FINAL REPORT:

THE GOVERNANCE AND COORDINATION IN MARINE AND COASTAL TOURISM: CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL
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i. DEFINITIONS

Community
A community is made up of a group of people living in a common location. Kotze and Swanepoel (1983) identify four elements: people; location in geographic space; social interaction; and common ties. The psycho-cultural dimension of a community includes shared values, convictions and goals. It is concerned with the science of togetherness. In this proposal, the word community refers to those people who live together in a particular area which forms a major source of their identity and is attributed to social cohesion within a shared geographical location.

Local Community
A local community refers to a group of people who interact and share the same environment. In this case, beliefs, resources and preferences are shared. Usually, a number of common conditions may be present, affecting intents, needs, risks, and a number of other conditions that affect the identity and the degree of cohesiveness of the members.

Community Participation
Paul (1987) defines community participation as “an active process by which beneficiary client groups influence the direction and execution of a development project with a view to enhancing their well-being in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance or other values they cherish”. Local community participation includes the empowerment and involvement of communities in decision-making, implementation and identifying local needs.

Governance: In a general sense, governance includes the formal and informal arrangements through which information is shared, interests are negotiated, policy decisions are made, and actions are implemented (Dredge, 2015:1).

Marine and coastal tourism: For the purpose of this research, marine and coastal tourism refers to travel away from one’s place of normal residence to a marine environment and/or a coastal zone for
the purpose of leisure, recreation or any other reason recognized by the World Tourism Organization’s as falling within the ambit of tourism.

**Oceans economy:** The concept of the oceans economy, also referred to as the ‘blue economy’, is one that simultaneously promotes economic growth, environmental sustainability, social inclusion and the strengthening of oceans ecosystems (The Commonwealth, 2014). Ocean economy refers to the de-coupling of socio-economic development from environmental degradation. It is a concept which encompasses economic and trade activities that include the conservation and sustainable use and management of biodiversity, including maritime ecosystem and genetic resources, sustainable patterns of consumption and generation of low Greenhouse Gas (GHG) emissions. It deals with mitigation and adaptation efforts aimed at addressing climate change risks associated with the rise of the sea level and the acidification of seawater.

**Ocean governance** refers to “the involvement of a wide range of institutions and actors in the production of policy outcomes, which involve coordination through networks and partnerships. It is extremely complex as it involves state sovereignty, resource development, international commerce, environmental protection and military activities. As such, issues arise around the management of conflicting uses and users of ocean space and resources (Operation Phakisa MPSG Final Lab Report, 2014:12).

**Sustainable tourism** is “Tourism that takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (UNEP and UNWTO, 2005:11-12; see also Sirima, 2013).
ii. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The oceans economy offers significant development opportunities for sectors such as sustainable fisheries and aquaculture, renewable marine energy, marine bio-prospecting, maritime transport and marine and coastal tourism as indicated by United Nations Conference on Trade and Development UNCTAD. Marine and coastal tourism has great potential to unlock sustainable socio-economic development, generate multifarious benefits for local communities and the nation, and simultaneously contribute to protecting and conserving biodiversity of marine and coastal environments in South Africa and developing countries more generally.

The theoretical framework for this study is based on the New Public Governance theory, which is premised on the acknowledgement that apart from the government, various public and private institutions can be centres of power on different levels, as long as their authority of power is recognized by the public. To explore such multiple centres of power, Stakeholder theory is used. Lastly, the study is theoretically and conceptually informed by the use of Common property resource theory. The information derived from the literature and policy review as well as primary data collection will be analysed thematically according to key themes, notably the opportunities and challenges of governance and coordination of coastal and marine tourism; the level of accessibility, transparency and effectiveness in coastal and marine tourism; how marine and coastal tourism could be sustainably governed and coordinated at national, provincial and local levels; level of engagement of key public and private stakeholder bodies whose policies and actions impact on coastal and marine tourism development; implementation of national policies and governance processes at the local level; and the effectiveness of local governance capacity and community engagement structures.

The methodology for this research firstly involves conducting a desk-top study to examine relevant literature as well as to identify international best practices and national and sector specific (cruise tourism, beach tourism and events, adventure tourism, accommodation and facilities, etc.) trends in the South African context. This is followed by a critical policy review and primary data collection based on a case study approach. Personal and telephonic semi-structured interviews will be undertaken with purposively sampled key informants, who hold positions in the community, government and tourism business. In addition, a structured questionnaire survey will be used to gain responses from randomly sampled tourism businesses (focusing on direct users of marine and coastal tourism).

The research was screened by the UKZN Research Ethics Committee in terms of the university research ethics code. All relevant ethical measures were put in place for the purpose of the research and protecting the participants. The findings of the study identify certain key blockages and challenges in the current policy implementation processes and governance structures. They include issues of coordination, communication, and consultation. Although there is tourism legislation that reflects local roles and responsibilities of stakeholders, the current legislation needs to be enhanced to ensure that certain regulations do not hold back coastal and marine tourism development.
SECTION 1: BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.1. Introduction

At the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) held in 2014, coastal and marine tourism was identified as one of the key sectors contributing towards the oceans economy. The concept of the oceans economy, also referred to as the blue economy, is one that simultaneously promotes economic growth, environmental sustainability, social inclusion and the strengthening of oceans ecosystems (The Commonwealth, 2014). The oceans economy offers significant development opportunities for sectors such as sustainable fisheries and aquaculture, renewable marine energy, marine bio-prospecting, maritime transport and marine and coastal tourism as indicated by UNCTAD.

In 2014, South Africa launched Operation Phakisa which focuses on unlocking the economic potential of South Africa’s oceans. Initially there were four focus areas selected as new growth areas in the ocean economy, with the objective of growing them and deriving value for the country. These were:

- marine transport and manufacturing activities, such as coastal shipping, trans-shipment, boat building, repair and refurbishment;
- offshore oil and gas exploration;
- aquaculture; and
- marine protection services and ocean governance.

During an oceans economy review workshop in 2015, two focus areas were added namely; coastal and marine tourism and small harbours. The government of South Africa therefore plans to accelerate growth and development by unlocking the potential of coastal and marine tourism. Coastal and marine tourism has the potential to provide jobs and improve socio-economic conditions of previously disadvantaged communities in South Africa. In order to develop and grow coastal and marine tourism in South Africa it is important that the required governance and coordination structures are provided.

Tourism is increasingly receiving the recognition it deserves as a driver for economic development by those shaping the path to the sustained development and recovery of the economy (Binns and Nel, 2002; Rogerson, 2007). In many countries, coastal areas provide the main tourism resources, with the greatest concentration of tourism investment and facilities. One of the main reasons why coasts are so important for tourism is that visitors are strongly attracted by coastal environments (beaches, fine landscapes, coral reefs, birds, fish, marine mammals and other wildlife) and by associated cultural interest (coastal towns, villages, historic sites, ports, fishing fleets and markets and other aspects of maritime life). At the same time, this special environment is sensitive and fragile containing important habitats with rich biodiversity.

However tourism literature has pointed out the possible benefits of coastal tourism for the economy, society and the environment and has highlighted issues and challenges related to coastal tourism development. The positive benefits often mentioned focus on revenue generation, local job creation and prosperity, infrastructure and community facilities, awareness of the need for conservation,
investment in the environment and cultural heritage, and the contribution to sustainable community livelihoods. The challenges and issues can relate to physical destruction and loss of facilities, loss of habitat and biodiversity, pollution, resource consumption and competition, climate change, limited community engagement and benefit, property development patterns and motives, and seasonality and sensitivity of demand (e.g. Becken and Moreno, 2004; Jennings, 2004; Brunnschweiler, 2010). The possible benefits, issues and challenges underline the need for implementing policies and actions in coastal areas that deliver sustainable tourism. This means tourism that ‘takes full account of its current and future economic, social and environmental impacts, addressing the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities’ (UNWTO, 2005).

It is therefore important to note that issues of governance and coordination factors involved in coastal and marine tourism can be managed at both country and local levels, through understanding that the fundamental requirement of governance for sustainable tourism is to have effective engagement of the key public and private stakeholder bodies whose policies and actions can affect the impact of tourism. Research will also assist in understanding that sustainable tourism governance and coordination requires engagement and coordination of tourism, environment, community and wider development interests at a local level. It is at this level that much of the necessary planning, networking, and capacity building and information delivery occur and where tourism needs to be effectively integrated into local sustainable development strategy.

1.2 Rationale for the study

The fundamental requirement for sustainable coastal and marine tourism governance and coordination is to have effective engagement of key public and private stakeholder bodies whose policies and actions can affect the impact of coastal and marine tourism development. It is important to better understand how coastal and marine tourism in South Africa could optimally and sustainably be governed and coordinated at both national and local level. Of particular importance is how national tourism policies and governance processes are reflected and implemented at the local level, which may be influenced by decentralisation and devolution of tourism policies and actions as well as local governance capacity and community engagement structures.

1.3. Problem statement

Marine and coastal tourism has great potential to unlock sustainable socio-economic development, generate multifarious benefits for local communities and the nation, and simultaneously contribute to protecting and conserving biodiversity of marine and coastal environments in South Africa and developing countries more generally. However, experience has shown that various challenges prevail in the implementation of government policies and legislative frameworks meant to regulate the use of sensitive resources, negotiate competing stakeholder interests in relation to the marine and coastal environment and more generally govern marine and coastal tourism sector. Fragmented governance has been found to be a major challenge in managing coastal and marine tourism (Dredge, 2015) and there is a need to determine how to optimise governance relations, structures and processes to improve the development and stewardship of coastal and marine tourism.
1.4 Research questions

- What is the relationship between the government, community, business and environment agencies, and its impact on the governance of marine and coastal areas?
- To what extent does synergy of interests exist between different stakeholders in the coordination, monitoring, capacity building and devolution of powers to maintain a balance in the governance of the ocean economy?
- What measures have been put in place to prevent further ecological depletions, promote sustainable environmental management and responsible tourism strategies, and create a balance between economic drives and ecological/environmental interests?
- To what extent are existing laws enforced and policies implemented?
- What are some of the challenges and successes of policy implementation in satisfying varying interests and reduce user-conflict?
- How do ocean management strategies affect tourism and its contribution to the economic development of the province in ocean governance?
- What has been the role of the tourism industry in supporting these marine and coastal management strategies and related acts and policies?
- To what extent are these initiatives in line with the international agreements and protocols which South Africa has signed?

1.5 The purpose of the study

While there is some scholarly literature on marine and coastal tourism in South Africa, virtually no research has been conducted to specifically examine governance issues. The purpose of this research is to fill this knowledge gap and hence assist the government in improving efficiencies in the management of marine and coastal tourism and implementing laws and policies. Based on a case study approach focussed on the provinces of KwaZulu-Natal (KZN), Eastern Cape, Western Cape and Northern Cape, this research investigates how coastal and marine tourism could be optimally and sustainably governed and coordinated at both national and local level. The study is based on the assumption that the fundamental requirement for sustainable coastal and marine tourism governance and coordination is effective engagement of key public and private stakeholder bodies whose policies and actions can affect the impact of coastal and marine tourism development. Of particular importance is how national tourism policies and governance process are reflected and implemented at the local level, which may be influenced by decentralisation and devolution of tourism policies and actions as well as local governance capacity and community engagement structures.

1.6 Key objectives of the study

The objectives of the study include the following:
- Review international literature on policies that govern and coordinate the sustainable development of coastal and marine tourism and provide case study examples;
- Review South African policies that govern and coordinate the sustainable development of coastal and marine tourism;
Determine whether South Africa’s national and local tourism policies facilitate the long-term sustainability of coastal and marine tourism;

Identify problems/challenges in the governance of marine and coastal tourism, and resources in general.

Make recommendations for the appropriate types of governance and coordination mechanisms that will allow for the sustainable development of coastal and marine tourism

SECTION 2: THEORECTICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Theoretical background

The proposed study is based on three major theoretical frameworks as described below.

New public governance theory
The use of the New Public Governance theory is relevant for this study because it is premised on the following, a) it acknowledges that the government is not the only centre of power. Various public and private institutions can be centres of power on different levels, as long as their authority of power is recognized by the public; b) the theory pays attention to the trend of public responsibility transfer, from the government to non-governmental organizations and individuals; c) it recognizes that public administration of main bodies depends on each other; d) that power dependency must form a self-organization network; and e) that governments need to pass new tools to coordinate and integrate social resources, instead of using authority and command (XU Runya, SUN Qigui and SI Wei, 2015). Furthermore, governance comprises both formal institutions, decisions and influences, and informal ones by various participants associated with policy making and implementation processes (Lee, 2003).

