) contends that Tofo has the most holiday homes in the ICZ and the construction of more homes is continuing. These, however, cater for domestic tourists rather than for international tourists. Observations in the field confirm that most tourist accommodation establishments are constructed using local materials, predominantly wood, palm leaves and grass. More tourist establishments are under construction.

Regarding catering facilities, most are directly linked to the accommodation providers, with most restaurants and bars catering for tourists being linked to the lodges. Eight out of fourteen establishments have restaurants. Tofo also has independent catering facilities (restaurant and beach bar), something not found in the zone's other tourism nodes.

#### 3.2.1.2.4 Paindane

Paindane is the one of the major attractions in the ICZ owing to its natural environment, inshore reef and suitability for snorkelling. Located in the central area of the ICZ, it is 35km from Inhambane and was discovered by tourists around 1994. The first and main lodge in Paindane started operating in 1998, providing self-catering accommodation and a camping site. The rate of tourism development in this node is slow because of its inaccessibility, being one of the tourism nodes that are accessible only by 4x4-vehicles. In addition, the dunes are very high and there is dense natural vegetation.

This tourism node is ranked fourth in size with 13% of the beds in the ICZ. There are two lodges providing 73 chalets and one of the establishments has a camping site for 130 visitors (see Table 3.11). It is interesting that all the accommodation facilities in this node have three-star ratings and provide self-catering chalets. There are three more establishments under construction. Following its connection to the national electricity network in 2008, Paindane now needs to develop its local infrastructure, starting with the improvement of the road.

Table 3.11 Accommodation establishments in the Paindane, Coconuts and Ligogo tourism nodes

Tourism node	Category of establishment	Establishments	Beds	Bedrooms	Chalets
Paindane	Lodges	2	375	-	73
Coconuts	Lodges	1	108	35	19
Ligogo	Lodges	2	101	86	32
<b>Total</b>		<b>5</b>	<b>584</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>156</b>

#### 3.2.1.2.5 Coconuts and Ligogo

Coconuts and Ligogo tourism nodes are ranked at number five in size, each node having 3% of the beds available for tourists in the ICZ. Coconuts was established in 1994 and Ligogo in 2006.

Coconuts is located 20km from Inhambane in the central part of the ICZ. This tourism node only has one lodge which has operated since 1994 with 108 beds, distributed in 19 chalets. The Coconuts Bay Lodge has a two-star rating with a camping site that can accommodate over 150 visitors. The lodge also provides catering facilities with a restaurant. For a long period this tourism node did not attract many investors, but recently three new investors have started with the construction of new accommodation facilities.

Ligogo is the most recently established tourism node and is located in the southern area of the ICZ in the community of Ligogo. It is 18km from the Jangamo district seat and 47km from Inhambane. The road from Jangamo to Ligogo is unpaved and requires 4x4-vehicles to travel it. The first tourist accommodation establishment started operating in 2005 by providing self-catering chalets. Although the accommodation facilities are still being built, they have been receiving visitors. One lodge has a three-star rating and another has a one-star rating.

This subsection addressed accommodation, the most important sub-sector of the tourism sector. The purpose of this subsection has been to examine the evolution and distribution of accommodation facilities in the ICZ. Self-catering in chalets and holiday flats in all tourism nodes is the most common form of tourist accommodation in the ICZ. The accommodation sub-sector in tourism nodes in the ICZ is dominated by lodges offering the most beds in the zone with most of these seafront establishments offering up to 30 beds. Overall, the distribution of tourist accommodation in the ICZ shows that Barra is leading in the agglomeration of establishments as well as the number of the ICZ's beds, while Jangamo comes in at number two. Although tourism development in the study area started in Tofo as the pioneer tourism node, Tofo has a low capacity to accommodate tourists. In all the tourism nodes, more tourist accommodation facilities are under construction which will increase the

ICZ's accommodation capacity appreciably. This expansion in tourist accommodation establishments can generate more employment opportunities in the tourism sector impacting positively to the local economy. The discussion about employment in the accommodation establishments is the subject of the next section.

### **3.2.2 Employment in the accommodation establishments**

Tourism is considered to be a labour-intensive industry and consequently a generator of employment opportunities. However, the number of jobs created is dependent on the nature and scale of tourism development and the jobs tend to only require low levels of skills and training (Telfer & Sharpley 2008). Fiege *et al* (2002) point out that the coastal communities in the ICZ live in rural areas where opportunities for income generation are very scarce being limited to agriculture and fishing. Consequently, employment opportunities in the tourism sector have significant value in this zone. Nevertheless, the rate of employment of local people in the tourism sector is low, except in peak seasons when the numbers of seasonal employees increase.

Muatxiwa & Eberherr (2007) found that a total of 1494 people were employed in the tourism sector, of whom 32% were seasonal employees and 68% permanent. Most of the permanent employees (95%) were Mozambicans, while only 5% were foreigners most of whom work at managerial level and have specific professional qualifications. The majority of Mozambican employees work at an operational level as cleaners, bartenders, guards, table waiters and drivers. Male permanent employees dominate (82% to 18% female) as confirmed by Nhantumbo (2007) in Barra, Tofo and Inhambane town.

The creation of job opportunities is the major positive impact of tourism development in the ICZ, as it also increases the buying capacity of local residents. The survey of 56 accommodation establishments found that the tourism sector in the ICZ contributes to job opportunities by employing 1531 people of whom 91% are permanent employees and 9% seasonal workers in the tourist accommodation establishments. Barra, ranked first in the number of beds registered in the ICZ, is also the leading employment node with 46% of the total employed. Tofo, ranked third by number of beds, is in second position (23%) regarding job opportunities, followed by Jangamo (14%). The other 17% is distributed among the zone's other tourism nodes (see Figure 3.17).

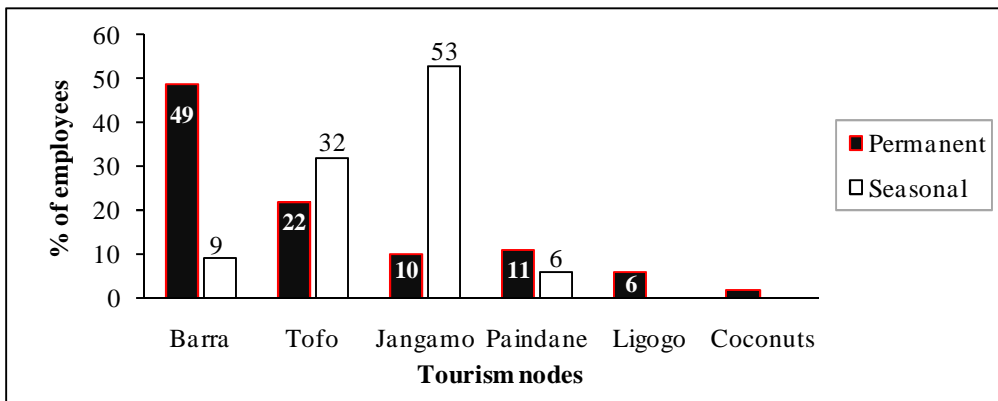


Figure 3.17 Permanent and seasonal employment in accommodation establishments in the ICZ, 2008

These variations among tourism nodes regarding employment reflect differences in levels of tourism development in the ICZ, especially in accommodation establishments. One of the impacts that seasonality in tourist arrivals exerts in accommodation establishments is the management of temporary or short-term contract workers (Parrilla, Font & Nadal 2007). This situation leads to cyclic training of employees. McQueen (2008, pers com) lamented that for seasonal employees to be helpful in his tourist establishment, they need operational training, including English training to be able to communicate with tourists.

Although the number of job opportunities created by the surveyed accommodation establishments is a fraction of the total, picture painted above is a true reflection of employment in tourist accommodation establishments in the ICZ.

### 3.3 TOURIST ARRIVALS IN THE ICZ

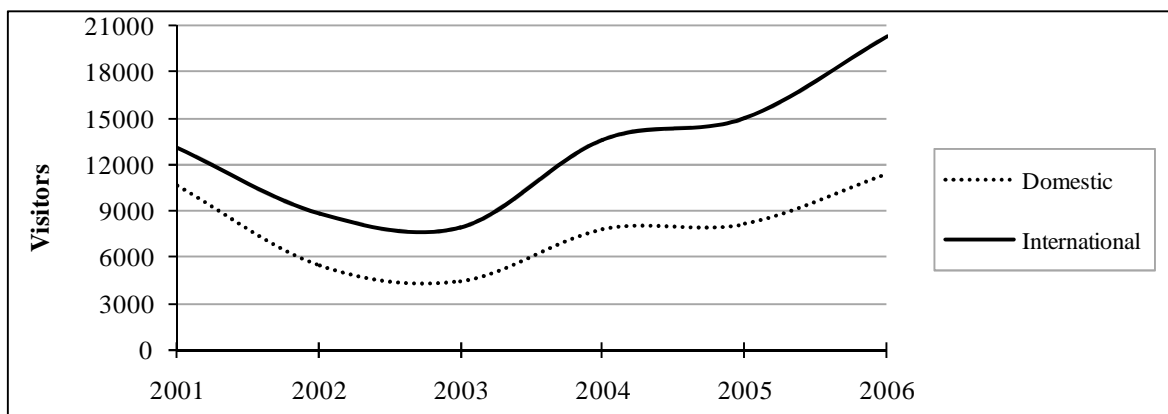
Geographers and tourism researchers agree that quantitative measurements of tourism are important in the evaluation of the magnitude and significance of tourism to a destination. Hall & Page (2006) affirm that tourism statistics are fundamental to the measurement of the volume, scale and impact of tourism at all geographical scales from the global to the national level down to the local destination. However, it is widely acknowledged that tourism statistics are normally only estimates rather than exact values (Cooper *et al.* 2008). The tourist arrival figures for Mozambique, particularly Inhambane, are described in this section. This section is based on official statistics and data gleaned from existing studies, given that data for the tourism sector in the ICZ are inaccurate and most accommodation establishments are reluctant to declare their visitor records.



### 3.3.1 Evolution in number of visitors

South Africa is the leading tourist destination in Africa with 20% of all arrivals to the continent (and its islands), followed by Mauritius, Zambia and Swaziland with 2% each while Tanzania and Malawi each shared 1.6% of arrivals in Africa in 2007 (WTO 2008b). Mozambique has experienced significant growth of international tourist arrivals in the Southern Africa region (Jones & Ibrahim 2007) having increased from 240 000 in 1999 to 771 000 international arrivals in 2007 (Portal do Governo de Moçambique (PGM) 2008).

According to the National Statistics Institute (INE) (2008), international<sup>4</sup> tourist arrivals in the Inhambane province has grown from 13 167 in 2001 to 20 276 visitors in 2006, while domestic visitor numbers have increased from 10 593 to 11 400 in the same period. Figure 3.18 illustrates the trends of tourist arrivals in the Inhambane province where the total number of both domestic and international tourists has increased by one third in the five-year period (2001-2006).



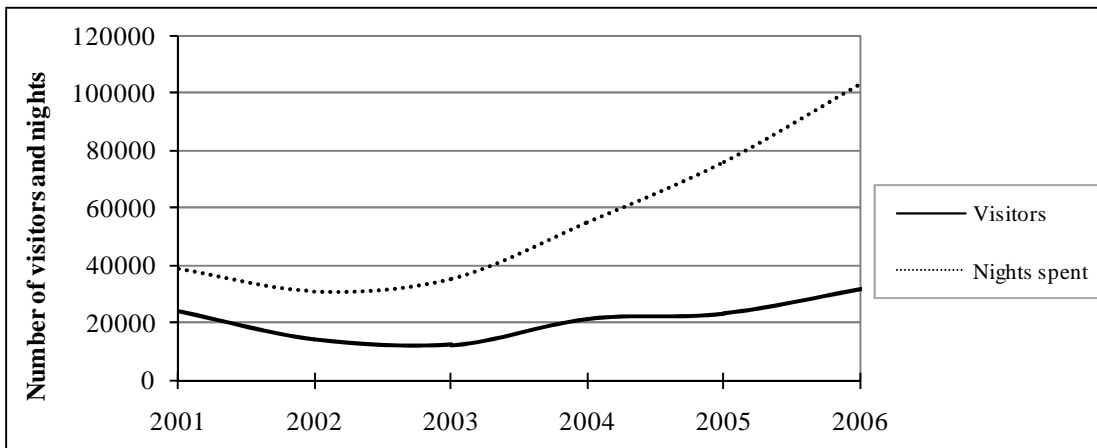
Source: INE (2007)

Figure 3.18 Visitor arrivals in Inhambane province, 2001 to 2006

The nights spent by tourists in Inhambane province rose from 38 513 in 2001 to 103 657 in 2006 for domestic and international visitors combined. However, of the overnight stays registered in 2006, only 20% were by domestic tourists. The effects of 11 September 2001 are visible in the numbers presented in Figure 3.19, particularly in 2002 and 2003 when visitor arrivals and nights decreased significantly. Visser (2003) reported that almost 66 000 room nights were registered in 2002 in Inhambane province for a total of almost 30 000 guests of whom 35% were nationals and 65% foreigners. The average length of stay by visitors during 2002 was 2.3 nights. This average figure was influenced considerably by the general decrease

<sup>4</sup> Eighty per cent of international tourists are from South Africa

in tourist arrivals in 2002 due to the effect of 11 September 2001 and events such as floods and a cyclone.



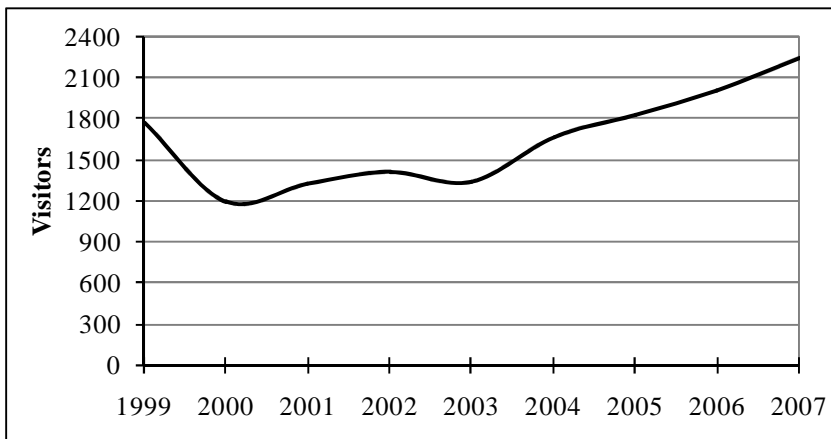
Source: INE (2007)

Figure 3.19 Visitor arrivals and overnight stays in Inhambane province, 2001 to 2006

In Inhambane province accommodation establishments are concentrated in the ICZ rather than in other destinations in the province. There are, therefore, similarities in the evolution of tourist arrivals in the ICZ and the whole province considering that the ICZ has about 60% of the beds available in Inhambane province. Following the above overview of tourist arrivals at national and provincial level, the focus narrows next to tourist arrivals in the ICZ. The analysis of tourist arrivals in the ICZ is based on data provided by Inhambane Provincial Directorate of Tourism, the National Statistics Institute, the airport of Inhambane, and surveyed tourist establishments.

Figures provided by Quissico (2009, pers com) about tourist arrivals in his establishment shows a slow growth trend. After receiving 1765 arrivals in 1999 the number of visitors decreased in 2000 but since then arrivals have increased annually except for a dip in 2003. Overall the number of visitors has increased from 1210 in 2000 to 2246 in 2007 at an average growth rate of 9.5% per year (see Figure 3.20).

Another indicator of visitor growth is the numbers recorded at the airport of Inhambane, which represent an increase in tourist arrivals in the ICZ. In 2005, the airport recorded 9735 domestic and international tourists increasing by 67% to 16 240 visitors arriving at the airport in 2006. In 2007 the number of tourists increased by 17% to 19 000 (Macicame 2008, pers com). Unfortunately the records do not distinguish between business and leisure.



Source: Quissico (2009, pers com)

Figure 3.20 Visitor arrivals in a tourist accommodation establishment in Barra, 1999 to 2007

According to the surveyed representatives of the accommodation establishment, the numbers of tourists visiting their establishments have been increasing annually. About 60% of respondents reported that tourist numbers are increasing while the others disputed this.

Regarding the origin of tourists, FIAS (2006a) contends that most (48%) international visitor arrivals in Mozambique are regional, with South Africa accounting for the bulk (46%) of all regional visitors to Mozambique. Fiege *et al.* (2002) claim that South Africans constitute the lion's share of southern African tourists visiting the ICZ, followed by Zimbabweans. The numbers of North American and European tourists were increasing but showed a high degree of seasonality in arrivals during a year. Visser (2003) estimated that most tourists in Inhambane province were southern African. A questionnaire survey by Nhantumbo (2007) confirmed that most (41%) tourists visiting Barra and Tofo were South Africans while 51% came from other parts of the world, and 8% were domestic tourists. He also found that leisure was the main reason of visiting Barra and Tofo.

### 3.3.2 Seasonal variation in tourist arrivals

Tourist arrivals in the ICZ are not uniformly distributed throughout the year. Four establishment representatives provided useful information about tourist arrivals in 2007 showing pronounced seasonality in June and July (winter) and in November, December and January (summer) (Figure 3.21). These months coincide with South African holiday months. February, March, September and October are characterized by low numbers of tourist arrivals. Greater numbers of visitors come to the ICZ Inhambane during summer than during winter, the summer visitors arriving in greater numbers in December to celebrate Christmas and New Year. Barra Lodge and Guinjata Lodge experience smaller variations in numbers of visitors

than does Paidane Lodge. Paidane Lodge shows a marked seasonality in visitor arrivals per month during 2007 – the monthly average of visitors of 154 being far exceeded by maxima in December (1506) and January (1225) and in June (605) and July (708).

