

**LIVING OUT OF THE SUITCASE: IS DOMESTIC TOURISM AN EFFECTIVE TOOL
FOR REGIONAL CONVERGENCE-DIVERGENCE OF EXPENDITURE PATTERNS IN
SOUTH AFRICA FROM 2013 TO 2015?**

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ABSTRACT

Domestic tourism not only allows for the interaction of people with diverse social and cultural backgrounds, but also for the redistribution of income and wealth through domestic visitor expenditure patterns. It has the potential to reduce inequality and improve the poverty conditions of struggling communities. Domestic tourism is viewed favourably as a basis for regional development, but there could be a significant regional component to variations in domestic travel and domestic tourism within the borders of the country. This is because domestic tourism is drawn to areas of comparative economic advantage within the country. The aim of this study is to determine if and how domestic tourism and the associated domestic tourism expenditure contributes to regional convergence-divergence within South Africa at provincial level. The data analyses and presentation of domestic tourism same-day and overnight expenditure inflows and outflows will be done on a provincial level using the Statistics South Africa Domestic Tourism Survey from 2013 to 2015. The domestic tourism trip characteristics as well as the sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of domestic visitors, both for domestic tourism same-day trips and overnight trips, will also be analysed for the same period. For six of the nine provinces of South Africa, more than half of the domestic tourism expenditure originating within those provinces from 2013 to 2015 never left the borders of the provinces themselves. Gauteng experienced the biggest net outflow of total domestic tourism expenditure and KwaZulu-Natal experienced the biggest net inflow of total domestic tourism expenditure. Gauteng generated a third of all domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa from 2013 to 2015 and showed promise as the main contributor to regional convergence through domestic tourism expenditure. Important policy implications are also discussed.

Keywords and phrases: South Africa, domestic tourism, domestic tourism expenditure, regional convergence-divergence.

OPSOMMING

Binnelandse toerisme maak nie net voorsiening vir die wisselwerking tussen mense van diverse maatskaplike en kulturele agtergronde nie, maar ook vir die herverdeling van inkomste en welvaart deur middel van binnelandse toeristebestedingspatrone. Dit het die potensiaal om ongelikheid te verminder en om die armoedstoestande in sukkelende gemeenskappe te verbeter. Binnelandse toerisme word gunstig beskou as 'n grondslag vir streeksontwikkeling, maar daar kan 'n aansienlike streekskomponent wees ten opsigte van variasies in binnelandse reis en binnelandse toerisme binne die landsgrense. Die rede hiervoor is dat binnelandse toerisme aangetrek word deur gebiede wat relatiewe ekonomiese voordele binne die land inhou. Die doel van hierdie studie is om te bepaal of en hoe binnelandse toerisme en die daarmeegepaardgaande binnelandse toerismebesteding op provinsiale vlak bydra tot streeksamevloeiing en streekuiteenvloeiing in Suid-Afrika. Die data-analises en voorlegging van selfdedag- en oornagbestedingsamevloei en -uiteenvloei ten opsigte van binnelandse toerisme sal gedoen word op provinsiale vlak deur gebruik te maak van Statistieke Suid-Afrika se Binnelandse Toerisme-opname vanaf 2013 tot 2015. Die eienskappe van binnelandse toerisme-uitstappies en die sosiodemografiese en sosio-ekonomiese eienskappe van binnelandse besoekers, hetsy vir binnelandse selfdedaguitstappies of vir oornaguitstappies, sal ook vir dieselfde tydperk geanaliseer word. In ses uit die nege provinsies in Suid-Afrika het meer as die helfte van die binnelandse toerismebesteding wat tussen 2013 en 2015 in daardie provinsies sy oorsprong gehad het, nie die grense van daardie provinsies oorgesteek nie. Gauteng het die grootste netto uitvloeï van die totale binnelandse toerismebesteding ervaar, en KwaZulu-Natal het die grootste netto invloei van die totale binnelandse toerismebesteding ervaar. Tussen 2013 en 2015 het Gauteng 'n derde van alle binnelandse toerismebesteding in Suid-Afrikaa gegenereer, en lyk hoogs belowend as die grootste bydraer tot streeksamevloeiing deur middel van binnelandse toerismebesteding. Belangrike beleidsimplikasies word ook bespreek.

Sleutelwoorde en frases: Suid-Afrika, binnelandse toerisme, binnelandse toerismebesteding, streeksamevloeiing en -uiteenvloeiing.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

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|---|-------------|
| Brazilian Tourism Institute (EMBRATUR)..... | 15 |
| Domestic Tourism Survey (DTS)..... | 18 |
| Dwelling units (DUs)..... | 19 |
| Geographic Information Systems (GIS)..... | 22 |
| Gross Domestic Product (GDP)..... | 24 |
| Group Areas Act (GAA)..... | 2 |
| Gauteng Tourism Development Strategy (GDTS)..... | 3 |
| Gauteng Tourism Sector Strategy (GTSS)..... | 3 |
| Living Standard Measure (LSM)..... | 37 |
| Local Economic Development (LED)..... | 14 |
| National Development Plan 2030 (NDP 2030)..... | 3 |
| National Department of Tourism (NDT)..... | 2 |
| National Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy (NDTGS)..... | 3 |
| National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS)..... | 2 |
| Primary sampling units (PSUs)..... | 19 |
| Proportional-to-size (PPS)..... | 19 |
| Randomised probability-proportional-to-size (RPPS)..... | 19 |
| Regional Gross Domestic Product (GDPR)..... | 24 |
| South African Audience Research Foundation (SAARF)..... | 37 |
| Small, medium and micro-enterprises (SMMEs)..... | 16 |
| Spatial Development Initiatives (SDIs)..... | 11 |
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CHAPTER 1: SETTING THE SCENE

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Domestic tourism plays a significant role in the overall socio-economic well-being of countries around the world, as it not only allows for the interaction of people with diverse social and cultural backgrounds, but also for the redistribution of income and wealth within the borders of a country through domestic visitor expenditure patterns. In the process it has the potential to reduce inequality and improve the poverty conditions of struggling communities.

The United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) highlights six examples of how domestic tourism can benefit the poor. These examples include the following: employment of the poor in tourism enterprises; supply of goods and services to tourism enterprises by the poor; direct sales of goods and services to visitors by the poor through the informal sector; establishment and running of tourism enterprises by the poor or community-based enterprises; taxes or levies on domestic tourism income or profits with the proceeds benefitting the poor; and the investment in infrastructure stimulated by domestic tourism also benefiting the poor in the locality, either directly or indirectly (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2006).

Domestic tourism can be defined as ‘the activities of a resident visitor within the country of reference either as part of a domestic tourism trip or part of an outbound tourism trip’ and a domestic visitor is classified as ‘a tourist (overnight visitor) if his/her trip includes an overnight stay, or as a same-day visitor (or excursionist) otherwise’ (United Nations & United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2010). A domestic visitor is a ‘domestic traveller taking a trip to a main destination outside his/her usual environment, for less than a year, for any main purpose (business, leisure or other personal purpose) other than to be employed by a resident entity in the place visited’ (United Nations & United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2010). These type of trips taken by domestic visitors qualify as domestic tourism trips, as domestic tourism refers to the activities of domestic visitors. The concept of the usual environment of an individual, a key concept in domestic tourism, is defined as the ‘geographical area within which an individual conducts his/her regular life routines’ (United Nations & United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2010).

The study in this document will be based on the Statistics South Africa (Stats SA) Domestic Tourism Survey (DTS). The definitions used in the DTS is already aligned to the UNWTO definitions and will be used for the interpretation of the data analysis and presentation in Chapter 4 of this document. A same-day trip is ‘a trip outside of the respondent’s usual environment, where they leave and return within the same day (i.e. do not stay overnight)’. An overnight trip is ‘a trip outside of the

respondent's usual environment where one night or more is spent away from the usual environment'. A domestic trip is 'a trip within the boundaries of South Africa but outside of the respondent's usual environment'. The place of usual residence refers to 'the geographical place where the person resides four nights a week on average'. Tourism is 'the activities of persons travelling to and staying in places outside their usual environment for not more than one consecutive year for leisure, business and other purposes not related to the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited'. A tourist is 'a visitor who stays at least one night in the place visited'. The main purpose of the trip is 'the purpose in the absence of which the trip would not have been made'. Expenditure refers to 'the total consumption expenditure made by a visitor or on behalf of a visitor during his/her trip and stay at a destination'. To be outside the 'usual environment' the person should travel more than 40 kilometres from his/her place of residence (one way) and the place should not be visited more than once a week. This includes place of work and place of study. Leisure and recreational trips are included irrespective of frequency (Stats SA, 2017).

Domestic tourism not only brings about an intermingling of people from diverse social and cultural backgrounds, but also a considerable redistribution of spending power. International organisations such as the UNWTO, often link domestic tourism with the potential for poverty relief within a country. This would require an in-depth study and analysis of the context of the distributional effects of domestic tourism across the resident economy as a whole (Blake, Arbache, Sinclair & Teles, 2008).

The South African apartheid government separated the population of the country by law into four population groups and legislated the social intermingling between these four population groups. The Natives (Urban Areas) Act (Act No. 21 of 1923) decreed residential segregation in urban areas and required all black African men in cities and towns to carry around permits called 'passes' at all times (Ratuva, 2013). The Group Areas Act (GAA) (Act No. 41 of 1950) imposed control over interracial property transactions and property occupation. The GAA saw that infrastructure and resources as well as social and economic opportunities were concentrated on prime land reserved for those categorised as 'white' (Massey, 2013). The Reservation of Separate Amenities Act (Act No. 49 of 1953) enforced segregation of all public facilities and transport. This was done in order to limit contact between the different races in South Africa and also stated that the facilities for different races did not need to be equal (Roseboro, 2010). The Aliens and Travellers Control Act (Act No. 29 of 1977) provided for the control and monitoring of aliens, and for refusal of entry into South Africa.

All of these acts severely impacted on where a South African citizen could travel within the country, how they could travel and what facilities could be used when they do travel. Apartheid legislation circumscribed the potential of domestic tourism, because the black African population did not have

the spatial mobility or access to a range of leisure activities and spaces or accommodation, which were deemed the exclusive preserve of the white population (Visser, 2016, Visser & Rogerson, 2004).

Domestic tourism policy issues cannot be separated from other national policies. Since 1994, tourism has been identified as a priority sector, alongside mining and agriculture, because of the substantial economic benefits it brings to South Africa's economy (Adinolfi & Ivanovic, 2015). The South African government adopted the White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism as South Africa's official tourism policy in 1996, and the White Paper provided a policy framework and guidelines for tourism development in South Africa. The White Paper lists the then identified key constraints to the tourism sector playing a more meaningful role in the national economy as poor service, a lack of infrastructure (particularly in rural areas), inadequate tourism education, training and awareness, inadequate protection of the environment and the limited integration of local communities and previously neglected groups into tourism, to name a few (Government of South Africa, 1996).

The National Tourism Sector Strategy (NTSS), developed by the National Department of Tourism (NDT) and implemented in 2010, highlights the issue of seasonality and geographic spread as challenges that make it difficult to spread the benefits of domestic tourism within South Africa. The NDT has focused on ensuring the geographic spread of tourism with more emphasis towards supporting tourism growth in rural areas, in particular with more involvement of the rural communities (National Department of Tourism, 2010). The NDT (National Department of Tourism, 2012) developed and implemented the National Domestic Tourism Growth Strategy (NDTGS) in 2012. The NDTGS set practical measures to generate greater value from domestic tourism in South Africa. Domestic tourism is viewed in the NDTGS as an essential contributor to the sustainable growth and development of the tourism economy in South Africa. Domestic visitors, rather than international visitors, are the backbone of the South African tourism economy.

The Gauteng Tourism Development Strategy (GTDS) was finalised in 2007 and was updated and renamed as the Gauteng Tourism Sector Strategy (GTSS) in 2011. The strategic objectives for the GTSS have been aligned to the national objectives as per the NTSS. The GTSS has three strategic objectives, namely to stimulate the tourism growth and economy; to increase the domestic visitor experience and the brand; and to improve sustainability and good governance. The targets presented in the GTSS, such as growing the travel and tourism sector's absolute contribution to the provincial economy and providing people development and decent work within the tourism sector, can only be achieved if the implementation of the strategy is supported by all levels of government as well as by

private sector institutions, sector employees, organised labour and large and small businesses (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2011).

South Africa's National Development Plan 2030 (NDP 2030) focuses on two overarching goals, namely to eradicate poverty and reduce inequality. One of the areas highlighted in the NDP 2030 for addressing poverty, creating jobs and reducing inequality for the country is tourism. The tourism sector is labour intensive, and stimulates the growth of small businesses (National Planning Commission, 2012).

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Domestic tourism has an impact on the economy, the natural and built environment, the local population at the places visited and the domestic visitors themselves (United Nations & United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2010). Domestic tourism activities are considered to be a potential source of economic growth. It can be regarded as a mechanism for generating both employment as well as income in both the formal and informal sectors of a country (Khalil, Whaliullah & Malik, 2007).

There could be a significant regional component to variations in domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure within the borders of the country between provinces. Between the provinces within a country, domestic tourism is drawn to areas of comparative economic advantage. This would imply that domestic tourism tends to be located in existing centres of socio-economic activity or adjacent to some physical attractions. Visser (2016) highlights that one of the most challenging issues concerning the South African domestic tourism space economy is that it is highly uneven, and consequently, the potential extent for inclusive development is uneven as well.

The metropolitan areas as a whole are the leading centres for South Africa's domestic tourism economy. Nevertheless, domestic tourism growth has been uneven across the eight metropolitan areas, and divergent trajectories of urban tourism development have been observed (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2014). Beyond the metropolitan areas a number of distinctive district municipalities emerge as key zones for tourism (McKelly, Rogerson, van Huysteen, Maritz & Ngidi, 2017).

Domestic tourism is not only influenced by the tourism system but also by regional convergence-divergence. Any domestic tourism development within a destination region will generate economic benefits, some proportion of which will be enjoyed by regions other than the destination region. Domestic tourism's regional impact will vary greatly according to where it is taking place, who is in

control and which of its many stakeholders have any meaningful participation in the way it is implemented (Brown & Hall, 2008).

The sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of the members of the household will determine household participation in domestic tourism activities. The levels of demand for domestic travel are also influenced by a person's ability to travel and there is a predictable association between socio-economic status and vacationing at home or abroad (Steyn & Spencer, 2011).

Domestic tourism is viewed favourably as a basis for regional development and domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure could make a positive contribution to income and wealth redistribution between the different provinces of the country. It will be necessary to introduce spatial effects because neither domestic tourism nor its associated domestic tourism expenditure are equally distributed in all provinces of the country.

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The research of this study will attempt to answer the following research questions:

- a) Does tourism, and specifically domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure, have the potential to narrow regional developmental gaps and promote more balanced regional development within a country at the provincial level?
- b) Can regional economic growth at the provincial level be positively affected by domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure within a country?
- c) What are the factors that influence domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure between the different provinces within a country?
- d) Does domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure contribute to regional convergence or regional divergence for South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015?
- e) What are the changes in the domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip patterns and trends for South Africa as well as for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015?
- f) What are the changes in the sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of domestic visitors for South Africa as well as for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015?

1.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to determine if domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure contributed to regional convergence-divergence within South Africa at the provincial level between 2013 and 2015.