Governance is concerned with the use of methods that are employed by various entities both private and public in managing their common affairs. The process must be continuous and coordinated to ensure that different subject interests are integrated and both formal and informal rules are included. The New public governance theory emphasises democracy and efficiency, citizen independence, public deliberation, polycentric governance and participation of stakeholders in decision-making. Therefore, governance is the result of interaction among various actors who want to resolve common public problems under the constraints of both formal and informal institutions (Lee, 2003). The theory propagates inclusion of government, private sector, non-governmental organisations, and social groups in consultation and negotiation in understanding changing social affairs. The new public governance theory focuses on the so-called ‘macro-policy elements’ such as, (i) assessment of consequences; (ii) regular, periodic review; (iii) broad perspective; (iv) review of related policies; (v) use of a guiding direction; and (vi) deliberative processes at the societal level (Lee, 2003). To achieve this, the theory emphasizes dispersion of power. In addition to the government and the market, other organizations in society also have the right to participate in public affairs management, and at the same time have the decision right to participate in solving public problems (XU Runya, SUN Qigui and SI Wei, 2015). The New Public Governance tries to turn the government from paternalism to a
coordinator and from “big government” to small a one, one that coordinates social interests, builds dialogue platform, and integrates public resources. This theory is relevant as it is in line with the spirit of the South African Constitution and public administration.

*Common property resource theory*

The theory of common property resources is premised on the maxim “everybody’s property is nobody’s property” (Hardin, 1968; Crowe, 1969). If resources are accessible by more than one user, the result is said to be a free-for-all, with users competing with one another for a greater share of the resource to the detriment of themselves, the resource, and society as a whole (Hussen, 2004). There are two dimensions to the common property problem. Private property users may through an invisible hand manage the resource for the best interests of society at large or the government can intervene to solve the problem through other means such as taxes or subsidies, direct control of inputs or outputs to try to balance private and social costs (Lawry, 1983). Collective action theorists have argued that people placed in a situation in which they could all benefit from co-operation will be unlikely to cooperate in the absence of an external enforcer of agreements. Hence others have concluded that common property resource is likely to be depleted through over exploitation as demand arises. The theory proposes that there has to be private enclosure or state regulation. The continuum of property rights is based on exclusive possession (Nyariki and Ngugi, 2002). These rights may take a variety of forms ranging from unlimited exploitation to stipulation of limits on exploitation for each user. Common property resource is contested as the population rises particularly in protected areas where the problems emanating from overexploitation are of great importance in formulating development policies, tourism policies and environmental policies. The theory considers defined boundaries, relative power of sub-groups and existing arrangements for discussing common problems, while also looking at punishments against those who break the rules. The emphasis is on state tolerance of locally based authorities and its ability to penetrate rural localities.

*Stakeholder theory and value creation*

A stakeholder refers to any interested party affected either directly or indirectly by any decision in the process to achieve the goals of an activity. Being thus part of such activity, they must be respected and deserve consideration. There are primary stakeholders, i.e. those without whose continuing participation the organisation cannot survive and secondary stakeholders, i.e. those who influence or affect, or are influenced of affected by the organization, but are not engaged in transaction with the organisation and are not essential for its survival (Saftic, Težak and Luk, 2011). The stakeholder approach has been studied in various contexts related to destination management and marketing, e.g. to explore the attitudes and perceptions of individuals and groups, in building inter-organisational linkages through marketing alliances or networks, in strengthening and formalising linkages (Harrison and Wicks, 2013). Tourism cooperation is a process of making joint decisions, among autonomous key-actors, who constitute inter organizational structure in the receiving community, to solve the problems related to the design and management in a sustainable manner (Pedersen and Bartholdy, 2004). Since tourism is a complex phenomenon, different role players can be viewed as stakeholders with varying interests. There are three basic steps in identifying stakeholders: 1) The identification of each group and its perceived interest; 2) The necessary processes to manage the relations produced by the interested parts; and, 3) The joint management of the transactions and agreements among the groups interested (Queiroz, 2009). A central premise of much of the literature on stakeholder theory is that focusing on stakeholders, specifically treating them well and managing for their interests, helps create value along a number of dimensions and is therefore good for performance (Harrison and
Wicks, 2013). Stakeholder interests are inseparably connected in a system of value creation in which each stakeholder provides resources or influence in exchange for some combination of tangible and/or intangible goods (Harrison and Wicks, 2013).

2.2. Literature Review

Much literature has been produced in recent years on the importance of oceans as ‘incubators’ of life on earth and the ecological risks they face. Some of the risks manifest themselves in the form of rising sea levels due to climate change, acidification of oceans resulting from increased emissions of carbon dioxide, over-exploitation, poor management of marine resources including fisheries, wastewater runoff, deposit of pollutants into waterways, and the compromised seabed as a result of mineral resources prospecting and extraction (UNCTAD, 2014; Global Ocean Commission, 2013). Sustainable use of oceans is critical to poverty reduction, food security and livelihood sustainability, especially for developing countries with substantial coastlines such as South Africa. Located at the interface of the Indian and Atlantic Oceans, South Africa’s shores are rich in biodiversity and responsible utilization and effective management of marine and coastal areas is of vital importance to the wellbeing of South Africa’s people and economy (DEAT 1994-2009; White Paper on National Environmental Management of the Ocean, 2014).

The government’s introduction of Operation Phakisa in 2014 recognizes that coastal and marine tourism forms one of the key areas of focus within South Africa’s Oceans Economy framework. Coastal and marine tourism encompasses a wide array of coastal and marine assets as well as recreational and leisure pursuits. Its range includes water based areas such as rivers, canals, waterways and marine coastal zones; coastal and marine/water assets such as beaches and beach resorts, cruise tourism, ports and harbours, lighthouses, and marine islands; coastal/beach developments, such restaurants, accommodation, and infrastructure supporting coastal development add a wide range of leisure and recreation activities.

A number of challenges that potentially prevent the development of a successful coastal and marine tourism and leisure sector are:

- Under-utilization of South Africa’s abundant coastal and marine assets.
- Insufficient tourism products in the right place to market South Africa’s coastal areas as destinations for local, domestic and foreign tourists.
- High unemployment levels and unskilled resources in the rural areas and around marine assets.
- Public sector role players’ conflicts.
- Reluctance of the private sector to develop tourism products without certainty and profitability.
- Lack of interest in funding tourism projects among funders.
- Under-developed and uncoordinated marine related events.
- Insufficient infrastructural support for coastal and marine tourism development.
- Severe environmental protection legislation and control which impacts on development.

The Operation Phakisa long term plan sees South Africa in 2030 as the premier experience-based coastal and marine tourism destination in Africa and a top coastal and marine tourism attraction globally, with a united and coordinated approach to tourism marketing and governance.
Law and policy environment

While tourism itself is a source of marine and coastal degradation, many other human activities and economic sectors such as agriculture, commercial fishing, deforestation, coastal vegetation clearance, dune mining, power generation, urbanization, etc. put pressure on the ecosystem (Neto, 2003) and competitively impact on the coastlines, thereby negatively affecting tourism. As different interest groups benefit from South Africa’s coastal and marine resources, responsible utilization is difficult to achieve. The governance of the marine and coastal areas in general and tourism more specifically thus needs a coordinated effort between and among different stakeholders. The challenge is to develop synergy between different stakeholders to make capacity building, policy design and implementation, evaluation and monitoring a collaborative, coordinated and collective effort.

A wide range of national government departments have a direct or indirect interest in South Africa’s coastline, ocean space and its resources. These include the Departments of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, Defense, International Relations and Co-operations, Transport, Communications, Arts and Culture, Water and Sanitation, Sports and Recreation, Economic Development, Environmental Affairs, Science and Technology, Mining, Minerals, Energy, Trade and Industry, State Security Agency, Small Business Development, Social Development, and Tourism. Besides these national departments, the country’s four coastal provinces - Northern Cape, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN) - and coastal municipalities – notably Cape Town, Nelson Mandela Metro and eThekwini Metro - but also smaller towns and rural areas have an interest in marine issues, as the coastline often forms the backbone of their economies. In addition to government agencies, various parastatal organizations have an interest in marine affairs, including the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research, Eskom, South African Marine Safety Authority, South African Weather Services, the Nuclear Energy Corporation of South Africa, and many others. Lastly, there are non-governmental organizations such as Endangered Wildlife Trust, the South African Institute of Foreign Affairs, and the Wild Life and Environment Society of South Africa and various others (Glazewski, 2013).

Various laws and policies have been introduced to protect the marine and coastal environment and develop it on a sustainable basis. At a regional level, South Africa is a signatory to the Convention for Corporation in the Protection and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the West and Central African Region and Related Protocol signed in 1984. South Africa plays an important role in the management of marine resources in sub-regional waters and cross-boundary systems. At a national level, examples include the 1989 Environmental Conservation, the White Paper on Marine Fisheries Policy (1997), the Marine Living Resources Act (1998) and the DEAT’s promotion of sustainable development of the marine environment based on the principles of Agenda 2. In response to the lack of a unified and integrated approach to coastal and marine management in the 1990s (Attwood et al 1997), the White Paper on Sustainable Coastal Management was developed in 2000. One of its key areas of focus was a movement away from South Africa’s historically fragmented and uncoordinated approach to a more holistic promotion of a coordinated and integrated management of coastal resources. Various new acts and policies have come into effect in recent years, e.g. the National Environmental Management Integrated Coastal Management Act number 24 of 2008 and the Green Paper on the National Environmental Management of the Ocean (2012, precursor to the 2014 White Paper), these have also been criticized, not least on the basis of insufficient public participation. Glazewski (2013) suggests that policy makers must have sound knowledge and understanding of local needs, preferences and value systems; social, business and political institutions must be
established to regulate resources under pressure from competing interests. The implementation and enforcement of marine environmental laws need cross-departmental involvement and a coordinated approach.

**International trends in coastal and marine tourism**

Coastal and marine tourism are among the oldest and largest segments of the tourism industry, expanding dramatically from the 1950s with large-scale investment in all-inclusive resorts, especially in developing world countries (Jennings 2004; Honey & Krantz 2007). By the 1980s, environmental damage and lack of economic development impacts became evident, prompting a shift away from all-inclusive resort models and a search for more sustainable tourism options, such as ecotourism. However, to the present day, coastlines internationally remain dominated by mass tourism developments. Current trends identified in a study by the Center for Ecotourism and Sustainable Development (CESD) conducted for the Marine Program of World Wildlife Fund (WWF) (Honey & Krantz (2007) include the development of ‘residential tourism’, combining beach resorts with vacation homes and condos and the further expansion of cruise tourism, including on the African continent. The study found that “coastal residential tourism development is often more about real estate speculation than long term investment” (ibid.:12); e.g. the establishment of golf courses and marinas is less determined by market demand than by the desire to increase the value of land and existing property nearby. This trend is enhanced by the weakness of national and local government entities to enforce tourism land use and by the fact that politically well connected elites have managed to gain control of prime coastal land. Corruption and cronyism was found to be prevalent in coastal tourism in both developed and developing countries.(ibid: 113). On the positive side, the rising promotion of responsible and sustainable forms of tourism was noted, with a small group of innovators, developers and investors who are creating alternative models of coastal development that could become highly influential in future.

**Sustainable tourism**

Sustainable management of resources is becoming accepted internationally as a logical way to match needs of conservation and tourism development (Pigram 1990; Fish & Walton, 2012; Jennings 2004), although implementation comes with many challenges and involves coordination of many stakeholders (Waligo, Clarke & Hawkins, 2013). Since the end of the last century ecotourism has been promoted as part of the broader international sustainable development agenda to promote socio-economic development of host communities/countries, while generating resources for the preservation of natural and cultural assets and protecting ecologically fragile areas (Gossling 1999; Kiss, 2004). In the South African context, sustainable tourism is defined along the ‘triple bottom line’ approach, which acknowledges that tourism depends on the sustainability of the resources upon which it is based, but it must also be economically viable and meet development needs of local communities. South Africa has enshrined the closely related concept of ‘responsible tourism’ in its White Paper (1996) and tourism authorities are presently working on measuring progress in the implementation of responsible tourism, while researchers evaluate the implications of responsible tourism (e.g. Spenceley, 2008).