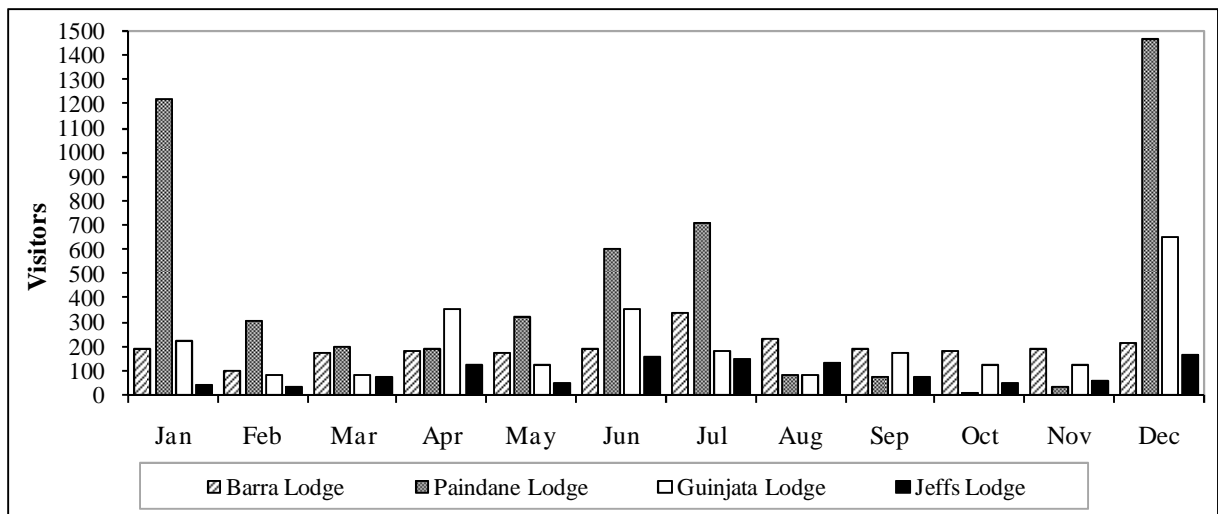


Figure 3.21 Seasonal distribution of visitors at four accommodation establishments in the ICZ, 2007

According to 96% of the establishment representatives seasonality in tourist arrivals affect their establishments negatively. SNV (2007) reports that there are variations among the lodges regarding seasonality in tourist arrivals: some tourist establishments have a constant flow of tourists while others have a high season when occupancy peaks and a low season when it falls to almost zero. Data collected by Eberherr (2006) showed that the average occupancy rate was low (40%) with about two thirds of the establishments having between 12% and 45% of the occupancy rate with a maximum of 75% and minimum of 12%.

Seasonality of tourist arrivals in the ICZ has supply-side repercussions similar to these Parrilla, Font & Nadal (2007) point out for the tourism industry worldwide, namely declining returns on investment, inefficiencies and underuse of capacity of facilities, unsustainable management of natural resources, and problems caused by having to recruit and employ full- and part-time staff. Consequently, strategies are required to reduce seasonality and its negative effects on the tourism industry in the ICZ.

### 3.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter has discussed the evolution of the destination infrastructure and tourism superstructure in the ICZ by analysing aerial photographs, old maps, documents and surveys done in the ICZ. It was found that the tourism-affecting infrastructure of the ICZ has been

evolving slowly since the end of the civil war in 1992. The transport infrastructure is contributing positively to tourist arrivals, particularly those from Maputo and South Africa. Apparently, the airport of Inhambane is still not an important contributor to tourist arrival numbers. Most tourists visiting the ICZ travel by car so that land transport and roads are very important in tourist arrivals. In the ICZ the road infrastructure enhances accessibility of tourists to different tourism nodes in the zone but unfortunately the roads network is dominated by unpaved roads requiring 4x4-vehicles to traverse them. Cruise ships began stopping over in the ICZ in 2004 and although the frequency of stop overs is only growing slowly, the benefits accruing to the ICZ from passenger embarkations at Barra are significant.

The non-transport infrastructures (water and power supply, and telecommunications) play important roles in tourism development in the zone by serving the demand by local residents and the tourism sector. Despite efforts by the government improving infrastructure in the ICZ, the local infrastructure still falls short of satisfying the growing demand by the tourism sector.

An examination of the tourism superstructure shows that the number of accommodation facilities has been increasing since 1993 to present availability of 3200 beds in the ICZ distributed across six tourism nodes. Barra, Jangamo and Tofo have most of the zone's beds with self-catering lodges being the predominant type of accommodation. However, the quality of accommodation, based on a grading system, is between two- and three-star rating. More accommodation establishments are currently under construction. The tourism accommodation sub-sector offers more than 1530 job opportunities in the ICZ, with the number of seasonal employees increasing during peak seasons.

Data limitations regarding the tourism sector in the ICZ make it difficult to examine tourist arrivals in the zone, but available figures show significant growth of tourist arrivals in Inhambane province. There are indications that more and more visitors have been arriving in the ICZ in the last five years, with South Africans making up more than three quarters of international arrivals to the zone. However, this growth in tourist arrivals is affected by seasonality during the year. Having discussed the general infrastructure and tourism superstructure as well as the arrival of tourists in the ICZ, the purpose of the next chapter is to assess local community reaction to tourism development in the ICZ.

## **CHAPTER 4: LOCAL COMMUNITY REACTION TOWARD TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE ICZ**

An understanding of how local residents react to tourism development is crucial for local governments, policymakers, tourism planners, and business managers, because the success and sustainability of any development depends on active support of the local people (Gursoy & Rutherford 2004; Lepp 2007; Farahani & Musa 2008; Telfer & Sharpley 2008). Telfer & Sharpley (2008: 131) argue that “As the destination evolves and external companies enter the destination, control is passed from the local community to external agents.” This situation leads to a resistance from local residents as a defensive and reactive mechanism focusing on the conservation of the peoples’ spaces and immediate environments (Kousis 2000; Routledge 2001; Bestard & Nadal 2007).

Kousis (2000), in her study on local mobilizations against tourism activities in Greece, Spain, and Portugal, reports that local actions against tourism are defensive and usually do not have the assistance of professional organizations. In the environmental activism cases Kousis (2000) examined, residents claimed that the development of tourism on coastal areas through the construction and operation of tourism facilities has threatened the ecosystems. Gursoy & Rutherford (2004) found collective resistance as another form of host reaction to tourism development. These local residents’ protests call for sustainable tourism development requiring proper tourism planning at destination level. This reality reveals the need for specific attention to be given to tourism planning in coastal zones like the ICZ, and this implies an understanding of tourism dynamics in order to predict future changes. As a result, Bestard & Nadal (2007) suggest that new development policies must keep in mind residents’ attitudes toward and opinions about tourism.

The objectives of this chapter are to investigate host community reactions to tourism development in the ICZ and to explore similarities and dissimilarities between communities in their residents’ reactions to tourism development in the zone’s tourism nodes. In so doing, it examines the influence of perceived positive and negative impacts: economic, social, environmental, and the other aspects of tourism development in coastal areas. These elements were selected and listed in the questionnaire on local community reactions to tourism development in the ICZ (see Appendix F). This questionnaire survey was complemented by focus group discussions based on the template for local community focus group discussion (see Appendix G). The procedures for collecting data in the ICZ were explained in Chapter 2.

With specific reference to the seven selected communities surrounding tourism nodes in the ICZ (Ligogo, Paindane, Guinjata, Massavana, Gumula, Conguiana and Josina Machel), the results of the questionnaire survey on local community reaction to tourism development and the results of focus group discussions are presented. The results are discussed under three headings: first, residents' general perceptions of tourism development in the ICZ; second, the intercommunity variations in perceptions of tourism development; and finally, perceptions regarding the future of tourism in the ICZ. This subdivision of the discussion of residents' perceptions of tourism development in the ICZ is followed because, first it allows a look at the study area in general, and second it permits a comparison of the results of each community according to the stage of tourism development reached by each tourism node.

#### **4.1 RESIDENTS' GENERAL PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE ICZ**

As an introduction to the focus group discussions and in order to assess the local residents' reactions to tourism development in the ICZ, respondents were asked to indicate their opinions about 26 statements on a five-point Lickert scale (strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree). The answers were aggregated to three classes (agree, neutral, disagree) for all seven communities and summarized in Table 4.1. On the whole, respondents tended to agree with all the positive and "other" statements in the questionnaire. Four of the ten statements elicited a majority of disagreement responses by respondents. Neutral choices (ambivalence) exceed 20% for only two statements. The three subsections of section 4.1 deal with the positive, negative and miscellaneous statements respectively.

##### **4.1.1 Positive aspects of tourism development**

Positive effects of tourism development are listed in the first eight statements in Table 4.1. Concerning the quality of public services in the ICZ, three quarters of the respondents agreed that the quality of public services in their communities has improved due to tourism development and a clear majority (71%) admitted that tourism development increases the quality of the local infrastructure (roads, health facilities, water and electricity). The overwhelming majority (90%) of respondents agreed that the tourism industry provides worthwhile job opportunities to community residents. The latter is supported by the fact that the respondents know people in their communities who are working in the tourism sector and more and more people are getting jobs as tourism develops in the zone. It is also true that

some infrastructure (roads and electricity) has improved in some communities of the ICZ due to tourism development.

Table 4.1 Responses to statements about tourism development in the ICZ

No	Statements	Disagree (%)	Neutral (%)	Agree (%)
<b>Positive aspects</b>				
1	The quality of public services in my community has improved due to tourism.	18	7	75
2	The tourism industry provides worthwhile job opportunities to community residents.	3	7	90
3	Tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities by local residents.	37	22	41
4	Tourism provides an opportunity for cultural exchange and education.	35	6	59
5	Tourism increases quality of infrastructure (roads, health facilities, water and electricity).	21	8	71
6	Tourism preserves our marine resources.	30	19	51
7	Tourism increases local residents' businesses.	27	11	62
8	I feel my community benefits from tourism.	18	7	75
<b>Negative aspects</b>				
9	Tourist establishments have blocked access to the beach.	46	6	48
10	Tourist behaviour negatively affects a community's way of life.	57	12	31
11	Tourism development reduces local residents' access to fish.	57	11	32
12	Tourism development results in an increase in the price of basic commercial products.	31	9	60
13	Tourism increases the amount of crime in my community.	46	14	40
14	Tourism results in an increase in the cost of living.	34	6	60
15	Tourism results in land conflicts in my community.	44	4	52
16	Native people are being exploited by tourism.	45	14	41
17	Tourism increases beach degradation.	30	9	61
18	Tourism results in degradation of natural vegetation and dunes.	31	0	69
<b>Other aspects</b>				
19	Local residents live in harmony with tourism facility providers.	33	18	49
20	There is nothing wrong in sharing our resources with tourists and tourism facility providers.	27	27	46
21	My community is not aware of tourism development.	45	8	47
22	Tourism results in new residents in my community.	17	7	76
23	My community participates in decision-making regarding tourism.	36	15	49
24	I favour the development of new tourism facilities which will attract more tourists.	18	7	75
25	The local government and my community should plan together and manage the growth of tourism.	12	3	85
26	My community is satisfied with current tourism development.	11	6	83



Local residents are divided on the issue of positive cultural effects associated with tourism development. For example, 37% disagreed that tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities by local residents in comparison to 41% who agreed while a substantial proportion (22%) were undecided. Many respondents (59%) agreed that tourism provides an opportunity for cultural exchange and education although 35% disagreed. This ambivalence over cultural effects stem from the fact that social impacts are somewhat subjective and intangible, as Haley, Smith & Miller (2005) have argued.

Concerning the exploitation of natural resources for tourism development, local residents' opinions were diverse. Half (51%) of the respondents supported the statement that tourism preserves marine resources while 30% disagreed and other discussants (19%) in the focus groups were not clearly aware of either the way tourism impacts marine resources or the actions implemented to preserve marine resources and were therefore neutral in this issue.

Economic benefits are among the reasons why people support tourism development although a small share of respondents (27%) disagreed that tourism increases local residents' businesses, a clear majority (62%) agreed with the statement. Comments were made in discussions that local residents are not doing enough to develop appropriate small businesses that can be positively integrated into the tourism economy, particularly in Paindane and Ligogo. Some residents in all seven communities who sell products at local markets claimed that most of the tourists do not buy their wares. Overall though, only 18% of the respondents felt that tourism does not benefit their communities while 75% agreed that they do benefit. According to Lepp (2007) and Farahani & Musa (2008) local people tend to support tourism when they see more benefits than costs accruing from tourism. Local residents apparently support tourism in the ICZ considering that agreement with all the positive aspects outweigh either disagreement or neutral feelings.

#### **4.1.2 Negative aspects of tourism development**

Negative features of tourism development in a destination can influence local residents to discourage tourism developers by opposing their activities or by exhibiting hostile behaviour toward tourism and tourists. The second section in Table 4.1 comprises statements about ten negative aspects of tourism development. The construction of beach front accommodation facilities covering large areas in the ICZ changes the ways of access to the beaches. However, concerning the statement that tourist establishments have blocked access to the beach respondents were almost equally divided between those who agreed (48%) and those (46%) who disagreed. This is probably because in some tourism nodes (Jangamo and Tofo) beach

front accommodation establishments do not block accesses to the beaches. Respondents reported that in Barra and Paindane some access ways were blocked due to the construction of new tourist establishments. The researcher observed some of the access routes in Tofo, Barra and Jangamo) that were closed due to tourism facility construction.

Tourist behaviour in a destination area can be appreciated and hence welcomed by locals, but if tourist behaviour is unpleasant to locals it might induce negative perceptions about tourism among residents. Tourist behaviour is apparently appreciated by locals in the ICZ seeing that 57% of the respondents disagreed that tourists behaviour negatively affects local residents' way of life, although 31% agreed that it does have adverse affects and 11% were undecided. On this score Lepp (2007) argues that despite some tourists' desire to adapt to local norms and standards, the vast cultural differences between tourists and local people of the destination often remain glaringly obvious. In the ICZ host-guest interaction is not similar in the six tourism nodes and the residential areas are clearly separated from the tourism activity concentrations in all the six tourism nodes.

Respondents do appear to be wary of some negative economic impacts of tourism development in the ICZ. Sixty per cent of the respondents agreed that tourism development causes an increase in the price of basic commercial products, although 31% of the respondents disagreed and only 9% were undecided. Another economic concern is that tourism increases the cost of living with 60% supporting this statement and one third disagreeing. Conversely, close to 60% of the respondents disagreed that tourism development reduces local residents' access to fish while nearly one third agreed. These results show that positive economic impacts of tourism as well as negative economic impacts influence the perceptions of locals toward the tourism industry.

A negative social impact examined was the perception that tourism increases the amount of crime in a respondent's community. Interestingly, 40% agreed and 46% disagreed with this. An explanation for this finding is that in Ligogo, Gumula, Guinjata and Paindane there are no police stations and in the focus group discussions crime was reported to result from tourism development. Another negative aspect of tourism is land conflict because when the tourism footprint grows the demand for land on which to construct more tourism facilities increases. More than half of respondents (52%) agreed with the statement that tourism results in land conflicts in their community, yet 44% disagreed. Concerning the statement that native people are being exploited by tourism respondents were almost equally divided between those who agreed (41%) and those who disagreed (44%).

Among the various environmental problems that tourism causes for the communities, beach degradation and the destruction of the local flora and dunes were singled out for testing. Respondents seem to be heedful of these two negative environmental impacts of tourism. Many (61%) of the respondents agreed with the statement that tourism increases beach degradation and even more, close to 70%, agreed that tourism results in degradation of natural vegetation and coastal dunes. The agreement can be related to the practice by some tourists who deliberately drive on the beaches and the dunes to the detriment of the dunes and the natural vegetation. These scenarios generate criticism directed at tourism. A growing awareness among the local residents of the environmental problems tourism creates has led to increased opposition to tourism development in the ICZ.

#### **4.1.3 Miscellaneous aspects of tourism development**

In the belief that some features of tourism development are neither specifically positive nor negative, Table 4.1 also reports the responses to statements about other aspects of tourism development in the ICZ which might influence residents' reactions toward tourism. Accordingly, respondents were not entirely satisfied with the behaviour of tourism facility developers in the ICZ. For instance, one third of the respondents disagreed with the statement that local residents live in harmony with tourism facility providers but nearly one half agreed and 18% were undecided. One explanation for this situation is, as discussants in Guinjata, Paindane and Ligogo reported that some tourism facility developers do not respect local people and some tourist establishment owners have dismissed employees without paying their salaries.

An interesting picture emerges regarding the idea of sharing local resources. Forty-six per cent of the respondents agreed with the statement that there is nothing wrong in sharing resources with tourists and tourism facility providers, while the remainder were equally divided between disagreement and neutrality. This scenario is attributable to the growing awareness of local residents about the negative environmental impacts of tourism in the tourism nodes and, therefore, respondents show some reserve about disagreeing or taking a position on the issue.

More than three quarters of the respondents agreed that tourism development is increasing the numbers of new residents in their communities. This is related to the new job and business opportunities that tourism is creating in the ICZ, resulting in newcomers arriving in search of these opportunities. Haley, Smith & Miller (2005) and Telfer & Sharpley (2008) argue that as a tourism destination evolves creating employment opportunities, the lack of trained human

resources locally stimulates a migration of people to the destination. On the other hand, local residents seem to have a mixed degree of awareness of tourism development. To wit, regarding the statement that their community is not aware of tourism development respondents were divided with 47% agreeing and 45% disagreeing. This situation is referred to by Telfer & Sharpley (2008: 129) as “limits to participation in tourism.”

If local residents’ opinions are taken into account in decision making about tourism development, they tend to support such development (Jackson & Inbakaran 2006). In the ICZ, residents’ participation in decision making in tourism is apparently limited. One half of the respondents agreed that their communities are involved in decision making concerning tourism, 36% disagreed and 15% were undecided. This can be explained by the fact that in Conguiana and Josina Machel the focus group discussants reported that they discuss tourism decisions with the municipal authorities. Moreover, in Paindane, Gumula and Ligogo discussants were not sure about this statement because tourism is less developed in their nodes than in other nodes in the ICZ.

Given the respondents’ support for the positive impacts and caution about the negative impacts, respondents approve of further tourism development in the ICZ. In fact, 75% of the respondents agreed with the statement that they favour the development of new tourism facilities which will attract more tourists and only 18% do not agree. This favourable response about future tourism development in the ICZ in the form of new tourism superstructure to attract more tourists related to the hope, expectations and belief that tourism development will create more jobs and business opportunities, among other benefits. In addition, a large majority of respondents (85%) agreed that local government and local communities should plan together and manage the growth of tourism, and only 12% disagreed. This reinforces the need for planning tourism at a destination level, involving locals in the decision making and monitoring the process as tourism evolves. According to Haley, Smith & Miller (2005), residents are important players who can influence the success or failure of tourism at the local level. Their participation in the planning, development and operation of attractions, and the extent to which they show their hospitality to tourists are crucial aspects in the success of a destination.

Finally, most of the respondents appear to be satisfied with tourism development in general seeing that 83% agreed with the statement that their communities are satisfied with the current tourism development and only 11% disagreed. This support springs from a variety of factors discussed in this subsection, particularly those benefiting local residents. Intuitively, positive

support for tourism among residents is one indication that tourism development is desired in the ICZ.

As reported in this subsection, the residents' perceptions varied and their opinions were divided in many cases. This suggests that, as long as there are differences in the levels of tourism development among the tourism nodes in the ICZ, especially in tourism superstructure and general infrastructure, there will probably be differences regarding residents' perceptions between the various communities. The next section makes comparisons between the seven communities to uncover the nature of intercommunity variations.

## **4.2 INTERCOMMUNITY VARIATIONS IN PERCEPTIONS OF TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN THE ICZ**

Economic, social, and environmental factors influence the perceptions of local residents about tourism development (Lepp 2007; Farahani & Musa 2008). Having recorded a degree of ambivalence in the perceptions of residents regarding tourism development in the ICZ, in the analysis of the questionnaire survey data and focus groups discussions, the above findings are taken a step further in this section by drawing comparisons between the seven communities involved. The comparison of the perceptions is arranged under the same three headings used in the previous section, namely positive aspects, negative aspects, and miscellaneous aspects of tourism.