The aim of this study will be achieved through the following objectives:

- a) To define the terms ‘domestic tourism’, ‘domestic visitor’, ‘domestic trip’, ‘same-day trip’, ‘overnight trip’, ‘tourist’, ‘tourism’ and ‘expenditure’ as it will be used in the study.
- b) To calculate the changes in the origin of domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip expenditure across South Africa at provincial level from 2013 to 2015 using the Stats SA DTS.
- c) To determine the changes in the domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip expenditure for South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015 using the Stats SA DTS.
- d) To explain spatial variances in domestic tourism expenditure by origin and destination using the Stats SA DTS to examine the distribution and concentration of domestic tourism expenditure within South Africa at provincial level from 2013 to 2015.
- e) To determine how the changes in the domestic tourism expenditure patterns contributed to regional convergence or regional divergence within South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015.
- f) To test domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip expenditure by district municipality of origin for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015.
- g) To determine the changes in the domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip patterns and trends for South Africa as well as for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015.
- h) To determine the changes in the sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of domestic visitors for South Africa as well as for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015.

CHAPTER 2: DOMESTIC TOURISM AND REGIONAL CONVERGENCE-DIVERGENCE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

From its modern beginnings in the 1960s, tourism has been viewed as an agent of development and modernisation, largely because of its purported economic benefits (Brown & Hall, 2008). The reason for examining the role of domestic tourism in poverty relief derives from the fact that many developing countries have large or potentially large domestic tourism markets. Domestic tourism consumption usually leads to increased output, prices and wages in the industries that sell products directly to domestic visitors (Blake, Arbache, Sinclair & Teles, 2008).

Tourism is one resource that governments try to control, usually by channelling the flow of tourists as much as possible, and domestic tourism is seen as an ideal means to control rural-urban migration (Van Beek, 2003; Tetsu, 2006). Domestic tourism is an urban-rural sector in which employed urban citizens visit the poor rural areas to escape the stressful city life and consume the tranquillity of the countryside, which makes tourism more beneficial for the economy of rural areas (Mthembu, 2012).

From a historical perspective, tourism as an economic system was established in South Africa before the Second World War (Visser, 2016). It could be argued that under apartheid, domestic tourism was in many respects anti-developmental. If a domestic visitor believes that there are constraints to their planned trip they will simply not visit the destination, because what they will be encountering makes the trip less attractive to them (Nicolaidis & Surujlal, 2012).

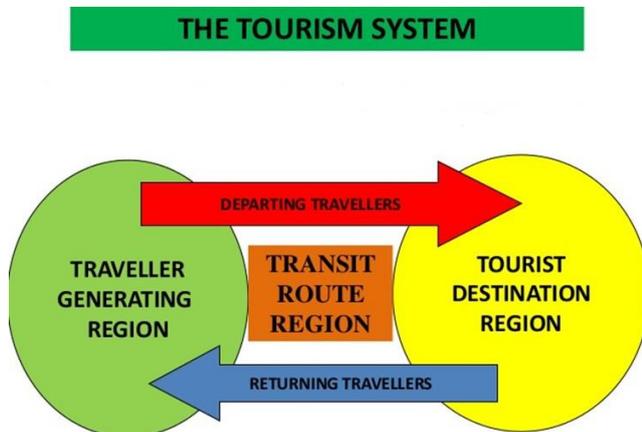
Functions and responsibilities of all tiers of government and its agencies, are spelt out in national and most provincial tourism policy documents. Despite this, effective coordination between provincial departments and local government, and confusion with regard to role, are perceptible as major constraints. The role of provincial tourism agencies is defined in most policy documents, but confusion, infighting, and a breakdown in communication exist between provincial departments and their agencies, with politics perceived to play a governing role (Briedenhann & Butts, 2003).

2.2 THE TOURISM SYSTEM

Domestic tourism movements and the associated domestic tourism expenditure within a country are influenced by the tourism system that exists within that country. A tourism system consists of a group of interrelated, interdependent and interacting basic elements (Xing & Dangerfield, 2011). The three elements of the tourism system are visitors, geographical elements (which consist of the visitor-generating region, the visitor destination region and the transit route region), and the tourism sector.

The domestic tourism sector within a country operates within the physical, cultural, social, economic, political and technological environments.

Figure 2.1 shows a representation of the tourism system.

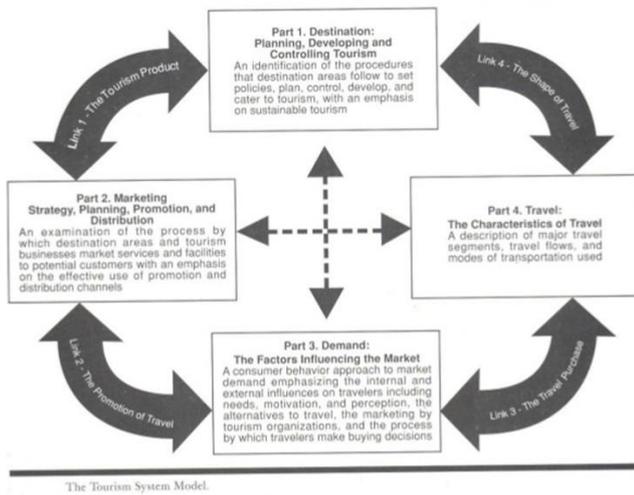


Source: <https://www.slideshare.net>. Whole Tourism System Model, Neil Leiper

Figure 2.1: The tourism system

A system approach to domestic tourism proposes the movement of tourists from their area of origin to their destination by way of a transit region. This origin-destination approach emphasises the interdependence of generating and receiving environments, but domestic visitor flows are hierarchical in nature and could involve multiple or overlapping destinations (Newsome, Moore & Dowling, 2002). The successful operation of domestic tourism firms has been closely linked to the operation of networks. Domestic tourism supply at the destinations and the provision of the total domestic tourism product necessitate the creation of networks. Since firms in domestic tourism often regard one another as competitors and not colleagues, the issues of 'trust', 'ties' and 'social capital' are important determinants of the provision of the domestic tourism product at the destination level (Daskalopoulou & Petrou, 2009).

Figure 2.2 shows the elements of the tourism system model.



Source: <https://www.slideshare.net>. Concept of tourism and tourism systems, Dr Rahul Pratap Singh Kaurav

Figure 2.2: Elements of the tourism system model

Domestic visitors and their associated domestic tourism expenditure need to be dispersed from the established tourism destinations within the country into other parts of South Africa. People living in urban areas or less attractive domestic tourism regions are more inclined to go on holiday and explore new destinations and to have new experiences than people who live in rural and more attractive domestic tourism destinations (Bernini & Cracolici, 2014). There is competitiveness between domestic tourism destinations within a country. What makes a tourism destination truly competitive is its ability to increase domestic tourism expenditure, to increasingly attract domestic visitors while providing them with satisfying and memorable experiences, and to do so in a profitable way, while enhancing the well-being of destination residents and preserving the natural capital of the destination for future generations (Daskalopoulou & Petrou, 2009).

2.3 REGIONAL CONVERGENCE-DIVERGENCE

Domestic tourism is not only influenced by the tourism system, but also by regional convergence-divergence. Domestic tourism can be inter-regional as well as intra-regional in nature. Divergent theoretical perspectives exist on the problem of uneven development between regions. The concerns revolve around the explanation of the pattern of disparate development and the ways and means by which a more desirable pattern may be possible with or without state intervention (Das, 2004).

Geographical economics aims to explain why economic activities establish themselves in some particular places and to explain uneven spatial development. The existence of inter-regional inequalities has also long attracted the attention of economists in the area known as 'regional economics' (Thisse, 2011). A significant contribution towards explaining the undercurrents of uneven

development has also been made in the field of modern or radical human geography. By making a clear distinction between geographical place and social space, they attribute regional differences to a complex interaction between spaces within the broader canvas of matured capitalism (Das, 2004).

Within the discipline of economics, the primary analytical framework for understanding long-run economic performance is the neoclassical growth framework. The neoclassical growth theory assumes that economic output is a function of capital and labour (James & Krieckhaus, 2008). Inter-regional mobility of capital and labour is one of the major factors that influence regional convergence-divergence (Bishop, Formby & Thistle, 1994).

The neoclassical growth theory predicts conditional convergence. Convergence refers to the process by which relatively poorer regions or countries grow faster than their rich counterparts (Mathur, 2005). Poor economies with a low level of technological accumulation may have a correspondingly slow speed of convergence, and neoclassical economic growth may accommodate a variety of potential growth paths in which some divergence may manifest (Phillips & Sul, 2009). Rich provinces already have enjoyed dramatic increases in productivity due to investments and they therefore receive relatively less extra growth from further investment, but poor provinces, on the other hand, are relatively capital-scarce and therefore reap larger returns from additional investment (James & Krieckhaus, 2008).

The argument that the neoclassical model predicts that initially poor countries will grow faster than initially rich ones relies heavily on the key assumption that the only difference across countries lies in their initial levels of capital, but in the real world, however, economies may differ in other things such as their levels of technology, their propensities to save, or their population (Sala-i-Martin, 1996). The original convergence-divergence issue was formulated as if societies were independent units. But societies are part of, and may be greatly affected by, a larger world system within which they must cope (Meyer, Boli-Bennett & Chase-Dunn, 1975).

Regions do not experience stress or prosperity at the same time, and patterns of convergence are not invariably linear, nor completely inclusive. While convergence may be the overall pattern, cyclical variation and periodic reversals do occur (Atkinson & Bierling, 1998). The potential for economic growth is crucial for the success of any economic integration arrangement and there needs to be political will to support this economic integration between regions (Simms & Simms, 2007).

More recently, however, public sector policy initiatives indicate a shift towards a more pro-active role for the local state (local and regional government) in managing tourism development (Shone & Memon, 2008). This shift, informed by a New Regionalism policy framework, anticipates a devolved

tourism planning mandate that fosters longer-term strategic and collaborative planning of the sector in order to enhance the contribution of tourism to sustainable community wellbeing. The focus must be on the likely effectiveness of a devolved tourism planning mandate and to interrogate the role and potential of tourism to contribute to regional development (Shone & Memon, 2008).

The potential for the development of regional tourism clusters must be explored as an option (Jackson, 2005). Not all regions are adequately equipped in the same way to develop tourism activities. Due to the characteristics of the tourism cluster, local development programs consider it as a local strategy for combating regional disparities and social inequality. The agents of the tourism cluster develop dense interaction, cooperative and competitive relationships such as: company (with suppliers, customers and competitors), meso-institution (with public and private institutions and representatives from civilian society), macro-institution (with macro-economic strategies and policies) and socio-cultural structure (social actor capability to formulate views and strategies for sustainable development) (da Cunha & da Cunha, 2005).

Many developing countries are suffering from large regional development gaps. Can tourism promote balanced regional development and so narrow such gaps? Indications are that the spatial distribution of the total tourism sector is more unbalanced than that of the regional economy (Gho, Li & Zhan, 2015). In China, there are significant inequalities in income distribution between inland and coastal regions. Tourism is regarded as one means of fostering regional economic development and decreasing these inequalities. Many inland destinations possess natural advantages that could form the basis for regional competitive advantage in the presence of necessary other conditions, but have experienced difficulty in drawing domestic visitors away from the popular coastal gateways. Tourism development contributes to regional economic convergence in China and domestic tourism makes a larger contribution than international tourism (Gho, Li & Zhan, 2016).

Meyer & Meyer (2015) explain that domestic tourism is seen as a regional development tool to assist in the creation of new local economic activities. The study conducted by Paci and Marrocu (2013), on tourism and regional growth in Europe, demonstrate that regional growth is positively affected by domestic tourism. Rogerson (2015) also highlights the international debates about tourism and regional development. He argues that the prospects for regional development ultimately hinge upon leveraging potential assets for leisure tourism.

The study done by McKelly, Rogerson, van Huysteen, Maritz and Ngidi (2017) highlights that the local impacts of tourism are critical in many secondary towns and small towns across South Africa. Tourism is not only a critical sector in many secondary towns and small towns, but the lead sector. This study emphasizes the critical need for capacity development for tourism planning on local

governments outside of the leading municipalities of South Africa (McKelly, Rogerson, van Huysteen, Maritz & Ngidi, 2017).

The public sector has a vital role to play in ensuring that the potential of domestic tourism is realised. South Africa is a developing country with marked spatial and social inequalities, and decentralisation has been identified as a critical process through which social and economic development might be delivered. National, provincial and local governments have initiated a number of tourism development projects and programmes across different regions in South Africa. Spatial development initiatives (SDIs) are one of government's key initiatives for encouraging regional development and attracting capital into underdeveloped but resource-rich areas of the country (Kaplan, 2004). Tourism is identified as a 'lead' sector in some of the SDIs (Nel & Binns, 2003).

Local municipalities are now being charged with promoting what is termed 'developmental local government'. South African policy and legislation clearly establish that developmental local government must be both participatory and gender sensitive, and must entail the granting of the local government with significant powers and responsibilities to redress socio-economic inequalities. The South African approach therefore reasserts a link between government and development, but also resonates with the reconceptualisation of the role of the developmental state (Samson, 2007).

Because space matters in development, no government can avoid the issue of how to maximise the developmental opportunities that frame and are framed by its spatial economy. The spatial dimension is always an important element of national strategy, but never more so than in times of radical political transformation such as those associated with embedding democracy in South Africa and overcoming the territorial legacies of apartheid. More than in most other parts of the world, citizens in South Africa understand that 'where' the state invests is as integral to its development agenda as 'who' or 'what' it puts its money into (Parnell & Crankshaw, 2013).

The importance of domestic tourism in developing countries have grown over recent years. A core issue is the question that under what circumstances will the domestic visitor contribute to sustainable development? Growth in regional tourism within a country may only reinforce existing regional power relations and inequalities. There exists few consistent public policies on domestic tourism and regional growth. Public policies are frequently chaotic when it comes to the development of infrastructure, tourism facilities and visitor's products between the regions within a country (Ghimire, 2001).

Tourism is essentially place-based and involves the production of destination identity at different scales. At any one time, organizations at national, regional and local levels are actively engaged in

presenting and promoting place identity in order to attract visitors and increase market share. The drive to establish distinct destination identity in the tourism market place is derived from a range of complex and competing interests manifested at national, regional and local scales. Interconnections exists between place identity and the institutions of tourism planning and policy-making at the regional level (Dredge & Jenkins, 2010).

Along with the implementation of a range of new policy initiatives for domestic tourism and poverty alleviation through the promotion of new tourism growth, certain changes are taking place in the spatial organisation of tourism in South Africa. These spatial shifts have been towards greater concentration of tourism development, and the geographical investment in tourism infrastructure has been mainly concentrated upon opportunities in the Western Cape and Gauteng provinces. The space economy of tourism in South Africa is dominated by the large metropolitan areas, both in terms of trips and bednights (McKelly, Rogerson, van Huysteen, Maritz & Ngidi, 2017). This does little to address the types of objectives the national government has set out in its tourism policy frameworks (Visser & Rogerson, 2004).

Visser & Hoogendoorn (2012) argues that South African Tourism (SAT) is still not encouraging the redress of the uneven South African tourism space economy through its current marketing material. Government is, however, seeking to use domestic tourism as a basis for addressing spatial unevenness in patterns of tourism development within South Africa (Rogerson, 2015). It is important to note that domestic visitors do not bring instant development; the impact and contribution of domestic tourism changes over time and there is the need for some form of state involvement (Harrison, 1994).

2.4 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE DOMESTIC TOURISM

Domestic tourism exists within a political-economic framework characterised by monopoly capital. The tourism sector in the Global North emerged with subsidised state-led development. Both the United States and Western Europe subsidised and cultivated the global travel infrastructure and established the regulations and norms of the travel sector. While tourism may provide opportunity for people from the Global North to re-create themselves, people from the Global South have less access to tourism opportunity (Cabezas, 2008).

Explanations of the spatially uneven distribution of domestic visitors are complicated. It addresses a whole range of closely interrelated factors such as basic tourism resources, transport access, tourism infrastructure and services and government promotion of the domestic tourism sector (O'Hare & Barrett, 1999). Any domestic visitor will be motivated by pull factors (i.e. factors that influence the

travel motivation of the visitor, like the features of a destination) and push factors (which relate more to the wants and the needs of the visitor, like the visitors' expectations) (Nicolaides & Surujlal, 2012).