Marine and coastal tourism in South Tourism has been affected by this international trend. However, ecotourism and sustainable tourism practice more generally presents its own challenges. Of particular interest to this study is that conflict between different stakeholders that can generate tensions and resistance to policy implementation (Gunn, 1988). Partnership between local people and marine management should be encouraged where there are common interests and mutual benefits (Fuentes,
2008). As studies in South Africa, Namibia and elsewhere show (Attwood et al, 1997; Spiteri & Nepal, 2006; Sheil et al, 2006; Nicanor, 2001), researchers, conservationists, development professionals, funding agencies and other stakeholders should form partnerships to build capacity, facilitate shared decision making and risks, value common interests and create a balance of rights and responsibilities between external agencies, local (tourism) related businesses and local interests. Jentoft and Chuenpagdee (2009:555) argue that coastal governance is often confronted with “wicked problems”, problems that are difficult to define and delineate from bigger issues, recurring problems that do not have a technical solution or a right or wrong solution that can be determined scientifically. Wicked problems must be approached through governance, rather than management. Therefore, governance and, by extension, coordination of marine and coastal tourism must rely on the collective judgment of stakeholders involved in an experiential, interactive, consultative and deliberative process.

Governance and policy implementation

Various government agencies have different roles and responsibilities in the governance of the marine environment and coastal areas in South Africa. The country recognises a range of role players; their alignment through coordinating structures is essential to engineer tourism growth that supports effective policy development, planning and implementation at all levels. National, provincial and local government agencies, the private sector, the media, labour and communities are all key partners in the coordination of tourism. Such structures as Provincial Tourism Committees (PTC) and Provincial Tourism Forums assist municipalities to develop municipal tourism policies within the framework of national and provincial tourism policies and legislation. Various other coordinating structures aim to close information gaps between local and provincial structures and to improve collaboration among all tourism role players. Limited understanding of tourism within municipalities which hinder the effectiveness and collaboration of structures; inadequate capacity and budgeting for tourism functions; and the lack of tourism prioritisation in some municipalities were identified as some of the major challenges (Golding, undated).

Tourism governance overlaps with, but is also different from, tourism management, politics, and policy making. Governance is a comprehensive term that is broader than the term government and implies a focus on ‘systems of governing’ and the ways in which societies are ruled or steered, including by non-state actors. Tourism governance can lead to significant conflict as different groups are trying to influence decision making (Bramwell & Lane 2011:411/2). Jentoft & Chuenpagdee (2009:555) maintain that governance in marine and coastal tourism is broader and more complex than management. Governance gives rise to complex ethical and philosophical considerations which require a different knowledge than the one of experts: a practical, ethical, contextual and experience-based knowledge, which the authors call “phronesis”. Of relevance to the present study is moreover Phakisa’s definition of ocean governance as

the involvement of a wide range of institutions and actors in the production of policy outcomes, which involve coordination through networks and partnerships. It is extremely complex as it involves state sovereignty, resource development, international commerce, environmental protection and military activities. As such, issues arise around the management of conflicting uses and users of ocean space and resources. Addressing these issues via governance will require both horizontally and vertically integrated institutions (Operation Phakisa MPSG Final Lab Report, 2014:12).
Dredge (2015:1) indicates that governance includes the formal and informal arrangements through which information is shared, interests are negotiated, policy decisions are made, and actions are implemented. Dredge (2015) further states that fragmented governance is a major challenge in managing coastal and marine tourism. Complex institutional arrangements, where policy-making is fragmented across different spatial scales and policy domains means that holistic and integrated approaches to governance are elusive. Taking into account that governance is not an "end point" to be achieved but a dynamic process to be supported by a multi-level, multi-institutional governance structures, there is a need to determine how to optimise governance relations, structures and processes to improve the development and stewardship of coastal and marine tourism.

According to Gupta (2010:28) the EC Demonstration Programme states that ocean governance take into account the following:

- spatial integration, i.e. the need to consider the challenges of the ocean space as a whole;
- temporal integration, i.e. coherence between long-term vision, medium-term targets and short-term action;
- stakeholder integration, i.e. promoting genuine collaboration among stakeholders at the national and local level so that there is a co-operative approach to problem-solving as the problems are too complex to be solved by an one group acting alone;
- sectoral integration, i.e. developing horizontal linkages across sectors so that there is a co-ordinated approach to economic development;
- institutional integration, i.e. hierarchical linkages so that there is a convergence in policy, development efforts and governance at national and local level.

Understanding the complexity of the interaction between ocean economy and governance, and opportunities and challenges thereof, is at the centre of analysis in this study.

**South Africa’s coastline provinces**

The proposed study includes all four provinces with coast lines, namely Northern Cape, Western Cape, Eastern Cape and KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). In most of these provinces, coastal tourism and the oceans economy is an important and attractive economic activity for metropolitan areas, smaller coastal towns and rural areas along the coast itself, with economic benefits often sustaining communities further inland. The coastal zones of each of the four provinces has different environmental, climatic and resource characteristics that lend them their unique character as tourist attractions, but also contribute to unique challenges.

The Northern Cape (Namaqualand Coast) is the largest and most sparsely populated province of South Africa with arid to semi-arid climate and extreme heat in the summer and very cold conditions in winter. The Orange River flows through the province, forming the borders with the Free State in the southeast and with Namibia to the northwest and being used to irrigate some of the region's vineyards, but the scarcity of fresh water is an obstacle to development. Northern Cape has a shoreline on the South Atlantic Ocean, which extends over 3 municipalities within the Namakwa District Municipality, namely Kamiesberg; Nama Khoi; and Richtersveld, and stretches over 313 kilometres of coastline. The two regional fishing nodes in the Northern Cape are at the towns of Port Nolloth and Hondeklipbaai. Apart from lack of fresh water resources, the soil along the coast is
generally of a very poor quality and limits the potential for agriculture in the area. Other environmental challenges are overgrazing and land degradation, leading to mounting conflicts over land usage. The Northern Cape has an abundance of diamond deposits both onshore and in marine deposits, leading to diamond mining as dominant activity in the coastal zone. However, the area also has much potential for fishing and marine culture development, as well as eco-tourism opportunities, because the coast is affected by the cold, nutrient-rich Benguela Current system and thus carries rich marine and coastal resources (Northern Cape State of the Environment Report, 2004).

The Western Cape province (West Coast, Cape Metro, Agulhas Coast, Garden Route) is topographically exceptionally diverse and contains unique, sensitive ecosystems. Most of the province (especially in the coastal region) has a Mediterranean climate with dry, warm summers and moderately wet cool winters. Its coastlines are divided between the Atlantic Ocean and the Southern Indian Ocean. The provincial capital is the coastal city of Cape Town, the second most populous urban area in South Africa, after Johannesburg. The Western Cape is governed through the metropolitan municipality of Cape Town and five district municipalities, of which three are along the coast (West Coast, Overberg and Eden). While Cape Town is the province’s and one of the country’s most popular tourist destinations, the long coastline offers a highly developed resource for tourism with many diverse attractions, notably along the popular Garden Route.

The Eastern Cape (Sunshine Coast, Border-Kei, Wild Coast) is South Africa’s second largest province after the Northern Cape. It is governed through two metropolitan and 37 local municipalities; the two metros - Nelson Mandela Metro and Buffalo City – are located along the coast and constitute hubs of economic activity and industry. Climatically, the Eastern Cape is located between the Mediterranean climate of the Western Cape and the subtropical conditions prevalent in KZN. The coastline is characterised by estuaries, sandy beaches, rocky shores and offshore reefs, where oysters, mussels, rock lobster and perlemoen are found in abundance. The land is fertile and used extensively for agriculture, in many parts dominated by subsistence farming and grazing. The marine resources are used by subsistence and recreational fishers. The rugged Wild Coast remains largely undeveloped and is attractive for eco-tourism type activities with its unspoilt character, spectacular scenery and many ship wrecks.

KZN (Wild Coast, Hibiscus Coast, Durban Metro, Dolphin Coast, Zululand, Maputaland) is a smaller, but densely populated province with a long Indian Ocean coastline. It has subtropical climate with hot and humid summers and mild, sunny winters, which make the coastal environment attractive to tourists even during the winter months and allows for the development of a rich, bio-diverse marine and coastal environment. KZN has three main coastal regions: the North coast stretches from the Mozambique border to Richards Bay; the Central Coast from Richards Bay to Durban; and the South coast from Durban to the Mtavuna Estuary (border with Eastern Cape province). The province is governed by one metropolitan (eThekwini) and 11 district municipalities of which four are along the coast, namely Ugu (South Coast), iLembe, Thungula and uMkhanyakude in the north. EThekwini has the country's most important harbour and constitutes an important economic centre for the region and the country. It is the most important receiver of tourists in the province along with the Isimangaliso Wetlands Park (World Heritage Site) along the north coast. Marine and coastal tourism activities in KZN are focused on the beaches, fishing, scuba diving, water sports and eco-tourism.
Management of marine and coastal environment

As mentioned earlier, oceans and coastlines are sensitive environments exposed to many pressures from industrial, recreational and commercial forces. Much literature has been produced on the management of this environment and its usage by different stakeholders (Ruckelshaus et al. 2008; Sunde & Isaacs 2008). The concept of Marine Protected Areas (MPAs) as an area based management tool has been promoted internationally and literature on MPAs abounds, mostly focusing on conservation management and biodiversity (e.g. Cicin-Sain & Belfiore, 2005; Sink & Attwood, 2008; Solano-Fernandez et al, 2012), but also, importantly, considering their economic value (e.g. Turpie, Clark & Hutchings, 2006; S) and their impact on human needs and interests (Charles & Wilson, 2009). In the specific South African context, Chadwick, Duncan & Tunley’s (2014) prepared a report on the state of management of the country’s MPAs for the national government to evaluate progress made through actions of national and provincial agencies and to identify areas of improvement.

Large parts of the South African local coastline are not protected as MPA and hence particularly vulnerable to environmental degradation (Atkinson & Clark, 2005). Yet, conservation and policies such as the Marine Living Resources Act, must take into account the needs and livelihoods of coastal communities, often struggling in the face of poverty and relying on subsistence fishing and other marine resources for their livelihood (Sowman 2006, Sunde & Isaacs, 2008). In the past decades, coastal management has shifted from an emphasis on bureaucratic, conservation-centred approaches to more comprehensive and integrated ones that emphasize participation, multi-stakeholder interests, and sustainable livelihoods. Five factors (not all coast-specific) are important in understanding the location and character of poverty and the context of sustainable livelihoods along the South African coastline (1) the legacy of apartheid, affecting especially the former homelands (notably Eastern Cape); (2) the impact of HIV/AIDS; (3), corruption and illegal activities (from poaching to illegal building of coastal holiday cottages based on permission of bribed officials and tribal chiefs); (4) over-exploitation of natural resources and pressure through high-end coastal developments (5) the long term effects of climate change (Glawovic & Boonzaier, 2007). While the South African coastal and marine environment and its protection shares many characteristics with geographically similar international cases, it is important to acknowledge that the country’s socio-economic environment may differ considerably, hence impacting on management and governance.

Marine and coastal tourism

Although tourism is still a relatively new field of academic research in South Africa, especially from disciplinary perspectives beyond geography, much scholarly literature has appeared on tourism in South Africa and the Southern African region in the past two decades. Of particular relevance to the present study are those dealing with tourism as strategies for local development (e.g. Binns & Nel, 2002; Hottola, 2009; Rogerson, 2002). Equally important is the expanding body of literature on sustainable/responsible tourism in South Africa, ecotourism, and community-based tourism (Frey & George, 2008; Spenceley, 2008a; 2008b; Brennan & Allan, 2001, 2004; Collins & Snel, 2008; Rogerson, 2006). The concept of tourism routes has become popular in recent years and may be relevant to consider for the development of coastal and marine tourism in rural areas (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004; Rogerson, 2007) and indeed literature on rural tourism development in South Africa is relevant to the present study given the predominantly rural character of large stretches of the coastline (Viljoen & Tlabela, 2006). Hoggendoorn and Rogerson (2015) highlight the conservation/biodiversity
and tourism development nexus as one of the key research areas for future investigation, in which the impact of tourism on nature should be a guiding question.

