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**An Investigation of the Socio-Economic Impacts of Ecotourism in Rural Areas: A Case
Study of Nompondo, a Community Bordering the Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park (HiP),
KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa**

Sakhile Nsukwini

(208527210)

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Sciences**

University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa

Supervisor: Professor Urmilla Bob

University of KwaZulu-Natal

School of Agriculture, Earth and Environmental Sciences

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DECLARATION
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ABSTRACT

Community involvement seems to be a key element of both nature conservation and ecotourism and is largely perceived to include public participation in decision-making and communities' receipt of benefits from ecotourism. Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park (HiP) communities have suffered a great desertion economically in the past and it is one of the disadvantaged regions in KwaZulu-Natal. The aim of this study was to investigate the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism in rural areas adjacent to HiP with specific reference to the Nompondo community. Triangulation (a multi-method approach) was used to examine the extent and nature of interaction between the Nompondo community and the management of HiP, to examine attitudes and perceptions of the communities towards HiP, including resources within the Park that are likely to impact on the lives of Nompondo community as well as the role of communities in the development and promotion of tourism in HiP. The study of the Nompondo community adjacent to HiP indicates that this community benefits in various ways but not to their level of satisfaction. The study indicates that members of the Nompondo community are allowed access to resources such as meat, thatching grass, firewood and water. Participation in the operation and management of HiP was yet another benefit that was identified. However, this was limited with a few households and community leaders generally participating. In addition, the results show that a range of opportunities for positive interactions with the Park's management/staff include job opportunities through the expanded public works programme, good working relations and joint problem solving. It should be noted that despite the opportunities created, these do not sufficiently meet the demands in the community where poverty and unemployment remain high. Ecotourism development as a benefit was discovered through two specified areas, namely, interaction with the tourists as well as the desire to have more tourists visiting the community and the establishment of other tourist facilities in the community. The respondents also cited opportunities for tourism and related incomes, which include sale of handicraft products, job opportunities and cultural activities. These, however, generally provide inconsistent and low income revenue streams. Furthermore, education/training programmes were also cited. In addition, natural resource management including the establishment of the Umkhombe (white rhino) ecotourism project and participation in decision-making were also identified as specific benefits. The socio-economic impacts in all the identified specified areas except with participation in the management of HiP where local communities are not fully involved were positive. This indicates that there is a need to involve communities residing adjacent to protected areas, particularly the Nompondo community, in the operation and management of the Park as well as other community-based tourism endeavours in order to uplift the quality of their lives.

KEY TERMS: investigation, socio-economic, impacts, ecotourism, rural areas

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ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
CBNRM	Community-Based Natural Resource Management
CBDO	Community-Based Development Organisation
CC Africa	Conservation Cooperation Africa
DEA	Department of Environmental Affairs
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DRDLR	Department of Rural Development and Land Reform
EIA	Environmental Impact Assessment
EKZNP	Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife Management Plan
EKZNW	Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife
EPWP	Expanded Public Works Programme
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HGR	Hluhluwe Game Reserve
HIV	Human Immune Virus
HiP	Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park
HUP	Hluhluwe Umfolozi Park
ICDP	Integrated Conservation and Development Programme
IEM	Integrated Environmental Management
IGR	iMfolozi Game Reserve
KNP	Kruger National Park
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
KZNNCS	KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Services
LDCs	Less Developed Countries
LSDI	Lebombo Spatial Development Initiative
MCP	Makuleke Contractual Park
NCS	Nature Conservation Services
NEMA	National Environmental Management Act
NGO	Non-Governmental Organisation
NPB	Natal Parks Board
NPAES	National Protected Areas Expansion Strategy
PES	Payment for Ecosystem Services
PPT	Pro-Poor Tourism
SLF	Sustainable Livelihood Framework
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
STDs	Sexual Transmitted Diseases
UGR	Umfolozi Game Reserve
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USAID	United States Agency for International Development
WB	World Bank
WCED	World Commission on Environment and Development
WWF	World Wide Fund for Nature

WPC
WSSD

World Parks Congress
World Summit on Sustainable Development

CHAPTER ONE

1.1 Introduction and Motivation for the Study

Ecotourism is an alternative form of tourism that is persistently gaining ground on a global scale (Mowforth and Munt, 2008). It is one of the newest opportunities for income generation from natural resources without destroying the environment (Giampiccoli and Kalis, 2012). Its fundamental principles refer to minimising negative impact on the environment, representing local cultures and actively contributing to the economic well-being of host communities as well as the stakeholders involved (Wearing, 2011). Ecotourism has the potential to become a driver of sustainable tourism development and also provide opportunities for the development of disadvantaged, marginalised and rural areas leading to poverty alleviation. It encourages economic development and social well-being of people and at the same time contributes to the preservation of the natural environment and cultural heritage through awareness creation and income generating opportunities.