In general, push factors precede pull factors. A push-pull framework for the motivations of domestic visitors is a complex phenomenon (Nicolaides & Surujlal, 2012). Factors that will influence the regional spread of domestic tourism activity include regional gross domestic product (GDP), regional employment, regional costs and benefits, domestic visitor flows, the relative wealth of regions, regional domestic tourism promotion, the distribution of domestic tourism resources, and transport considerations.

2.4.1 Sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of domestic visitors

Despite political equality, there are great social inequalities within South Africa. South Africa's Gini coefficient, a measure of income inequality, is one of the highest in the world (Huschka & Mau, 2006).

Poverty is not confined to one racial group in South Africa, but it is heavily concentrated among the black African population group. Black Africans have the highest unemployment rate of the economically active population in the country, and the differences between rich and poor in South Africa are huge and are unmistakably connected to race (Huschka & Mau, 2006). There are new 'income gaps' in the South African society, between a multi-racial middle class and the rest of society and between the black African urban and industrial working class and the black African unemployed and the very poor (Naidoo, 2005).

Unemployment is very high in rural areas and unemployed individuals stay in or move back to rural areas to attach themselves to a household. Under these circumstances, one would expect an increase in inequality due to rising incomes for a small group of educated and skilled South Africans and stagnant or declining incomes for a much larger group of low-skilled individuals (Ozler, 2007). While roughly 50.0% of the population of South Africa is rural, the rural areas contain 72.0% of those members of the total population who are poor, and they are mostly women with children (Cheru, 2001). With little development and very few employment opportunities for the communities in these rural areas the employment, both direct and indirect, that results from domestic tourism operations could make a large contribution to poverty reduction and an overall improvement in social welfare (Snyman & Spenceley, 2012).

In terms of domestic tourism and poverty, in the context of government support for responsible tourism, South African research has been at the forefront of advancing notions of pro-poor tourism.

Pro-poor tourism tilts the policy balance in favour of securing advantages, like direct and indirect employment and entrepreneurship opportunities, for the poor in tourism projects. Pro-poor tourism becomes a vehicle for development that improves and creates linkages between tourism, businesses and poor people, and leads to a reduction in poverty (Visser & Rogerson, 2004).

Pro-poor tourism strategies are concerned specifically with the impacts on poor people, though the non-poor may also benefit. These strategies rely on and must be integrated into a wider domestic tourism system and are not a stand-alone option. It has been critiqued on both substantive and conceptual issues, such as that there is no clear link between pro-poor initiatives and poverty reduction and it does not take into account commercial viability and access to markets (Harrison, 2008).

Tensions within power relations are central to pro-poor and community empowerment tourism initiatives. Amongst pro-poor researchers a focus on power and issues such relational rights should be central (Church & Coals, 2007). Viable poverty-focused policies and programmes would require a thorough and holistic understanding of poverty. A major weakness in the economics of tourism is the lack of systematic studies on where the visitor's expenditure actually ends up, how much 'leaks' away and how much 'trickles down' to ordinary citizens. Recent experiences suggest that while local communities have lost their existing income sources, very little has been achieved to bring about more balanced development and equitable distribution of income secured from tourism. Efforts to battle hunger and poverty in poor and developing communities are being undermined by the massive land use change from food-producing land to tourism zones (Leslie, 2012).

In order to be pro-poor, growth must deliver disproportionate benefits to the poor to reduce inequalities, which have been found to limit the potential for poverty alleviation. Hence, it is necessary to shift policy focus from growth to equity, which calls for strong institutions capable of regulating the tourism sector and distributing assets in order to facilitate 'pro-poor growth' (Schilcher, 2007). Findings suggests that residents' perceptions of the benefits and costs of tourism and their trust in government actors were significant determinants of political support (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013).

The 'Bala River Rural Tourism Demonstration Project' includes seven villages along the Bala River Valley in the Guizhou province of China, and was chosen in 2003 as a rural tourism demonstration project. The governments of the province, prefecture and county were managing this project and the total investment costs were about 9 million Yuan. The major local ventures are run by the local people and include transportation, tour guiding, food supply services and handicrafts. Stimulated by tourism, the conditions for water supply, power, telecommunications, sanitation and roads have been greatly improved. The local government coordinated some promotion activities for the seven villages. The

direct and indirect jobs represent nearly 700 people, and the average income in the villages increased from 300 Yuan before developing tourism to 1 200 Yuan (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2006).

The 'Chamarel Integrated Development Project' in the small deprived village of Chamarel in the South West of Mauritius was chosen as a region to pilot test a community-based eco-tourism project. The Ministry of Tourism and Leisure was managing the project and the total investment was 1.5 million rand. Emphasis was placed on creating jobs for local people and to provide special training. The supply of goods was sourced from locals and there were also direct sales of goods to visitors. There were improvements to the water supply, roads, and sanitation and telecommunication facilities. Approximately 70 000 tourists now visit Chamarel each year (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2006).

The 'Makuleke Land Restitution and Conservation Project' in the Limpopo province of South Africa consists of three villages where the Makuleke community lives, and which is characterised by 1 849 unemployed households out of 2 967 total households. The Makuleke community were amongst the first claimants to win their land back in 1999 and the community initiated the project but also received help from the government. Through the project, poor people could apply for temporary construction jobs as well as permanent jobs in the lodge or as rangers. The contract between the community and the private operators states that every effort should be made to employ Makuleke residents. Several small businesses were set up in the community to service the tourism operations. There are also direct sales of goods and services to visitors. The community sped up the process of electrification and the building of schools through money earned from tourism (United Nations World Tourism Organization, 2006).

The Madikwe Game Reserve in the North West province of South Africa can also be seen as an example of successful pro-poor wildlife tourism in South Africa. It was created in 1991 and is run as a joint venture between the government, the private sector and local communities (De Beer & De Beer, 2011). Rogerson (2006) argue that the growth of pro-poor tourism initiatives in South Africa suggests that the country is currently a laboratory for the testing and evolution of new approaches towards the planning of LED that potentially will have relevance for other countries in the developing world. Saayman, Rossouw and Krugell (2012), however, argues that the poor benefit very little in the short term from additional tourism income. A further finding from their study is that domestic and international visitor expenditure affect the economy differently and therefore both markets are important. In essence, the research confirms that tourism receipts can be used as a tool to alleviate

poverty, but in South Africa this must be supported by policies that focus on the labour market and human resource development (Saayman, Rossouw & Krugel, 2012).

In assessing the roles that domestic tourism and conservation of the natural environment can play in rural development in South Africa, there seems to be many areas that are good for eco-tourism, but these remain underexploited because of the lack of appropriate infrastructure and poor marketing. While domestic tourism has the advantage of promoting labour-intensive employment, the resulting jobs are often menial, with low wages and poor opportunities for advancement (Seethal, 2002).

2.4.2 Policy considerations

The study of tourism politics takes tourism science and political science as its basic discipline and uses both of their theories and methods as its theoretical foundation. It brings the broad vision of politics into tourism research, thus greatly broadening the scope of tourism studies and enriching its contents and providing a great many new perspectives for tourism research (Yang & Liang, 2008).

Tourism must have a politics; its presence changes the distribution of power and wealth, and promotes some values and groups over others (Shanks, 2008). Tourism and politics have been explicitly related to each other in southern Africa for many years. These relationships occur as a result of the effects that governments and their actions have had on the of the images of the countries of the region as a whole, the extent to which tourism is used as a means of economic and social development and the way in which tourism is entrenched within broader political structures and processes (Hall, 2009).

The local interactions of tourism with politics are increasingly being framed by global realities. A clear understanding of the political nature of tourism is an essential precursor for innovation and co-operation within the tourism sector (Burns & Novelli, 2006). Political change has affected the patterns, processes and directions of tourism development (Hall, 2010). Although tourism has become a global growth sector and governments have become increasingly inclined to engage with it as a means of achieving economic growth, relatively little is understood about how the state can act to influence tourism's growth trajectory (O'Brian, 2011).

An appreciation of politics emerges as central to comprehending the place of tourism in a country and the underlying dynamics of the tourism sector within a country. This requires a shift from researching and understanding what tourism is, to focus on how tourism works, how it is accomplished in different locations within a country and how it leads to different impacts (Johannesson, Ren & van der Duim, 2015).

Policy is inseparable from politics. Tourism policy is therefore a course of government action or inaction in specific relation to tourism. There exists a complexity between tourism politics and policy making. Political decisions over the location of transport infrastructure, such as airports, railway lines and roads, which usually fall under the realm of transport policy, will be critical to the competitive advantage of some locations in tourism development within a country than others (Hall, 2010). Tourism development itself is political in terms of policy decisions about public expenditure together with support and mediation on the sustainable use of resources (Burns & Novelli, 2006).

Tourism is seen as a sector of appeal to governments, as governments are usually eager to maximise economic returns. Stability and security are shown to be critical and their absence will deter visitors and the tourism sector which are very averse to risk (Henderson, 2008).

Within the context of emerging world regions South Africa is one of few examples in which domestic tourism has emerged as a significant policy focus. Initiatives to nurture domestic tourism strengthened since democratic transition but have accelerated particularly since the early 2000s (Rogerson & Mthombeni, 2015). Tourism-based development in developing countries follows from trends in more developed countries. Tourism has been identified as a key local economic development (LED) strategy in South Africa, stressing the importance of tourism as an anchor to grow local economies (Binns & Nel, 2002). One of the most distinguishing aspects of the South African national tourism policy framework is its strong commitment towards tourism assuming a developmental role (Visser & Rogerson, 2004).

Tourism-based LED development has the potential to serve as a catalyst for both economic and social development (Meyer & Meyer, 2015). LED is a mechanism through which South Africa's legacy of apartheid-based injustices can be partially addressed (Binns & Nel, 2002). Rogerson (2013) makes an argument for the need for widespread capacity building for local governments in tourism planning which must include both those local governments which are the leading destinations for tourism visits and those localities which are tourism-dependent local economies. In addition, he also highlights the need for expanded locality research into the locally different forms of tourism which drive LED.

Butler (2006) explains that every potential tourism area experiences a hypothetical life cycle of six steps. The exploration stage is characterised by small numbers of visitors making individual travel arrangements and follows irregular visitor patterns. During the involvement phase, the number of visitors increase and some local residents will start providing facilities primarily or even exclusively aimed at the visitors. The developmental stage reflects a well-defined tourist market area, shaped in part by heavy advertising in visitor-generating areas. When the consolidation stage is entered the rate of increase of visitors will start declining, although the numbers will still be increasing. Total visitor

numbers could now exceed the number of the permanent population. As the area enters the stagnation stage the peak number of visitors will have been reached. There will be a heavy reliance on repeat visitation and on conventions of similar on similar forms of traffic. When the area enters the decline stage it will no longer be able to compete with newer attractions and will face a declining market, both spatially and numerically.

Due to the geographical dimension of China, the potential of tourism is immense, and while international visitors account for the highest absolute figures in the metropolitan cities like Beijing and Shanghai, the greatest majority of domestic visitors are Chinese citizens. It is estimated that there are at least 20 times as many Chinese visitors than international visitors. There are strong indications to the growing regional participation of local people in the development of domestic tourism (Gormsen, 1990). In Guizhou, tourism efforts effectively reduced poverty, and the government claims that it developed tourism in 648 ethnic villages, increasing incomes sufficiently to bring nearly 100 000 households and 330 000 people out of poverty. But in Yunnan, the tourism sector increased economic growth but did little to reduce poverty (Donaldson, 2007).

In 1992, the Brazilian Tourism Institute (EMBRATUR) launched a national tourism plan that would promote regional development by developing poles of integrated tourism in an effort to even out the geographic distribution of infrastructure. The modernisation of the spaces to support tourism activities generated a new territorial division between the coastal belt and the areas established for local communities. The failure to use local labour in the construction of such tourism projects worsened the regional imbalance in society (Bartholo, Delamaro, Bursztyn & Hallewell, 2008).

In Namibia there is a concentric circle pattern of tourism which reflects two interrelated levels of core-periphery relationships. In the internal one, tourism activity and capital are concentrated mainly in the inner (Windhoek) and outer core (commercial lands beyond Windhoek), with significant penetrations into the state-owned peripheral nature reserves. The impoverished communal lands account for very little tourism activity. The integration of the communal areas into the Namibian tourism sector could be facilitated through a policy of regional incentives for investors, community-based tourism development corporations and through legislation which would give ownership of wildlife resources to the residents of the communal periphery. The Namibian government has identified nature tourism as a key component to economic growth and poverty alleviation (Silva & Khatiwada, 2014).

Still Bay, in the Western Cape, can be considered a successful example of tourism-driven LED in South Africa. The number of tourists increased from a few thousand in the early 1990s to 25 000 in 1999; 250 new houses were built in die 1990s, increasing the permanent residence base in the town;

the number of businesses increased from 60 in 1990 to 170 in 2001; and about 700 permanent new jobs were created (Binns & Nel, 2002).

Other emerging LED strategies in South Africa relate to the development of 'route tourism'. This entails the collective marketing of a grouping of adjacent tourism facilities in order to compete more effectively with larger and more established tourism destinations. Evidence from the KwaZulu-Natal Midlands and the Highlands Meander in Mpumalanga suggests that these initiatives have been successful in terms of tourism enterprise development and employment creation (Visser & Rogerson, 2004).

Tourism routes have emerged as a significant element for promotion of tourism, especially in small towns and rural areas (Rogerson, 2007). In South Africa, considerable policy attention is currently focused upon the development of new tourism routes. In examining the local development impacts of the Magaliesberg Meander, a route tourism initiative that traverses across two South African provinces, Rogerson (2007) argues that whilst this tourism route has extended the tourism growth potential of the locality, its wider impacts upon surrounding communities have been limited. This was attributed to the weakness of local government to address issues concerning tourism planning.

Local governments need to be involved in LED – both as entrepreneurs and as local coordinators of the sector. The domestic tourism strategy needs to consist of various components, such as the provision of infrastructure, building of institutional capacity, partnership formation, and increased and coordinated marketing, to name a few (Meyer & Meyer 2015). The study by Ramukumba, Mmbengwa, Mwamayi and Groenewald (2012) found that 47.5% of respondents who participated in LED partnerships in the George municipality of Western Cape Province see the overall support by the municipality as poor while 50,0% of the respondents receive no support from the municipality. In addition, it was found that the respondents regarded the state of partnership as average.

The majority of South African domestic tourism enterprises are small firms, and because of the legacy of apartheid, the majority of domestic tourism enterprises are under white ownership. In terms of economic transformation and support for black economic empowerment, the domestic tourism sector has been at the forefront of change and an active focus for a number of transformation initiatives. The emergence of township tourism is largely a phenomenon of the post-apartheid period (Rogerson, 2004).

Partnerships have been a central feature of the tourism public policy for some time. By sharing expertise and decision making, commitment to the local tourism project is ensured. By participating in partnership working, small firms are said to contribute to the form and competitiveness of the

tourism offer. In most cases such assertions are misplaced because ‘partnerships’ organised by the public sector are often predicated on an inadequate conceptualisation of small firms in tourism, fail to appreciate the importance and complexity of informal economic relations, and usually ignore the particular power relations at play in local tourism policy formation and change (Thomas, 2007).

In both Soweto and Alexandra in the Gauteng province of South Africa, there is a focus upon using township tourism as a lever for promoting small enterprise development by local entrepreneurs. One of the most important side effects of the expansion of township tourism is the creation of full-time and part-time employment opportunities (Rogerson, 2004). A sample of 25 small, medium and micro-enterprises (SMMEs) in Alexandra provided 136 income opportunities, and 36 Soweto SMMEs provided a total of 107 income opportunities. It is important to note that guided tours in South African townships, Brazilian favelas, and Indian slums are a very complex tourism phenomena (Rolfes, 2010). Booyens (2010), in her study on township tourism in Soweto, calls for responsible township tourism development in South Africa in which local authorities play a vital role. She also recommends the development of township tourism attractions, with a focus on culture and heritage, to create unique visitor experiences.