Various studies have engaged with tourism along the South African coastline, but not specifically marine and coastal forms of tourism (e.g. Pillay & Rogerson, 2013). The extant scholarly literature on coastal and marine tourism is generally geographically limited and focused on very specific issues and case studies. Examples include tourist experiences of whale watching in Hermanus (Findlay, 1997); the socio-economic impacts of SCUBA diving at Sodwana Bay (Dicken, 2014) and shark diving/watching as important drivers for tourism along the KZN coast (Lemme 2004; Dicken and Hosking 2009; Du Preez, Dicken and Hosking 2012); or community-based eco-tourism on the Wild Coast (Ntshona & Lahiff, 2003). Stepping back from such localized case studies on specific points of interest, research dealing with more general challenges and issues affecting the entire coastline must be considered for the present study. This includes, for instance, the impact of beach litter on coastal tourism (Ballance, Ryan & Turpie, 2000), as well as the impact of climate change, which will affect coastal and marine tourism more than any other form of tourism. Not only will global warming significantly change the natural environment, but rising ocean levels will also in due course destroy or submerge much of the infrastructure along coastlines (Morena & Amelung 2009).

**Governance in marine and coastal tourism**

As mentioned earlier, it is important to distinguish between management and governance – terms that are easily blurred both in the literature and common language usage. Governance is focused on the (political) will of stakeholders or groups of people/entities that have an interest in the respective resource, in this case the utilization of the coastal and marine environment. Governance, its policies, structures and leaders, direct the management of the resources and delegate powers of administration. Governance develops visions, policies, strategies and procedures, which management must implement and monitor. The management of environmental resources, tourism and other economic activities is faced with daily decision-making that arises in the face of conflicts and challenges of implementation, especially within specific budgetary constraints.

Key issues emerging from the international literature on tourism governance generally and marine and coastal tourism more especially are the need for cross-sectoral and multi-actor integration; integration of different policy instruments towards the goal of sustainable coastal tourism and not least regional integration (Gilek et al, 2015; Bramwell & Lane, 2011). As tourism governance occurs at different geographical scales, local governance is invariably interconnected with the provincial, national and even the transnational level, especially where the coastal and marine environment is a shared resource across large geographic spaces and stakeholders. The literature regularly emphasizes the importance of participation in decision-making by a wide range of stakeholders to ensure sustainability in tourism and a need for establishing suitable instruments for implementing tourism policy (Bramwell & Lane 2011:412). Inclusive governance of the marine and coastal environment invariably raises questions of social justice and governance processes that must be geared towards creating a level playing field to avoid conflict over the distribution of benefits and opportunities due to power differences between actors or stakeholders (Gilek et al, 2015). Lastly, since tourism governance is influenced by shifts in political power and affected by other changes, it is important to remain flexible and learn from previous governance processes. There is growing emphasis on social learning in tourism governance, where various actors in the governance process share knowledge, ideas and experiences (Bramwell & Lane 2011:418).
Much of the international scholarly literature on tourism governance emanates from and essentially pertains to western developed countries with established democratic systems, guided by shared notions of ‘good governance’ around the key values of openness, participation and accountability. Such values are not always accepted in the developing world context, notably on the African continent. Comparing the case studies of Morocco and Tunisia, for instance, Caffyn & Jobbins (2003) investigate the development and management of coastal tourism in hierarchical centralized states with weak democratic systems at the local level. They found that ‘rigid government structures of a top-down, command and control nature do not have the capacity to govern the complex dynamics of coastal zones’ (2003:242) “The central problem identified in both countries was that in maintaining under-resourced command and control systems, the central governments have undermined their own capacities to deal with complex, dynamic and diverse sets of governance problems.”.

With the decentralization of governance, an international trend that has strongly been promoted in South Africa since the beginning of democracy, the responsibility for local socio-economic development and facilitating community participation falls on lower spheres of government. McEwan (2003:2/3) argues that this can be interpreted negatively as a withdrawal of the state, or positively as good governance and participatory democracy. The decentralized model emphasizes accountability, the need for partnerships between communities and government structures, as well as community participation, which must include the poor, women and other marginalized populations. In practice, however, local communities can actually be disempowered in this process, especially in the case of the increasingly popular public-private partnerships, when local government lacks capacity and private sector interests dominate.

There is much literature on tourism and marine management in South Africa (some of which was reviewed above), but far less on governance. A fair amount of scholarly literature explores issues of public sector governance in South Africa generally (Miller, 2005) or the challenges of policy implementation in various sectors, especially health (e.g. McEwan, 2003; Schneider & Stein, 2001). Nelson’s (2012) study on the politics of natural resource governance in Africa, although taking a continental view, is useful for many coastal environment contexts where land use is contested. While some of the governance literature is focused on coastal environments, but not directly tourism related (e.g. Jentoft, 2007), a few other studies deal with governance in the field of tourism, but not specifically focussed on coastal and marine environments (e.g. Cornelissen, 2005).

Issues of governance in coastal and marine tourism are virtually absent from the academic literature. Among the most important items of literature for the current study is Chevallier’s (2015) recent publication ‘Promoting the Integrated Governance of South Africa’s Coastal Zone’, which is once again mostly focused on management (notably in the Eastern Cape) but also touches on issues of governance. Walker’s (2013) study on ocean governance South Africa is important, although not specifically focussed on tourism. Cousins & Kepe’s (2004) examination of governance issues around an eco-tourism project on the Wild Coast is equally important, despite its case study character. The authors found that the project failed because of insufficient emphasis on local participation and democratization. The devolution of effective powers and accountability of local bodies to the community were neglected; when an entrepreneurial elite attempted to capture the project benefits, the community resisted, hence stalling the project. Similar experiences have been found in relation to
many other tourism ventures, especially community-based projects. In rural areas in particular, community participation processes and governance issues are often underpinned by the conflicting relationship between elected, democratic structures and inherited traditional leadership rights (e.g. Allen & Brennan, 2001; 2004). From a governance perspective, the South African context is hence unique, due to the country’s cultural norms and socio-political history, yet important lessons might still be learnt from international best practice.

*International best practice*

As countries globally are grappling with challenges around balancing the enjoyment of and extraction of economic benefits from marine estates and coastal environments, including through tourism, with the conservation of sensitive ecosystems and maintenance of social harmony, various countries with significant coastlines may provide useful comparative lessons for South Africa. A considerable amount of policy documents at national and cross-national level have been developed over the past decades to provide guidance and stimulate best practice. Such policies and governance frameworks can become important instruments of regional integration in their own right for countries sharing the same marine resource, as in the case of the European Union (Gilek, Karlsson, Udovyk & Linke, 2015; see also European Commission, 2016). Australia has developed a bold vision with its policy document ‘Marine Nation 2025’ (Oceans Policy Science Advisory Group, 2013). For the present study, policy documents relating to the developing world contexts are particularly relevant. Among these is the UNCTAD (2014) investigation of the opportunities and challenges pertaining to the oceans economy especially in small islands developing nations. Within Africa, the International Ocean Institute (IOI) has offered training programs and ocean governance courses to deepen the understanding of the seas, provide a forum for the exchange of ideas between researchers and regional governments, and to provide a vision for the regulatory frameworks for coastal and marine governance (IOI, UNDATED).

The above mentioned study for the WWF (Honey & Krantz 2007:13) endorses several WWF tourism initiatives in coastal areas and proposes six types of interventions, namely “(1) work with the growing group of innovators to facilitate uptake of responsible practices in mass tourism; (2) convert broad concern about global warming into action on and a set of best practices related to coastal tourism (3) use research on market demand for green tourism as leverage to encourage governments, the private sector, and development agencies to pursue responsible tourism development; (4) support certification programs and the launching of a global sustainable tourism accreditation body; (5) work with financial institutions and development agencies to facilitate financing for sustainable coastal and marine tourism developments, and (6) at the national and regional level, work with governments, local communities, and private sector players to build and implement a shared vision for healthy tourism development”.

Apart from policy documents and consultancy reports, various academic investigations pertaining to international case studies on coastal tourism are relevant for the present research. Many of these are focused on environmental issues with reference to particular countries, islands or regions (e.g. Belle & Bramwell, 2005; Wong, 1993; Jennings, 2004; Hall, 2001). Sunde & Issacs’ (2008) study on marine conservation and coastal communities, which compared several countries with substantial shoreline environments, is relevant to the current research. Brazil emerged as a best practice model for livelihood-sensitive conservation of the marine and coastal environment with communities being at the forefront of demanding and establishing sustainable-use marine extractive reserves and livelihood projects including tourism. A number of scholarly publications also deal specifically with the
governance of coastal tourism, e.g. Wesley & Pforr (2010) with respect to Western Australia and Caffyn & Jobbins (2003) with a specific focus on Morocco and Tunisia. Such research is important to consider, notwithstanding the uniqueness of the South African context.

SECTION 3: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research approach

Given the objectives of the study as well as the multi-conceptual theoretical approach adopted, the methodological framework includes three components:

- Desk-top study
- Questionnaire survey
- Policy review
- Primary data collection through key informant interviews

The desk-top study permitted an examination of the relevant literature and identified international best practices, as well as national and sector specific trends (cruise tourism, beach tourism and events, adventure tourism, accommodation and facilities, etc.) in the South African context. Furthermore, baseline information was collected which includes background and statistical information on marine and coastal tourism with a focus on governance dimensions. The information discerned from the desk-top study was also used to refine the data collection tools used in this study which includes key informant interview schedules and a policy review checklist. The policy review and primary data collection are described in more detail later. As per NDT request, the primary data collection included all four coastal provinces, namely KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, Western Cape and Northern Cape. It is important to note that the desk-top study as well as the policy review include an examination from the local (District and Local Municipalities), provincial and national levels, as well as considering internationally relevant literature and policies. The use of different approaches to data collection are inter-related and complementary.

This study, therefore, was conducted using a mixed method design, although qualitative research methods (key informant interviews and the policy review) predominated. The mixed method approach is suitable for this study as it commences with a qualitative observation of the phenomenon under study. A qualitative study offers the opportunity to provide subtle details that outline a problem (Jennings, 2010). It is important to note that the key informant interviews (as explained later) include a sufficient sample size to permit a quantitative analysis to assess trends and allow a comparative analysis across the main stakeholder groups. Using a mixed method approach provides a broader perspective on the overall issue under investigation, avoids bias and permits the data collected from different sources to be triangulated.

3.2 Policy review

The policy review entails a critique of current policies in South Africa as well as the selected district and local municipalities that relate to marine and coastal tourism. This includes an examination of policies in international contexts. Information and data become central to this process as Hermans et al. (2012: 427) assert:
Logically, part of such evidence-based approaches is the collection of evidence. This involves gathering observations, communications, and measurements that help to assess what happened and what impacts resulted from what policy interventions. Thus, data collection and monitoring are key activities underlying evaluations.

In addition to providing a critique of existing policies, the intention was to develop an appropriate set of indicators and research instruments to assess the coastal tourism sector from a governance perspective in the future. The criteria used for selecting the indicators in terms of the proposed frameworks were validity, reliability, user-orientation, practicality, policy and programme relevance, sensitivity, time-sensitivity, compatibility, cost-effectiveness and feasibility; with a specific reference to governance issues. Examined aspects include:

- Clearly stated policy purpose and outcomes
- Relevance and effectiveness of current governance structures and institutions (including accountable authorities, boards, etc.)
- Identification of key role players from a governance and coordination perspective
- Clearly defined functions and roles of communities and various stakeholders, including the business sector, are conceptualised from a governance perspective
- Delineation of the socio-economic and environmental governance issues identified
- Identification of governance and coordination challenges, and how they are addressed
- Skills and needs identified
- Performance orientation (including indicators to assess progress)
- Effective collaboration and partnerships
- Risk management
- Monitoring and evaluation aspects (including reporting)

The indicators were therefore used to ascertain the scope and relevance/effectiveness of existing policies. Additionally, the information was used to identify and develop new opportunities and approaches to improve governance within the marine and coastal tourism sector. The focus was on identifying areas that need to be strengthened and supported as well as new opportunities for growth in the marine and coastal tourism sector.

The desk-top component of the policy review included verification against a policy checklist. Additionally, questions pertaining to policy issues were included in the key informant interview schedule.