### **4.2.1 Positive aspects of tourism: community perceptions compared**

Comparison of the positive expressions of tourism development in the seven communities showed up many similarities. For instance, more than 60% of the respondents in four communities agreed that the quality of public services in their community had improved due to tourism, but in Ligogo, Paindane and Gumula between 20% and 38% disagreed. In five communities close to 90% or more of the respondents agreed that the tourism industry provides worthwhile job opportunities to community residents except in Ligogo and Guinjata. In these two communities, 10% disagreed or were undecided (see Figure 4.1).

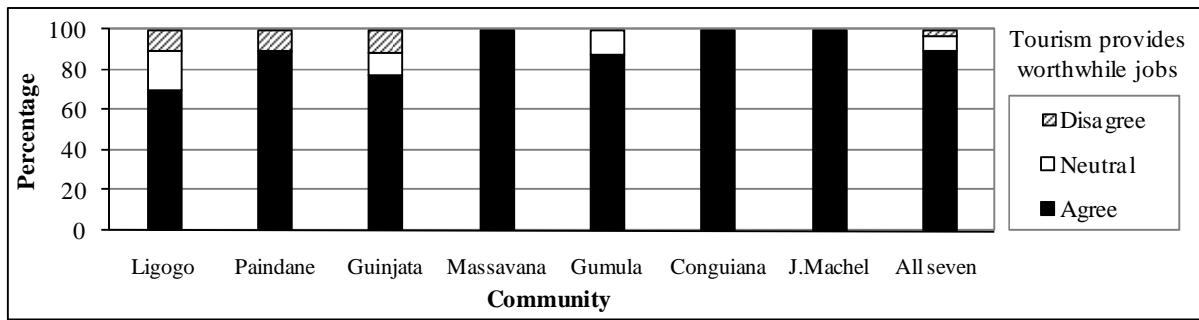


Figure 4.1 Opinions about job opportunities in tourism in ICZ communities

Moreover, between 70% and 90% of the respondents in six communities agreed that tourism increases the quality of infrastructure, the exception being Josina Machel where only 20% agreed. Changes in infrastructure are unnoticeable in Josina Machel because its tourism node Tofo is the oldest one and therefore residents do not associate improvements in infrastructure with tourism development. In the other communities improvements in local infrastructure visibly meet the needs of tourism development. Another similarity between the five communities is that tourism contributes to local residents' businesses with 60% and 90% of their respondents agreeing with the statement. In Ligogo and Paindane 70% and 40% of the respondents disagreed respectively.

Some notable differences between the communities were also identified. In four communities, Ligogo, Paindane, Gumula and Josina Machel, most of the respondents disagreed with statements about cultural benefits accruing from tourism development, while in Guinjata, Massavana and Conguiana they seem to agree that tourism development does have cultural benefits for them. This situation is complex because discussants in the focus groups maintained that host-guest interaction is low and they reported little about positive cultural impacts other than learning English from tourists and teaching local languages to tourists.

The statement about tourism generally benefiting communities draws agreement but to different degrees (see Figure 4.2). All the respondents from Conguiana agreed that tourism development in Barra really benefited the community. This view was expressed during the focus group discussions and supported by examples of benefits, namely job opportunities for some local residents, increases in residents' income, and improvement of their quality of life. Similar examples were reported in Gumula, Guinjata, and Josina Machel where most agreed that tourism is benefiting local residents. Ligogo is a notable exception, one reason being that the Ligogo tourism node is in the beginning of the tourism life cycle so that very limited job opportunities exist there.

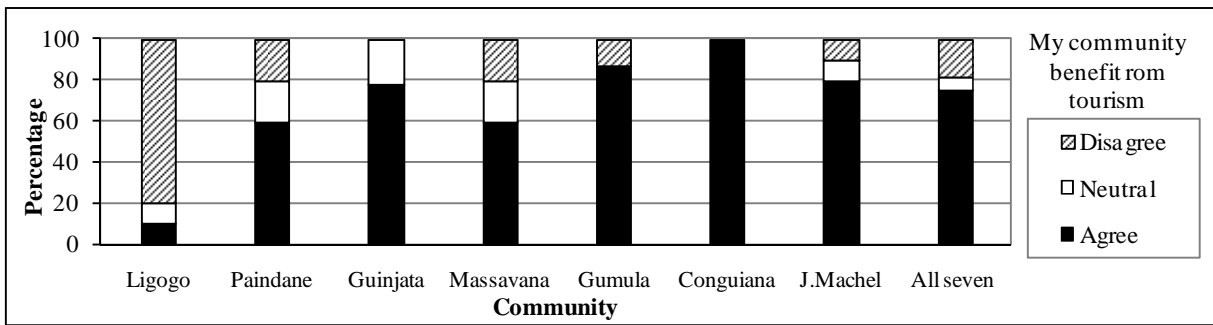


Figure 4.2 Opinions about tourism generally benefiting ICZ communities

In general, the perception exist that tourism is benefiting local residents in the communities. Focus group participants mentioned two main benefits of tourism development. Most mentioned is job opportunities in the tourism industry with participants agreeing that this is true in all the communities except Ligogo and Guinjata. The other important benefit is the contribution of tourism to the improvement of the quality of the local infrastructure. When compared regarding the positive effects of tourism, the communities of Ligogo, Painsdane and Gumula are apparently more likely to disagree with the statements dealing with social, economic, and environmental impacts of tourism. Josina Machel's respondents disagreed with the statements about social and environmental aspects, while in Massavana local residents were prone to voice disagreement with the environmental statements because they are not clearly aware of the way tourism impacts the environment.

#### 4.2.2 Negative aspects of tourism: community perceptions compared

More differences than similarities were found when comparing the communities regarding negative features of tourism in the ICZ. In three communities (Josina Machel, Massavana and Painsdane) respondents saw the beach front tourist establishments as an obstruction to accessing the beach. In these communities between 70% and 90% of the respondents agreed that tourist establishments block access to the beach, while between 10% and 30% disagreed. The reason for the consensus is that large areas in Painsdane and Massavana are occupied by tourist establishments and the beach entryways for local residents were changed. In the other four communities unhindered access prompted respondents not to support the statement.

In Ligogo, Massavana, Gumula and Conguiana most respondents disagreed with the statement that tourist behaviour negatively affects the community's way of life, whereas in Painsdane, Guinjata and Josina Machel respondents tended to agree (see Figure 4.3). Many focus group discussants lamented the misbehaviour of some tourists who destroy crops by driving their cars and quad bikes through cultivated fields. They also reported that some local residents tend to behave like tourists (e.g. smoking habit, styles of urban dress brought to rural areas,

and alcoholism among the youth) as a result of frequent contact with tourists. In the ICZ there is minimal close contact between tourists and locals because of the nature of beach- and marine resource-based tourism but, as Shaw & Agarwal (2007) have observed, these results may, in part, reflect the high degree of cultural differences existing between tourist and host in developing countries.

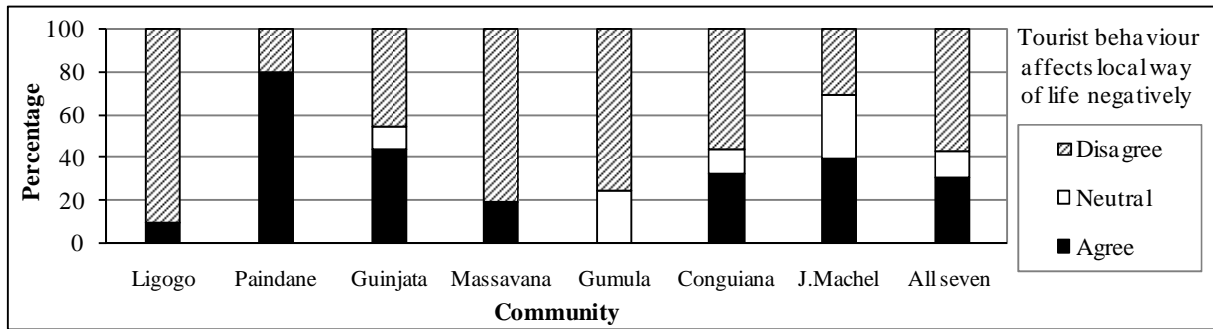


Figure 4.3 Opinions about negative effects of tourist behaviour in ICZ communities

Respondents’ reactions to the statements dealing with the negative economic impacts of tourism in the ICZ were mixed. For instance, regarding fish which is a common commodity in all seven communities, respondents were divided. In Paidane and Guinjata more than half (60%) of the respondents agreed that tourism development reduces local residents’ access to fish, whereas in Ligogo, Massavana and Gumula most respondents disagreed. Some respondents from Conguiana and Josina Machel were undecided. Most respondents in four communities (Massavana, Gumula, Conguiana and Josina Machel) agreed that tourism development results in an increase in the price of basic commercial products, whereas some respondents (between 40% and 56%) in three communities (Ligogo, Guinjta and Paidane) disagreed. Moreover, in the former four communities the cost of living is perceived by 75% to 80% to be rising due to tourism development but in Ligogo, Guinjta and Paidane most of the respondents disagreed (see Figure 4.4).

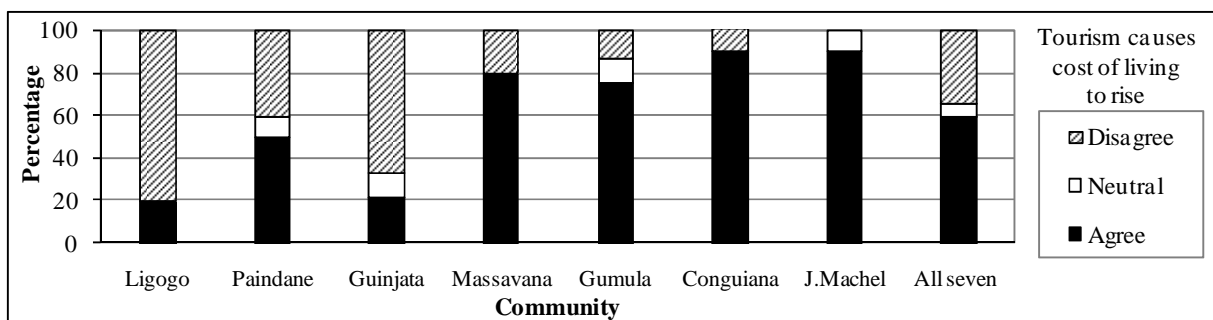


Figure 4.4 Opinions about tourism and rising cost of living in ICZ communities



Concerning crime, although George (2003) found that tourism contributes to an increase in crime levels, increased crime rates at a specific destination might also be an effect shared by other economic sectors at the destination, suggesting that a variety of factors can influence any increase in crime rates in a specific destination. An examination of the respondents' reactions to the statement about tourism and crime in the ICZ revealed mixed opinions, even in the focus group discussions. Results show that in Paindane, Massavana, Conguiana and Josina Machel between 50% and 60% of the respondents agreed that tourism increases the amount of crime in their community. On the other hand, most respondents in Ligogo (80%), Guinjata (55%) and Gumula (90%) did not agree with this. Corroborating evidence emerged in the focus group discussions where participants from the four above communities expressed concern about increasing crime rates in the previous two years. Significantly five communities and five tourism nodes in the ICZ do not have local police to protect the safety of local residents and tourists. There might be other reasons for the reported increase in crime rates in four communities, Paindane, Massavana, Conguiana and Josina Machel but tourism is a likely agent because, as Cooper *et al.* (2008) argue, the presence of tourists carrying relatively large sums of money and valuables provide opportunities for criminal activity.

Split opinions were encountered regarding the statement that tourism results in land conflicts involving local residents though there were varying degrees of agreement with the statement in the communities. Between 50% and 80% of the respondents in Paindane, Guinjata, Massavana and Josina Machel agreed that tourism has led to land conflicts in their communities, whereas in Ligogo, Gumula and Conguiana between 62% and 90% of the respondents disagreed. Differences between communities were notably slight regarding the statement that native people were being exploited by tourism: in five communities discussants disagreed with the statement and only in Paindane and Guinjata did the majority agree with the statement.

Intercommunity variations of opinion about environmental effects persist, in that increased beach degradation caused by tourism development in the ICZ is an effect with which more than 60% of the respondents in four communities (Ligogo, Paindane, Massavana and Josina Machel) agreed. Environment-damaging practices such as driving on the beach are evident on all the zone's beaches where beach erosion was observed except in Ligogo (see Figure 4.5). In Guinjata, Gumula and Conguiana between 44% and 67% of the discussants disagreed that tourism degrades their beaches. Finally, opinions about the impact of tourism on natural vegetation and coastal dunes in the ICZ indicate that respondents in all seven communities agreed that tourism degrades vegetation and dune quality.



Figure 4.5 Beach erosion at Tofo beach in the ICZ

Overall as far as the negative aspects of tourism development in the ICZ are concerned, significant differences in opinion exist between the communities resulting in two main groups: those who agree and those who disagree with the statements. The only exception is the degrading effect of tourism on vegetation and coastal dunes with which the respondents in all seven communities largely agreed. It appears that most respondents surveyed in Ligogo, Gumula and Conguiana tend to express negative views about tourism, while those in Paindane, Guinjata, Massavana and Josina Machel are more positive. In Josina Machel, Conguiana and Gumula some respondents were noticeably undecided.

#### 4.2.3 Intercommunity comparison of miscellaneous effects of tourism

Comparison of other influences of tourism development on the seven communities in the ICZ bears evidence of similarities and differences pointing to variations in local residents' opinions. A lack of harmony between local residents and tourism facility providers can provoke residents to protest against the tourism industry (Kousis 2000), but according to Fredline & Faulkner (2000) the longer a tourism facility has existed in a community, the more positive residents' perceptions become toward that facility. The statement that local residents live in harmony with tourism facility providers evoked disagreement by 90% of Ligogo's respondents and 40% each by those in Paindane and Josina Machel. In Paindane, Massavana, Conguiana and Josina Machel between 50% and 70% of the respondents agreed with the statement. Probable reasons for this are that some tourism facility providers do not respect the decisions made by local leaders and others are enduringly clashing with their local employees.

In all the communities respondents were somewhat divided about how locals participate in decision-making in tourism development in the ICZ (see Figure 4.6). Most respondents in

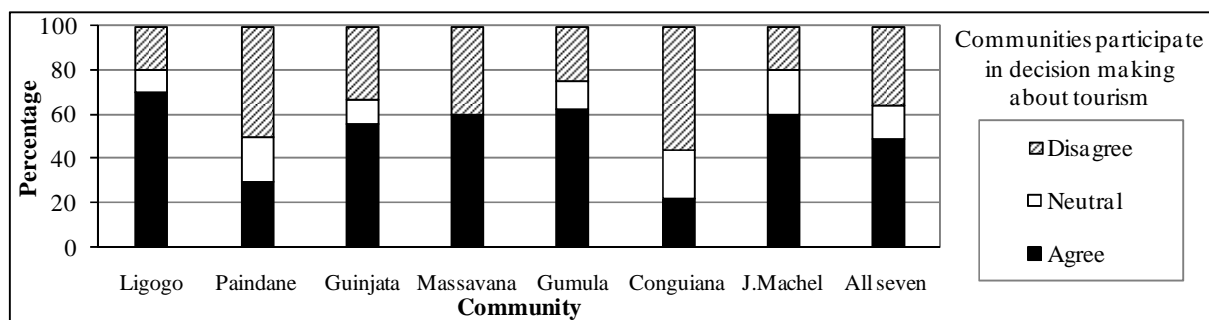


Figure 4.6 Opinions about community participation in tourism decision making in the ICZ

Guinjata, Massavana, Gumula and Josina Machel agreed that their communities participate in decision-making regarding tourism, while in Painsdane 50% and in Conguiana 56% of the respondents disagreed with the statement. In Ligogo 30% of the respondents were neutral. However, discussants in all the communities expressed dissatisfaction about their lack of involvement in tourism-related decisions. It was also noted that there is only a low level of awareness in local communities regarding tourism development in the ICZ. Discussants appeared to have limited information about tourism development in their tourism nodes about the opportunities afforded them to take advantage of the tourism industry. These are the two important constraints on participation in tourism by locals (Telfer & Sharpley 2008).

Respondents in all seven communities see tourism as an industry which encourages immigration to the ICZ except in Ligogo where most (70%) respondents disagreed that tourism attracts new residents to their community, probably because in Ligogo tourism is not well established and the demand for new job and business opportunities is low. Similarities between communities were found when comparing respondents' opinions about future investments in the tourism industry. There is general agreement among the communities that they favour the development of new tourism facilities which will attract more tourists. But in Ligogo, Guinjata and Josina Machel some (30%) respondents did not support this view. However, focus group discussants admitted that the future of tourism might be positive if more investments were made in tourism in the ICZ. Likewise, respondents in all the communities voiced strong support for the involvement of local residents in the tourism planning process. Finally, reaction of respondents to the statement that their community is satisfied with current tourism development showed general agreement in all the communities except in Josina Machel (see Figure 4.7).

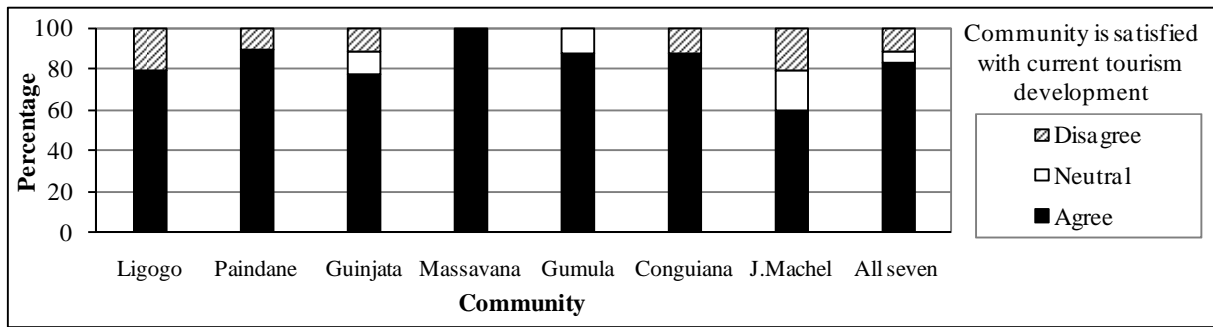


Figure 4.7 Opinions about satisfaction with tourism development in ICZ communities

These comparisons regarding other aspects of tourism development in the seven selected communities in the ICZ, showed several similarities among the opinions of the communities of Josina Machel, Conguiana, Gumula, Massavana and Guinjata, whereas Paidane and Ligogo tended to have contrary views even in the focus group discussions.

The findings about positive, negative and other features of tourism discussed above are important in understanding the intercommunity similarities and differences of opinions regarding tourism in the ICZ. A salient point is that in the communities of Ligogo, Paidane and Gumula where tourism is not well established, local residents were more negatively than positively inclined toward tourism, while people in Guinjata, Massavane, Conguiana and Josina Machel tended to be more positive about the tourism industry. The chapter now turns to explore the expectations local residents cherish about tourism in the ICZ.