Kaplan (2004) highlights the lack of an adequately skilled local tourism workforce as a factor that could inhibit the development of a strong national tourism sector in South Africa. This would necessitate coordination and integration, alignment between the education and training system and the requirements of the changing tourism sector as well as funding for skills development.

2.5 CONCLUSION

Under apartheid, domestic tourism was in many respects anti-developmental in nature. The GAA and the Reservation of Separate Amenities Act enforced racial segregation and precluded the black African population from actively being domestic visitors and participating in the domestic tourism economy within South Africa. The South African government adopted the White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism as South Africa’s official tourism policy in 1996. The NDT has developed the NTSS and the NDTGS, which set practical measures to generate greater value from domestic travel and domestic tourism in South Africa.

Domestic tourism is an urban-rural sector and is seen as a regional development tool to assist in the creation of new local economic activities. There needs to be political will to support the economic integration between regions and there may be a significant regional component to variations in domestic travel. One of the most challenging issues concerning the South African domestic tourism

space economy is that it is highly uneven and consequently the potential extent for inclusive development is uneven as well.

Domestic tourism exists within a political-economic framework. Interactions between tourism and politics exists and policy is inseparable from politics. Political change has affected the patterns, processes and directions of tourism development. There is competitiveness between domestic tourism destinations, and what makes a domestic tourism destination truly competitive is its ability to increase domestic tourism expenditure. Any domestic tourism development within a destination region will generate economic benefits, some proportion of which will be enjoyed by regions other than the destination region.

Any domestic visitor will be motivated by pull factors and push factors, but a push-pull framework for the motivations of domestic visitors is a complex phenomenon. Poverty is not confined to one racial group in South Africa, but it is heavily concentrated among the black African population group. There are new 'income gaps' in the South African society, between a more multi-racial middle class and the rest of society. Pro-poor tourism strategies are concerned specifically with the impacts on poor people, though the non-poor may also benefit, but such strategies have to take into account commercial viability and access to markets.

One of the most distinguishing aspects of the South African national tourism policy framework is its strong commitment towards tourism assuming a developmental role. In terms of economic transformation and support for black economic empowerment, the domestic tourism sector has been at the forefront of change. The lack of an adequately skilled local tourism workforce has been identified as a factor that could inhibit the development of a strong national tourism sector in South Africa.

Studies focusing on the spatial movement and residency patterns of domestic visitors within countries are important because they provide clues to the regional distribution of domestic tourism impact. It is, however, important to note that domestic visitors do not bring instant development.

CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This study will be empirical in nature and will be based on a positivistic meta-theory. Empirical research is based on observed and measured phenomena. Key characteristics are that specific research questions are to be answered; there is a definition of the population or phenomena being studied; and there is a description of the process used to study this population or phenomena. Empirical studies are the collection and analysis of primary data based on direct observation or experiences in the field. Positivism, also often referred to (in various versions) as ‘empiricism’, ‘foundationalism’, ‘instrumentalism’, ‘logicism’, ‘modernism’, ‘objectivism’, or ‘scientism’ is the orthodox metatheory deployed in natural and social science, and positivism builds upon several assumptions (Sousa, 2010).

3.2 LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review will start with a discussion of the theoretical foundation (the tourism system and regional convergence-divergence) of the study. Next, the factors that influence domestic tourism will be discussed, with an assessment of case studies from the developing world, an African country, South Africa and lastly, the Gauteng province within South Africa.

The themes that the literature study will examine are the tourism system, tourism and regional convergence-divergence, the factors that influence domestic tourism in South Africa, pro-poor tourism, and tourism and LED.

3.3 STUDY AREA

The study area is South Africa and its nine provinces. The data analyses and presentation of domestic tourism expenditure will be done on a provincial level from 2013 to 2015. For Gauteng, there will be a test done on the Gauteng domestic tourism expenditure data from the Stats SA DTS at the district municipality level from 2013 to 2015. This will be to establish what data analyses and presentation is currently possible at the district municipal level given the sampling limitations from the Stats SA DTS from 2013 to 2015.

3.4 DATA SOURCES, DATA COLLECTION, DATA SAMPLING AND DATA DESIGN

The Stats SA DTS is the official measure of domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure within the country. The key objective of this survey is to understand the domestic travel behaviour of an average South African resident. It is a large-scale annual household survey aimed at collecting accurate statistics on the travel behaviour and expenditure of South African residents

travelling within the borders of the country. Data collection (a demand-side survey) is continuous and divided into four quarters. The sample size is 32 000 households. The DTS covers all domestic tourism activity of all members in the household, and domestic tourism trips and expenditure are separated between same-day visitors and tourists. Worth noting is that the survey excludes persons who were not part of the household for at least four nights on average per week, during the last four weeks before the interview date.

The DTS uses the Master Sample frame that has been developed as a general-purpose household survey frame that can be used by all other Stats SA household surveys that have reasonably compatible design requirements. The Master Sample used a two-staged, stratified design with probability-proportional-to-size (PPS) sampling of primary sampling units (PSUs) from within strata, and systematic sampling of dwelling units (DUs) from the sampled PSUs. A self-weighting design at provincial level is used.

A randomised probability-proportional-to-size (RPPS) systematic sample of PSUs is drawn in each stratum, with the measure of size being the number of households in the PSU. The number of PSUs in the current Master Sample (3 324) reflect an 8,0% increase in the size of the Master Sample compared to the previous (2008) Master Sample (which had 3 080 PSUs). The DTS 2015 was based on the new Master Sample that was developed after Census 2011. The organisation of fieldwork of the DTS 2015 is also different from the DTS 2014, in that the DUs to be visited each month were pre-determined by methodology in order to ensure an even spread of DUs per stratum for each month.

Since the DTS data are collected for each calendar month for the reference period, each month is weighted separately. The final sample weights were constructed by calibrating the non-response adjusted design weights to the known population estimates using the 'Integrated Household Weighting' method. The sample selection methods or sampling rates within PSUs were modified during DU sample selection in two different scenarios; that is, the segmentation of informal PSUs and sub-sampling within growth PSUs, for reasons related to operational feasibility and/or cost implications. The sampled PSUs can be classified into two response categories based on the DU sample drawn, namely whether it contained or potentially could have contained eligible DUs, and when it contained eligible DUs, whether it contained a respondent household or not.

The sampling is provincially representative from 2013 to 2015 and will be provincially and municipally representative from the 2016 sample (to be released in 2017/2018 as the DTS, 2016). This has implications for the representativeness of data presented at a level lower than provincial level for the 2013 to 2015 DTS results. A part of this study will focus on the Gauteng domestic tourism expenditure data, at district municipality level, to establish what data analyses and

presentation is currently possible at the district municipal level given the sampling limitations from the Stats SA DTS from 2013 to 2015.

Table 3.1 indicates the variables that will be obtained from the DTS for 2013 to 2015.

Table 3.1: Variables to be obtained from the Statistics South Africa Domestic Tourism Survey

| Variables to be used | Data source |
|--|--------------------|
| | DTS, 2013 to 2015 |
| <i>Domestic tourism expenditure:</i> | |
| Total expenditure on domestic tourism trips by province of origin and province of destination | |
| Total expenditure on domestic tourism same-day trips by province of origin and province of destination | |
| Total expenditure on domestic tourism overnight trips by province of origin and province of destination | |
| Total expenditure on domestic tourism trips by district municipality of origin for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| Total expenditure on domestic tourism same-day trips by district municipality of origin for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| Total expenditure on domestic tourism overnight trips by district municipality of origin for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| <i>Domestic tourism trip information:</i> | |
| Domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips by month, for South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| The most recent domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip by province of origin for South Africa | |
| The most recent domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip by purpose, for South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| The most recent domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip by mode of transport, for South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| <i>Sociodemographic information:</i> | |
| The most recent domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip by gender, for South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| The most recent domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip by age group, for South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| The most recent domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip by population group, for South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| The most recent domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip by level of education, for South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |
| <i>Socio-economic information:</i> | |
| The most recent domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip by living standard measure group, for South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng | |

3.5 DATA PROCESSING AND ANALYSES

The analyses was based on descriptive statistics. Data processing and the analysis of domestic tourism expenditure at the provincial level will started with compiling tables for the total domestic tourism expenditure for all nine provinces from 2013 to 2015. These tables were used to establish the province of origin of domestic tourism expenditure by the province of destination of the domestic tourism expenditure at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015. The total domestic tourism expenditure tables compiled in the previous step was then further broken down by two variables from the Stats SA DTS from 2013 to 2015, namely same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure (showing province of origin of same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure by the province of destination of the same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure at the provincial level). The variables described under 'domestic tourism expenditure' in Table 3.1 in this chapter will be used in this analysis. The results of this data processing and analyses step is presented as a table.

From the above tables, the total domestic tourism expenditure, same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure received by a province from non-resident domestic visitors as well as the total domestic tourism expenditure flowing out of the province from the resident domestic visitors was calculated on the provincial level from 2013 to 2015. These calculations was then used to determine whether a province had a net inflow of same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure or a net outflow of same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure from 2013 to 2015. The results of this data processing and analyses step is presented as maps, for both same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015, using geographic information systems (GIS) software.

The total domestic tourism expenditure, same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure of resident domestic visitors travelling only within the resident province was also calculated from 2013 to 2015. The result of the calculations was then used to determine the proportion of total domestic tourism expenditure, same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure generated within the resident province that never leaves the borders of that province and is exclusively spent only within that resident province, from 2013 to 2015. The results of this data processing and analyses step is presented as a table.

The outcome of the data processing and analysis processes described above was used to explain the changes in the total domestic tourism expenditure, same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and

overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure patterns across South Africa at provincial level from 2013 to 2015. These results also assisted to establish how the changes in the total domestic tourism expenditure, same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure patterns contributed to regional convergence-divergence across South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015.

As a test of the district municipality data and the possible analysis and presentation that could be done from the Stats SA DTS from 2013 to 2015, given the sampling limitations, the data analysis steps described above was repeated for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. These data analyses steps was also repeated for total domestic tourism expenditure, same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. The variables described under ‘domestic tourism expenditure’ in Table 3.1 in this chapter was used in this analysis.

To supplement the total domestic tourism expenditure, same-day trip domestic tourism expenditure and overnight trip domestic tourism expenditure results of the first data analysis steps described above the different domestic tourism variables described under ‘domestic tourism trip information’, ‘sociodemographic information’ and ‘socio-economic information’ in Table 3.1 was then explored. The outcome of these data analysis steps was used to determine the changes in the domestic tourism patterns and trends at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015, as well as to determine the changes in the sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of domestic visitors for South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015. These data processing and analyses steps was also tested for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. The results of this data processing and analyses step is presented as graphs.

CHAPTER 4: DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSES OF DOMESTIC TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA FROM 2013 TO 2015

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter will provide an in-depth analysis of the results for the selected variables from the Stats SA DTS from 2013 to 2015 (the variables described in Chapter 3 in Table 3.1). This descriptive analysis was done in order to determine the regional convergence-divergence effects of domestic tourism and the associated domestic tourism expenditure patterns for South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015.

The inter-regional mobility of capital and labour is one of the major factors that influence regional convergence-divergence (Bishop, Formby & Thistle, 1994). The flow of the capital and labour for regional convergence must be from the leading region(s) to the lagging region(s). This implies that for domestic tourism expenditure and its associated domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa, the flow of capital (i.e. domestic tourism expenditure) should be from the more socio-economically leading provinces of the country (Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape) to the more socio-economically lagging provinces of the country (Eastern Cape, Free-State, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Northern Cape and North West). As the inter-regional mobility of capital and labour is one of the major factors that influence regional convergence-divergence, this would also imply that both capital and labour should cross some sort of provincial boundary in order to influence regional convergence-divergence within the country at the provincial level.

The origin of the domestic tourism expenditure of Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng was also tested at district municipality level from 2013 to 2015. The domestic tourism same-day trips and overnight trip patterns and trends, the sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of domestic visitors travelling within South Africa from 2013, and the trends and patterns of Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015 were then analysed. Studies focusing on the spatial movement and residency patterns of domestic visitors within countries are important and should focus on the motivation, behaviour and the impact of domestic visitors within the country (Manwa & Mmereki, 2008).

International tourism is dependent on exogenous factors which are beyond the control of the country. Domestic tourism is not influenced by these factors since domestic visitors are able to evaluate the environment first hand. Other arguments in favour of promoting domestic tourism include the fact that the level of domestic tourism determines the level of international tourism within a country. A

high domestic tourism demand within the country creates an environment and conditions that are favourable for the development of international tourism (Manwa & Mmereki, 2008).

Some studies document the favourable economic and developmental impact of regional domestic tourism on regional development by introducing new external resources of monetary income into the regional economy. Other studies argue that the impact of regional domestic tourism was not that positive and increased regional inequality because of its polarising nature. Domestic tourism between regions within the country is not always competitive. There could be a significant diffusion effect between the regions, which means that one region's domestic tourism growth benefits other regions with which it has a spatial connection (Zhang, 2009).

4.2 DOMESTIC TOURISM EXPENDITURE IN SOUTH AFRICA FROM 2013 TO 2015

Table 4.1 shows the total domestic tourism expenditure for South Africa by the province of origin and the type of domestic tourism trip from 2013 to 2015. It is clear that Gauteng was the main driver of domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa, as the province generated about a third of all domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa for the period 2013 to 2015, followed by Western Cape. The third biggest province for the generation of domestic tourism expenditure differs according to the year being studied and varies between Mpumalanga in 2013 and 2014 and North West in 2015. Table 4.1 also indicates that Northern Cape made the lowest contribution to all domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa for the period 2013 to 2015, followed by Free State.

The structural dimensions of a country's tourism sector, and in particular the spatial structure of domestic tourism production and consumption is geographically focused, with domestic visitor activities concentrated in a few locales and sub-regions (Cornelissen, 2007). The results calculated in Table 4.1 show that the origins of domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure for South Africa seem to be following the general demographic and economic conditions existing in each of the provinces.

It is not surprising that Gauteng was the province of origin for the highest domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa from 2013 to 2015. Gauteng is the smallest but the most populous province in South Africa (comprising 25.3% of the total population of the country in 2017) with, by a large margin, the highest regional gross domestic product (GDPR) (34.1% of the total gross domestic product (GDP) of the country in 2015). It is also not surprising that Northern Cape made the lowest contribution to domestic tourism expenditure in the country from 2013 to 2015. Although it is the largest province in the country, it is also the least populated province (2.1% of the total

population of the country in 2017) with the smallest GDP (2.1% of the total GDP of the country in 2015) (Stats SA, 2017; Stats SA, 2017).