### 3.3 Research sites for primary data collection

This study was conducted in KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, Western Cape and the Northern Cape, South Africa’s four coastal provinces. It must be noted that coastline development differs greatly in various regions and the Northern Cape, in particular boasts very little marine and coastal tourism. In each province, there are district Municipalities that make up various local municipalities. Some of these coastal districts have local municipalities in their jurisdiction that stretch to the inland, but for the sake of this study, only those local municipalities that are along the coast formed part of the sample.
3.4 Sampling technique

Primary data collection was focussed on by obtaining perspectives from various people involved in social interaction by using in-depth or key informant interviews. The interview schedules included both open and close-ended questions that permitted a qualitative engagement with issues (including providing opportunities for probing, as well as for respondents to raise relevant issues) and the examination of quantitative trends.

The sample was identified by using a purposive sampling method whereby various stakeholders with vested interests in coastal/marine tourism were identified, including:

- Local community representatives and organisations that are involved or interested in marine and coastal tourism and the impacts thereof
- Government agencies mandated to facilitate and coordinate tourism promotion and development in the study area
- Political bodies (including traditional leadership or democratically elected councillors) that have a stake in marine and coastal tourism
- Tourism businesses (including tourism enterprise managers, the informal sector and small businesses) operating in the areas under study

Key informants targeted were those who hold positions in the community; government; and tourism business and that can be assumed to hold information relevant to the study. At least one key informant from each province was from a government agency mandated to facilitate and coordinate tourism promotion and development in the study area. Additionally, provincial and national stakeholders were interviewed using a focus group discussion approach. In total, 23 key informant interviews were conducted either in person, telephonically or by email, depending on the preference and availability of the respondents. Additionally, representatives from local communities and organizations involved or interested in marine and coastal tourism and the impacts thereof were interviewed, as well as representatives of political bodies (including traditional leadership or democratically elected councillors) that have a stake in marine and coastal tourism 3 interviews. Respondents were purposively recruited by approaching relevant persons identified through the literature as well as through discussions with relevant district and local municipality officers. In addition, key informants from the tourism business sector (focusing on direct users of marine and coastal tourism) were selected for interviews. A total of 180 persons were approached, but only 34 availed themselves. A structured survey approach was used for interviewing these private sector respondents, with questionnaires being sent to the respondents via e-mails followed by telephone calls. The businesses were chosen using a random sampling approach based on databases obtained from provincial tourism authorities or through online searches. Research (data collection) in all the identified provinces was conducted over a period of 60 days. For logistical reasons, many respondents in KZN were interviewed at their offices in personal, face-to-face interviews, while telephonic interviews prevailed for participants from the Western Cape and Northern Cape provinces.

During data collection, notes were taken and voice recordings were made, after permission was explicitly granted. Two focus groups were conducted. The first one contained 12 participants who were government-affiliated key informants, mostly from coastal provinces, but including also some inland provinces; all provinces except the Eastern Cape were represented. The other focus group contained 5 tourism business users from KZN. All recorded interviews were transcribed and subsequently analysed by members of the research team.
The table below provides a breakdown of interviews (target and responses) per province and per sector.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Province</th>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Awaiting</th>
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<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NC</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>WC</td>
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<td>KZN, WC, NC (Focus group)</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<td><strong>23</strong></td>
<td><strong>17</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>EC</td>
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<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>WC</td>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
<td><strong>3</strong></td>
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<table>
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<th>Province</th>
<th>Target</th>
<th>Response</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>KZN</td>
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<td>22 + (1 x5 focus group)</td>
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<tr>
<td>EC</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>NC</td>
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<td><strong>180</strong></td>
<td><strong>34</strong></td>
<td><strong>8</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.5 Data analysis

Since the aim of the research was to examine the opportunities and challenges of coastal and marine tourism governance in the four coastal provinces of South Africa, data collection and analysis took place simultaneously. In this case, an inductive logic was used so that emerging themes are not restricted. For ease of analysis, themes were grouped into 8 broad categories summarised below. The information derived from the literature and policy review as well as primary data collection was analysed according to the following themes:

- The implementation of national policies and governance processes
- How coastal and marine tourism could be sustainably governed and coordinated at national, provincial and local levels
- Level of engagement of key public and private stakeholder bodies whose policies and actions impact on coastal and marine tourism development
The effectiveness of local governance capacity and community engagement structures
- National government structures and leadership in tourism
- Level of accessibility, transparency and effectiveness in coastal and marine tourism
- The opportunities and challenges of governance and coordination of coastal and marine tourism.

To ensure anonymity and confidentiality of the informants, representative quotes were numbered from 1 to 60 where necessary. All the interviews were kept private and confidential.

4. Ethical aspects
The UKZN Research Ethics Policy applies to all members of staff, graduate and undergraduate students who are involved in research on or off the campuses of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. In addition, any person affiliated with UKZN who wishes to conduct research with outside organizations or communities is bound by the same ethics framework. Each member of the University community is responsible for implementing this Policy in relation to scholarly work/projects with which she or he is associated and to avoid any activity which might be considered to be in violation of this Policy. Therefore, the proposal and preliminary research instruments were sent to the ethics committee for approval and clearance before the commencement of the research. Hence, research instruments were revised and amended in accordance with the ethics committee and NDT requirements. Researchers signed the university’s “code of conduct for research”. Thus, ethical measures were put in place for the purpose of the research and protecting the participants. Participation was voluntary and as such researchers requested participants to give their informed consent to participate and to record the interviews.

5. Limitations of the study
Among developing countries relevant to the international comparative context, South Africa has an exceptionally long coastline, most of which has significant marine and coastal tourism developments. Given the scope and time frame of this project, the research is subject to the generic limitations that apply to all types of qualitative research, notably the relatively small sample size and lack of generalizability. However, the policy review dimension of this research helped to ensure a wider applicability and relevance of the findings. Some of the limitations of the study include low response rate from the tourism business coastal and marine resources users. Effort was made to interview government officials from all provinces, but difficulties were experienced especially with respect to the Western Cape and Northern Cape. Telephonic and e-mail follow-ups were made to several government and tourism business users, as well as community leaders. Due to logistical problems, only three community leaders form KZN participated. Despite a low response rate from the Western Cape and Northern Cape, the results were deemed valid considering that a saturation level was reached after interviewing a total of 60 participants.

SECTION 6: RESULTS

The results are based on the literature review, key informant interviews, the survey questionnaire and focus group discussions with government officials, representatives from provinces, coastal and marine tourism business users and community leaders. One of the key findings that immediately emerged
during the data collection (and severely hampered the research process) was the lack of an up to date database for tourism businesses and coastal/marine resource users. For some provinces, the database was completely unavailable, for others it was severely outdated. Apart from old phone numbers and email addresses, many businesses had long since closed down. Some business owners were angered to learn that their private cell phone numbers had been captured in and shared through provincial databases. Despite follow-up calls and emails, the response rate from the business owners remained low. This was surprising, because many tourism business owners initially expressed great interest in the study and asserted their commitment to participate. The lack of accurate record keeping must be noted with great concern, as it will inevitably affect any type of communication process from government agencies to the private sector, as well as the coordination and development of the tourism sector more broadly.

The response rate among government officials was uneven, but altogether also low. Many officials did not respond to emails and phone calls at all; others could not participate due to other commitments and various reasons. In some cases, the officials would request to stop participating in the middle of a telephonic interview, citing his/her other official duties as a reason, or refer the researcher to another official who was not available. Some requested that the questions be sent to them before the interview or preferred to respond to questions in writing, but many of these were in the end not returned. The results drawn from obtained questionnaire responses and in-depth interviews are presented below.

6.1. Tourism governance and institutional set up

Governance has since emerged as the new buzzword in tourism discourse in a range of environments, including coastal areas, in order to achieve more sustainable outcomes (Wesley and Pforr, 2010). At a national level, various laws and policies on tourism have been introduced since the advent of democracy, for instance, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act no. 108 of 1996, the Tourism Act (no. 72 of 1993), the Tourism White Paper of 1996 and the National Tourism Sector Strategy, 2011. At an international level, South Africa is a signatory to a series of agreements that are of relevance to coastal and marine tourism. These include the Convention for Cooperation in the Protection and Development of the Marine and Coastal Environment of the West and Central African Region and Related Protocol signed in 1984. South Africa plays an important role in the management of marine resources in sub-regional waters and cross-boundary systems. At a national level, examples include the 1989 Environmental Conservation, the White Paper on Marine Fisheries (1997), the Marine Living Resources Act (1998) and the DEAT’s promotion of sustainable development of the marine environment based on the principles of Agenda 21. In response to the lack of a unified and integrated approach to coastal and marine management in the 1990s (Atwood et al 1997), the White Paper on Sustainable Coastal Management was developed in 2000. The findings of this research suggest several challenges with respect to these policies:

a) There is an overlap and sometimes lack of alignment among different policies. For instance, policies that deal with the environment are developed by the Department of Environmental Affairs, but also have an impact on tourism. Yet, these impacts may not be aligned with respective sections in policies developed by Tourism structures. This is further complicated by divergent interpretations of policy objectives.
b) Key informants from government were sometimes inadequately familiar with the content and even the existence of policies.
c) Respondents admitted that policy implementation is not always effective and even communicating policy objectives to stakeholders is insufficient, primarily due to the following reasons:

- Weak cross-sector partnership.
- Multi-user conflicts.
- Lack of knowledge, communication and skills.
- Poor and weak implementation processes, and lack of monitoring, enforcement or compliance mechanisms.
- Lack of interaction between various spheres of government (national, provincial, local)
- Corruption.

d) Respondents from the business sector were inadequately familiar with policies.

The position of the public sector is critical in developing a coherent tourism policy, and this position has two opposite views. There is the interventionist approach and the laissez-faire. Thus without a common policy there will continue to be diverse tendencies and interests about what kind of power domestic governments (national, regional and local authorities) should play within the country (Datizira-Masip, 1997:45). In line with the above argument, respondents agreed that there is a dedicated tourism ministry and related government departments which have a multi-stakeholder structure and sufficient capacity to function effectively in the governance of coastal and marine tourism, examples include National, Provincial, District and Local government. Additional departments that have a direct impact on coastal and marine tourism include, the Department of Environmental Affairs (DEA), Department of Water Affairs and Forestry (DWAAF), Office of the Presidency, Department of Energy (DoE), Department of Rural Development and Agrarian Reform (DRDAR), Department of Transport, Department of Home Affairs and Department of Public Works. Other departments identified with an indirect impact on coastal/marine tourism are, the Department of Land Affairs, Department of Labor and the Department of Trade and Industry [4]. Dinica (2008:338) claims that,

irrespective of the location of tourism within government,…there should be a formal structure and process for inter-ministerial coordination on tourism. In addition to these inter-ministerial structures, ministries may collaborate to support or implement specific initiatives…It is helpful if such collaborative structures, agreements and actions are formalized by protocols or memoranda of understanding….Ideally what is required is a permanent forum or standing conference based on a large number of invited stakeholders representing different interests, and a smaller body or council perhaps elected from the above, dealing with more detailed work.

In KZN, the provincial structure includes the Provincial Tourism Committee (PTC), Provincial Tourism Forum (PTF), Community Tourism Association (CTA) and Community Tourism Organisation (CTO). The provincial structure shows that the issue of sustainable development is holistic in nature. It therefore requires synchronization of policies and coordination of actions between actors (Dinica 2008:338). Relevant other governance structures and stakeholder entities include coastal communities, councillors, coastal districts and local municipalities, local tourism organisations and community development trusts [3]. Although there are separate governmental delivery agencies for tourism with an inclusive structure, it is not always clear what their distinct roles are and how they can support coastal and marine tourism. One respondent from a coastal municipality said, the tourism side’s legislation has a white paper and responsible tourism guidelines … [but] with no reference to coastal and marine tourism [4]. Another respondent from a provincial tourism department stated that
coastal and marine tourism is still “a new thing” and that a dedicated policy should be developed to govern it.