#### 4.3 PERCEPTIONS ABOUT THE FUTURE OF TOURISM IN THE ICZ

The above discussion shows that local residents have positive opinions about tourism in the ICZ. This affirmation, along with the increasing recognition that local communities must be involved in the planning of tourism, make it quite relevant to understand what residents expect from the tourism industry in the coming years in the light of what has been achieved.

Participants in the focus group discussions expressed hope and belief in the future of tourism in the ICZ. A majority of respondents (74%) expressed their intention of supporting tourism development in the zone, including new investments in tourism facilities. However, intercommunity variations exist on these topics. Participants in the focus groups, who expressed views about the future of tourism in the zone, raised a number of noteworthy points. These are:

- It is believed that more tourist-orientated accommodation, food and beverage, and water-sports facilities will create job opportunities for local residents and consequently the income of beneficiaries will improve.
- The discussants in Ligogo maintain that the future of tourism might be positive, but there is a need to enhance coordination between stakeholders, namely local government, community leaders, tourism facility suppliers, and local residents. There is a call for a specific forum where issues concerning tourism can be discussed and the government is seen by the communities as fundamental in the facilitation of this coordination.
- In Paindane, Gumula, Guinjata and Conguiana participants expect an increase in local business as a result of the growth of tourism in coming years and they hope to see their profits increase. A participant in Paindane cited the example of the local market which is growing as more tourists and people employed in tourism establishments are buying commercial products.
- The participants in Guinjata admit that the future of tourism might be positive, but there is a need to resolve issues such as the limited involvement of local residents in decision making, and conflicts of interest between tourism facility suppliers and fishermen because of the exploitation of marine resources.
- The view of participants in Josina Machel is that tourism development will increase benefits to local residents but they expressed their concern about beach erosion which they anticipate will lead to fewer tourists arriving because the beach has been losing its attractiveness. However, the participants acknowledge that tourism is creating more job and small-business opportunities.
- Participants in Conguiana are especially positive about the future of tourism. They believe that the increase in job opportunities will continue seeing that more tourist establishments are being constructed.

It is encouraging to note that in all the points raised in the focus group discussions in all the communities, local residents recognize the tourism industry as an important economic activity and they hold positive views about the industry's future. They also believe that tourism benefits their local economy but they are hopeful that more opportunities will attend future tourism investments. Questions emerging from these expectations are what opportunities a

community should avail itself of and whether to participate directly or indirectly in tourism development.

In the ICZ, formal or informal initiatives such as fishing companies, vegetable production, souvenirs production and vending, young coconut vending, community lodge providing local products, and music groups were put forward by focus group discussants as potential opportunities for them to participate in tourism development. However, individual initiatives were reported to be taking place in Barra, Tofo and Jangamo tourism nodes. All these ventures for locals to participate in tourism development require a new development perspective that will take the tourists out from behind the resort walls, giving the locals the opportunity for entrepreneurial activities (Amuquandoh & Dei 2007; Telfer & Sharpley 2008).

The general view of local residents is that tourism can benefit them in the coming years but this will depend on a combination of factors and more emphasis on an increased local awareness about tourism development so that residents can participate in tourism by selling local products and services, and in so doing increase their incomes.

#### **4.4 CONCLUDING REMARKS**

According to the assessment of local community reactions to tourism development in the ICZ, in this chapter residents in the ICZ expressed positive views about tourism development. They maintain that tourism benefits local residents by promoting local businesses, creating job opportunities and possibilities for earning supplementary income, effecting an increase in the quality of the local infrastructure, as well as through other advantageous socio-economic impacts. But there is concern that tourism is increasing the cost of living in the zone by raising the price of basic commercial products. However, certain disagreements were noticed regarding environmental and some socio-economic impacts of tourism. Residents do not feel that tourism contributes to the preservation of natural resources in the ICZ. Respondents perceive the local residents not to be sufficiently involved in tourism decision-making in their communities, particularly in Painedane and Conguiana. Local residents are not entirely satisfied with the behaviour of tourism facility suppliers but they are reservedly content with the behaviour of tourists.

Intercommunity variations in residents' perceptions were in evidence with some communities benefiting more from tourism than others. The positive and negative impacts of tourism are more significant in some communities than in others. Both positive and negative perceptions

seem to be more intense in Josina Machel, Conguiana and Guinjata. In Ligogo, Paindane and Gumula where tourism is not well established, local residents tended to be more negative than positive about tourism.

Because of their positive views toward tourism, residents also hope that tourism will flourish in the future. They support the development of more and better tourism infrastructure and facilities in the zone hoping that this will improve their quality of life. However, local residents recognize the need to increase local hosts' awareness of tourism development so that they can participate in tourism with their local products, thereby benefiting from a burgeoning of tourism in the zone.

The next chapter uses the findings of this and the previous chapter to place the ICZ in an appropriate phase of tourism development according to Miossec's model.

## **CHAPTER 5: APPLICATION OF THE MIOSSEC MODEL TO THE ICZ**

Tourism development is a complex process. Considering that each tourist destination has its life cycle (Buttler 1980; Agarwal 1997 and Johnston 2001), the tourism development process in a destination can be broken down into meaningful stages and sub-stages local tourism undergoes while progressing through its life cycle. Telfer & Sharpley (2008) point out that the stages a destination goes through in its life cycle normally occur over a long period but some destinations have tended to jump several stages.

The Miossec model was adopted as a framework to explore the evolution of the ICZ as a tourist destination. This framework (presented more fully in Chapter 1) is briefly restated here. The model developed by Miossec (1976) looks at the evolution of resorts, transport routes, tourists, and attitudes of the hosts (recall Figure 1.11). In the initial phase (0-1), the territory is isolated and only occasional visitors are present in the destination and residents and decision makers hold no particular attitude toward them while the pioneer resort develops. In phase 2, once the destination is discovered by tourists and a pioneer resort is established, attitudes toward the development change both positively and negatively. The transport network expands while additional resorts develop in the destination. In phases 3 and 4, as the destination develops, an increasingly complex hierarchical system of resorts and transport networks evolves, while changes in local attitudes may lead to the acceptance of tourism. The development pattern arrived at through conscious decision making reflects the desires of all tourism stakeholders. Meanwhile, the tourists have become more aware of what the region has to offer with some spatial specialization occurring, while some tourists change their behaviour and move on to other destinations.

This chapter uses the results presented in Chapters 3 and 4 to address three objectives: first, to trace the path of tourism development in the ICZ from 1992 to 2008; second, to test the applicability of Miossec's model and the life cycle model to the ICZ; and third, to identify the current stage of tourism development in the ICZ as a tourist destination. The chapter is divided in two sections, namely a discussion about the development of the ICZ as a tourist destination, followed by the classification of the ICZ as tourist destination to determine the current phase of tourism development in the zone.



## 5.1 DEVELOPMENT OF THE ICZ AS TOURIST DESTINATION

This section examines the evolution of the ICZ as a tourist destination. The discussion is marshalled around the four elements suggested in the Miossec model, namely the role of transport networks in tourism development; the development of the tourism nodes; tourist behaviour and tourism development; and local residents' reactions to tourism development.

### 5.1.1 The role of transport networks in tourism development in the ICZ

As point of departure transport networks and facilities in the ICZ are examined here to identify changes which occurred in the zone between 1992 and 2008 to distinguish the ICZ's current phase of tourism development in Miossec's model.

Prideaux (2004) stresses that transport access to the destination is likely to become a key determinant of the rate and size of tourism growth. He posits that as access improves, through new roads, railways and sea links and later air services, new and more distant markets become accessible. Considering that the majority of tourists visiting the ICZ are from South Africa and, as reported by FIAS (2006b), that the majority of visitors from South Africa travel by road, the road infrastructure and supplementary services are important for self-drive tourism in the ICZ to open the destination for tourists. Therefore, the quality and connectivity of roads in Mozambique, and particularly in Inhambane, are crucial. Cooper *et al.* (2008) argue that adequate transport infrastructure linking tourist generating areas and destination areas is a prerequisite for tourism development. The roads are fairly good in the southern part of the country, especially the EN1 which connects the ICZ with the rest of the country and, according to National Roads Administration (ANE) (2008), road construction and reconstruction projects are taking place in the country, including the N1 in the Southern zone of Mozambique.

The ICZ is integrated by roads accessing all the tourism nodes (recall Figure 3.3), though the quality of these roads is poor and restrictive concerning the type of vehicle that can be used by visitors. These roads link the zone not only to the main road (EN1) but also with the airport which is one of the entry points for visitors. An access still not well explored is access via water. But this is changing as the number of cruise ships stopping over in Barra is growing slowly and its contribution in the Barra tourism node is significant where the number of visitors increased more than four-fold from 2004 to 2008. These arrivals contribute to the local economy when cruise passengers spend money in Barra. In the ICZ, the government's main form of intervention in the tourism sector is restricted to public investment in destination

infrastructure (roads and electricity) and this has been minimal to date. The airport is playing an important role in tourist arrivals since its reopening to national and international flights, especially since 2005. Only Maputo and South Africa are connected by direct and regular flights to Inhambane town.

SNV (2007) found that transport is one of the services required by the tourist establishments, therefore most (62%) provide transport for their visitors while 38% of them outsource it to service providers. Moreover, 48% of the tourist establishment representatives reported that their establishments provide transport for tourists travelling by air transport, while 52% do not. Usually, according to the tourist establishment representatives, transport services are provided for visitors coming by aeroplane, taking them from and to the airport. This situation illustrates the importance of transport in the tourism industry in the ICZ and also the links between air and land transport networks acknowledged by Crouch & Ritchie (1999) and Khadaroo & Seetanah (2007) as indicators of efficiency in transport linkages.

Compounding the poor quality and restrictive nature of roads in the ICZ are the unsatisfactory transport services provided for visitors. Most of the roads linking tourism nodes require 4x4-vehicles to visit a particular establishment and the tracks are mostly very sandy and often slippery after rain, making it difficult to access some areas using an ordinary motor car. Although the quality of the transport infrastructure in general and the roads in particular is not satisfactory, the important point is that the transport infrastructure of the ICZ has been contributing positively to tourist numbers, particularly those from South Africa.

Transport links between tourism nodes have been multiplying since tourism restarted in 1993. This corresponds to phase two of the Miossec model. Excursion circuits characterizing the third phase of destination development are being added to the road networks, particularly between Tofo and Barra where tourists use vehicles and quad bikes to visit one node or another. Using water access, local boat itineraries from Tofo to Barra or to other places are common in the zone. Clearly, the zone is becoming increasingly integrated regarding its transport networks. It is reasonable to place the ICZ in the second phase of Miossec's model according to transport networks. However, the complexity of destination growth cannot be adequately described by a single feature, therefore the next subsection discusses the development of the tourism nodes.

### 5.1.2 Development of the tourism nodes and resorts in the ICZ

The evolution of resorts in a destination zone is a second feature examined in the Miossec model. The evolution of tourism nodes in the ICZ is set out and changes that occurred in the destination after 1992 are distinguished to place the ICZ in the appropriate current phase of tourism development according to Miossec's model.

The six tourism nodes (Barra, Tofo, Coconuts, Jangamo, Paindane, Ligogo) identified in the ICZ are considered as tourist destinations. In the following analysis of tourism nodes in the ICZ each node is examined to detect additions and alterations which have influenced the stage changes in the life cycle of each tourism node. This involves using some findings of Chapter 3 to test Butler's (1980) life cycle model.

The Butler (1980) model, (presented in Chapter 1), suggests that tourism development in a destination goes through stages of exploration, involvement, development, consolidation, stagnation, and decline or rejuvenation. The model explores a variety of destination elements such as the number and type of visitors, seasonality patterns, nature of attractions, tourism superstructure, tourism impacts, carrying capacity, and other elements. Agarwal (1997) and Hovinen (2002) claim that an inherent difficulty in applying a life cycle model is the lack of accurate trend data for many destinations. This is the unfortunate situation in the case of the ICZ where a dearth of statistics complicates the task of determining the evolution of tourism development in tourism nodes.

The development path of tourism nodes and resorts in the ICZ can be conveniently synthesized using Butler's life cycle model. An examination of various indicators regarding destination infrastructure and superstructure provides evidence of significant changes in the tourism nodes regarding their tourist functions in the period 1992 to 2008. More specifically, accommodation facilities at the destinations are considered to be an essential attribute in destination evolution (Johnston 2001; Prideaux 2004). In Chapter 3, clear evidence was presented of accommodation establishments given in number in the ICZ between 1993 and 2008 and provided nearly 3200 beds by 2008. Lodges offer 90% of the beds available in 546 chalets while other beds are distributed among other types of accommodation.

The determination of the current stage of each tourism node in its destination life cycle is a complex exercise. Oppermann (1998), Johnston (2001), Prideaux (2004) and Lepp (2007) have all recognized this complexity. Prideaux (2004: 28) said that "Approaches of this type require a multi-dimensional interpretation of data and trends." Johnston (2001) identified

three points requiring careful examination (the nature of the destination entity, the type of destination, and the spatial scale) to identify stages in tourist area evolution. However, a criticism of the Butler model is the unclearly defined critical changes marking the end of one stage and the beginning of another, leading to guess-work when applying the model to a particular destination (Agarwal 1997; Bennett & Schoeman 2005).

By taking into account the destination infrastructure (roads, power supply and water supply), the tourist superstructure (accommodation facilities, catering facilities and services), the numbers of tourist arrivals, and the dynamics of tourism in each tourism node, it was found that Barra and Tofo are moving from the involvement stage to the development stage, while Jangamo is still in the involvement stage. Coconuts, Paindane, and Ligogo are clearly in the exploration stage of the destination life cycle. Table 5.1 displays the modelled stages of tourism development in the six tourism nodes.

It is not surprising that each node seems to be at a different stage. Weaver (2000) suggests that different (geographical) parts of the destination can be at different stages of the resort life cycle. For instance, in the development stage, the number of tourists at peak periods far outweighs the size of the resident population, inducing rising antagonism by the latter toward the former. This situation supports Miossec's model, particularly because in stage two multiplication of resorts is observed in the ICZ, paralleled by an expanding transport network.

As visitor numbers appear to be increasing in Tofo, Jangamo and Barra, the local provision of accommodation and entertainment facilities and the improvement of the transport network in these tourism nodes are evident. These improvements are attracting more visitors, suggesting a position in the involvement stage in the life cycle. All the tourism nodes, except Tofo, are experiencing peace and quiet with minimal entertainment activities at night, this being one of the characteristics of the initial stages (exploration and involvement) in the life cycle where most of tourists are attracted by natural features (Johnston 2001). Moreover, the natural environment of all the nodes is still almost pristine with slight negative impacts by tourism (Fiege *et al.* 2002; Muchanga 2007). The evolution of the nodes in the ICZ has been a function of many factors and role players, namely tourists, government, entrepreneurs, tour operators and host people. Furthermore, the interaction between local residents and the developing tourism industry in the ICZ tends to influence the residents' attitudes toward further development of tourism. To continue applying the Miossec model as framework for analysing the development process of the ICZ as a tourist destination, the next subsection discusses the nature of tourist behaviour in tourism development in the study area.

Table 5.1 Development stage of each tourism node in the ICZ according to Butler's life cycle model

Tourism node	Characteristics	Stage
Ligogo	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Few adventurous tourists, visiting sites with no public facilities</li> <li>• Visitors drawn by natural attractions (beach, coral reef, marine resources and natural environment)</li> <li>• Tourism industry providing basic services (accommodation)</li> <li>• Very limited interaction between local residents and tourism (very limited employment and business opportunities)</li> <li>• Very little marketing and seasonal variation in tourist arrivals</li> <li>• Roads traversable only by 4x4-vehicles</li> </ul>	Exploration
Coconuts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Few adventurous tourists, visiting sites with no public facilities</li> <li>• Visitors drawn by natural attractions (beach, coral reef, marine resources and natural environment)</li> <li>• Tourism industry providing basic services (accommodation and restaurant) and very limited recreational facilities</li> <li>• Very limited interaction between local residents and tourism (very limited employment and business opportunities)</li> <li>• Very little marketing and seasonal variation in tourist arrivals</li> <li>• Roads traversable by ordinary motor car but slippery after rain</li> </ul>	Exploration
Paindane	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Number of tourist arrivals is growing; visit sites with no public facilities</li> <li>• Visitors drawn by natural attractions (beach, coral reef, marine resources and natural environment)</li> <li>• Tourism industry providing basic services (accommodation and restaurant) and very limited recreational facilities</li> <li>• Very limited interaction between local residents and tourism (very limited employment and business opportunities)</li> <li>• Little marketing and seasonal variation in tourist arrivals</li> <li>• Roads traversable only by 4x4-vehicles, road sandy and slippery after rain</li> </ul>	Exploration
Jangamo	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Number of tourist arrivals is growing; visit sites with few public facilities</li> <li>• Visitors drawn by natural attractions (beach, coral reef, marine resources and natural environment)</li> <li>• Tourism industry providing basic services (accommodation and restaurant) and limited recreational facilities</li> <li>• Very limited interaction between local residents and tourism (limited employment and business opportunities)</li> <li>• Increasing marketing and seasonal variation in tourist arrivals</li> <li>• Roads traversable only by 4x4-vehicles, road sandy and slippery after rain</li> </ul>	Involvement
Barra	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Number of tourist arrivals is growing; visit sites with limited public facilities</li> <li>• Visitors drawn by natural attractions (beach, coral reef, marine resources and natural environment)</li> <li>• Additional tourism facilities (accommodation and restaurant) and also recreational facilities provided</li> <li>• Limited interaction between local residents and tourism (limited employment and business opportunities)</li> <li>• Destination established and increased marketing efforts</li> <li>• At peak season the number of tourists is even bigger overcrowding some facilities (e.g. restaurants)</li> <li>• Roads traversable by ordinary motor car but slippery after rain; limited public transport</li> </ul>	Involvement/ Development

Continued overleaf

Table 5.1 continued

Tofo	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Number of tourist arrivals is growing; visit sites with limited public facilities</li> <li>• Visitors drawn by natural attractions (beach, coral reef, marine resources and natural environment)</li> <li>• Additional tourism facilities (accommodation and restaurant) and increased recreational facilities provided</li> <li>• More interaction between local residents and tourism (limited employment and business opportunities)</li> <li>• Destination established, increased marketing and market area begins to emerge</li> <li>• At peak season the number of tourists is even bigger overcrowding some facilities (e.g. restaurants)</li> <li>• Roads traversable by ordinary motor car, including regular public transport</li> <li>• Environmental and social impacts of tourism perceived</li> </ul>	Involvement/ Development
------	--	-----------------------------

### 5.1.3 Tourist behaviour and tourism development in the ICZ

Tourist behaviour is the third element examined by Miossec's model. According to the model the behaviour of tourists follows a pattern of change as the destination develops. Johnston (2001) advances two ways that tourists can be further analysed, i.e. on the basis of their numbers or by the different types into which they can be categorized. In this subsection tourist behaviour in the ICZ is examined to identify changes in the type and volume of tourist arrivals in the zone between 1992 and 2008 so as to place the ICZ in the appropriate phase of tourism development. Regrettably, due to the unavailability of complete and reliable statistics about tourist arrivals in the ICZ, this subsection relies on secondary information and the discussion is limited to an overview of the current situation as presented in Chapter 3.