Table 4.1: Domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa by province of origin, 2013–2015 (R'000)

| Province of origin | Type of domestic trip | 2013 | 2014 | 2015 |
|--|------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| Eastern Cape | Same day trips | 3 243 549 | 3 079 331 | 1 933 639 |
| | Overnight trips | 4 996 045 | 4 940 845 | 5 058 226 |
| | Total | 8 239 594 | 8 020 176 | 6 991 864 |
| Free State | Same day trips | 2 202 954 | 1 374 909 | 332 067 |
| | Overnight trips | 4 009 970 | 4 299 244 | 1 684 826 |
| | Total | 6 212 924 | 5 674 153 | 2 016 893 |
| Gauteng | Same day trips | 7 084 719 | 5 856 637 | 7 698 320 |
| | Overnight trips | 25 221 572 | 28 279 098 | 21 493 256 |
| | Total | 32 306 290 | 34 135 735 | 29 191 576 |
| Limpopo | Same day trips | 4 608 353 | 5 080 193 | 1 948 141 |
| | Overnight trips | 4 566 374 | 4 417 909 | 4 257 839 |
| | Total | 9 174 727 | 9 498 102 | 6 205 980 |
| KwaZulu-Natal | Same day trips | 3 115 630 | 2 179 661 | 749 607 |
| | Overnight trips | 6 928 936 | 5 545 948 | 4 366 189 |
| | Total | 10 044 566 | 7 725 609 | 5 115 796 |
| Mpumalanga | Same day trips | 5 273 869 | 4 189 750 | 2 391 797 |
| | Overnight trips | 5 557 950 | 5 692 412 | 4 845 258 |
| | Total | 10 831 820 | 9 882 162 | 7 237 055 |
| Northern Cape | Same day trips | 1 961 591 | 2 184 480 | 1 066 297 |
| | Overnight trips | 2 694 694 | 2 253 838 | 2 134 256 |
| | Total | 4 656 286 | 4 438 318 | 3 200 554 |
| North-West | Same day trips | 4 199 906 | 3 795 531 | 3 280 447 |
| | Overnight trips | 4 692 550 | 5 116 431 | 4 955 582 |
| | Total | 8 892 456 | 9 026 240 | 8 236 030 |
| Western Cape | Same day trips | 3 722 984 | 10 878 279 | 5 458 470 |
| | Overnight trips | 9 798 183 | 10 566 271 | 13 084 109 |
| | Total | 13 521 167 | 21 444 550 | 18 542 579 |
| Total expenditure: South Africa | <i>Same day trips</i> | 35 413 555 | 38 733 050 | 24 858 785 |
| | <i>Overnight trips</i> | 68 466 275 | 71 111 995 | 61 879 542 |
| | Total | 103 879 830 | 109 845 045 | 86 738 327 |

Figure 4.1 shows the net inflow and net outflow of domestic tourism same-day trip expenditure and domestic tourism overnight trip expenditure for South Africa by province from 2013 to 2015. The net inflow or net outflow of domestic tourism expenditure for a province is the difference between the domestic tourism expenditure spent by the non-resident domestic visitors in a province minus the domestic tourism expenditure of the resident domestic visitors of that province that is spent in the other provinces. The results of the net inflow and net outflow of domestic tourism same-day trip expenditure and domestic tourism overnight trip expenditure for South Africa from 2013 to 2015 was used to determine how domestic tourism and the associated domestic tourism expenditure contribute to regional convergence-divergence within South Africa at the provincial level. Table 4.2 shows the percentage of domestic tourism expenditure that was spent within the provincial border by province of origin, from 2013 to 2015.

From 2013 to 2015, Gauteng experienced the biggest net outflow of total domestic tourism expenditure, specifically for domestic tourism overnight trips, followed by Mpumalanga and North West. KwaZulu-Natal experienced the biggest net inflow of total domestic tourism expenditure, specifically for domestic tourism overnight trips, from 2013 to 2015, followed by Eastern Cape and Limpopo. One of the single most important determinants of regional domestic tourism income within the country could simply be the province/s within which the preferred destination expenditure is located (James & Krieckhaus, 2008).

It is clear that Gauteng conformed the most closely to this regional convergence precondition of the flow of capital (i.e. domestic tourism expenditure) from a leading province to a lagging province(s) from 2013 to 2015, and thereby contributed to regional convergence between the provinces of South Africa as it was calculated in this study for domestic tourism expenditure and its associated domestic tourism expenditure.

KwaZulu-Natal had the largest net inflow of domestic tourism expenditure from 2013 to 2015 and Western Cape also had a significant net inflow of domestic tourism expenditure from 2013 to 2014. As a certain proportion of this net inflow of domestic tourism expenditure into the two leading provinces of KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape does have its origins within the lagging provinces (Eastern Cape, Free-State, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, Northern Cape and North West) of the country, KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape contributed to regional divergence between the provinces of South Africa from 2013 to 2015 as it was calculated in this study for domestic tourism expenditure and its associated domestic tourism expenditure.

Although the Western Cape Government (Western Cape Government, 2017) reported a 3,0% per annum increase in domestic visitors arrivals for the province between 2013 to 2015, this increase did not translate into a corresponding increase in the associated domestic tourism expenditure and even resulted in a net outflow of domestic tourism expenditure in 2015, as the results of Figure 4.1 in this study highlights. Table 4.2 of this study also highlights that this reported increase in domestic visitors arrivals for the province, between 2013 to 2015, could be only increasing domestic tourism trips by Western Cape residents travelling within the borders of the province.

The tourism focus in the five year strategic plan of the Department of Economic Development and Tourism (Western Cape Government) seem to have very little focus or emphasis on domestic tourism. In the study of Cornelissen (2007) on the spatial structure of tourism in the Western Cape, she argues that current trends in capital investments in the Western Cape tend to reinforce the spatial concentration of tourism within the province. She also argues for greater emphasis to be placed on developing domestic tourism. The study by Ferreira (2007) investigates the special role that tourism plays in the growth and development of small towns in the Western Cape. Although many of the towns in the province possess the resources and attractions to support tourism development, competition is strong. Other prerequisites such as tourism infrastructure, potential investors, appropriate services and skilled labor are absent from many Western Cape towns.

Pillay and Rogerson (2013) state that tourism linkages in KwaZulu-Natal are geographically localised with limited pro-poor impacts. They also argue that here are multiple barriers that must be addressed in KwaZulu-Natal for pro-poor impacts to be realised. The KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Master Plan (KwaZulu-Natal Government) primary focus area is the Durban beach experience, and priority will be given in all planning and product development to improving the actual, and perceptions of, this experience. All other areas of focus are secondary. Secondary focus areas include: iSimangaliso, Lubombo and the Elephant Coast (for wildlife experiences); Ukhahlamba Drakensberg, Maloti Drakensberg, Pietermaritzburg and the Midlands (for scenic experiences), the North Coast (beach experience) and the South Coast (beach experience).

Mpumalanga, the Northern Cape and North West are all three less socio-economically developed provinces, or lagging provinces, within South Africa. The results of the calculations that this study explored highlights that all three the provinces experienced a significant net outflow of domestic tourism expenditure from 2013 to 2015. As a certain proportion of this net outflow of domestic tourism expenditure from these three lagging provinces does have as its destination the leading provinces of Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape. This means that Mpumalanga, the Northern Cape and North West contributed to regional divergence between the provinces of South Africa from

2013 to 2015 as it was calculated in this study for domestic tourism expenditure and its associated domestic tourism expenditure.

Mpumalanga has the potential to be a premier domestic tourism destination, but it has failed to translate the provinces resource base into a significant tourism sector. Fewer domestic visitors now visit Mpumalanga. Various reasons have been identified for this loss of domestic tourism market share. These reasons include insufficient marketing spend, lack of skills, poor quality service, shortcomings in infrastructure, poor and non-functioning institutional relationships and a history of too many fragmented programmes and initiatives (Mpumalanga Government, 2007)..

Although all of the reasons listed in the paragraph above have undoubtedly contributed to Mpumalanga's loss of competitiveness, the major reason is lack of product. Mpumalanga has a wealth of primary natural and cultural attractions and these are well documented (Kruger National Park, Blyde River Canyon, Bulembu Mountains, Sudwala Caves, cultural villages etc). But these primary attractions can only attract domestic tourism if there are adequate supporting facilities and services available. There is an insufficient supply of accommodation, standards are low, and there has been no significant new investment in the last couple of years in the tourism sector (Mpumalanga Government, 2007).

In the study of Saayman, Saayman and Rhodes (2001) on the contribution of domestic tourist spending and economic development in the North West province, they argued that the market potential of domestic tourism in the North West province has been downplayed in favor of international tourism. They also argued that tourism, especially domestic tourism, can contribute significantly to regional growth and development in South Africa. The study by Ashley (2005) also shows that tourism SMME's in the North West doesn't create many new job opportunities when partnering with the private sector.

The Northern Cape (Government of the Northern Cape) currently lists the following seven tourism projects in the Northern Cape on the website (<http://www.nceda.co.za/tourism-projects>) of the Northern Cape Economic Development, Trade and Investment Promotion Agency: Adventure sports resort (big hole precinct, Kimberley); Gems On Track (steam train tourism); Riemvasmaak Development Initiative; the establishment of an eco-resort at Boesmansput; the re-development and expansion of the Douglas holiday resort; the re-development and expansion of the Wildebeest Rock art centre and the wonderwerk cave.

From Table 4.2 it can be seen that the main difference between domestic tourism expenditure originating within Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape is that for Gauteng, the majority

(72,0%) of domestic tourism expenditure generated within the province was spent outside of the borders of the province itself.

This outflow of domestic tourism and its associated domestic expenditure from Gauteng that this study highlights reinforces the argument that domestic tourism is an urban-rural sector. Employed urban citizens visit the poorer rural areas in the country to escape the stressful city life and consume the tranquillity of the countryside, which makes domestic tourism more beneficial for the economy of rural areas (Mthembu, 2012). Gauteng conformed the most closely to the regional convergence precondition of the flow of capital (i.e. domestic tourism expenditure) crossing the border from a leading province to a lagging province(s). From 2013 to 2015 Gauteng was the province that made the biggest contribution to regional convergence, as measured by domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure, at the provincial level within South Africa from 2013 to 2015.

For KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape, the majority of domestic tourism expenditure generated within the provinces never crossed any of the provincial borders and was spent within the borders of the provinces themselves between 2013 to 2015. For the Western Cape between 28.0% to 45.0% of domestic tourism expenditure originating within the province was spent outside of the border of the province itself between 2013 to 2015. For KwaZulu-Natal between 40.0% to 44.0% of domestic tourism expenditure originating within the province was spent outside of the border of the province itself between 2013 to 2015. KwaZulu-Natal and the Western Cape contributed to regional divergence between the provinces of South Africa from 2013 to 2015 as it was calculated in this study for domestic tourism expenditure and its associated domestic tourism expenditure

Mpumalanga and North West, both lagging provinces within the country, had more than 50.0% of domestic tourism expenditure generated within the borders of the provinces spent outside of the borders of these provinces. A certain proportion of this net outflow of domestic tourism expenditure from these two lagging provinces does have as its destination the leading provinces of Gauteng, KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape of the country, thereby contributing to regional divergence between the provinces of South Africa as it as it was calculated in this study for domestic tourism expenditure and its associated domestic tourism expenditure from 2013 to 2015.

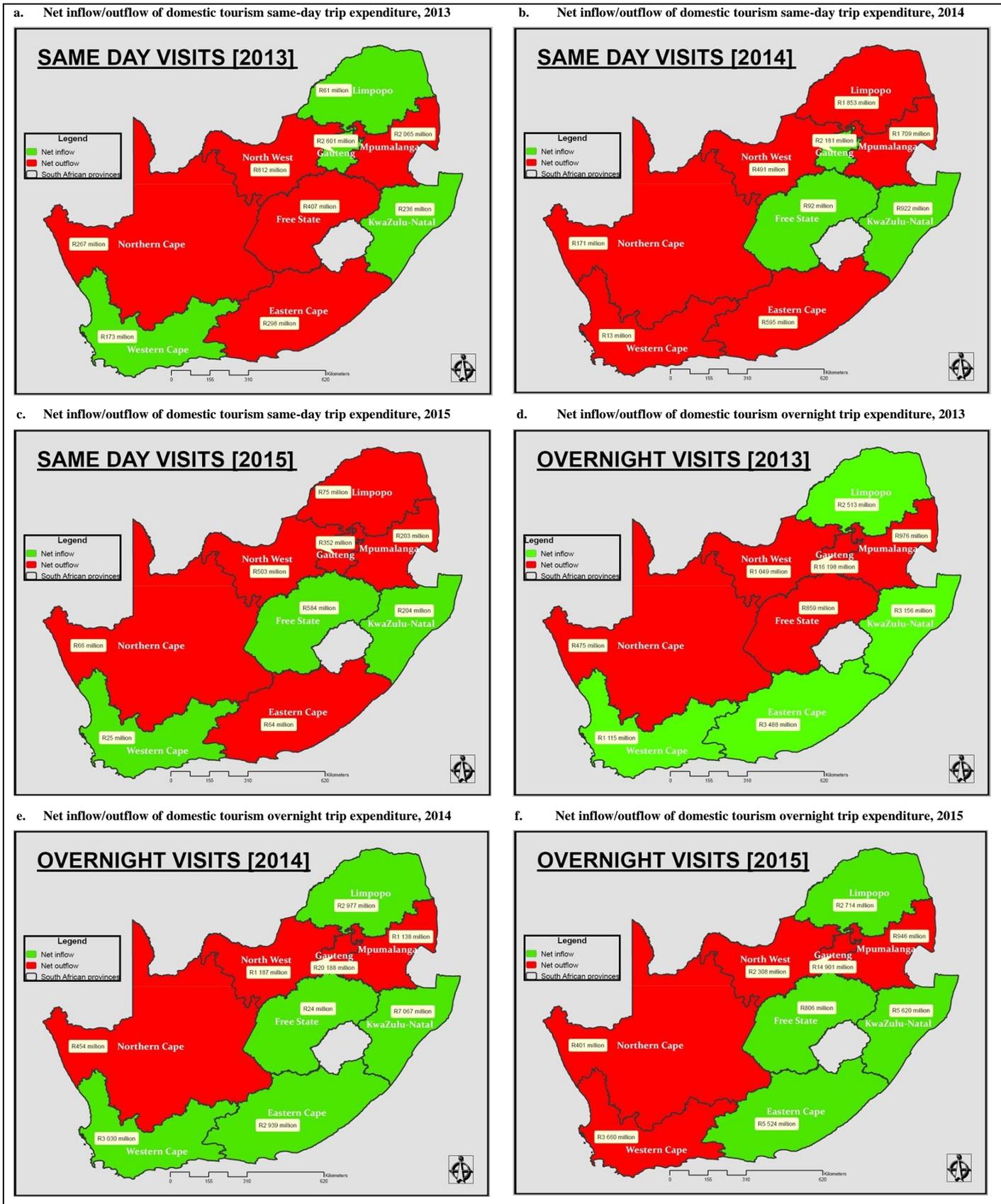


Figure 4.1: Net inflow and net outflow of domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip expenditure for South Africa by province, 2013–2015 (R million)

Table 4.2: Domestic tourism expenditure within the provincial border by province of origin, 2013–2015 (%)

| Province of origin | Type of domestic trip | Domestic tourism expenditure within the provincial border 2013 (%) | Domestic tourism expenditure within the provincial border 2014 (%) | Domestic tourism expenditure within the provincial border 2015 (%) |
|--------------------|-----------------------|--|--|--|
| Eastern Cape | Same-day trips | 82.2 | 78.4 | 93.2 |
| | Overnight trips | 42.0 | 39.8 | 52.7 |
| | Total | 57.8 | 54.6 | 63.9 |
| Free State | Same-day trips | 44.8 | 71.2 | 93.0 |
| | Overnight trips | 16.0 | 59.7 | 45.6 |
| | Total | 26.2 | 62.5 | 53.4 |
| Gauteng | Same-day trips | 60.2 | 68.3 | 55.3 |
| | Overnight trips | 5.8 | 2.7 | 4.6 |
| | Total | 17.7 | 14.0 | 18.0 |
| Limpopo | Same-day trips | 82.8 | 72.8 | 80.7 |
| | Overnight trips | 33.4 | 40.9 | 37.3 |
| | Total | 58.2 | 58.0 | 50.9 |
| KwaZulu-Natal | Same-day trips | 88.0 | 91.5 | 89.9 |
| | Overnight trips | 41.0 | 47.1 | 54.5 |
| | Total | 55.6 | 59.6 | 59.7 |
| Mpumalanga | Same-day trips | 43.3 | 45.5 | 56.9 |
| | Overnight trips | 29.3 | 24.9 | 28.0 |
| | Total | 36.1 | 33.6 | 37.6 |
| Northern Cape | Same-day trips | 74.0 | 79.1 | 86.4 |
| | Overnight trips | 27.9 | 23.8 | 33.0 |
| | Total | 47.3 | 51.0 | 50.8 |
| North West | Same-day trips | 58.7 | 63.9 | 40.2 |
| | Overnight trips | 32.9 | 51.2 | 27.8 |
| | Total | 45.1 | 42.0 | 32.8 |
| Western Cape | Same-day trips | 95.2 | 98.2 | 99.9 |
| | Overnight trips | 39.5 | 44.7 | 41.1 |
| | Total | 54.8 | 71.9 | 58.4 |

4.2.1 Domestic tourism expenditure of Gauteng residents within Gauteng by district municipality of origin from 2013 to 2015

Gauteng is the largest economic centre in Africa and is also South Africa's economic heartland (Steytler, 2007) (Rogerson & Visser, 2006). The Gauteng province is also a globally competitive city region (Shilowa, 2007). The urban areas of Gauteng offer geographical concentrations of facilities and attractions that are conveniently situated to meet the requirements of both residents and resident domestic visitors (Rogerson & Rogerson, 2016).