Many respondents emphasized the need to promote buy-in from stakeholders and wider public. One of the community leaders pointed out that the tourism policy generally does not cater for the wider public interest. In some cases, the language used in the policy document is not simple enough for a lay person to comprehend. As the respondent asserted, whoever is in office, those people dealing with ocean related issues must remember that white people have always been part of this marine economy; they know it fully well. We, as black people, we love fishing, but we need to know what and what not to take out because we are not educated about it. We need to be educated about licensing, what to do when your license expires, because some people go to the ocean without licence[s]ing because they are not educated about it. I don’t even know the difference in terms of fishing seasons. You see this thing of ‘catch and return’ is part of recreational fishing among whites, but is not a popular phenomenon among us as black people [50]. The respondent further indicated that those officials in high offices are involved, they use complicated terminologies, confusing enough for you as a lay person to understand. Educated people confuse us with these complicated terminologies. Ordinary citizens don’t get involved in such things, mostly they don’t even understand what a marine resource is. They [officials] use terminologies that ordinary people do not understand, that is my point [58]. This points to the need for better communication and strategies that ‘translate’ policy lingo into terms comprehensible to communities and small-scale private sector users of coastal and marine resources, especially those from previously disadvantaged backgrounds.

Despite wide engagement of different stakeholders such as NGOs, educational institutions and/or other civil society bodies, respondents were of the opinion that the private sector is not fully engaged in coastal and marine governance. It should be recalled, as (Dinica 2008: 338) points out, that

national tourism strategies based on sustainability ideas are expected: to offer good guidance to all relevant ministries and agencies for the design and implementation of policy instruments and action programmes that have direct or indirect impacts on tourism development; to stimulate and control the private sector and potential investors … provide a framework for tourism policies and actions at local level [60].

Given the outdated provincial databases and inadequate level of record keeping mentioned above, government communication with private sector businesses will inevitably be wanting. One respondent said, That’s a fact, consultation processes need to be worked on, refined and involve all supposed [relevant] stakeholders [14]. Dinica talks about

the integration of tourism policies at national level with those at sub-national level...at minimum, there should be monitoring at national level of tourism policy developments at sub-national levels. Tourism policies should be coordinated with the other relevant policy domains (such as spatial planning, nature and environmental protection, landscape conservation, infrastructural developments) to map how developments in these domains, at various governance levels, may affect tourism (2008:339).

Participants felt that some of the conflicts existing between tourist guides and government are a result of a lack of education about the existing policies regulating marine/coastal tourism. Nothing beats
sitting and discussing in the stakeholders' meetings whereby these people sit together and they discuss the challenges… Nothing beats that because they are everyday on site and they know all the challenges that they can get to discuss the strategies to put things in place [23]. Hence, local people are not reaping maxim benefits from the coast. There was agreement that people who do not abide by marine/coastal tourism legislation must face the full might of the law, e.g. imprisonment or heavy fines. Another respondent however emphasized that if the government gives money for awareness campaigns, or training in marine resource management, they must follow up on such things, to make sure that the money is spent responsibly and that it was done for such purposes. You cannot arrest a person for abusing marine resources if you did not teach that person how to use them in the first place. We must not say our people are ignorant, teach them about such things so that they can see themselves as part of such marine tourism activities [47].

While the existing legislative framework might be adequate, it was noted that the enforcement of by-laws is the responsibility of local municipalities and that on their own, especially smaller municipalities sometimes do not have enough capacity to effectively enforce the legislation. As another community leader in KZN said, *In terms of monitoring, well monitoring and supervision in service delivery in general is not so right, it needs to be improved. Well, some people destroy trees and temper with nature. That happened recently, a tourist doing something totally against the law. By-laws are available, but sometimes people still litter along the coast line, like liquor bottle littering when camping, which is totally against any law. As I said they [by-laws] are applied, but sometimes you have to have, for example, protection services stationed at the beach front where people tend to take law into their hands* [31].

Further discussions revealed that the public-private sector/local businesses partnership in policy implementation and law enforcement is at its infant stage. It was observed that there is sufficient capacity for a multi-stakeholder engagement to function effectively, but there is a need to promote a wider stakeholder buy-in. One of the community leaders in KZN expressed his concern as a representative of his community that, due to poor governance, marine tourism has not benefitted ordinary citizens. It becomes a problem to even develop a relationship with the private sector, here in Umzumbe along the coast, those are marine areas, the private sector is fully involved in, e.g. fishing and diving tourism; those people are running that economy. We have no relationship at all with those people. For marine tourism that brings economy to this region to be effective, at a local level, I would recommend that the government look at, and emphasize, issues of workshops, i.e. induction workshops. We need plans and programs that will help people who were previously disadvantaged to understand what marine tourism is, we have black businesses in the region, but they are not educated about such things, and thus not see the value in them, and won’t invest in marine tourism. [36].

According to Datzira-Masip (1997:43),

*the development of a tourism plan constitutes an attempt to give government administration the leadership to coordinate, develop and finance projects which often start out with private sector initiatives and which require a close working relationship between the private sector and government organisations.*

The tourism business sector is multifaceted and complex and many business operators tend to be aware only of those policies that regulate their respective activities. There was a general feeling that coastal and marine tourism is still new; therefore, conflict will continue to exist as people try to understand the processes [3]. Regarding consultation with communities and other stakeholders, this
study found that specific processes were followed when consulting the public regarding the formulation of government/local government policies. According to government official one respondent … when you develop the terms of reference, you already [have a] list of your stakeholders in the terms of reference, so, they consult mostly those stakeholders [13]. A community member respondent agreed: yes, there’s a joint consultation, for example, our conservancy was invited to attend many of the these [meetings] when it was a White Paper, so, from day one, we were informed, and we were given opportunities to answer questions and we had sittings with these people to iron things out [12].

In the Western Cape, the representative from the Department of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries (DAFFS) indicated that their department has a healthy relationship with the tourism industry. When tourists go to the Western Cape, they have to apply for fishing permits for which they pay a certain amount. The rules and conditions are specified in the permit and they are expected to comply. If you do not comply, then you have committed an offense as a tourist. The regulatory framework is sufficient to enhance responsible coastal tourism because the rules are there to make sure that tourists act responsibly along the coast. There are also road shows. The permit section deals with compliance and enforcement. They define climate conditions and policies for tourists. Then there is Resource Management section that deals with fishermen and communities. We try to work together, we have the operation, for example we have the conservation guy who is responsible for the MPAs, we have environmental officers, we come together to come up with solutions when there are challenges arising That is how different stakeholders become involved in the implementation of these policies because these are all departments within Fisheries [54]. Despite the efforts taken in ensuring transparency and stakeholder participation in policy formulation and decision making, some respondent felt that the process was not fair and transparent and the results are not reviewed timeously [3]. Monitoring, lack of multi-stakeholder involvement, lack of skills and knowledge in marine resource management remain a challenge. In the south of KZN, one respondent indicated, I see these as challenges. The government gives out money, policies are there, but these things are not monitored; money is wasted on things that are not important. For example, if the government gives money for awareness campaigns, or training in marine resource management, they must follow up on such things, to make sure that the money is spent responsibly and that it was done for such purposes. At a local level you are not involved in how that money is spent. But people will ask you why development is slow [53]. Coastal and marine tourism presents an opportunity to diversify the economy and redistribute benefits to a wider community in the form of new business ventures, bio-conservation and employment opportunities for the general public. Although tourism businesses have Tourism Business Forums where they educate their members about critical policy issues surrounding their operations, more educational activities targeted at community members need to be launched in different destinations.

The major concern coming from the participants was on law enforcement, particularly within the recreational fishing arena. For instance one respondent said, no, there are strategies but there is no action… especially when it comes to the enforcement of certain policies… the other municipality won’t bother with tourism. So, it is just because of [the] lack of law enforcement within the tourism sector that these things can be dealt [with] as individual perceptions change [9][5]. The researchers further noted that there was a tug of war between divers and commercial/recreational fishermen. On the one hand, fishermen are blaming the divers for destroying coral reefs; on the other hand, divers are blaming the fishermen for pollution and over-fishing. A tourism business user said, my comment is that the divers destroy as much as the fishermen destroy. What the fishermen destroy, you got [a] picture of it but what the divers destroy you have got no pictures of it [11]. In the Western Cape, the
respondent indicated that they rely on compliance, if tourists and other users adhere to climate conditions and policies that have been implemented by the department, there is no contravention. He however indicated that there are always conflicts stemming from different views in different areas, but also indicated that, within DAFFS, they have researchers who conduct field research before they implement any climate conditions or policies. Nevertheless conflicts between various stakeholders remain a challenge because we have MPAs, we have diving, we have fishing boats, then we face communities which rely on marine resources for a living to provide for their families, due to unemployment. Some of them end up going to fish where they are not supposed to fish, to provide for their families. Unemployment rate is a challenge. We put up some fines to make sure that they do not go to no-go areas [51], as one municipality officer put it. As can be seen above there were differing views on the perceptions and comprehension of current governance structures. Although government officials showed a general understanding of issues, there was no integrated analysis since private-public sector views sometimes conflicted. In some cases, there were differing opinions among government officials. Different levels of government had access to different information, for instance, national and provincial departments did not know the local conditions whilst the local government failed to understand strategic plans.

6.2. Policies that drive marine and coastal tourism development

6.2.1. Governance in coastal and marine tourism

To understand the respondents’ views about the subject, researchers were interested in how the respondents understood and defined the concept of marine and coastal tourism. Overall, respondents did demonstrate sufficient understanding, defining coastal tourism as a form of tourism taking place within the seaside environment. It was evident from the responses that governance in coastal and marine tourism is a very broad and complex concept. The custodial role in the usage of coastal space and marine resources was seen to be held by local municipalities, coastal communities, traditional leaders, community development trusts and MPA communities [3]. However, views from a government official in the Western Cape and a community member on the North Coast in KZN varied regarding the policies regulating coastal/marine tourism. They mentioned legislative frameworks and notably the broader Coastal and Environment Management act which guides all the coastal and marine activities [1][2]. Others viewed governance as a tool designed to fast track the implementation of solutions on critical delivery issues highlighted in the NDP. They considered it as an innovative and pioneering approach meant to translate plans into concrete results through dedicated delivery and collaboration. They gave an example of Operation Phakisa where the government aims to implement priority programmes better, faster and more effectively [3]. One government official gave an example of KZN where there are structures in place from the government side, from district to local level [4]. A respondent from the Eastern Cape indicated that the municipality developed a coastal management plan and spatial development framework in order to know which areas can be designated for agriculture, environmental management, hotel construction and other types of development [5]. In some municipalities, the by-laws are there but not yet implementable; in some cases, people are unfamiliar with the legislation [3]. One respondent said, we do have a tourism set up plan and strategy and then we also have a coastal development plan [10]. A tourism business user looked at the concept from a safety perspective, stating, we agree with some of the safety equipment and [that] the boat needs to be of high quality within regulations. … The regulation states that they [shark cage divers] need to use a steel drum which they disagree with. What they prefer to use is a plastic drum;
when the sharks bite the steel drum, it injures the shark, whilst when they bite the plastic one … they leave scratches only. The marine user views eco-tourism people as the ones who are injuring [damaging] any sort of life within the marine area [6].

While tourism itself may be a source of marine and coastal degradation, many other human activities and economic sectors such as agriculture, commercial fishing, deforestation, coastal vegetation clearance, power generation, urbanization, etc. put pressure on the ecosystem (Neto, 2003) and comparatively impact on the coastlines, thereby negatively affecting tourism. As different interest groups benefit from South Africa’s coastal and marine resources, responsible utilization is difficult to achieve. The governance of the marine and coastal areas in general and tourism more specifically, however, needs a coordinated effort between and among different stakeholders. Respondents from the Tugela mouth area complained, you closed it [tourism] down, it’s no more a tourist village here [laughs], it is a retirement village here, not a tourist village. You closed the beach, you closed fishing, you closed everything, the government has closed it down [7]. The challenge is to develop synergy between different stakeholders to make capacity building, policy design and implementation, evaluation and monitoring a collaborative, coordinated and collective effort. Hence “coordination may be facilitated by policy making and implementation guidelines, monitoring systems and policy impact assessments” (Dinica, 2008:339). The above issues show that there is a problem with legal instruments. Whilst it is acknowledged that there are problems associated with coastal and marine tourism, it seems there is a tendency to focus on the symptoms rather than the causes of the problems.

6.2.2. Level of recognition of coastal and marine tourism

As can be seen above, even though respondents had an understanding of costal and marine tourism, perspectives differed depending on whether the response came from a government official, resource user or community leader. For instance, one government official explained, all laws and regulations and policies come mainly from the national department and they are then cascaded down to local municipalities and local government so that they can be understood by the local people around [7]. There was a feeling that tourism is not given adequate attention in the national budget. This view was reinforced by a respondent from a coastal municipality who explained, …. now what happens is, if there are resources that are budgeted for, those resources are not forwarded down to the tourism industry but end up in the environment agendas and projects and tourism just gets a small percentage. Even the human resources [Environment Department] …have this idea that they are better than tourism [9]. Even though coastal and marine tourism is one of the economic drivers of economic growth, respondents felt that the sector was not considered a priority by government, particularly when it comes to its own development policies. For instance, respondents indicated that priority is placed on fisheries, poverty eradication, environment, transport and immigration [5] [13].