Shoo and Songorwa (2013) assert that robust arguments have been advanced in support of ecotourism playing a vital role in conservation and rural development in Sub-Saharan Africa. The growth of ecotourism for instance in this region has been the strongest in the global market in the past ten years due to the positive economic impacts on the people in the region making it an increasingly important industry in East and Southern Africa (Mowforth and Munt, 2008). Ecotourism activities using natural resource attractions in remote rural areas can be important sources of economic diversification and livelihood opportunities (Harrison, 2008). For instance, in Kenya, N'gvesi Community-Based Ecotourism (CBE) site was awarded the Equator Initiative Award at the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Johannesburg, South Africa, in 2002 due to how the destination impacts economically on local residents. Also, in South Africa, for example, the Buffalo Ridge Thakadu River Safari Camp within the Madikwe Game Reserve is a 100% owned CBE site which gives numerous economic returns to the local people (Moswete, 2009).

In Ghana, CBE came to the fore since 1996 aimed at developing economically and culturally sensitive locations in rural parts of the country (Aidoo, 2010). It has created opportunities for rural communities to earn an income and created tourism related jobs through the conservation of local ecosystems and culture. Due to the contribution of CBE to socio-economic development of local people, such laudable projects receive funding from donor

agencies such as the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) and the Netherland Development Organisation (NDO) to which Sirigu Pottery and Art in the Kasena Nankana West District in the Upper East Region of Ghana, is one of the beneficiaries (Thomas, 2013).

Of particular concern is that the unexpected rapid expansion of tourism has resulted in a number of economic, social and environmental negative impacts in destination areas. Examples of the negative economic impacts include inflation in prices for land as well as goods and services, economic leakage foreign dominance, overdependence on tourism and denial of access to natural resources (Hall and Page, 2009). The negative social impacts include the demonstration effect, neo-colonialism, poor health conditions and immoral behaviour (Chaminuka et al., 2012a). These negative impacts are discussed in detail under the social, economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism.

Although many studies show how destination areas benefit significantly from the tourism industry, less has been shown on how poor rural communities benefit since there is limited involvement of local communities and previously neglected groups in tourism (Dondeyne et al., 2012). There is limited research on the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism in KwaZulu-Natal which is a key tourism destination in South Africa. The province of KwaZulu-Natal has 66 provincial parks under the jurisdiction of Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife (EKZNW), 19 Stewardship Sites (private land) and 27 community-based conservation areas and some of these conservation areas are not yet fully proclaimed as community conservation areas (EKZNW, 2011). Additionally, the province has beach and berg tourism which are linked to natural attractions within the province. Ecotourism is estimated as contributing 8.3% towards the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and attracts 9.5 million tourists annually (South African Year Book 2012/2013). Some of the studies that focus on the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism in KZN include a study by Mthembu, (2011). This study was conducted around the Bergville area in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). Fewer studies look specifically at rural communities neighbouring the HiP. Some of these include a study that was conducted by Foggin and Münster (2000). The focus of this study was based on enhancing linkages between rural communities and protected areas in KZN through tourism. This study, therefore, contributes to this growing body of research.

1.2 Problem Statement

Shuttleworth (2008:1) contends that the definition of a research problem is the fuel that drives the scientific process and is the foundation of any research method and its formulation is the first step to a scientific investigation. For this study to have a context and to generate research questions the researcher anticipate to answer, the researcher presents the following research problem as a trigger issue to the investigation of ecotourism impacts in rural areas with a special focus on the Nompondo community. According to Nzama (2008: 1) rural areas in South Africa face the problem of underdevelopment, unemployment, low literacy rates and lack of basic infrastructure. Furthermore, South Africa is facing a serious challenge in its interventions to roll out rural development programmes in extremely impoverished remote rural areas like the former homelands. In some areas the contrast between extreme poverty and the natural beauty has led to the tourists attractions becoming the focal points for economic development efforts (Kepe, Ntsebeza & Pithers 2001:2).