Tourist arrivals in Inhambane province increased during the 1992-2008 period as discussed earlier. Because most of the accommodation facilities in Inhambane province are concentrated in the ICZ, a considerable degree of similarity in the evolution of tourist arrivals in the ICZ and the whole province can be expected. Furthermore, domestic and international arrivals at Inhambane airport have almost doubled from 2005 to 2007, but unfortunately the records make no distinction between business and leisure tourists.

Tourist arrivals in the ICZ are affected by seasonality with visitor arrivals rising in June and July and again in November to January. Some accommodation establishments experience smaller seasonal variations in visitor numbers than other establishments but the majority (96%) of establishment representatives reported that their businesses are affected by the seasonality of tourist arrivals in the ICZ. This confirms the universal occurrence of seasonality as a major problem for the tourism industry (Parrilla, Font & Nadal 2007). Destinations relying predominantly on outdoor facilities and attractions as in coastal resorts

are most likely to experience the influences of natural seasonality because their tourist activities are strongly weather dependent (Lewis & Bischoff 2005).

The type of tourist depends on the type of tourism product within a destination (Cooper *et al.* 2008). The ICZ attracts tourists through its natural resources such as tropical beaches, coral reefs, natural vegetation, and marine resources. Nhantumbo (2007) found that most tourists who visited Inhambane were motivated by the prospect of enjoying the natural environment and their main purpose for visiting Inhambane was for leisure and adventure including water sports and diving. His study also found that about one third of the tourists who participated in the survey were second- or third-time visitors. Wang (2004) argues that repeat visitation is an important phenomenon in tourism because repeat visitors account for more than half of the total tourist arrivals in many places. Tourists visiting the ICZ are clearly different from those whose main purpose is to experience different places, people and cultures. Consequently, the formers' level of interaction with local people in the ICZ is not high.

Regarding the origin of tourists, Fiege *et al.* (2002), FIAS (2006a), Nhantumbo (2007) and Portal do Governo de Moçambique (PGM) (2008) all found that most of international visitor arrivals in Mozambique, particularly in the ICZ, are from South Africa. The ICZ is well known as a tourist destination and receives tourists from Europe, North America, Asia, Australia and Africa, particularly from southern Africa (Nhantumbo 2007). This global reputation of the ICZ among tourists characterizes phase one of Miossec's model. Tourists are being made increasingly more aware of what the ICZ offers them thanks to marketing by the local tourism establishments and positive word-of-mouth reports. This marks progress in perception by tourists distinctive of phase two of the model. Accordingly, the residents' attitudes toward tourism development will in part be influenced by tourist behaviour in a destination (Fredline & Faulkner 2000; Lepp 2007). The next subsection discusses the next element examined in Miossec's model, the reactions of the host population toward tourism development in a destination.

#### **5.1.4 Local community reactions to tourism development in the ICZ**

The attitude of people living in a destination and those of decision makers is the fourth element of Miossec's model. Attitudes toward tourism change positively and negatively in keeping with the pattern of change as development takes place in a destination. The residents' reactions toward tourism development in the ICZ are reviewed below to identify changes in attitudes in the zone between 1992 and 2008 and to place the ICZ in the appropriate phase of Miossec's tourism development model. Doxey's irritation index (Irridex) is also used as a tool

to incorporate the results presented in Chapter 4 about community reaction to tourism in the Miossec model.

Findings reported earlier indicate a slight change in reactions toward tourism in the ICZ since its restart in 1993 in all the tourism nodes except Ligogo where the first tourists only arrived in 2004. At that time, local residents welcomed the visitors and investors in the expectation and hope that tourism development would create job opportunities and improve the quality of their lives. This euphoria is the first stage of Irridex which is characterized by an acceptance of visitors while there is little evidence of planned tourism development. In fact, euphoria is associated with the initial stages of tourism development in a destination (Butler 1980) and features in phase one of the Miossec model.

The seven coastal communities in the ICZ (Ligogo, Painsane, Guinjata, Massavana, Gumula, Conguiana and Josina Machel) are located in rural areas where subsistence agriculture and fishing are the primary livelihood activities and opportunities for income generation are very scarce and limited. Consequently, employment opportunities in the developing tourism sector have significant value in these communities. Results presented earlier showed that despite the evident differences in perceptions among the residents of particular items about positive aspects of tourism in the ICZ, the economic aspects (although small) appear to be important to all communities.

In general, residents responded positively to the notion that tourism had created greater employment and business opportunities in the zone but in Ligogo, Painsane and Guinjata some disagreement was evident. Most of the respondents also felt that tourism development increased their cost of living except in Ligogo, Painsane, Gumula and Guinjata where some residents felt this was not so. Further, residents perceive the prices of basic products to have increased as a result of tourism. However, some residents claimed that this rise in prices is related to the cost of living in general and not to tourism. Likewise, most respondents in four communities (Massavana, Gumula, Conguiana and Josina Machel) perceive that tourism development results in an increase in the price of basic commercial products. It was noted that in four communities (Conguiana, Josina Machel, Massavana, and Guinjata), where the tourism nodes are in the involvement stage of the destination life cycle, respondents were more influenced by the economic aspects of tourism than in Gumula, Painsane and Ligogo where tourism is still in the exploration stage. Lawson *et al.* (1998) and Lepp (2007) have found that economic impacts of tourism affect host attitudes and Amuquandoh & Dei (2007)



earlier linked this observation to the fact that the majority of residents of most destinations see tourism as an economic tool to improve their quality of life.

As a catalyst for development in a destination, tourism is frequently promoted with the purpose of economic and social betterment. However, it is the bad socio-cultural impacts of tourism that attract the most attention in destinations (Telfer & Sharpley 2008). Residents' reaction toward tourism development in the ICZ is not currently being influenced by the socio-cultural impacts of tourism. Most residents in five of the ICZ's communities perceive tourism as the cause of an increase in the number of local residents through immigration and of rising incidences of crime. But in tourism nodes where tourism is still in the exploration stage (Ligogo, Paindane and Gumula) this was not reported by most focus group discussants. Furthermore, in all communities discussants did not feel that native people are being exploited by tourism. Most respondents in Paindane, Guinjata, Massavana and Josina Machel agreed that tourism has led to land conflicts in their communities, but in Ligogo, Gumula and Conguiana most respondents were not of that opinion. These mixed reactions can be associated with the slow development of tourism in the first stages of the life cycle (Agarwal 1997) as observed in the ICZ's tourism nodes.

Regarding environmental impacts of tourism in the ICZ, focus group discussants were not clearly aware of the way tourism impacts marine resources nor the actions implemented to preserve the resources. However, with a growing awareness among the local residents about the environmental problems that tourism may create, particularly in Tofo, Barra and Jangamo, the local population seem to be wary of two adverse environmental impacts of tourism, namely the degradation of beaches and the perception that tourism is destroying natural vegetation and coastal dunes. Snaith & Haley (1999) found that in the absence of wider research and communication, the residents are likely to remain variously informed and they will perhaps misunderstand the actual impacts. Butler (2006) suggests that environmental precautions be taken as the destination evolves because numbers of visitors alone can have significant damaging effects on the physical environment of a destination.

Farahani & Musa (2008) posit that residents tend to support tourism when they perceive themselves as being able to influence decisions and outcomes related to tourism development. In the ICZ the local perceptions about residents' participation in tourism decision making vary from one community to another. Local residents are displeased with their limited involvement in tourism decisions and, unsurprisingly, they agree that tourism should be planned and managed by the government but with their involvement. Local community participation in

tourism development is the key to avoiding undesirable conflicts between the various tourism development actors (Pearce & Butler 1999). Disagreements, like those reported in Ligogo, Paindane and Josina Machel, between local residents and tourism facility providers can result in resident protests against the tourism industry (Kousis 2000). Protests might become a more salient issue once residents have experienced exclusion from decision making (Lepp 2007) or when tourism development managers are faced with specific problems resulting from the exclusion of local residents in the decision-making process.

This study also uncovered differences in residents' perceptions among the selected communities regarding their attitudes toward tourist behaviour. In the ICZ there is a clear separation between residential areas and the areas of tourism activity concentration in all tourism nodes. Apparently, in the communities whose tourism nodes receive large numbers of visitors (Josina Machel, Guinjata, Paindane), residents experience tourist behaviour unfavourably compared to the more positive reactions in communities where numbers of tourists are still small (Ligogo, Gumula, Massavana). This is not the case in the Conguiana community whose tourism node (Barra) is one that receives large numbers of tourists. This is not concordant with Jackson & Inbakaran's (2006) observation that when residents have frequent contact in their daily lives with tourists, they are likely to report antipathetic attitudes. Furthermore, Butler (1980) suggests limited interaction between local residents and tourists in the first stages of the destination life cycle. This prevails in those tourism nodes in the ICZ positioned in the exploration or involvement stages. The local residents of these nodes seem to be undecided or have an unaffected positive impression of tourists.

Local residents in the ICZ seem to support tourism as a catalyst to local infrastructure and service improvement. In four communities (Conguiana, Josina Machel, Guinjata and Massavana) most discussants reported that the quality of public services in their communities improved due to tourism, while in Ligogo, Paindane and Gumula most residents were reserved about confirming any improvement. The same finding was made regarding the role of tourism in improving the local infrastructure. However, in Josina Machel where the oldest tourism node (Tofo) is located, discussants did not associate improvements in infrastructure with tourism development. To some extent, the observed trend in the ICZ is not surprising because the issue relates to the provision of basic infrastructure and services as the destination evolves through the first stages of tourism development (Butler 1980) and the increase of transport links between tourism nodes (Miossec 1976).

Over the 15 years until 2008 residents in the seven communities have slowly come to believe that tourism does provide benefits in the form of job opportunities, income addition, quality of local infrastructure, and business opportunities. Accordingly, local residents tend to support the future development of tourism in the ICZ. Even though tourism development in the zone's six tourism nodes is at different stages of the destination life cycle, and although their residents showed differences in their perceptions of the economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts of tourism, in all the communities residents support the future development of the tourism industry. It was noted that the communities of Ligogo, Paindana Massavana and Gumula, where tourism is still in the first stage of the life cycle, have the greatest expectations and hope that tourism will benefit them in the future. This suggests that in the ICZ, it is not only the actual benefits that justify the local residents' attitude toward tourism but also their expectations about future benefits. This phenomenon is recorded in tourism literature suggesting that locals will most likely support tourism development if they believe that they will no doubt gain benefits without incurring unacceptable costs (Gursoy & Rutherford 2004; Amuquandoh & Dei 2007).

According to Doxey's (1975) irritation index, the relationship between tourism growth and community reaction changes over time and is characterized by four phases, namely euphoria, apathy, annoyance and antagonism, as a destination evolves in its life cycle. In the context of Doxey's (1975) irritation index, residents of the ICZ might best be placed between the stages of euphoria and apathy of tourism development according to the symptoms identified in Table 5.2. However, because of differences between communities regarding their residents' reaction to tourism development, three communities (Gumula, Paindane and Ligogo) were placed in the first stage (euphoria), Conguiana and Josina Machel were assigned to the second stage (apathy) and Massavana and Guinjata presented symptoms indicating transition from euphoria to apathy.

Finally, although local residents support tourism development in the ICZ it is notable that they recognize the need for planning tourism development at the local level. Also, they place a high value on the creation of employment opportunities. All this announces the arrival of phase two of Miossec's model where the servicing of resorts is seen as the major benefit to local residents. But the situation obtaining in Gumula, Paindane and Ligogo, where local residents tend to observe tourism development as lacking in initiatives to participate in the tourism sector, corresponds to phase one in the Miossec model.

Table 5.2 Modelled stages of local community reactions to tourism development based on Doxey's irritation index

Community	Symptoms	Stage
Ligogo (Ligogo*)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Locals welcome visitors positively and visitors are few in number</li> <li>Destination is still undeveloped; minimal accommodation, restaurant and recreational facilities</li> <li>Very little environmental and socio-cultural impacts</li> <li>Locals welcome tourism industry with very few job and business opportunities</li> <li>Very few improvements in local basic infrastructure due to tourism</li> </ul>	Euphoria
Gumula (Coconuts*)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Locals welcome visitors positively and visitors are few in number</li> <li>Destination is still undeveloped; minimal accommodation, restaurant and recreational facilities</li> <li>Very little environmental and socio-cultural impacts</li> <li>Locals welcome tourism industry; very few job and business opportunities</li> <li>Very few improvements in local basic infrastructure due to tourism</li> </ul>	Euphoria
Paindane (Paindane*)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Locals welcome visitors positively and visitors are few in number</li> <li>Destination is still undeveloped; minimal accommodation, restaurant and recreational facilities</li> <li>Little environmental and socio-cultural impacts</li> <li>Locals welcome tourism industry; very few job and business opportunities</li> <li>Very few improvements in local basic infrastructure due to tourism</li> </ul>	Euphoria
Massavana & Guinjata (Jangamo*)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Numbers of visitors increase as they are increasingly taken for granted by locals</li> <li>Destination increasingly develops accommodation, restaurant and recreational facilities</li> <li>The need for planning new appropriate businesses is recognized</li> <li>Little environmental and socio-cultural impacts</li> <li>Locals welcome tourism industry; limited job and business opportunities</li> <li>Limited improvements in local basic infrastructure due to tourism</li> </ul>	Euphoria /Apathy
Conguiana (Barra*)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Numbers of visitors grow as they are increasingly taken for granted by locals</li> <li>Destination develops accommodation, restaurant and recreational facilities</li> <li>The need for planning new appropriate businesses is recognized</li> <li>Noted socio-cultural impacts and little environmental impacts</li> <li>Locals welcome tourism industry; limited job and business opportunities</li> <li>Limited improvements in local basic infrastructure due to tourism</li> </ul>	Apathy
Josina Machel (Tofo*)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Numbers of visitors grow as they are increasingly taken for granted by locals</li> <li>Destination develops accommodation, restaurant and recreational facilities</li> <li>The need for planning new appropriate businesses is recognized</li> <li>Noted environmental and socio-cultural impacts</li> <li>Locals welcome tourism industry; limited job and business opportunities</li> <li>Limited improvements in local basic infrastructure due to tourism</li> </ul>	Apathy

\*(Corresponding tourism node)

The aim in this chapter is to analyse the development process of the ICZ as a tourist destination from 1992 to 2008 by applying the Miossec model. The following section proceeds in this objective by identifying the current phase of tourism development in the ICZ as a tourist destination.

## 5.2 CLASSIFYING THE ICZ AS A TOURIST DESTINATION

The main purpose of Miossec's model is to depict the structural/spatial evolution of tourist regions through time and space by looking at the evolution of resorts, transport, routes, tourists and hosts (Pearce 1989). These elements of tourist destinations were examined and the phases of development recognized are summarized in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3 Tourism development phases of the ICZ according to the Miossec model

Transport networks	Tourism nodes	Tourist behaviour	Residents' reactions	Phase
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Roads traversable only by 4x4-vehicles, roads are sandy and slippery after rain for Jangamo, Paindane and Ligogo</li> <li>• Roads traversable by ordinary motor car but slippery after rain for Barra and Coconuts</li> <li>• Roads traversable by ordinary motor car including regular public transport for Tofo</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Offering natural attractions (beach, coral reef, marine resources and natural environment)</li> <li>• Tourism industry providing basic services (accommodation and restaurant) and very limited recreational facilities in Ligogo, Paindane and Coconuts</li> <li>• Additional tourism and recreational facilities in Tofo, Barra and Jangamo</li> <li>• Very little marketing; seasonal variation in tourist arrivals in Ligogo, Paindane and Coconuts</li> <li>• Destination established, increased marketing in Tofo, Barra and Jangamo</li> <li>• Limited improvements in local basic infrastructure</li> <li>• The need for planning new opportunities while tourism causes noted socio-cultural but little environmental impacts</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Few adventurous tourists, visiting sites with no public facilities in Ligogo, Paindane and Coconuts</li> <li>• Increased tourist arrivals, visiting sites with limited public facilities</li> <li>• Visitors drawn by natural attractions</li> <li>• Seasonal variation in tourist arrivals</li> <li>• At peak season the number of tourists tends to be greater than the local residents in Tofo and Barra</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Locals welcome visitors positively</li> <li>• Locals welcome tourism industry with limited job and business opportunities</li> <li>• Very limited interaction between local residents and tourism in Ligogo, Paindane and Coconuts</li> <li>• Increased interaction between local residents and tourism in Tofo, Barra and Jangamo</li> <li>• The need for planning new opportunities (tourism facilities) is recognized</li> </ul>	One/Two
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Increase of transport links between tourism nodes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Multiplication of tourist establishments and tourism nodes</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Global awareness of the ICZ and progress in perception of tourism nodes and itineraries</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Observation and participation in tourism industry;</li> <li>• working in tourist establishments and business initiatives</li> </ul>	

The examination of the various model elements in the previous section revealed that the tourism nodes are currently in similar or different stages of the tourism life cycle and in some cases the nodes are in transition from one stage to the next. What is remarkable is the multiplication of tourism establishments and tourism nodes in the zone during the period 1992 to 2008 after the establishment of the pioneer tourism node (Tofo). This scenario accords with Miossec's model because phase two of destination development envisages the multiplication

of resorts starting with the complex hierarchical system of resort and transport networks. In fact, the ICZ has seen an increase in the transport links between nodes since tourism restarted in 1993. This corresponds with phase two of the Miossec model. On the other hand, although it was observed that the zone is integrated regarding its transport networks, the quality of infrastructure is still poor and restrictive (exploration and involvement in Butler's model). In addition, the transport services provided for visitors are still not satisfactory. As a destination opens up, visitors have the opportunity to travel to previously inaccessible areas thus increasing the level of contact with local people (Telfer & Sharpley 2008).

Regarding the relationship between tourist behaviour and tourism development in the ICZ, as the transport links between nodes increase, the global perception of the destination by tourists also increases. Aggressive marketing of the resorts and the contribution of positive word-of-mouth promotion by visitors help to make more tourists aware of what the ICZ has to offer. These illustrate the progress in a positive perception of tourism nodes and itineraries by tourists predicted in phase two of Miossec's model. Likewise, there is evidence that the number of tourists visiting the accommodation establishments is increasing and since most tourists visiting the ICZ travel by motor car, land transport and roads have become very important to tourist arrivals. This is not surprising because during the involvement stage of the life cycle model there is an increase in visitor numbers (Butler 1980).