The researchers were interested in gauging the level of consultation and implementation of the coastal and marine policies. Unfortunately, most tourism business owners were of the opinion that there was no adequate consultation, and where indeed there was consultation, the process was horridly done. Although they were aware of the bylaws regulating coastal activities, they thought there was a serious overlap between policies from different departments which makes control very difficult. Coastal and marine tourism business owners in Tugela Mouth described how lack of control has affected the competitiveness of the area. They [have] got life guards too, but it is like with all due respect, there are plenty of rules and regulations in place, but doesn’t get control[led]. There is nobody really
accountable. So it is there, but everybody [looks] the other way, everybody looks somewhere else. Who is accountable? [8]. You know, I think all of us know, but nobody has actually come to speak to us and to bring to us the policies so we cannot say how they are going to implement it [7].

In contrast, respondents from government tended to have great faith in the existing provincial coastal and marine working groups, the Provincial Tourism Committees (PTCs). For instance, one government official indicated that ...there are commercial coastal working groups, the Provincial Tourism Committees (PTC) the main one is in the Western Cape and is managed from there. They are meant to deal with issues to do with marine and coastal tourism [13]. The committees deal with issues concerning marine and coastal management within the provinces. There are coastal/marine tourism policies but they are not adequately enforced [3]. However, in the Northern Cape, the legislation has to do with the management of the environment. Currently people are not aware of some of these policies; respondents felt that there should be policies that support coastal and marine tourism. For instance, the Blue Flag status deals with four criteria, the water quality, facilities, safety and education, but a lot more could be done on education. In Northern Cape, there is a conflict between the community and environmental management. Tour guides want to be granted access to the sea to enable them to take tourists into the coast. Currently the practice is to ban all quad biking activities into the coast. ... But if you define or relegate some of these things... that are going to be endangered by vehicles, make space for different groups, driving on the beach where there is nothing... Same applies to a place like a dam, you set aside a place for recreational activities... [13].

Respondents were of the opinion that coastal and marine tourism is not given adequate attention, especially as compared to mining. Hence there is lack of coordination between national and provincial governments to support coastal and marine tourism. A common problem identified was the lack of implementation by those with the power to influence their enforcement. However, it was noted that at an international level a significant effort has been made in coordinating the sector through international protocols and conventions.

6.3. Strategies and plans that guide marine and coastal tourism

6.3.1. Strategic plans sufficient to guide the development of coastal and marine tourism

Sustainable management of resources is becoming accepted as a logical way to match needs of conservation and tourism development (Pigram 1990; Fish and Walton, 2012). Sustainable tourism is defined in the South African context along the ‘triple bottom line’ approach, which acknowledges that tourism depends on the sustainability of the resources upon which it is based, but it must also be economically viable and meet development needs of local communities. A wide range of national government departments have a direct or indirect interest in South Africa’s ocean space and resources. These include Departments of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries, Defence, International Relations and corporation, Transport, Communications, Arts and Culture, Water and Sanitation, Science and Technology, and Energy. Besides the above mentioned provincial departments, coastal municipalities in KZN, Western Cape, Northern Cape and Eastern Cape have interests in marine issues. There was agreement (especially among participants from the government sector) that there is a clear and elaborate tourism policy in place, containing principles in support of responsible tourism. As noted above, since the government is not prioritising tourism, respondents were of the opinion that there is minimum fiscal consideration on the policy to support tourism. Since the current tourism policy
and strategy places little emphasis on coastal and marine tourism, the strategy is inclined towards other forms of tourism and there might have been an oversight on the inclusion of the coastal and marine tourism sector. However, the researchers established that, currently there are education programmes regarding coastal and marine tourism conducted by various municipalities. Both the policy and the strategy have clear roles, actions, and responsibilities of different stakeholders but these are not explicit. For instance, one respondent said, they should point out what is expected of the municipality [from the] … tourism perspective. Because [if] you [go] get to some of the Municipality[ies] and they don’t have a tourism office [2]. It was evident that each province has its own strategy and plans in place. One community member retorted, I would say to a certain degree it is sufficient. But what length is the understanding of the content of the policy in the community? The policy is good but if people do not understand, those who are supposed to be the implementers of the policy…. that policy will always be weak [10].

In KZN there is a tourism master plan which is clear, elaborate and developed for five years, but there was agreement among respondents that the plan is not reviewed regularly. Respondents agreed that specific responsibilities and roles of stakeholders are defined, but the tourism plan was developed by consultants and the municipality officials have problems implementing it. For example, one respondent said, I think the issue in KZN is that the consultant came up with a plan and said here, what do you think about the plan? [13]. Respondents indicated that the development of tourism master plan follows clearly laid down procedures. When developing the terms of reference, all responsibilities should be clearly indicated, but respondents were of the opinion that in some of the provinces the roles and responsibilities of stakeholders are not clearly defined. However, it was evident from the discussions with the participants that provinces were serious about the issues around sustainable tourism. One respondent was concerned about using a blanket regulation for all the provinces. She raised the issue that banning every vehicle from the coast which was seen as being problematic since that alone, without effective community participation, cannot lead to sustainable bio-diversity conservation [13]. Respondents were of the opinion that authorities need to look at the matter case by case instead of developing a universal policy for the provinces. For instance, some respondents raised the issue of different fish species in KZN and Cape Town respectively; others the issue of 4x4 drives on the coast, pointing out that some places were inaccessible by road and the only way to access the place was to drive on the coast.

6.4 Governance structures and engagement of key publics in tourism

Whilst the government supports the Blue Flag programmes, respondents were concerned that there is no National strategy on coastal and marine tourism; as a result, provinces are scrambling to participate in Phakisa. Within the province of KZN, for instance, various government agencies have different roles and responsibilities in the governance of the marine environment and coastal areas. The province recognises a range of role players, and the alignment thereof through coordinating structures, to engineer tourism growth that supports effective policy development, planning and implementation at all levels. The provincial government recognized the private sector, media, government, labour and communities as key partners in the coordination of tourism. Such structures as Provincial Tourism Committee (PTC) and Provincial Tourism Forum assist municipalities to develop municipal tourism policies within the framework of national and provincial tourism policies and
legislation. Various other coordinating structures aim to close information gaps between local and provincial structures and to improve collaboration among all tourism role players.

While the existing structures appear to be adequate and well thought out, respondents also noted various challenges in their effective functioning. Most notably, there is limited understanding of tourism within municipalities, which hinders the effectiveness and collaboration of structures. Inadequate capacity and budgeting for tourism functions and lack of tourism prioritisation in some municipalities were also identified. This was also noted in the literature (e.g. Golding, undated). For instance, one respondent indicated that what is happening in KZN is that one entity that has been managing the coast has been removed and another entity put in. The latter does not have the capacity to do the job of monitoring illegal fishing, who is going to suffer are those people who depend on the coast for subsistence [13]. There are clear active structures that bring together and represent private sector enterprises, but there is inadequate capacity for the private sector to be effective.

6.5. Implementation and monitoring of coastal and marine tourism policies

Partnership between local people and marine management should be encouraged where there are common interests and mutual benefits (Fuentes, 2008). As studies show in South Africa, Namibia and elsewhere (Attwood et al, 1997; Spiteri and Nepal, 2006; Shell et al, 2006; Nicanor, 2001; Barnes et al, 2002), researchers, conservationists, development professionals, funding agencies and other stakeholders should form partnerships to build capacity, facilitate shared decision making and risks, value common interests and create a balance of rights and responsibilities between external agencies, local (tourism) related businesses and local interests. However, ecotourism and sustainable tourism practice more generally presents its own challenges. As one respondent noted, no, there are some people that do not bother. They do not care; they say that they don’t want to get involved because it’s not their department. So, at the end of the day, some people just sit in the office, don’t care about what is going on because nobody wants to do anything about it and it’s getting worse [24]. Of particular interest to this study is that conflict between different stakeholders can generate tensions and resistance to policy implementation (Gunn 1988). The quotation above suggests that government departments sometimes suffer from a ‘silo effect’ whereby one department does not care or even know about the workings of another. More generally, there may also be insufficient incentive or performance management to ensure that employees in government structures work effectively towards the implementation of policies. The research further noted that the institutions mandated with communicative action were underdeveloped. In cases where these existed, they dealt with information dissemination. One of the community leaders exclaimed, …you wanna have a beach party, you can forget, …if there is a relevant official, he is trustiest to apply the law, but just tell us, that the application is in breach of the law, or regulation, but you don’t just tell us…look at what is happening in the Western Cape, the new tourism products are being developed…[30] Hence bureaucratic processes needed for approving projects were found to be a major concern among communities and NGOs.

Even where stakeholders are actively involved in policy implementation, there are issues holding back the process. One of the respondents indicated that mining on coast is a top priority for government; you sleep today thinking the place is accessible and wake up the following day to discover that the place has been proclaimed for mining purposes [13]. Since most of the work is done by consultants, respondents assumed that the community was consulted on issues of policy formulation and implementation. However, the current policies allow the community to care for the marine/coastal
resources. The problem is that the coast belongs to everybody and nobody takes care of it. What we have seen with the private sector, in their strategies, they indicated that they are there to keep the sea clean, sometimes this is just on paper [13]. Hence respondents were of the opinion that the community is not capacitated on governance and/or policy issues. One conservancy member noted, involved as a group, yes, but like I said, our conservancy, our chairlady … is well known in the region here for her contribution and she is a mouth piece of our conservancy, obviously, we got the committee members who all work very hard tirelessly around the clock to try and get these laws enforced and adhered to [12]. The decision-making process was seen an opportunity by the conservancy in South Coast to discuss issues affecting governance needs.

The responses above show that there are challenges regarding the implementation of the tourism and environmental policies due to other problems. The major challenge noted was the monitoring and review of progress that is not done timeously. One respondent commented, …and I think tourism also keeps a very careful [watch] on what is happening. But the report back is perhaps lacking, it is difficult sometimes to know how much is happening. I am beginning to feel strongly that we need some independent monitoring [systems] of almost everything [in tourism] [18]. The researchers further noted that the policy was silent on the responsibilities of the community in caring for the coastalmarine resources as evidenced by two respondents who said, we don’t get involved [22]; we are not part of it [2]. Nonetheless, respondents from a municipality in KZN indicated that there are structures in place for developing and monitoring the implementation of the tourism strategy [15] but it may not be adequate [4] and there is a structured approach in managing marine tourism [14]. In Margate, for instance, it took them six months to get authorization from the department of Environmental Affairs to make some developments on the beach. Therefore, governance and legislative powers on the coast lie with the Department of Environmental Affairs, for instance on issues to do with the Blue Flag and river mouths developments [14]. Controlling the activities of tourism businesses coupled with the power to govern effectively lies in the access to the final consumer market. The amount of time taken before the granting of approval can have a devastating effect on the tourism businesses. Respondents were of the opinion that state regulation limits the role of civil society and the private sector. There was a feeling that the government’s state apparatus and provincial administration needs to mobilise support when certain decisions are made, and these are based on the state’s rules, institutions, objectives and goals.

6.6. Governance capacity, coordination and effectiveness

Jentoft et al (2008:555) maintain that governance in marine and coastal tourism is broader and complex than management. Governance gives rise to complex ethical and philosophical considerations which require a different knowledge than the one of technical, scientific and management experts: a practical, ethical, contextual and experience-based knowledge. There was agreement that the process of involving local government structures in tourism are effective, however, there is need for effective coordination between national, regional, and local tourism governance. A respondent from the KZN South Coast noted, when you look at the conditions of South Coast and compare it to Cape Town, it’s like you are in two different countries working under one policy, there are four provinces namely, KwaZulu-Natal, Eastern Cape, Western Cape and Northern Cape, and the people need to manage all the four areas but they are sitting in Cape Town [20]. This heterogeneity can easily confuse the tourists as well as cause problems in commercialising the product for domestic
and international visitors (Datzira-Masip, 1997:44). Even though there are provincial and district departments, their offices may not be easily accessible. The respondent further noted that, *they have district offices here in Port Shepstone, why can’t somebody be sitting here so that if we need to liaise [with them] they are a phone call or drive away rather than waiting till two days later and the damage has already been done* [20].