The province of Gauteng is sub-divided into six district municipalities, namely the City of Johannesburg metropolitan, the City of Tshwane metropolitan, the City of Ekurhuleni metropolitan, the Sedibeng district (includes Midvaal local, Lesedi local and Emfuleni local), the West Rand district (includes Mogale City local, Rand West City local and Merafong City local) and Metsweding district (includes Kungwini local and Nokeng tsa Taemane local).

Visser and Hoogendoorn (2012) state that tourism in Gauteng is mainly led by different forms of business tourism. There is a high degree of concentration in business tourism in Gauteng and it's strongly concentrated upon the City of Johannesburg and the City of Tshwane. Business tourism, by its very nature and professional operational setting, is less dependent on the availability of disposable income (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2017). More than one third of all leisure trips are accounted for by the four metropolitan areas of the City of Cape Town, eThekweni, City of Tshwane and the City of Johannesburg (McKelly, Rogerson, van Huysteen, Maritz & Ngidi, 2017).

Figure 4.2 shows the domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip expenditure for Gauteng residents within the borders of Gauteng by district municipality of origin for 2013 to 2015. It indicates that from 2013 to 2015 between 78.0% to 87.0% of the domestic tourism same-day trip expenditure of Gauteng residents within the borders of Gauteng originated in the City of Johannesburg metropolitan and the City of Tshwane metropolitan areas. For domestic tourism overnight trip expenditure of Gauteng residents within the borders of Gauteng from 2013 and 2015, between 49.0% to 71.0% of this expenditure originated in the City of Johannesburg metropolitan and the City of Tshwane metropolitan areas. From 2013 to 2015, the Gauteng district municipality with the lowest contribution to both domestic tourism same-day trip and domestic overnight trip expenditure within the borders of Gauteng was the Metsweding district area.

Gauteng generated R5,1 billion from domestic visitors in 2016 (an increase from R2,6 billion in 2015 (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2017)). The core cities of Johannesburg and Pretoria is the most dominant nodes, exerting great forces of attraction on the distribution of development and economic growth in the province (Brandt & Geyer, 2015). National capitols have always had special qualities

that attract domestic visitors (Maitland & Ritchie, 2009). The City of Tshwane is the fourth biggest domestic tourist destination in South Africa (McKelly, Rogerson, van Huysteen, Maritz & Ngidi, 2017). In the City of Johannesburg the promotion of urban tourism is linked to economic regeneration and urban economic development. The City of Johannesburg's tourism economy exhibits distinct geographical and sectoral clustering, with business tourism being the most vibrant subsector for tourism development (Rogerson, 2002). The City of Johannesburg is the second biggest and the city of Ekurhuleni the sixth biggest domestic tourist destination in South Africa (McKelly, Rogerson, van Huysteen, Maritz & Ngidi, 2017).

Domestic tourism is bread and butter and the current economic conditions in the country have put pressure on the domestic tourism market. This however provides an opportunity for the province of Gauteng to encourage intra-provincial travel for holiday breaks (Gauteng Tourism Authority, 2017).

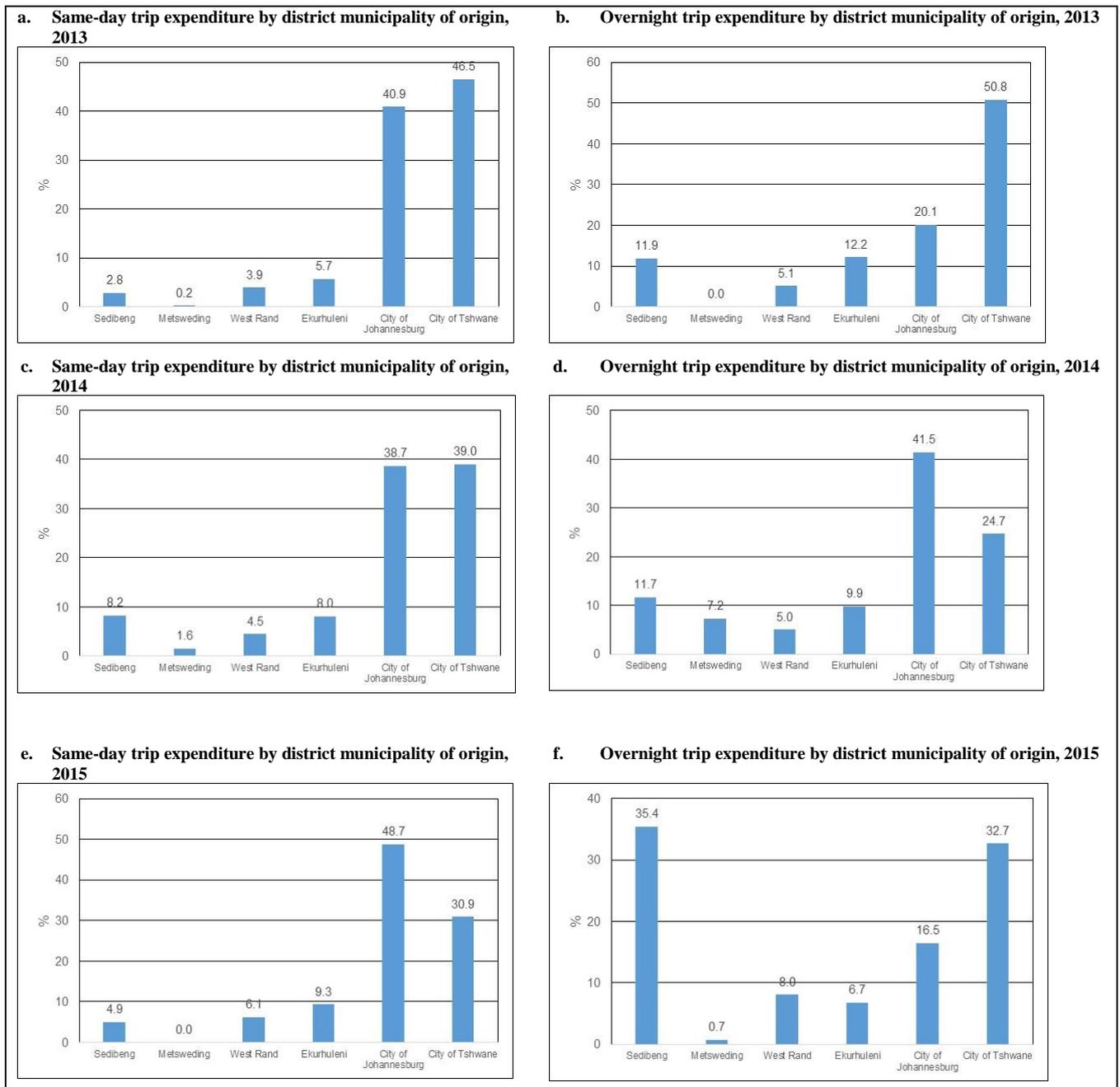


Figure 4.2: Domestic same-day trip and overnight trip expenditure for Gauteng residents within Gauteng, by district municipality of origin, 2013–2015

4.3 DOMESTIC TRIP, SOCIODEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF DOMESTIC VISITORS IN SOUTH AFRICA FROM 2013 TO 2015

The sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of the members of the household, such as age, gender, level of education and income will determine household participation in domestic tourism activities. Figure 4.3 shows selected domestic trip characteristics of the most recent domestic tourism same-day trips and overnight trips for South Africa from 2013 to 2015.

There has been a decrease in the total number of domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips over the period 2013 to 2015. The number of domestic tourism same-day trips decreased from 54 million in 2013 to 44 million in 2015, and domestic tourism overnight trips also decreased from approximately 51 million in 2013 to 45 million in 2015. The decreases in both domestic same-day trips and domestic overnight trips during the period reflect a general pattern of decline in domestic tourism over the past three years in the country, and are associated with economic stagnation and the re-prioritisation of consumer spending that has taken place in the country during that time (Stats SA, 2017).

January and December were the most popular months for both domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic overnight trips from 2013 to 2015, as January and December constitute the summer school holiday period for all the provinces in South Africa. November is the month in which the least domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic overnight trips were recorded.

About 25.0% of all most recent domestic tourism same-day trips originated from within Gauteng for the period 2013 to 2015, followed by Limpopo and Mpumalanga. The lowest number of most recent domestic tourism same-day trips originated in Free State and Northern Cape. About 30.0% of all most recent domestic overnight trips originated from within Gauteng for the period 2013 to 2015, followed by KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape. The lowest number of recent domestic overnight trips originated in Northern Cape and Free State. Gauteng is the most populated province in South Africa with the highest GDP, and Northern Cape is the least populated province with the smallest GDP in the country (Stats SA, 2017).

Figure 4.3 also indicates that from 2013 to 2015, more than 70.0% of domestic tourism overnight trips were taken by domestic tourists who visited friends and relatives (VFR), followed by those who stayed in hotels and self-catering establishments. Black Africans undertook domestic tourism same-day trips mainly for shopping and VFR, while Indian/Asian and white travellers mainly undertook domestic tourism same-day trips for VFR and for leisure. Coloureds undertook most of their domestic

tourism same-day trips for shopping and leisure. In relation to domestic overnight trips, black Africans undertook the majority of their domestic tourism overnight trips for VFR.

The VFR domestic tourism trips are essentially determined by where most friends and relatives stay, while the leisure trips, on the other hand, are influenced by other factors, notably attractive features accessible to the major centres of the population. Physical factors affecting domestic visitor movement patterns can be divided into three broad categories, namely destination configuration, attractions, and the transport network. This could explain the spatial patterns of domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips at regional level (provincial) in South Africa. Domestic visitor patterns can, however, be affected by a number of different factors, one of which will be time, that could either encourage or discourage the movement patterns of domestic visitors (Lau & McKercher, 2006).

For the period 2013–2015, travel by motor vehicle made up roughly 60.0% of all domestic tourism same-day trips (as shown in Figure 4.3). Taxis were the second most used mode of transport for domestic tourism same-day trips. Domestic tourism same-day visitors were the least likely to use aircraft in all three years. Domestic visitors were also more likely to use motor vehicles when undertaking domestic tourism overnight trips (49.0% in 2013, 50.7% in 2014 and 49.9% in 2015). Travel by taxis was the second most used mode of transport for domestic tourism overnight trips. The percentage of domestic visitors who used buses to reach their destinations remained mostly the same for all three years. Domestic visitors who stayed in caravan parks were the most likely to use motor vehicles as the mode of transport.

The most prevalent reason provided for not taking domestic same-day trips from 2013 to 2015 was that family and friends stayed within a 40-kilometre distance. Trips undertaken by individuals to destinations less than 40 kilometres from their usual residence are not deemed as being domestic tourism trips. A significant percentage of South African residents also failed to undertake domestic same-day trips from 2013 to 2015 because of financial reasons. The majority of South African residents that did not undertake domestic overnight trips stated that it was because the destinations were within a 40-kilometre radius from their usual residences, or for financial reasons. A sizeable number of individuals also said they were too busy at work or school to take a domestic overnight trip.

As financial reasons are specifically mentioned as one of the main reason for South African residents that did not undertake domestic same-day or overnight trips from 2013 to 2015, it highlights the fact that the levels of demand for domestic travel in South Africa are influenced by a person's ability to travel, with a predictable association between socio-economic status and vacationing at home or abroad (Pearce, 1989).

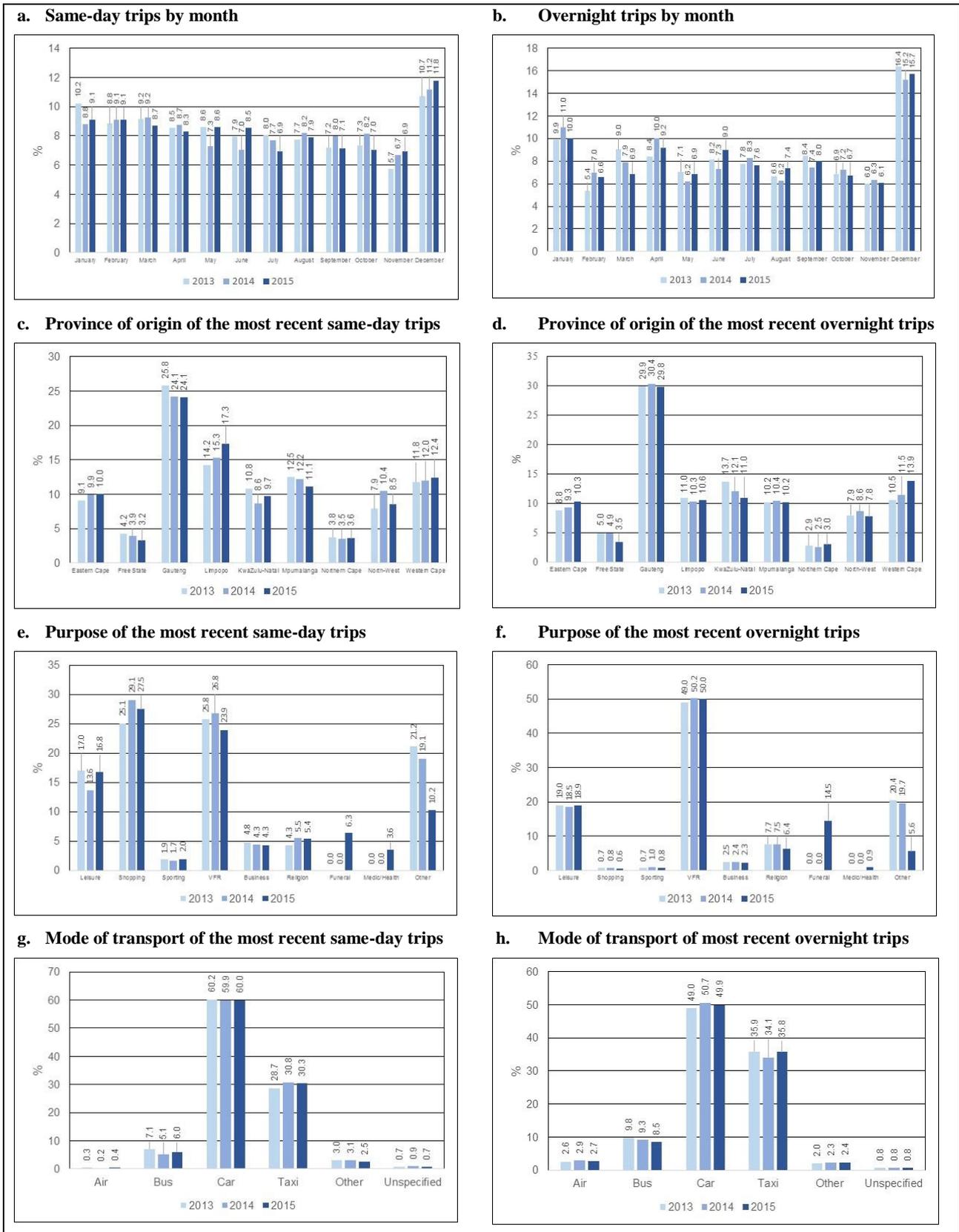


Figure 4.3: Selected domestic trip characteristics of the most recent domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips for South Africa, 2013–2015

Figure 4.4 shows the sociodemographic characteristics of the most recent domestic tourism same-day trips and overnight trips for South Africa from 2013 to 2015. Females undertook approximately 53.0% of all domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic tourism overnight trips from 2013 to 2015. Just over 51.0% (28.9 million) of the population of South Africa is female (Stats SA, 2017). Individuals in the age groups 25–44 years undertook more than 40.0% of the total number of same-day trips and also undertook approximately 40.0% of all domestic tourism overnight trips from 2013 to 2015. These age groups also travelled the most over the reference period when compared to other age groups. Individuals who completed secondary school education undertook approximately 50.0% of all domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic tourism overnight trips from 2013 to 2015.