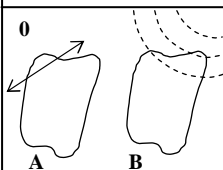
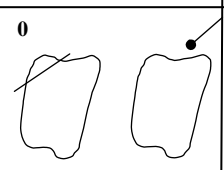
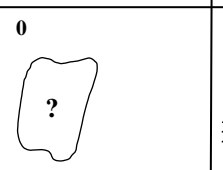
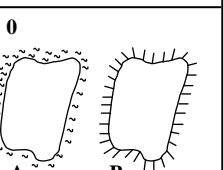
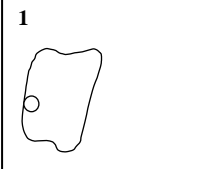
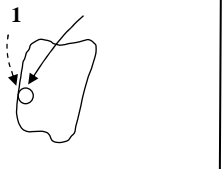
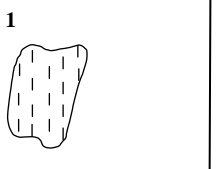
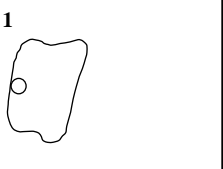
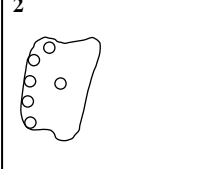
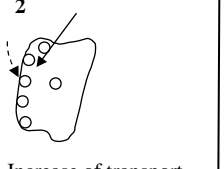
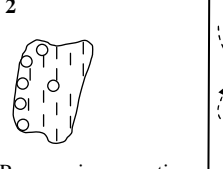
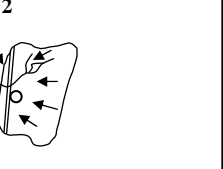
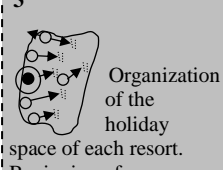
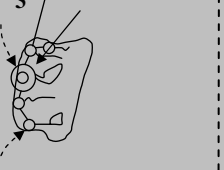

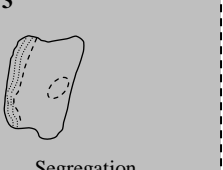
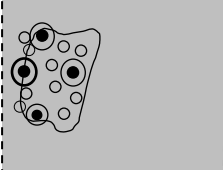
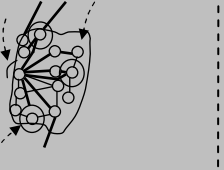
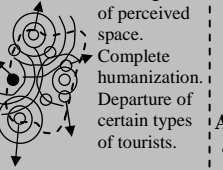
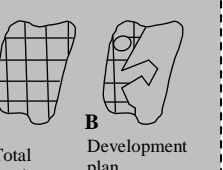
The exploration stage in the life cycle of Tofo, Barra, Jangamo, Coconuts and Paindane started after the end of war in 1992. The growth in the number of visitors since 2003 marked the beginning of the involvement stage in the life cycle in Tofo, Barra and Jangamo and as a result an increase in the provision of accommodation and entertainment facilities and the improvement of the transport network in these tourism nodes is identifiable. In two nodes (Tofo and Barra) the level of interaction between local residents and tourists is rising. In Ligogo, Coconuts and Paindane the presence of tourists engenders interest in business by local residents to reap benefits from tourism. This announces euphoria in Doxey's irritation index. The residents' attitudes toward tourism development in the ICZ will in part be influenced by tourist behaviour (Fredline & Faulkner 2000; Lepp 2007).

Concerning the residents' attitudes toward tourism, Doxey's irritation index shows that residents of the ICZ's communities are in the apathy stage of tourism development while in some communities (Gumula, Paindane, Ligogo) residents are still euphoric, welcoming tourists positively. Though tourism development in the tourism nodes is in different stages of the life cycle and their residents showed different reactions because they have limited job and

business opportunities, in all of the communities local residents support the future development of the tourism industry. They also believe that in the future tourism will benefit them. Moreover, residents recognize the need for planning tourism development and therefore they ask for integration in decision making concerning tourism. Focus group discussants lamented the fact that local residents were only involved in tourism decisions in cases of land negotiations with tourism investors. In addition, Daniel (2008, pers com) and Muatxiwa (2008, pers com) reported that government does have limitations in managing tourism development, particularly in Mozambique where the lack of human and financial resources is a stark reality.

Figure 5.1 gives the Miossec model's depiction of current tourism development of the ICZ. In all the tourism nodes there is recognition of tourism's favourable contribution to employment creation. The 1500 local people (Muatxiwa & Eberherr 2007) employed in the tourism sector is a small number, even in peak seasons when the numbers of seasonal employees increase. This resembles phase two of Miossec's model where the servicing of resorts is seen as the major benefit to local residents. According to the elements examined (resorts, transport, routes, tourists and hosts), tourism development in the ICZ on the whole has not progressed further than phase two in Miossec's model. This means that in all the elements examined none showed characteristics of phase three of the model.

The heterogeneous developmental stages of the tourism nodes in the ICZ, reflected in residents' perceptions about tourism development, means that there are transformations in the four elements discussed in the above section (5.1). However, since transformations that mark the stage transitions in the Miossec model are not clearly defined, one has to conduct a careful examination of the destination's elements. According to Johnston (2001), a single change in a characteristic cannot cause the stage change in the destination life cycle, however, cumulatively they do so over time. Moreover, it must be remembered that definition of the current stage of the destination life cycle is a complex exercise and in the absence of valid statistics it becomes even more demanding.

RESORT	TRANSPORT	TOURIST BEHAVIOUR	ATTITUDES OF DECISION MAKERS AND POPULATION OF RECEIVING REGION
Phase	Phase	Phase	Phase
<p><b>0</b></p>  <p>A B Territory Traversed Distant</p>	<p><b>0</b></p>  <p>Transit Isolation</p>	<p><b>0</b></p>  <p>Lack of interest and knowledge</p>	<p><b>0</b></p>  <p>A B Mirage Refusal</p>
<p><b>1</b></p>  <p>Pioneer resort</p>	<p><b>1</b></p>  <p>Opening up</p>	<p><b>1</b></p>  <p>Global perception</p>	<p><b>1</b></p>  <p>Observation</p>
<p><b>2</b></p>  <p>Multiplication of resorts</p>	<p><b>2</b></p>  <p>Increase of transport links between resorts</p>	<p><b>2</b></p>  <p>Progress in perception of places and itineraries</p>	<p><b>2</b></p>  <p>Infrastructure policy is servicing of resorts</p>
<p><b>3</b></p>  <p>Organization of the holiday space of each resort. Beginning of a hierarchy and specialization.</p>	<p><b>3</b></p>  <p>Excursion circuits</p>	<p><b>3</b></p>  <p>Spatial competition and segregation</p>	<p><b>3</b></p>  <p>Segregation demonstration effects dualism</p>
<p><b>4</b></p>  <p>Hierarchy specialization saturation</p>	<p><b>4</b></p>  <p>Connectivity → maximum</p>	<p><b>4</b></p>  <p>Disintegration of perceived space. Complete humanization. Departure of certain types of tourists. Forms of substitution saturation and crisis</p>	<p><b>4</b></p>  <p>A B Total tourism Development plan Ecological safeguards</p>



 Stages reached    
  Stages not reached

Figure 5.1 Miossec’s model depicting the current tourism development phases of the ICZ

It is not easy to predict the future of tourism development in the ICZ, but the Miossec model makes some suggestions to be considered. Over time, more tourism nodes may open. During fieldwork, it was noted that Rocha, Rook Island and Dongane are potential tourism nodes where initial accommodation establishments were under construction. The transport network will follow the evolution of tourism, connecting tourism nodes as the numbers of tourist arrivals will tend to increase. The employment structures in tourism nodes will increase if



tourism develops into a dominant economic activity, therefore increasing tourism impacts. This will give rise to various reactions by local residents in the future. Tourism planning will be crucial to satisfy all tourism stakeholders and to bring sustainable tourism development to the ICZ. However, as Telfer & Sharpley (2008) caution, it is axiomatic that tourism is a very dynamic industry where the interactions within and between the elements happen simultaneously, and there is not always evidence of a cause-and-effect relationship between interactions in tourism development.

### **5.3 CONCLUDING REMARKS**

The purpose of this chapter was to identify the current stage of tourism development in the ICZ as a tourist destination using the Miossec model as a framework to analyse the evolution of tourism development in the ICZ from 1992 to 2008. The various indicators examined regarding destination infrastructure and tourism superstructure provide evidence of significant changes in the tourism nodes as well as in the seven communities during the period studied.

Parallelism exist in the evolution of the four elements discussed, namely the role of transport networks, the development of the tourism nodes, the tourist behaviour, and the local residents' reactions to tourism development in the ICZ. The tourism nodes are in different stages of the destination life cycle and the local residents living in the seven communities react differently to tourism development. In the context of Doxey's irritation index, the residents of the ICZ may best be placed in the apathy stage of tourism development. The great store put on employment and business opportunities by local residents announces the arrival of phase two of the Miossec model. However, in the context of Butler's life cycle model, the reactions of host people in the ICZ resemble the involvement stage.

Regarding the identification of the current stage of tourism development in the ICZ as a tourist destination, application of the Miossec model revealed that tourist development in the ICZ on the whole has not progressed further than phase two of the model. This means that there are differences between the tourism nodes and also in the evolution of the elements examined. Evidently, the Miossec model is a suitable tool for analysing tourism development in the ICZ but it remains a challenge to identify both the evolutionary stage of the ICZ as a destination and the stage of each tourism node. Consequently, a combination of models seems to be the appropriate strategy for analysing each element in the context of the Miossec model. Further comments regarding the applicability of the models are presented in the concluding chapter.

## CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study aimed to analyse tourism development and the spatial transformation in the ICZ during the period 1992 to 2008. Attempts to integrate two frameworks of tourism analysis have been undertaken in this study. The Miossec model with a focus on the ICZ as tourist destination and the Butler model with a focus on each tourism node have been considered. The findings of this study lead to the following conclusions.

### 6.1 CONCLUSIONS

#### 6.1.1 Tourism development in the ICZ

Sixteen years (1976-1992) of civil war in Mozambique caused the economic collapse and devastation of the infrastructure, as well as the stagnation of the tourism industry, among other consequences. This study focused on resurgence of tourism in the ICZ in the post-war period. The study found that the tourism industry has developed slowly in the 1992-2008 period, with a multiplication of tourism nodes and a concomitant increase of transport linkages between the nodes in the ICZ. Accommodation facilities also proliferated with Barra ranking first in number of accommodation establishments and beds to satisfy the needs of tourists who arrived in growing numbers. However, the quality of the accommodation facilities is still low, which is typical of destinations like the ICZ that are still in the first stages of tourism development in a developing country experiencing slow development.

Although tourism development in the ICZ restarted in 1993, the growth phase from 2003 onward saw a significant increase in tourist arrivals and has experienced considerable changes in terms of infrastructure and tourist superstructure in the ICZ. But the opening up of the zone as a destination remains limited due to the slow development of transport infrastructure, particularly roads that need to be improved to be traversable by an ordinary motor car.

Even though it is a complex task to identify the current stage of tourism development in a destination, the study found that the ICZ is an emergent destination in the involvement stage of Butler's model and phase two of the Miossec model. The most important aspect of challenge in Butler's and Miossec's models to identify the current stage of tourism development in the destination is to know how to implement the models and how to use them to forecast further development. The future of tourism in the zone is promising but, it is imperative that this tourism is planned and managed carefully to satisfy all tourism actors involved in tourism development. Finally, resort development in the ICZ mostly comprises

enclave resorts having minimal links with local communities therefore contributing little to poverty alleviation in the ICZ. Tourism in Mozambique, and particularly in the ICZ, is influenced by a confluence of factors, some acting at local level and others at national or international levels.

### **6.1.2 Local community reaction to tourism development**

An assessment of the reaction of local people to tourism development in the ICZ was one of the study's objectives. The combination of a questionnaire survey, focus group discussions, and Doxey's Irridex seems to be appropriate strategy to assess the host reactions to tourism in the ICZ. Doxey's Irridex remains useful for providing insights about community response as tourism develops.

The study found that residents in the ICZ expressed positive views about tourism development, but positive and negative perceptions seem to be more intense in Josina Machel, Conguiana and Guinjata. In Ligogo, Paindane and Gumula where tourism is not well established, local residents tended to be more negative than positive about tourism.

The reactions of host people toward tourism development were found to vary from one community to another within the ICZ. There are a number of reasons for these differences. First, the economic benefits accruing from tourism, particularly employment opportunities, vary widely; second, the levels of contact between tourists and hosts vary from one tourism node to another; third, the level of resident involvement in tourism decisions is low; and finally, the uneven levels of expectation and hope that in the future tourism will bring benefits to local residents. It is concluded that the tourism industry in the ICZ is welcomed by the local people but they are unsatisfied with the benefits accruing from tourism.

### **6.1.3 Applicability of Butler's and Miossec's models**

The Butler model, used with the Miossec model, appears to be applicable to the ICZ. However, the lack of data made it difficult to test the applicability of models. To overcome this problem a strategy of using a list of characteristics to identify changes in tourism node life cycles was adopted. Although the stage of tourism development was identified for each node, it was not easy to determine the transitions from one stage to another in tourism node life cycles. Despite its limitations, the life cycle model proved to be a useful tool in tourist destination analysis in the ICZ.

The Miossec model is more general in its approach than is Butler's as the model allows the incorporation of other models to examine each element of a tourist destination. For instance, the Butler model was used to examine the development of the tourism nodes in the ICZ as well as to examine tourist behaviour, while Doxey's Irridex was used to assess the local residents' reactions to tourism development in the zone. Although the Miossec model has not received much attention in the literature, it is concluded that the model remains useful for understanding tourism development and spatial transformations in a destination area.

## **6.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

The use of mixed methods and multiple sources in this study increased its complexity and therefore the study has a number of limitations. First, data about trends in the tourism sector are limited and often inconsistent and moreover tourist establishment representatives were often unwilling to share information about tourist arrivals in their establishments. Second, in the focus group discussions the local languages Gitonga, Xitswa and Chopi mixed with Portuguese were used so that the communication had to be translated afterwards into English. This might have altered the quality of information in some cases. Third, the study did not make detailed examination of the transformations accruing in one of the elements directly involved in tourism development – the attitude of local decision makers in the ICZ – as required by the Miossec model. This was due on one hand, to the lack of specific tools to examine this element in the literature and, on the other hand, because of limits on time and funds available.

The influence of demographic factors (age, years of residence in the ICZ, marital status, level of education, and occupation) in the reactions of host people toward tourism development was not considered in the discussion of the results in this study due to the combination of a questionnaire and focus group discussions. However, the general profile of the focus group discussants suggests that the information provided by respondents is reliable.

## **6.3 FURTHER RESEARCH AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

More research in this field would be helpful in planning tourism in Mozambique, particularly in the ICZ given the scarcity of current literature about tourism in this country.

Given the findings about the current stage of tourism development in the ICZ made through an examination of tourism nodes, destination infrastructure, tourist superstructure, tourist behaviour and attitude of host in the ICZ, future research should aim to examine the

sustainability of tourism development in the zone as well as the tourism planning processes at local level.

Regarding local community reactions to tourism, further study about guest-host interaction in particular tourism nodes will probably help explain the influence of variables such as resident proximity to major tourist areas, and the concentration of tourists in a given area.

A multidisciplinary study using different approaches with a focus on the Miossec model should provide insightful results and it can test the applicability of the model in emerging destinations thereby contributing to a better understanding of the tourism phenomenon in destination areas.

Because the ICZ is a tourist destination in the second stage of the Miossec model, it is worthwhile to recommend that more infrastructure has to be developed along with tourist superstructure. It is government's role to develop local infrastructure and ensure an enabling environment for tourism development to increase the attractiveness of the ICZ for domestic and international tourists. This requires appropriate tourism policies and integrated tourism planning in the zone to prepare the destination for the challenges that will rise in further development stages, such as the management of nature based tourist attractions in the ICZ.

As local residents are unhappy about their limited involvement in tourism decisions, it is recommendable that more effort is put into the integration of more local people in tourism decision making, particularly in tourism planning. This can help avoid potential undesirable conflicts between the various tourism actors. In addition, more involvement of local people will increase awareness of tourism and promote more participation in profitable tourism activities at local level.

[Word Count: 39 550]

## REFERENCES

- Agarwal S 1997. The resort cycle and seaside tourism: an assessment of its applicability and validity. *Tourism Management* 18, 2: 65-73.
- Amuquandoh FE & Dei LA 2007. Tourism development preferences among the residents of Lake Bosomtwe Basin, Ghana. *GeoJournal* 70, 173-183.
- Andrioti K 2006. Researching the development gap between the hinterland and the coast – evidence from the island of Crete. *Tourism Management* 29: 629–639.
- ANE (National Roads Administration) 2006. *Roads Strategy 2007-2011* [online]. Available from: <http://www.ane.gov.mz/articles.php?lng=pt&pg=117> [Accessed 10 April 2009].
- ANE (National Roads Administration) 2008. *Welcome to ANE-Mozambique*. [online]. Available from: <http://www.ane.gov.mz/> [Accessed 10 April 2009].
- Bennett A J (ed) 1995. *Managing tourism services: A southern African perspective*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Bennett JA & Schoeman L 2005. The tourism system and major role-players involved. In Bennett A, Jooste C & Stydom L (eds). *Managing Tourism Services: A South African Perspective* 30-62. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Bennett A & Stydom L 2005. What is tourism. In Bennett A, Jooste C & Stydom L (eds). *Managing Tourism Services: A South African Perspective* 1-29. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.
- Berg BL 2007. *Qualitative research methods for the social sciences*. Boston: Pearson Education, Inc.
- Bestard AB & Nadal JR 2007. Modelling environmental attitudes toward tourism. *Tourism Management* 28: 688-695.
- Blanke J & Chiesa T (eds) 2008. *Travel & tourism competitiveness report: Balancing economic development and environmental sustainability*. Geneva, Switzerland: World Economic Forum (WEF).
- Blaut JM 1961. Space and process. *The Professional Geographer* 7, 4: 1-7.

Bless C, Higson-Smith C & Kagee A 2006. *Fundamentals of social research methods: An African perspective*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Cape Town: Juta & Co. Ltd.

Bradshaw M & Stratford E 2000. Qualitative research design and rigour. In Hay I (ed) *Qualitative research methods in human geography*, 37-49. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Butler RW 1980. The concept of a tourism area life cycle of evolution: Implications for management of resources. *The Canadian Geographer* 24, 1: 5-12.

Butler RW 2004. Geographical research on tourism, recreation and leisure: Origins, eras and directions. *Tourism Geographies* 6, 2: 143-162.

Butler RW 2006. The concept of a tourist area cycle of evolution: Implications for management of resources. In Butler RW (ed) *The Tourism Area Life Cycle, Vol. 1: Applications and Modifications*, 3-12. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

Cabo F 2007. *A definição dos pontos de entrada do tráfego aéreo internacional no âmbito da actividade turística em Moçambique: O caso específico do Município de Inhambane. Relatório de Estágio Final*. Inhambane: (Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo de Inhambane)Universidade Eduardo Mondlane.

Cameron J 2000. Focussing on the focus group. In Hay I (ed) *Qualitative Research Methods in Human Geography*, 83-102. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.

Carlson J 2003. A systemic approach to tourism development in island states. In Ghosh RN, Siddique MAB & Gabbay R (eds) *Tourism and economic development: Case studies from The Indian Ocean Region*, 94-103. Perth: The University of Western Australia, Business School.