Respondents were of the opinion that the government has no absolute control over marine tourism governance. Some of the respondents felt the coordination of tourism is not effective. A major challenge identified was the issue of sufficient skills, including all aspects of tourism sustainability. A respondent said, *you gonna practice what you preach, and things get just thrown in and they don’t practice what they preach and promise because there is no control…if you ask them questions, … he doesn’t know* [8]. For instance, in the Northern Cape, the harbour is owned by Transnet, which is leased to DeBeers that does not allow anyone to come into that space. Considering the Land use Management Act, municipalities have no control over the land own by Transnet. One respondent raised an important issue regarding knowledge of coastal and marine tourism, saying *…in provinces there is serious lack of understanding of coastal tourism and responsible tourism…serious lack of capacity. If the beaches are dirty, who is going to go there? All pieces should integrate; otherwise you will end up without coastal tourism* [13]. It was noted that there are NGOs, educational institutions and other civil society organisations involved in environmental management issues, but local structures need to be improved for them to work effectively.

One of its key areas of focus was a movement away from South Africa’s historical approach that was fragmented and uncoordinated, to a more holistic promotion of a coordinated and integrated management of coastal resources. Various new acts and policies have come into effect in recent years, e.g. the National Environmental Management Integrated Coastal Management Act number 24 of 2008 and Green Paper on the National Environmental Management of the Ocean (2012, precursor to the 2014 White Paper), these have also been criticized, not least on the basis of insufficient public participation. Glazewski (2013) suggests that policy makers must have sound knowledge and understanding of local needs, preferences and value systems; social, business and political institutions must be established to regulate resources under pressure from competing interests. The implementation and enforcement of marine environmental laws need cross-departmental involvement and a coordinated approach. Respondents agreed that there was a specific enabling Tourism Act that is fit for the governance purpose despite omissions on marine and coastal tourism. In KZN, key areas of concern are the sea bed and ensuring that there is no development directly next to the coastline, as well as illegal fishing and the enforcement of legislation on both commercial and recreational fishing. One respondent claims that *there is a lot of legislation on who can fish and who can come close to the 200km coastal zone…, there should be legislation on tourism on things that affect tourism on the coast: mining, prospecting, that they were doing was disturbing whales going up and down the coast. There is an issue at the moment on who is going to manage the illegal fishing, it used to be KZN Wildlife, they have been doing it for 70 years, and somebody decided no, no, no, it has to be somebody else. There is chaos going on there, that gap has not been filled* [13]. Some respondents were of the opinion that the private sector is not properly organised. Although there is sufficient tourism legislation, the current policies need to be enhanced for them to meet the need for sustainable coastal and marine tourism development, i.e. to conduct a check list on certain regulations that may hold back sustainable coastal and marine tourism development. One respondent said, *I think there should be more [legislation], I think there should be also more accessibility…. you need to make sure*
that the community is economically benefiting from the coast [13]. Respondents were of the opinion that state agencies supervise the enforcement of laws, whilst they agreed that the legislation needs to be enhanced, they strongly felt that the regulations should take into consideration how communities can benefit from the sector. The hierarchical and command structure of government tends to affect how decisions are communicated, sometimes decisions are made with good intentions but due to resource constraints their impact is weakened. Worse still, budgetary constraints frequently limit choices at the local level. The research noted that there were some NGOs [i.e. the Wildlife and Environment Society of South Africa - WESSA] involved in conservation projects, however the level of engagement with local communities was found to be infrequent due to limited financial resources.

6.7 Challenges for coastal and marine tourism governance

Dredge (2015:1) indicates that governance includes the formal and informal arrangements through which information is shared, interests are negotiated, policy decisions are made, and actions are implemented. Dredge (2015) further states that fragmented governance is a major challenge in managing coastal and marine tourism. There is a complex institutional arrangement, where policy-making is fragmented across different spatial scales and policy domains, which mean that holistic and integrated approaches to governance are elusive. Datza-Masip (1997:45) claims that the countries which have difficulties in implementing their tourism policies [are those with] decentralised structures with many interested organisations and little coordination or central direction of tourism. Hence, tourism business owners felt that the law is not applied uniformly. In Tugela Mouth (KZN), for instance, white tourism business owners were put in the same ward in the nearby village [Mandeni Municipality], but pay higher rates than their black counterparts because they own home stay apartments. Findings from the survey with business owners established a number of other challenges that can prevent the development of a successful coastal, marine tourism and leisure sector:

- Lack of governance mechanisms that ensure full utilization of coastal and marine resources. As a result, effective coordination and collaboration is hindered due to ineffective structures and limited understanding of tourism within municipalities. No hot spot products inland that will pull people away from the coast and thereby reduce overcrowding. In some cases, the potential for tourism growth is hindered by lack of prioritization of tourism growth initiatives in some of the Municipalities.
- High unemployment levels and unskilled human resources in the rural areas and around marine assets.
- Lack of funding prospects for tourism projects among investors. In some Municipalities, there is serious lack of viability of coastal and marine tourism businesses.
- Lack of institutional arrangements and uncoordinated marine policies whereby there is insufficient infrastructural support for coastal and marine tourism development.
- Fear of the unknown resulting in strict conservation efforts vs other development priorities. Protectionist approach to legislation and policies which may impact on tourism development.
- Capacity of local authorities to manage coastal and marine tourism. In some cases, there is duplication of roles and responsibilities (role ambiguity) as a result of fragmented structures for coastal and marine tourism governance.
- Lack of institutional autonomy for local tourism departments.
- Budgetary constraints and national and provincial level.
Lack of knowledge on the value of tourism amongst government officials and community members. Lack of tourism knowledge for Municipality officials resulting in inadequate capacity and budgeting to fully realize the tourism functions.

In-depth interviews suggest that political parties, ministries, provincial authorities and commercial actors have political agendas and petty jealousies. As a result, there is a lack of trust amongst stakeholders. Conflicts between the Municipality and tourism businesses interests are evident (i.e. Tugela Mouth - Mandeni municipality).

Some argue that the challenges are a result of a lack of a clear national strategy on coastal and marine tourism. Amongst the government officials, it was found that there is a lack of synergy within and amongst government departments.

It was evident from our request for a list of registered tourism enterprises that there was no updated database of registered coastal and marine tourism businesses.

Although commercial actors can integrate coastal and marine tourism in partnership with provincial governments, lack of complementarity of products and the reactionary approach to coastal tourism management has affected sustainable development of the sector.

Although there is an attempt to produce integrated policies, lack of monitoring and evaluation of strategies and instruments has affected the coordination of policy domains across governance levels.

Most government officials and commercial actors have a narrow view of sustainability. In their definition, sustainability relates to environmental protection. Hence pollution on the beaches (noise, litter and other ills) and deforestation is rife, environmental education does not take a holistic approach sustainability. The research findings point to illegal sand mining, poor and dilapidated infrastructure, lack of life guards and safety issues as some of the challenges in coastal and marine tourism.

The above-mentioned challenges are in sync with the opinions of respondents who said, it is problematic when you split responsibilities between two departments; at the end no one does anything. That is the tragedy of the commons [13]. It was observed that the provinces are involved with National Department of Tourism (NDT), which has assisted in providing vital information regarding tourism governance. However, there is a need for balancing of relationships and the two sectors to work together.

### 6.8 Opportunities for coastal and marine tourism

Taking into account that governance is not an “end point” to be achieved but a dynamic process to be supported by a multi-level, multi-institutional governance structures, there is a need to determine how to optimise governance relations, structures and processes to improve the development and stewardship of coastal and marine tourism. The following opportunities exist:

- Considering the size of the coast, developing coastal and marine tourism policies could assist different stakeholders to collaboratively drive and govern marine and coastal tourism development.
- The coordinated pursuit of coastal and marine tourism can encourage government to prioritize the monitoring and enforcement of policies, plans and strategies. This will allow local
municipalities to measure the strengths and weaknesses of plans in order to address regional differences in marine and coastal tourism governance.

- Governance of coastal tourism could provide a coordinated effort, through policies that define and articulate all stakeholders’ interests to avoid resistance while supporting international protocols that validate local circumstances and needs. Furthermore, it will limit over-development along the coast.
- It will further strengthen the relationship between government, private sector, conservationists and other stakeholders in identifying areas of common interest whilst addressing conflicting views on coastal and marine business.
- Coastal/marine tourism could create opportunities for employment and the development of other businesses, leading to direct, indirect and induced economic effects, increase the multiplier effect and stimulate economic growth and improved governance structures can lead to increased revenue for government through taxes and other charges.
- Ensuring greater coordination and collaboration among central, provincial, district and local governments in terms of legislation, policy objectives, strategies and promotion can lead to an increase in the return on investment for coastal tourism businesses and promote stakeholder buy-in.
- Promoting clear, coherent and achievable objectives in terms tourism policy, can assist businesses to plan their operations cohesively. It can lead to competitive and comparative advantage for different provinces by focusing on distinct targets to save money needed to improve the sector.
- Creating greater awareness on the policy implementation can lead to social inclusion and cohesion for the whole society thereby creating a synergy between government and other stakeholders.
- Stimulating better public and private sector relationship that could assist in the alignment of policies and regulation for easy enforcement. Furthermore, public-private sector relationship will foster a balance of interests, sharing and discussion of problems in order to improve the tourism industry performance and wealth despite opposing views.
- Developing a more proactive governmental approach that will ensure that roles and responsibilities of each sector/department are clarified. Thus, the tourism industry will be able to reduce red tape and bureaucracy, minimise the negative impacts of tourism.
- Creating greater awareness of the role of coastal and marine tourism in economic development that will improve accountability for both conservation and tourism. Thereby increasing knowledge about the preservation of the environment, culture and historic sites for the benefit of the community.
- Ensuring a more pro-active governmental approach that will encourage the development of a learning organisation that would reduce dependency on tourism economic activities, maintain and refurbish existing facilities and increase capacity to develop skills for seafarers.
- Creating greater awareness on the importance of tourism in order to unlock investment in new and existing port facilities; assist in identifying strategic priority projects, logistics and infrastructure developments.
- Making private-public sector conscious of change in order to increase access to clean water, promotion of Blue Flags as a tourism attraction, increase the number of boat launching facilities and recreational fishing.
Ensuring that Tourism governance leads to the creation of mini retail facilities (food, beverages) within the beach precinct, provision of visitor information services, ablution facilities, parking and braai areas.

7. Conclusion

Despite its limited scope and generalizability, the results of this study have the potential to contribute meaningfully to the improvement of governance in marine and coastal tourism in the four coastal provinces in South Africa. Important lessons might have been learnt on the significance of the coastline, especially for those countries in the developing world. Within South Africa, the benefits of this study reach beyond the tourism sector. As has been noted in the study, South Africa is internationally respected for its well-conceptualized, progressive policies in all aspects of life, policy implementation is often lacking or hampered by various challenges. The results of this study further identified key blockages and challenges in the current policy implementation processes and governance structures. Caffyn and Guy (2003:242) claims that the central problem in maintaining under-resourced command and control systems is that central governments have undermined their own capacities to deal with complex, dynamic and diverse sets of governance problems. In order for the tourism sector to prosper, the Government needs to make direct interventions regarding the establishment of effective governance structures that will guide the coordination of tourism at different levels. Functioning coordination structures can assist in the implementation of Provincial strategies. To be able to realise the strategies, goals and plans, Municipalities need to create linkages with the private sector (PPP) within their structures. Lack of integrated communication systems, poor information dissemination and lack of stakeholder involvement in governance can negatively affect effective implementation of programmes, thereby increasing impacts on other resources (Caffyn and Guy, 2003). Furthermore, Municipality officials need to be capacitated to understand tourism as an integral part of economic development. Municipalities need to develop mechanisms to address inadequate budgets for tourism and ensure that adequate resources are set aside for tourism to function properly. Transformed governance systems, which will enable stakeholder interactions, need to be encouraged, balancing power relations among different role players for the benefits to trickle down to local people. At a local level, members of staff themselves do not feel the size of the market, how big it should be. A policy on ‘one stop shop’ was developed but to date it has not been implemented due to lack of skills and knowledge. Sadly, tourism is all too often viewed as a dishonourable career.

8. References