Figure 4.4. indicates that of the total number of most recent day trips undertaken in South Africa between 2013 and 2015, black Africans undertook most day trips (approximately 70.0%), followed by whites, coloureds and Indians/Asians. With respect to most recent overnight trips undertaken between 2013 and 2015, black Africans undertook the most overnight trips (approximately 74.0%), followed by whites, coloureds and Indians/Asians. Under apartheid, domestic tourism was in many respects anti-developmental (Nicolaides & Surujlal, 2012). Apartheid legislation circumscribed the potential of domestic tourism as the black African population did not have the spatial mobility or access to a range of leisure activities and spaces or accommodation, which were deemed the exclusive preserve of the white population (Visser, 2016, Visser & Rogerson, 2004). Seven out of every ten domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic tourism overnight trips that were undertaken in South Africa between 2013 and 2015 were undertaken by black Africans. Pre-1994, the major component of domestic visitors in South Africa was accounted for by white South Africans. Post-1994 there has been a steady growth in the black African domestic tourism market.

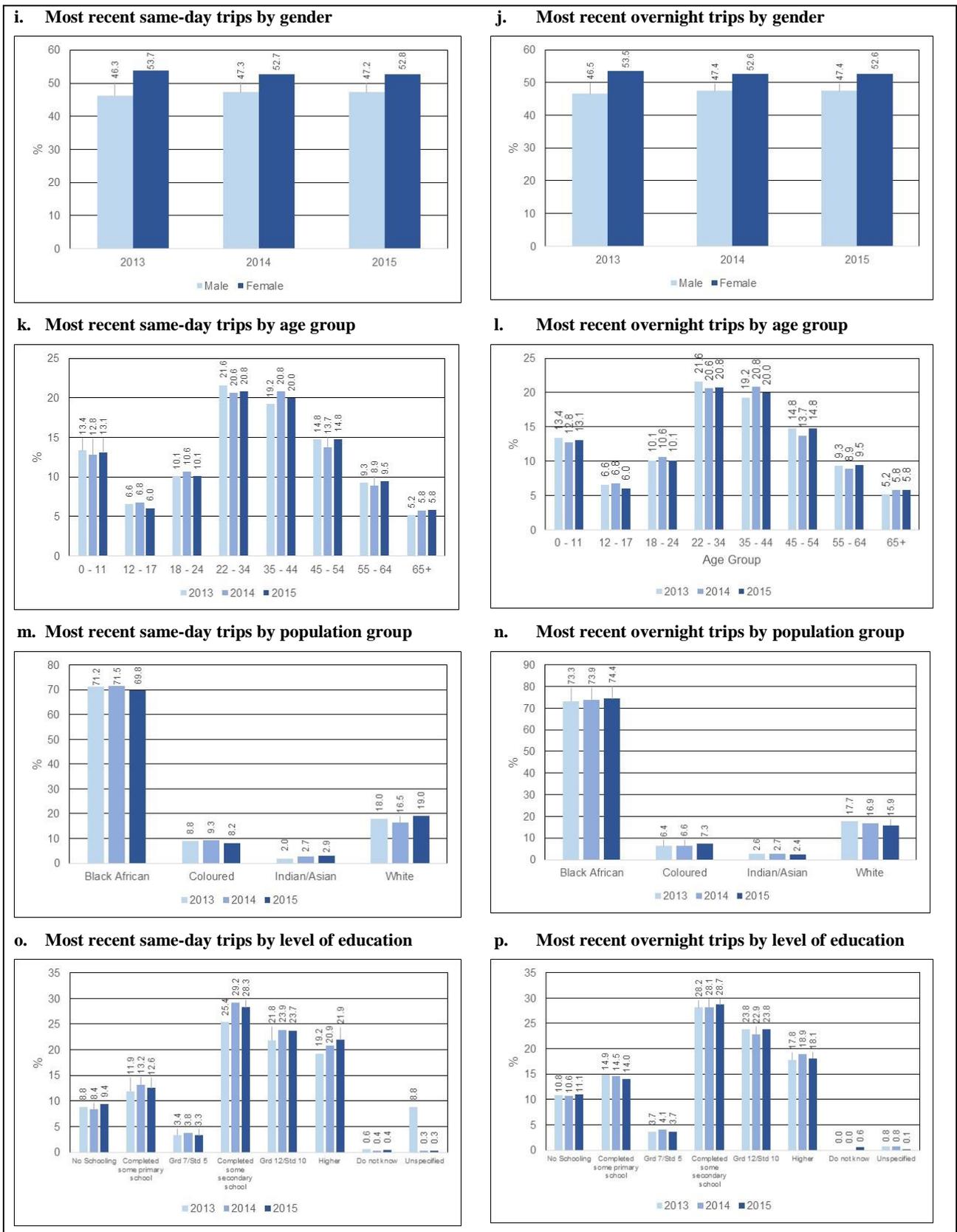


Figure 4.4: Selected sociodemographic characteristics of the most recent domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips for South Africa, 2013–2015

The South African Audience Research Foundation (SAARF) living standard measure (LSM) is a marketing research tool which divides the population into 10 LSM groups, with 10 being the highest and 1 being the lowest. It is used to segment the South African market, and then groups people according to their respective living standards (using criteria such as degree of urbanisation, ownership of cars, ownership of major appliances, etc.).

Figure 4.5 shows the LSM groups of the most recent domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips for South Africa from 2013 to 2015. Figure 4.5 indicate that domestic visitors from 2013 to 2015 were predominantly from the broad LSM groups 5 to 7 and LSM groups 8 to 10. However, the broad LSM groups 8 to 10 were the most likely to travel as a proportion of individuals within a particular group. Domestic tourists who fall in the broad LSM group 8 to 10 are also most likely to spend up to one week at their destinations. Domestic tourism can be seen as a luxury activity, with only people who have the disposable income taking domestic trips (Manwa & Mmereki, 2008).

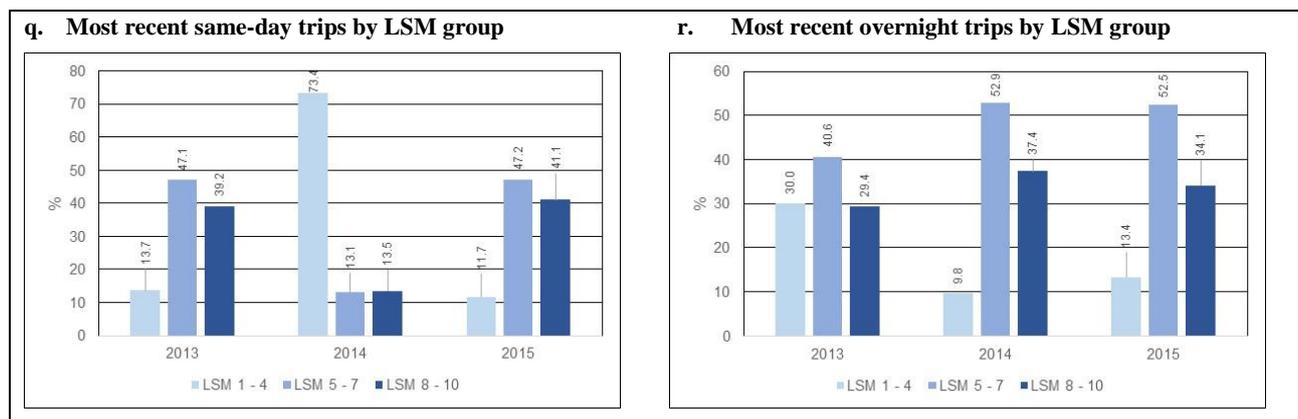


Figure 4.5: Broad living standards measure of the most recent domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips for South Africa, 2013–2015

4.3.1 Domestic trip, sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of Gauteng domestic visitors within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015

The domestic trip, sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng show similarities with the domestic trip, sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of domestic visitors travelling within South Africa. Gauteng was the main driver of domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa and the province of origin for about 25.0% of all most recent domestic tourism same-day trips and about 30.0% of all most recent domestic overnight trips within South Africa from 2013 to 2015. Figure 4.6 shows the selected domestic trip characteristics of the most recent domestic tourism same-day trips and overnight trips for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015.

March, April, June and December were the most popular months for both domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic overnight trips for Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. The Easter long-weekend usually falls either within March or April of each year, and June and December are the winter and summer school holiday periods for Gauteng. February was the month in which the least domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic overnight trips were recorded by Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015.

From 2013 to 2015, the majority of domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips of Gauteng visitors travelling within Gauteng was for VFR, followed by ‘leisure’ for domestic tourism same-day trips and ‘funerals’ for domestic tourism overnight visitors. Travel by motor vehicle made up roughly 72.0% of all domestic tourism same-day trips of Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. Taxis were the second most used mode of transport for the domestic tourism same-day trips of Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015 were also more likely to use motor vehicles when undertaking domestic tourism overnight trips, followed by taxis.

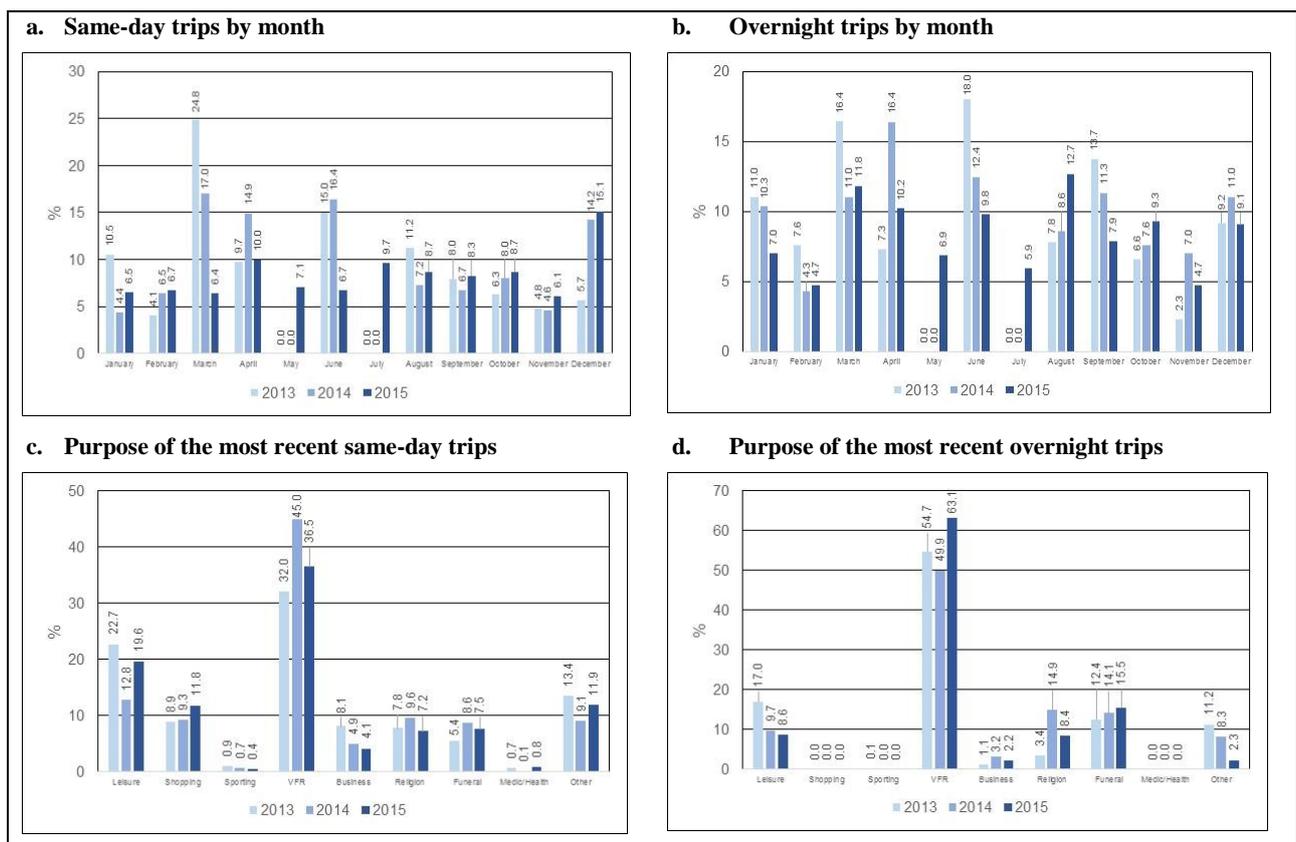


Figure 4.6: Selected domestic trip characteristics of the most recent domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng, 2013–2015

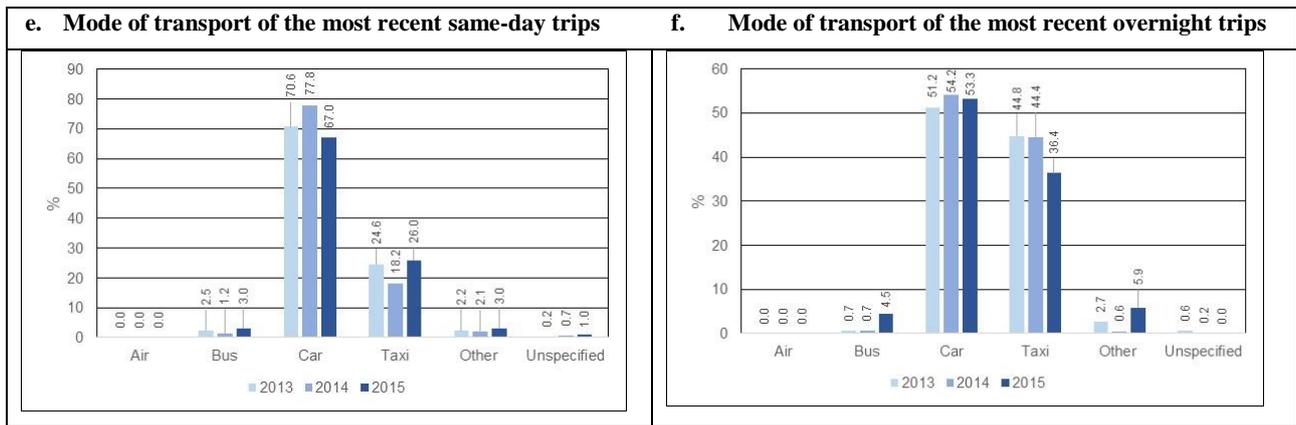


Figure 4.6: Selected domestic trip characteristics of the most recent domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng, 2013–2015 (concluded)

Figure 4.7 shows the selected sociodemographic characteristics of the most recent domestic tourism same-day trips and overnight trips for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. Females in Gauteng undertook approximately 51.0% of all domestic tourism overnight trips within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. Approximately 50.0% of the population of Gauteng is female (Stats SA, 2017). Gauteng individuals in the age group 25–44 years undertook more than 40.0% of the total number of domestic tourism same-day trips and also undertook more than 40.0% of all domestic tourism overnight trips within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015.