CIA (Central Intelligence Agency) 2008. *The World Factbook* [online]. Available from: <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/> [Accessed 30 April 2009].

Cicin-Sain B & Knecht RW 1998. *Integrated coastal and ocean management: Concepts and experiences*. Washington, DC: Island Press.

Cooper C, Fletcher J, Fyall A, Gilbert D & Wanhill S 2008. *Tourism: Principles and practice*. 4<sup>rd</sup> ed. Edinburgh: Pearson Education Limited.

Crouch GI & Ritchie JRB 1999. Tourism, competitiveness, and societal prosperity. *Journal of Business Research* 44, 3: 137-152.

Daamen M, Groenendijk S, M'gbra A & Icons S 2008. *Telecentres in Mozambique: Staying Online*. Maputo: CTA.

Decreto no 18/2007 de 7 de Agosto

Decrop A 1999. Triangulation in qualitative tourism research. *Tourism Management* 20, 157-161.

Denscombe M 2007. *The Good research guide: For small-scale social research projects*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. London: Open University Press.

Dickinson JE & Robbins D 2008. Representations of tourism transport problems in a rural destination. *Tourism Management* 29, 1110–1121.

Direcção Nacional do Turismo 2008. *Estabelecimentos Turísticos em 2008*. Maputo: Ministério do Turismo.

Douglas N & Douglas N 2004. Cruise ship passenger spending patterns in pacific island ports. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 6, 251-261.

Doxey GV 1975. A causation theory of visitor-resident irritants, methodology and research inferences. In *Conference proceedings: Sixth annual conference of Travel Research Association*. 195-198. San Diego.

Eberherr T 2006. Indicators in the tourism sector: Inhambane and Jangamo. Presentation delivered at the Annual Meeting of Inhambane Provincial Directorate of Tourism. Inhambane Municipality.

EDM (Electricidade de Moçambique) 2006. *Characterization of the national transmission network* [online]. Available from: <http://www.edm.co.mz/institucional/relatorios.php> [Accessed 30 September 2008].

ESCAP (Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific) 2001. *Promotion of investment in tourism infrastructure* [online]. Available from: [http://www.unescap.org/TTDW/Publications/TPTS\\_pubs/pub\\_2133\\_tor.pdf](http://www.unescap.org/TTDW/Publications/TPTS_pubs/pub_2133_tor.pdf) [Accessed 30 June 2009].



Eshghi K & Larson RC 2008. Disasters: lessons from the past 105 years. *Disaster Prevention and Management* 17, 1: 62-82.

Farahani HZ & Musa G 2008. Residents' attitudes and perception towards tourism development: A case study of Masooleh, Iran. *Tourism Management* 29: 1233-1236.

Ferreira SLA & Hanekom F 1995. Tourism and the local economy of Warmbaths, Northern Transvaal. *Development Southern Africa* 12, 2: 249-257.

FIAS (Foreign Investment Advisory Service) 2006a. *The tourism sector in Mozambique: A value chain analysis*. vol. 1 [online]. Available from: [http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/fias.nsf/Content/FIAS\\_Resources\\_Country\\_Reports](http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/fias.nsf/Content/FIAS_Resources_Country_Reports) [Accessed 8 September 2008].

FIAS (Foreign Investment Advisory Service) 2006b *The tourism sector in Mozambique: A value chain analysis*. vol. 2 [online]. Available from: [http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/fias.nsf/Content/FIAS\\_Resources\\_Country\\_Reports](http://www.ifc.org/ifcext/fias.nsf/Content/FIAS_Resources_Country_Reports) [Accessed 8 September 2008].

Fiege K, Bothe C, Breitenbach F, Kienast G, Meister S and Steup E 2002. *Gestão de zonas costeiras e turismo: Contribuições para redução da pobreza, transformação de conflitos e protecção de meio ambiente em Inhambane/Moçambique*. Berlin: Humboldt University of Berlin, SLE.

Food Every Country 2007. *Food in Mozambique* [online]. Available from: <http://www.foodbycountry.com/Kazakhstan-to-South-Africa/Mozambique.html> [Accessed 8 September 2008].

Fox L, Bardasi E & Van den Broeck K 2005. *Poverty in Mozambique: Unravelling changes and determinants* [online]. Available from: [www.worldbank.org/afr/wps/wp87.htm](http://www.worldbank.org/afr/wps/wp87.htm) [Accessed 8 February 2009].

Fredline E & Faulkner B 2000. Host community reactions: A cluster analysis. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27, 3: 763-784.

Freeman C 2004. Sustainable development from rhetoric to practice?: A New Zealand perspective. *International Planning Studies* 9, 4: 307-326.

- Fritsch A & Johannsen K 2002. *Ecotourism in Appalachia: Marketing the mountains*. Lexington, KY: University Press of Kentucky.
- Games D 2007. *Mozambique: the business view*. (Occasional paper number 4). Johannesburg: Business Leadership South Africa [online]. Available from: [www.businessleadership.org.za](http://www.businessleadership.org.za). [Accessed 1 December 2008].
- George R 2003. Tourist's perceptions of safety and security while visiting Cape Town. *Tourism Management* 22: 575-585.
- Gibson PJ 2000. *Introductory remote sensing: Principles and concepts*. London: Routledge.
- Gibson P & Bentley M 2006. A study of impacts: Cruise tourism and the South-West of England. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing* 20, 3/4: 63-77.
- Giroth F 2008. *Mozambique country report*. (Doc. PwD-08/025-E). Lusaka: International Telecommunication Union Regional Workshop on ICT Accessibility for Persons with Disabilities for the Africa Region.
- Gunn CA & Var T 2002. *Tourism planning: Basics, concepts, cases*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. New York: Routledge.
- Gursoy D & Rutherford DG 2004. Host attitudes toward tourism: An improved structural model. *Annals of Tourism Research* 31, 3: 495-516.
- Haggett P 2001. *Geography: A global synthesis*. Harlow: Pearson Education.
- Haley AJ, Smith T & Miller G 2005. The social impacts of tourism: A case study of Bath, UK. *Annals of Tourism Research* 32, 3: 647-668.
- Hall CM & Page SJ 2006. *The geography of tourism and recreation: Environment, place and space*. 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. London: Routledge.
- Hashimoto A 2002. Tourism and sociocultural development issues. In Sharpley R & Telfer DJ (eds) *Tourism and development: Concepts and issues*, 202-230. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Henderson J 2007. Malaysia's pleasure periphery: Coastal resort development and its consequences. In Agarwal S & Shaw G (eds). *Managing coastal tourism resorts: A global perspective*, 154-183. Chanel View Publications: Clevedon.

Horn C & Simmons D 2002. Community adaptation to tourism: Comparisons between Rotorua and Kaikoura, New Zealand. *Tourism Management* 23, 133-143.

Hovinen GR 2002. Revisiting the destination life cycle model. *Annals of Tourism Research* 29, 1: 209-203.

Howie F 2003. *Managing the tourist destination*. London: Thomson.

INAM (Instituto Nacional de Meteorologia) 2008. *Cidade de Inhambane* [online]. Available from: <http://www.inam.gov.mz/> [Accessed 30 September 2008].

INE (National Statistics Institute) 2007. *Statistical Yearbook, Inhambane*. Maputo: INE

INE (National Statistics Institute) 2008. *Population of Inhambane Province* [online] Available from: <http://www.ine.gov.mz/censo2007/rp/pop07prov/inhambane> [Accessed 18 March 2008].

Israeli Y & Mansfeld Y 2003. Transportation accessibility to and within tourist attractions in the Old City of Jerusalem. *Tourism Geographies* 5, 4: 461-481.

Jackson MS & Inbakaran RJ 2006. Evaluating residents' attitudes and intentions to act towards tourism development in regional Victoria, Australia. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 8: 355-366.

Johnston CS 2001. Shoring the foundations of the destination life cycle model, part 1: Ontological and epistemological considerations. *Tourism Geographies* 3, 1: 2-28.

Jones S & Ibrahim H 2008. *The contribution of tourism in Mozambique: Present and future*. Maputo: Ministry of Planning and Development.

Keyser H 2002. *Tourism development*. Cape Town: Oxford University Press.

Khadaroo J & Seetanah B 2007. Transport infrastructure and tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research* 34, 4: 1021-1032.

Kousis M 2000. Tourism and the environment: A social movements perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research* 27, 2: 468-489.

Law D 2009. *Barra Group Resorts: Initiatives in community development*. Presentation delivered at the II Seminar of sustainable tourism for poverty alleviation. Inhambane Municipality.

Lawson RW, Williams J, Young T & Cossens J 1998. A comparison of residents' attitudes towards tourism in ten New Zealand destinations. *Tourism Management* 19, 3: 247-256.

Lee CC & Chang CP 2008. Tourism development and economic growth: A closer look at panels. *Tourism Management* 29: 180-192.

Lehtolainen M 2004. *Public infrastructure investments and their role in tourism development in the Finnish lake region* [online]. Available from:  
[http://www.matkailu.org/jarvimatkailu/pdf/mika\\_iltcpaper.pdf](http://www.matkailu.org/jarvimatkailu/pdf/mika_iltcpaper.pdf) [Accessed 25 April 2008].

Lei n°3/93 de 24 de Junho.

Leiper N 1979. The framework of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research* 6, 4: 390-407.

Lepp A 2007. Residents' attitudes towards tourism in Bigodi village, Uganda. *Tourism Management* 28: 876-885.

Lewis NK & Bischoff EE 2005. Seasonality research: The state of the art. *International Journal of Tourism Research* 7, 4: 201-219.

Lillesand TM & Keifer RW 2000. *Remote sensing and image interpretation*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Lombard D & Boonzaaier W 2007. *Praia da Rocha tourism development plan*. Johannesburg: Lorton Consulting and Associates.

Marafa LM 2008. *Integrating sustainable tourism development in coastal and marine zone environment* [online]. Available from:  
<http://etudescaribeennes.revues.org/document1373.html> [Accessed 10 August 2008].

Marvasti AB 2004. *Qualitative research in sociology*. London: Sage Publications.

Meyer-Arendt KJ 1993. Geomorphic impacts of resort evolution along the Gulf of Mexico coast: Applicability of resort cycle models. In Wong PP (ed) *Tourism vs environment: The cases for coastal areas*, 125-138. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.

Ministério de Energia 2008. *Programa de electrificação rural: Resumo da população com acesso a energia por província* [online]. Available from:

[http://www.me.gov.mz/pt/project/prog\\_elect\\_rural.html](http://www.me.gov.mz/pt/project/prog_elect_rural.html) [Accessed 30 September 2008].

Miossec JM 1976. Elements pour une theorie de l'espace touristique. *Les Cahiers du Tourisme* C-36. CHET, Aix-en-Provence: Mintel.

Moçambique (Republica de) 2005. *Perfil do distrito de Jangamo: Pruvíncia de Inhambane*. Maputo: Ministério da Administração Estatal.

Moçambique (Republica de) 2009. *Balanço do programa quinquenal do governo 2005 - 2009: Pruvíncia de Inhambane*. Inhambane: Governo da Pruvíncia de Inhambane.

Mubai ME 2006. *Heritage and cultural tourism in Mozambique: A historical assessment. MPhil thesis*. Pretoria: University of Pretoria (Faculty of Humanities).

Muatxiwa M & Eberherr T 2007. Criação de emprego e necessidades de formação pela PME: Um estudo de caso no sector do turístico de Inhambane. In Moçambique (Republica de). *Pequenas e médias eEmpresas em Moçambique: Situação, perspectiva e desafios*, 155-162. Maputo: Ministério da Indústria e Comércio. Direcção Nacional da Indústria.

Muchanga AEA 2007. Informação sobre o marketing turístico de mergulho recreativo da Praia do Tofo: O caso de Mozdivers. Relatório de Estágio Parcelar II. Inhambane: (Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo de Inhambane) Universidade Eduardo Mondlane.

Murphy A, Armstrong K, Firestone M and Fitzpatrick M 2007. *Southern Africa*. 4<sup>th</sup> ed. Lonely Planet [online]. Available from: <http://books.google.co.uk/books?id=Zo1sg8FnF2gC> [Accessed 12 October 2008].

Mynhardt AB 1995. The motivation and decision to travel. In Bennett A J (ed) *Managing tourism services: A southern African perspective*, 69-97. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. Pretoria: Van Schaik Publishers.

Nhantumbo ES 2002. Análise diferencial da ocupação e utilização do espaço suburbano da Beira. Maputo: (Departamento de Geografia) Universidade Eduardo Mondlane.

Nhantumbo ES 2007. *Tendências de desenvolvimento do turismo e alterações na ocupação e utilização do espaço no Município de Inhambane*. Inhambane: (Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo de Inhambane) Universidade Eduardo Mondlane.

- NDPB (National Directorate of Planning and Budget) 2004. *Poverty and well-being in Mozambique: The second national assessment* [online]. Available from: [www.sarpn.org/documents/d0000777/P880-Mozambique\\_032004.pdf](http://www.sarpn.org/documents/d0000777/P880-Mozambique_032004.pdf) [Accessed 2 November 2008].
- Oppermann M 1998. What is new with the resort cycle? *Tourism Management* 19, 2: 179-180.
- Parrilla JC, Font AR & Nadal JR 2007. Accommodation determinants of seasonal patterns. *Annals of Tourism Research* 34, 2: 422-436.
- Pearce DG 1981. *Tourism development*. London: Longman.
- Pearce DG 1989. *Tourist development*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. New York: Longman Scientific & Technical.
- Pearce DG & Butler RW 1999. *Contemporary issues in tourism development*. London: Routledge.
- Pezzoli K 1997. Sustainable development: A transdisciplinary overview of the literature. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management* 40, 5: 549-574.
- PGM (Portal do Governo de Moçambique) 2007. *Acesso a energia sobe para 11% em 2009* [online]. Available from: [https://www.portaldogoverno.gov.mz/noticias/infraestur/dezembro2007/notes\\_in\\_742\\_dez\\_07/newsitem\\_view?month:int=11&year:int=2008](https://www.portaldogoverno.gov.mz/noticias/infraestur/dezembro2007/notes_in_742_dez_07/newsitem_view?month:int=11&year:int=2008) [Accessed 15 March 2009].
- PGM (Portal do Governo de Moçambique) 2008. *Turismo é principal sector de exportação* [online]. Available from: [http://www.portaldogoverno.gov.mz/noticias/fo\\_news\\_turismo/dez08/notes\\_tu\\_480\\_dez\\_08](http://www.portaldogoverno.gov.mz/noticias/fo_news_turismo/dez08/notes_tu_480_dez_08) [Accessed 15 April 2009].
- Pierce SJ & Marshall AD sa. *Threatened marine species and conservation research in Inhambane Province, Mozambique* [online]. Available from: [www.opwall.com/.../Threatened%20marine%20species%20and%20conservation%20in%20Inhambane%20province.pdf](http://www.opwall.com/.../Threatened%20marine%20species%20and%20conservation%20in%20Inhambane%20province.pdf) [Accessed 02 September 2008].
- Pigram JJ 1999. *Infrastructure development for local tourism: Physical aspects* [online]. Available from:

<http://gw.codil.or.kr/filebank/original/RK/OTGWRK060277/OTGWRK060277.pdf>

[Accessed 02 April 2009].

Preston-Whyte R & Oelofse C 2007. The development of South Africa's coastal tourism resorts. In Agarwal S & Shaw G (eds) *Managing coastal tourism resorts: A global perspective*, 187-203. Chanel View Publications: Clevedon.

Prevelakis G s.a. *Jean Gottmann's relevance in today's world*. Paris: Sorbonne University.

Prideaux B 1999. The role of the transport system in destination development. *Tourism Management* 21: 53-63.

Prideaux B 2000. The resort development spectrum: a new approach to modelling resort development. *Tourism Management* 21: 225-240.

Prideaux B 2004. The resort development spectrum: The case of the Gold Coast, Australia. *Tourism Geographies* 6, 1: 26-58.

Provincial Department of Home Affairs of Inhambane 2005. *Annual Report 2005*.

Provincial Department of Home Affairs of Inhambane 2006. *Annual Report 2006*.

Provincial Department of Home Affairs of Inhambane 2007. *Annual Report 2007*.

Provincial Department of Home Affairs of Inhambane 2008. *Annual Report 2008*.

Punch KF 2005. *Introduction to social research: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. London: Sage Publications.

Ricardo G 2004. Sustainable tourism development: A case study of Bazaruto Island in Inhambane, Mozambique. MPhil thesis. Bellville: (Institute for Social Development) University of the Western Cape.

Rodriguez JRO, Lopez EP & Estevez VY 2008. The sustainability of island destinations: Tourism area life cycle and teleological perspectives. The case of Tenerife. *Tourism Management* 29, 1: 53-65.

Routledge P 2001. 'Selling the rain' resisting the sale: Resistant identities and the conflict over tourism in Goa. *Social and Cultural Geography* 2, 2: 221-240.

- Saarinen J 2004. Destinations in change: The transformation process of tourist destinations. *Tourist Studies* 4, 2: 161-179.
- Scott N, Baggio R & Cooper C 2008. *Network analysis and tourism: From theory to practice*. Chanel View Publications: Clevedon.
- Sharpley R & Telfer DJ. 2002. *Tourism and development: Concepts and issues*. Clevedon: Channel View Publications.
- Shaw G & Agarwal S 2007. Introduction: the development and management of coastal resorts: a global perspective. In Agarwal S & Shaw G (eds) *Managing coastal tourism resorts: A global perspective*, 1-18. Chanel View Publications: Clevedon.
- Simpson P & Wall G 1999. Consequences of resort development: A comparative study. *Tourism Management* 20: 283-296.
- Sindiga I 1999. *Tourism and African development: Change and challenge of tourism in Kenya*. Leiden: Ashgate.
- Snaith T & Haley A 1999. Residents' opinions of tourism development in the historic city of York, England. *Tourism Management* 20: 595-603.
- SNV (Netherlands Development Organization) 2007. *Tourism and socio-economic development in Inhambane*. Maputo: SNV.
- SPDTM (Mozambique, Republic of) 2004. *Strategic plan for the development of tourism in Mozambique (2004-2013)*. Maputo: Ministério do Turismo.
- Telfer DJ & Sharpley R 2008. *Tourism and development in the Developing World: Concepts and issues*. London: Routledge.
- Terkenli TS 2002. Landscapes of tourism: towards a global cultural economy of space? *Tourism Geographies* 4, 3: 227-254.
- Visser I 2003. *Tourism master strategy for Inhambane Province*. Maputo: Direcção Provincial do Turismo - Provincia de Inhambane.
- Wang D 2004. Tourist behaviour and repeat visitation to Hong Kong. *Tourism Geographies* 6, 1: 99-118.



- Wearing S & Wearing B 2001. Conceptualizing the selves of tourism. *Leisure Studies* 20, 2: 143-159.
- Weaver DB 2000. A broad context model of destination development scenarios. *Tourism Management* 21, 2: 217-224.
- Weaver D & Lawton L 2006. *Tourism management* 3<sup>rd</sup> ed. Sydney: John Wiley & Sons Australia, Ltd.
- Wehmeier S (ed) 2005. *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English*. 7<sup>th</sup> ed. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Whittington M, Pereira MAM, Gonçalves M and Costa A 2000. *Uma investigação ao comércio de peixe ornamental em Moçambique*. Maputo [online] Available from: [iodeweb1.vliz.be/odin/bitstream/1834/280/1/200011pt.pdf](http://iodeweb1.vliz.be/odin/bitstream/1834/280/1/200011pt.pdf) [Accessed 03 September 2008].
- Whittlesey D 1957. The regional concept and the regional method. In James P & Jones CF (eds) *American Geographical: Inventory and Prospect*. Syracuse.
- Wie BW 2005. A dynamic game model of strategic capacity investment in the cruise line industry. *Tourism Management* 26, 203-217.
- Williams S 2006. *Mozambique—Africa's rising star: Mozambique's tourism sector is flourishing thanks to legislative reforms and the opening of high quality hotels and resorts throughout the country* [online]. Available from: [http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi\\_qa5327/is\\_/ai\\_n29246703](http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qa5327/is_/ai_n29246703) [Accessed 25 November 2008]
- Winchester HPM 2000. Qualitative research and its place in human geography. In Hay I (ed) *Qualitative Research Methods in Human Geography* 1-22. Melbourne: Oxford University Press.
- Wong PP 1993. *Tourism vs environment: The cases for coastal areas*. Dordrecht: Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- World Bank 1994. *World development report*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- World Bank 2004. *World development indicators 2004*. The World Bank: Washington DC
- World Bank 2009. *World development report 2009: Reshaping economic geography* [online] Washington. Available from:

[http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTWDR2009/Resources/4231006-1225840759068/WDR09\\_bookweb\\_1.pdf](http://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTWDR2009/Resources/4231006-1225840759068/WDR09_bookweb_1.pdf) [Accessed 29 April 2009].

World Travel Market 2007. *World travel market 'no water, no future' report 2007* [online]. Available from: [http://www.justadrop.org/files/IS13132\\_6-25-2008-1.pdf](http://www.justadrop.org/files/IS13132_6-25-2008-1.pdf) [Accessed 12 September 2008].

WTO (World Tourism Organization) Statistics Database and Yearbook 2008a. *Tourist arrivals by region of origin* [online]. Available from: <http://data.un.org/Data.aspx?d=UNWTO&f=srID%3a28310> [Accessed 16 October 2008].

WTO (World Tourism Organization) 2008b. *Tourism highlights: 2008 edition* [online]. Available from: [http://unwto.org/facts/eng/pdf/highlights/UNWTO\\_Highlights08\\_en\\_HR.pdf](http://unwto.org/facts/eng/pdf/highlights/UNWTO_Highlights08_en_HR.pdf) [Accessed 27 April 2009].

## **PERSONAL COMMUNICATIONS**

Daniel BJ 2008. Director of Agriculture and Economic Services of Jangamo District. Jangamo. Interview on 24 June about tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

Halar, A 2008. Administrative and Financial Manager of Electricidade de Moçambique, operational area of Inhambane. Interview on 8 July about electricity supply in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

Jessen MA 2008. Director of School of Higher Learning in Hotelier and Tourism at Eduardo Mondlane University. Inhambane Municipality. Interview on 8 July about tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

Machava CJ 2008. Representative of Casa de Mar Lda. Inhambane Municipality. Interview on 20 June about tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

Macicame HA 2008. Administrative Manager of the airport of Inhambane. Interview on 8 July about the role of air transport in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

McQueen L D 2008. Representative of Light House Reef Lda. Jangamo. Interview on 2 July about tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

Muatxiwa M 2008. Director of the Tourism Directorate of the Inhambane Province. Inhambane Municipality. Interview on 2 July about tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

Müller J 2008. General Manager of Paidane Resort. Jangamo. Interview on 30 June about tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

Quissico MF 2009. Representative of Barra Lodge. Inhambane Municipality. Interview on 10 April about tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

Rudman M 2008. Representative of Casa Barry Resort. Inhambane Municipality. Interview on 30 June about tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

**APPENDIXES**

## Appendix A: Interview schedule for tourism officers

This interview template is designed to collect information regarding tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ). The results will be analysed and published without making reference to the interviewee. The interview will be conducted by the researcher and one auxiliary fieldwork assistant.

### Respondent profile

Date of interview: \_\_\_/\_\_\_/2008

Respondent's name: \_\_\_\_\_

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Years in service: \_\_\_\_\_ Gender: \_\_\_\_\_

Highest educational level: \_\_\_\_\_

Other appropriate experience: \_\_\_\_\_

Duty/Position/Role/Status: \_\_\_\_\_

### QUESTIONS:

The Strategic Plan for Tourism Development in Mozambique (2004-2013) established the ICZ as one of the three most important Priority Areas for Tourism Investment (PATI) in Mozambique.

1. What actions have taken place by the government in order to create or improve local infrastructure in the ICZ?
2. Tell me what actions the Inhambane Provincial Board of Tourism is carrying out for tourism development in the ICZ?
3. Explain what kind of actions the Inhambane Provincial Board of Tourism has carried out so far in order to attract more investment in tourism to the ICZ?
4. The Tofo, Barra, Tofinho and Rocha (TBT) macrozoning plan fixed the quality of tourism to be developed in Tofo, Barra and Rocha. Explain how Inhambane Provincial Board of Tourism is implementing this plan?
5. The Coconuts, Jangamo, Paindane, Guinguane and Ravene beaches do not have any tourism plans or physical plans to guide tourism development. What policy documents are used to manage tourism development in these areas?
6. Please tell me about any specific action plans the Inhambane Provincial Board of Tourism may be carrying out in the ICZ?
7. What problems does the Inhambane Provincial Board of Tourism face with regards to tourism development in ICZ?
8. What coordination exists between different stakeholders towards tourism development in the ICZ?
9. Tourism development in the ICZ after the Peace Accord of 1992 was spontaneous. What factors do you think have influenced (positively and negatively) the tourism development in the ICZ?
  - a. Natural factors?
  - b. Cultural factors?
  - c. Economic factors?
  - d. Political factors?
  - e. Environmental factors?
10. What other factors, not previously mentioned, have influenced tourism development in the ICZ and Inhambane Province?
11. How do you see the future for tourism in the ICZ?
12. Make any further comments with regards to tourism development in the ICZ

**Thank you for your time and effort!**

## Appendix B: Interview schedule for tourist establishment representatives

This interview template is designed to collect information regarding tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ). The results will be analysed and published without making reference to the interviewee. The interview will be conducted by the researcher and one auxiliary fieldwork assistant.

### Respondent and property profile

Date of interview: \_\_\_/\_\_\_/2008

Respondent's name: \_\_\_\_\_

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Years in tourism business: \_\_\_\_\_ Gender: \_\_\_ Nationality: \_\_\_\_\_

Highest educational level: \_\_\_\_\_

Business/Facility Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Relationship to the property: Owner \_\_\_ Tenant \_\_\_ Representative \_\_\_

If you are the owner, how did you acquire it? \_\_\_\_\_ Purchased \_\_\_ Built \_\_\_ Inherit \_\_\_

How many years you have owned the property? \_\_\_\_\_

### QUESTIONS:

1. What facilities do you provide for tourists?
  - a) **Accommodation** \_\_\_ Hotel \_\_\_ Lodge/Resort \_\_\_ Self-catering \_\_\_ Camping \_\_\_  
Number of rooms: \_\_\_ Number of beds: \_\_\_
  - b) **Other facilities:** \_\_\_ Scuba-diving \_\_\_ Recreation \_\_\_ Transportation \_\_\_
2. How many employees do you have? Full-time: \_\_\_\_\_ Part-time: \_\_\_\_\_
3. What obstacles do your company face regarding infrastructure and services?
  - a) Roads and transportation to your property?
  - b) Electricity used in your property?
  - c) Water used in your property?
  - d) Safety facilities?
  - e) Telecommunication facilities?
  - f) Other obstacles not previously mentioned?
4. What obstacles do your company face regarding human resources?
5. Given the obstacles presented, what would help your company to succeed?
6. Did your company make investments in infrastructure such as water, electricity, security or roads?
7. Explain what transport facilities tourists normally use when they come to your resort?
8. What coordination exists between your company and the government regarding investment in infrastructures?
9. What services are missing here that could be important to your tourism business?
10. Is the local community aware of the benefits of tourism?
11. Is the local community aware of sharing resources with tourists?
12. What could local residents do as their input to tourism development here?

13. According to the business environment and your profits, what do you think about the future of your tourism business here?
14. Make any further comments with regards to tourism development in the ICZ?

**Thank you for your time and effort!**

### Appendix C: Questionnaire for tourist establishment representatives

This interview template is designed to collect information regarding tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ). The results will be analysed and published without making reference to the interviewee. The interview will be conducted by the researcher.

#### Respondent and property profile

Date of interview: \_\_\_/\_\_\_/2008

Respondent's name: \_\_\_\_\_

Years in tourism business: \_\_\_\_\_ Gender: \_\_\_ Nationality: \_\_\_\_\_

Business/Facility Name: \_\_\_\_\_

Relationship to the property: Owner \_\_\_ Tenant \_\_\_ Representative \_\_\_

#### QUESTIONS:

15. What facilities do you provide for tourists?

c) **Accommodation:** Hotel \_\_\_ Lodge \_\_\_ Self-catering \_\_\_ Camping facilities \_\_\_

Number of chalets: \_\_\_\_\_ Number of rooms: \_\_\_\_\_ Number of beds: \_\_\_\_\_

d) **Other facilities:** Restaurant \_\_\_ Scuba-diving \_\_\_ Recreation \_\_\_ Transportation \_\_\_

16. How many stars is your establishment graded? \_\_\_\_\_ Stars.

17. Have you increased the number of beds in your establishment in the last 2 years? Yes \_\_\_  
No \_\_\_

18. Do you intend to increase the number of beds? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

19. How many employees do you have? Total: \_\_\_\_\_ Full-time: \_\_\_\_\_ Part-time: \_\_\_\_\_

20. What source of electricity does your property have?

EDM \_\_\_ Petroleum Generator \_\_\_ Solar panel \_\_\_

21. How long do you supply electricity per day in your establishment?

24 hours \_\_\_ From \_\_\_\_\_ to \_\_\_\_\_ hours

22. What source of water does your property have?

Borehole \_\_\_ FIPAG \_\_\_ Lake/Lagoon \_\_\_ River \_\_\_

23. Is that drinking water? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

24. What water do your tourists usually drink? Bottled water \_\_\_ Locally  
provided \_\_\_

25. Do you have internet access for tourists? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

26. Do you offer Internet booking facilities for tourists? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

27. Is the mobile coverage limited, good or perfect? **mCel** \_\_\_\_\_ **Vodacom** \_\_\_\_\_

28. In your opinion, is the annual number of tourists increasing in your establishment? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

29. Do you think seasonality in tourist arrivals has negative effect in your business? Yes \_\_\_ No \_\_\_

30. Can you provide numbers of visitors you received in 2007 per month?

Year	Janu.	Febr.	March	April	May	June	July	August	Sept.	Octo	Nov.	Decem.
Visitors												

**Thank you for your time and effort!**



## Appendix D: Interview schedule for local community leaders

This interview template is designed to collect information regarding tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ). The results will be analysed and published without making reference to the interviewee. The interview will be conducted by the researcher and one auxiliary fieldwork assistant.

### Respondent profile

Date of interview: \_\_\_/\_\_\_/2008

Respondent's name: \_\_\_\_\_

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Years in leadership: \_\_\_\_\_ Gender: \_\_\_\_\_

Position in the community: \_\_\_\_\_

Highest educational level: \_\_\_\_\_

Community name: \_\_\_\_\_

### QUESTIONS:

1. Please mention any changes for the better in local infrastructure as a result of tourism development.
2. According to your point of view as community representative, what are the benefits of tourism development to your community?
3. What is the relationship between tour operators and your local residents?
4. Please explain what local residents say about the negative impacts of tourism in your community.
5. What are your community's complaints about tourist behaviour?
6. Does your community have free access to the beach?
7. What actions have occurred in your community to make your community aware of the advantages of tourism development here?
8. Before tourism development your local residents dedicated themselves more to agriculture and fishing. What has changed in your community in regard to these activities as a result of tourism development?
9. Mention the new activities or businesses that local people have developed as a result of tourism development?
10. Has the government ever invited you to represent your community in any forum to decide about tourism investments in your community?
11. How do your local residents participate in decision making regarding tourism development?
12. As local community leader observing tourism development in your community, do you think it is worthwhile to continue developing tourism here?
13. Make any further comments with regards to tourism development in your community?

**Thank you for your time and effort!**

**Appendix E: List of participants in a focus group**

Community name: \_\_\_\_\_ Date: \_\_\_/\_\_\_/2008

No	Name	Age	Years in residence	Marital status	Educational level	Occupation	Remarks
1							
2							
3							
4							
5							
6							
7							
8							
9							
10							

Notes: \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_  
 \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix F: Questionnaire on local community reactions to tourism development

This questionnaire is an invitation for you to take part in an assessment of your local community reactions to tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ). This study is being conducted by Mr Emídio Samuel Nhantumbo a master's student of the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at Stellenbosch University. Your input is critical in this effort and the information you provide will represent hundreds of residents in your community. This is your opportunity to be a part of this research and we sincerely appreciate your time and effort in providing this information.

**Please make a tick (✓) in the appropriate box according to your choice.**

Nr	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
<b>Positive Aspects</b>						
1	The quality of public services in my community has improved due to tourism.					
2	The tourism industry provides worthwhile job opportunities to community residents.					
3	Tourism encourages a variety of cultural activities by local residents.					
4	Tourism provides an opportunity for cultural exchange and education.					
5	Tourism increases quality of infrastructures (roads, health facilities, water and electricity).					
6	Tourism preserves our marine resources.					
7	Tourism increases local residents' businesses.					
8	I feel my community benefits from tourism.					
<b>Negative Aspects</b>						
9	Tourist establishments have blocked access to the beach.					
10	Tourist behaviour negatively affects a community's way of life.					
11	Tourism development reduces local residents' access to fish.					
12	Tourism development results in an increase in the price of basic commercial products.					
13	Tourism increases the amount of crime in my community.					
14	Tourism results in an increase in the cost of living.					
15	Tourism results in land conflicts in my community.					
16	Native people are being exploited by tourism.					
17	Tourism increases beach degradation.					
18	Tourism results in degradation of natural vegetation and dunes.					
<b>Other Aspects</b>						
19	Local residents live in harmony with tourism facility providers.					
20	There is nothing wrong in sharing our resources with tourists and tourism facility providers.					
21	My community is not aware of tourism development.					
22	Tourism results in new residents in my community.					
23	My community participates in decision making regarding tourism.					
24	I favour the development of new tourism facilities which will attract more tourists.					
25	The local government and my community should plan together and manage the growth of tourism.					
26	My community is satisfied with current tourism development.					

## Appendix G: Template for local community focus group discussion

This template is designed to assess the local community reaction towards tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone (ICZ). The results will be analysed and published without making reference to the discussants. The discussion will be conducted by the researcher acting as primary facilitator and one auxiliary facilitator.

Date of discussion: \_\_\_/\_\_\_/2008

Community name: \_\_\_\_\_

### Topics for discussion:

1. Expectations created among the local residents when tourism development started in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.
2. Positive aspects of tourism development for the local residents.
3. Negative aspects of tourism development for the local residents.
4. Other aspects of tourism development for the local residents.
5. The contribution of local community towards tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.
6. The vision by the local community regarding the future of tourism in the Inhambane Coastal Zone.

### Focus group members

- ✓ One tourism worker (female)
- ✓ One tourism worker (male)
- ✓ One fisherman/-woman
- ✓ One trader
- ✓ One vegetable vendor
- ✓ One peasant
- ✓ One teacher
- ✓ One builder
- ✓ One craftsman/-woman
- ✓ One local community leader

---

Total: **10 members**

**Appendix H: Permission request to conduct the survey (English)**

UNIVERSITEIT · STELLENBOSCH · UNIVERSITY  
jou kennisvenoot · your knowledge partner

*Geologie, Geografie en Omgewingstudie*  
*Geology, Geography and Environmental Studies*

Stellenbosch  
11 June 2008

**To whom it may concern**

**Mr Emídio Nhantumbo** (Student number 15552306) is a student in the Section: Geography and Environmental Studies of the Department of Geology, Geography and Environmental Studies, at Stellenbosch University. He is registered for the degree MA Geography and Environmental Studies and is currently working on a research project investigating the spatial analysis of tourism development in the Inhambane Coastal Zone of Mozambique. This research will contribute to a better understanding of tourism development in order to assist future planning of the sector.

The views and experiences of establishments, such as yours, are a crucial part of this research project. It is imperative that the head of your establishment, or a senior representative with a good knowledge of your organization's history, invests a small portion of their time to assist the student with the requested interview and accurately supply the necessary information for the completion of the questionnaire.

The outcomes of this research will inform a range of decision-making processes relating to tourism development and planning – both in Inhambane and further afield in Mozambique. Your participation in this project will thus be of great value. Be assured that Stellenbosch University maintains the confidentiality of all information you may provide.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'JH van der Merwe'.

Prof JH van der Merwe  
*Chairman: Geography and Environmental Studies*

## Appendix I: Permission request to conduct the survey (Portuguese)



**UNIVERSIDADE EDUARDO MONDLANE**  
Escola Superior de Hotelaria e Turismo de Inhambane

### CREDENCIAL



Para fins achados convenientes está devidamente credenciada, Sr. **Emídio Samuel Nhamumbo**, que actualmente é estudante do curso de Mestrado em Geografia e Estudos Ambientais na Universidade de Stellenbosch na República da África do Sul, a fim de proceder a recolha de informação referente ao projecto de investigação *Análise Espacial do Desenvolvimento do Turismo na Zona Costeira de Inhambane* para a produção de sua Tese de Mestrado. Ele vai trabalhar no perímetro territorial do Município de Inhambane e do Distrito de Jangamo. A recolha de informação será feita nos estabelecimentos turísticos, nas comunidades locais e nas instituições governamentais e não governamentais.

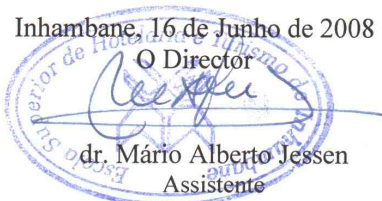
As informações fornecidas pelas pessoas e instituições acima referidas são cruciais para o sucesso deste projecto, sendo assim, solicitamos todo o apoio necessário para o mesmo.

A Universidade Eduardo Mondlane e a Universidade de Stellenbosch asseguram que o estudante irá garantir a confidencialidade da informação fornecida.



Inhambane, 16 de Junho de 2008

O Director



dr. Mário Alberto Jessen  
Assistente

Visto

O Director Prov. de Turismo



18/06/08

em 18/06/2008  
Secretaria Distrital