Of the total number of most recent domestic tourism same-day trips undertaken in Gauteng by Gauteng residents between 2013 and 2015, black Africans undertook most same-day trips (more than 70.0%), followed by whites, coloureds and Indians/Asians. With respect to most recent overnight trips undertaken in Gauteng by Gauteng residents between 2013 and 2015, black Africans undertook the most overnight trips (more than 70.0%), followed by whites, coloureds and Indians/Asians. Apartheid legislation circumscribed the potential of domestic tourism as the black African population did not have the spatial mobility or access to a range of leisure activities and spaces or accommodation, which were deemed the exclusive preserve of the white population (Visser, 2016, Visser & Rogerson, 2004). As the results in Figure 4.7 show, seven out of every ten domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic tourism overnight trips that were undertaken in Gauteng by Gauteng domestic visitors between 2013 and 2015 were undertaken by black Africans.

When comparing the Gauteng domestic tourism same-day trips of Gauteng domestic visitors by level of education, Gauteng individuals who completed secondary school education undertook approximately 50.0% (as shown in Figure 4.7) of all domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic tourism overnight trips within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015.

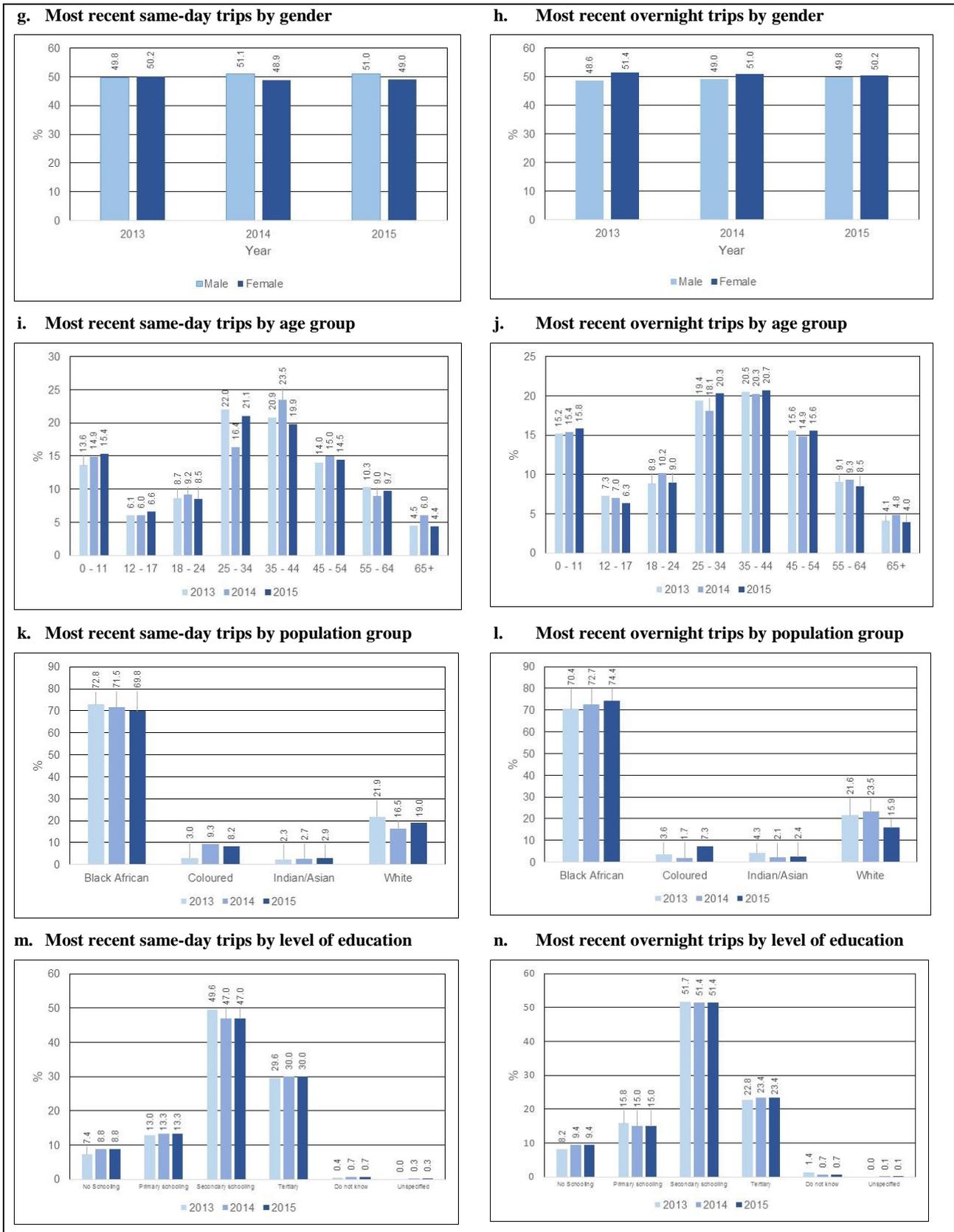


Figure 4.7: Selected sociodemographic characteristics of the most recent domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng, 2013–2015

Figure 4.8 shows the LSM groups of the most recent domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. Gauteng domestic visitor overnight trips within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015 were predominantly from the broad LSM groups 5 to 7 and LSM groups 8 to 10. Gauteng domestic tourism same-day visitors travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015 were predominantly from the broad LSM groups 1 to 4 and LSM groups 8 to 10. Domestic tourism can be seen as a luxury activity, with only people who have the disposable income taking domestic trips (Manwa & Mmereki, 2008).

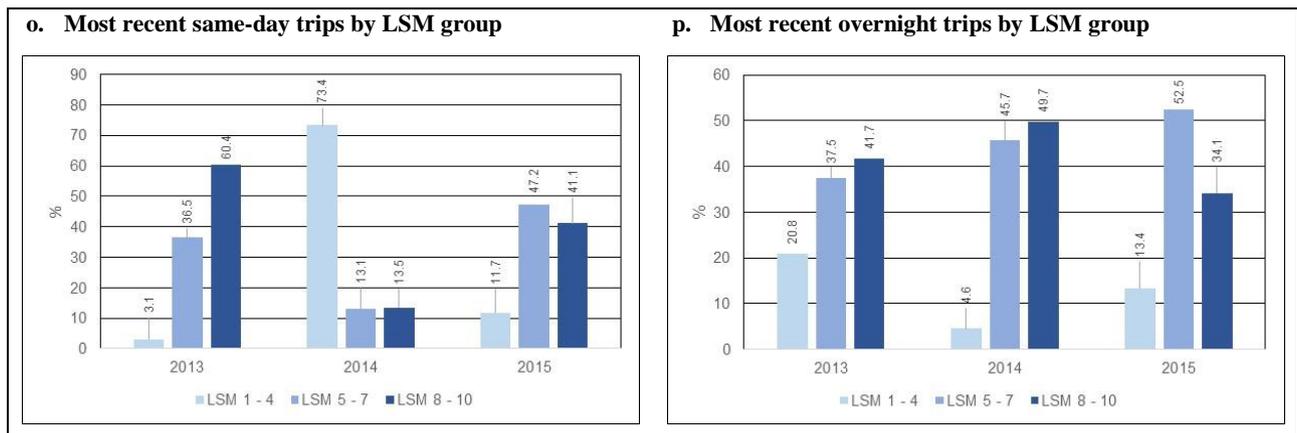


Figure 4.8: Broad living standards measure of the most recent domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng, 2013–2015

CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION

Domestic tourism in South Africa is not only influenced by the tourism system but also by regional convergence-divergence in both the geographical origin and destination spread of domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips, as well as the associated domestic tourism expenditure within the country. There is a need to disperse domestic visitors within the country from the established domestic tourism destinations into other parts of South Africa, not only for the aim of regional convergence as it relates to domestic tourism and domestic tourism expenditure, but also as a possible policy tool to assist the government with income redistribution within the country. This could assist in the broader goal of fighting poverty and inequality within South Africa.

The aim of this study was to determine if domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure contributed to regional convergence-divergence in South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015. The aim was achieved by first defining the terms ‘domestic tourism’, ‘domestic visitor’, ‘domestic trip’, ‘same-day trip’, ‘overnight trip’, ‘tourist’, ‘tourism’ and ‘expenditure’ as it was used in the study. Next the changes in the origin of domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip expenditure across South Africa at provincial level from 2013 to 2015 was calculated. Thereafter the changes in the domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip expenditure for South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015 was determined.

Spatial variances in domestic tourism expenditure by origin and destination was then examined to analyse the distribution of domestic tourism expenditure within South Africa at provincial level from 2013 to 2015. Then it was determined how the changes in the domestic tourism expenditure patterns contributed to regional convergence or regional divergence within South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015. Lastly the domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip expenditure by district municipality of origin for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015 was tested.

Lastly, the changes in the domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip patterns and trends throughout South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng, from 2013 to 2015, were established. Thereafter, the changes in the sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of domestic visitors within South Africa and for Gauteng residents travelling within Gauteng, from 2013 to 2015, were determined.

5.1 CONCLUSION

Tourism is regarded as one means of promoting provincial economic development and decreasing the inequalities between provinces within a country. Greater emphasis needs to be placed on developing domestic tourism, as domestic tourism makes a larger contribution than international tourism to provincial convergence. This study has highlighted that there is a significant regional component to variations in domestic tourism and domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa from 2013 to 2015. Domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure does have the potential to narrow provincial developmental gaps and promote more balanced provincial development within South Africa. Domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure could also have a redistributive and developmental role within the country.

Regional economic growth at the provincial level could be positively affected by domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure within a country. South Africa's NDP 2030 focuses on two overarching goals, namely eradicating poverty and reducing inequality, and one of the areas highlighted in the NDP 2030 for addressing poverty, creating jobs and reducing inequality for South Africa, is tourism. Governments have become increasingly inclined to engage with the tourism sector as a means of achieving economic growth, but relatively little is understood about how the state can act to influence tourism's growth trajectory

In South Africa, the NDTGS developed by the NDT, provides practical measures to generate greater value from domestic travel and domestic tourism in South Africa. The implementation plan of the NDTGS seeks to direct a consolidated and integrated approach to address the challenge of geographic spread of domestic tourism between the provinces of the country. Given the current challenges of poverty and inequality within the country, it is important that South Africa's domestic tourism policy issues cannot be dealt with separately from other national policies that relate to the challenges of poverty and inequality within the country.

Domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure between the different provinces within a country is influenced by the tourism system of the country, the sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of the domestic visitors and the policy considerations within the national, provincial and local government. Explanations of the spatially uneven distribution of domestic visitors are complicated and it must address a whole range of closely interrelated factors such as basic tourism resources, transport access, tourism infrastructure and services and government promotion of the domestic tourism sector.

Domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure within South Africa seem to be following the general demographic and economic conditions existing in each of the provinces. Within South Africa, domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure is drawn to areas of comparative economic advantage. The origin of domestic tourism and the associated domestic tourism expenditure within the country tend to be located in existing centres of socio-economic activity. This study established that Gauteng was the origin of about a third of all domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa from 2013 to 2015. The destination of domestic tourism and the associated domestic tourism expenditure within the country is most likely to be adjacent to some physical attractions, such as the coast. This study established that KwaZulu-Natal and the Eastern Cape had the biggest net inflow of domestic tourism expenditure within South Africa from 2013 to 2015.

Domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure can contribute to regional convergence or regional divergence for South Africa at the provincial level from 2013 to 2015. The Gauteng province, as the economic powerhouse of the country, shows promise as the main contributor to regional convergence as influenced by domestic tourism and the associated domestic tourism expenditure from 2013 to 2015. The Gauteng province conformed the most closely to the regional convergence pre-conditions, namely that the flow of the capital and labour must be from the leading province(s) to the lagging province(s) in the country, and that both capital and labour should cross some sort of provincial boundary in order to influence regional convergence-divergence within the country at the provincial level.

Gauteng was the origin of about a third of all domestic tourism expenditure in South Africa from 2013 to 2015. The majority of this domestic tourism expenditure originating within Gauteng was spent outside of the borders of the province itself. Gauteng experienced the biggest net outflow of total domestic tourism expenditure, specifically for domestic tourism overnight trips, from 2013 to 2015. . The City of Johannesburg metropolitan and the City of Tshwane metropolitan areas is the two major district municipalities for the origin of both domestic tourism same-day and overnight trip expenditure of Gauteng residents travelling within the borders of Gauteng from 2013 and 2015.

KwaZulu-Natal had the biggest net inflow of domestic tourism expenditure from 2013 to 2015 and Western Cape had a significant net inflow of domestic tourism expenditure from 2013 to 2014. Mpumalanga, the Northern Cape and North West are less socio-economically developed provinces than KwaZulu-Natal and Western Cape, yet they both had a net outflow of domestic tourism expenditure from 2013 to 2015. This situation that was highlighted by this study that occurred from

2013 to 2015 within South Africa contributes to regional divergence at the provincial level in South Africa, as it is influenced by domestic tourism and the associated domestic tourism expenditure.

For six of the nine provinces of South Africa, the majority of domestic tourism expenditure generated within those provinces never left the borders of the provinces themselves from 2013 to 2015. This could imply that when Provincial Tourism Authorities currently report an increase in domestic tourism trips within the borders of the province, this merely could be increasing domestic tourism trips by provincial residents travelling within the borders of the province. The situation also presents great challenges for domestic tourism and its associated domestic tourism expenditure contribution to regional convergence, as well as for domestic tourism and the associated domestic tourism expenditure as a possible policy tool for income and wealth redistribution within South Africa.

The majority of domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips in South Africa from 2013 to 2015 were taken during the Easter long weekend period in March or April or during the summer school holidays in December and January. This domestic tourism same-day trip and overnight trip pattern also repeated itself for Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. The main mode of transport used for all types of domestic trips, within South Africa and for Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng, were cars and taxis. The length of stay of domestic overnight trips in South Africa in 2015 mostly lasted for up to a week.

The sociodemographic and socio-economic characteristics of the members of the household determine household participation in domestic tourism activities within South Africa as well as the domestic tourism travel behaviour of Gauteng residents within Gauteng from 2013 to 2015. Females undertook more domestic tourism same-day and overnight trips than males. Seven out of every ten domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic tourism overnight trips that were undertaken in South Africa, as well as for Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng, from 2013 and 2015 were undertaken by black Africans. Individuals in the age groups 25–44 years made up the majority of all domestic tourism same-day trips and domestic tourism overnight trips within South Africa, as well as for Gauteng domestic visitors travelling within Gauteng, from 2013 to 2015. Domestic tourism same-day and overnight domestic tourists appear to be reasonably educated. Domestic visitors from 2013 to 2015 were predominantly from the higher LSM groups.

5.2 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This study was limited by available time series data from the Stats SA DTS and was only done for the available data from 2013 to 2015. The DTS sampling is provincially representative from 2013 to 2015, but not municipally representative. This provided challenges for calculating the net inflow and

net outflow of domestic tourism expenditure of Gauteng residents within Gauteng by district municipal level for this specific study.

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research could add to this study by updating the domestic tourism expenditure results by province from the Stats SA DTS, thereby creating a longer time series analysis of the net inflow and net outflow of domestic tourism expenditure at provincial level. As the sample of the DTS is also municipally representative from the 2016 DTS sample, future researchers could start calculating and analysing the net inflow and net outflow of domestic tourism expenditure at sub-regional level and investigate the intra-regional convergence-divergence effect of domestic tourism and domestic tourism expenditure within the provinces of South Africa.

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