The Rural Development Framework of the Department of Rural Development and Land Reform (DRDLR) states that “between 10–15million South Africans live in areas that are characterised by extreme poverty and underdevelopment” (Manu and Kuuder, 2012). There are a number of factors which limit the effectiveness of the tourism industry in terms of playing a more meaningful role in the national economy. Some of those constraints are identified by the White Paper on Tourism Development in South Africa DEAT (1996) which include limited integration of local communities and previously neglected groups into tourism and lack of infrastructure, particularly in rural areas where tourism has been inadequately resourced and funded. These challenges are also highlighted by Sebola et al., (2013) and are also major constraints for rural tourism development. A number of key tourist attractions are located in rural areas and yet local communities are not receiving the benefits stemming from the tourism industry (Chaminuka et al., 2012a). Some of these key attractions are world heritage sites, such as the Isimangaliso Wetland Park, which are located in deep rural settings.

The limited involvement of local communities has been identified as a major constraint in developing tourism in rural areas (Kieti et al., 2013). Another major problem facing the South African tourism industry is the poor involvement of local communities and previously neglected groups within the industry. The ecotourism industry, perhaps more than any other sector, provides a number of unique opportunities for involving previously neglected groups (Bennett et al., 2012). This study, therefore, examines key questions relating to the socio-

economic impacts of tourism in rural areas located adjacent to the HiP in KZN by using a case study of the Nompondo community. The aim of this study is to address the key aim and objectives outlined below. Ecotourism is deemed to be critical in relation to socio-economic development, especially in rural areas of Africa. These areas tend to be characterised by high levels of poverty. It is therefore important that research focuses on rural development and ecotourism linkages and potential.

Nompondo is a rural community located in the northern part of KwaZulu-Natal. It is located in close proximity of HiP, one of the oldest game reserves in Africa with a rich history of saving the population of White Rhinos (*Ceratotherium simum*) from extinction. This community falls under Mdletshe Tribal Council which is one of the ten tribal authorities surrounding the HiP. The community is located in the UMkhanyakude District Municipality and its falls under Hlabisa Local Municipality. It is characterised by high level of poverty, poor subsistence agriculture, unemployment and high illiteracy rates. Most of the households (41%) have no secure source of income, approximately 10% earns between R4 801 and R9 600 per annum, followed by 19% earning between R9 601 and R19 200 and 13% earning less than R38 400 per annum. Strikingly, the majority of the households (83%) earn less than R3 200 per month (Hlabisa Local Municipality, 2013). This indicates that the majority of people within this Municipality live below poverty line and there is a need to link these communities with relevant government departments. There is also a dire need for local authorities to consider poverty alleviation programmes such as the Expanded Public Works Programme and the Community Works Programme.

It must be noted that the Nompondo community is not the representative of all the communities that surrounds the Park but it is exceptional in many respects. This community was chosen for this study due to the fact that it is characterised by a relatively high population density, poverty, unemployment and also by increasingly degraded subsistence agricultural land in the close proximity of the Park. Furthermore, the community perceives a great need for land and other natural resources within the Park which facilitated the study in order to examine community's perceptions and needs. Du Plessis (2000) argues that there has been a long history of difficult relations and conflict between rural communities residing adjacent to HiP and the former conservation authority, the Natal Parks Board (NPB). With this being said the current Conservation Authority (EKZNW) faces the challenge of protecting the unique biodiversity resources while at the same time ensuring the provision of tangible benefits to various stakeholders such as tourists, conservationists and the local communities. Finally, the

HiP is a popular tourist destination and is regarded as the foremost wildlife attraction in KZN (Adeleke and Nzama, 2013). This is attributed to its high biological diversity in terms of landscapes, fauna and flora.

1.3 Aim of the Study

The aim of this study is to examine the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism projects in rural communities neighbouring the HiP in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa by using a case study of the Nompondo community.

1.4 Objectives of the Study

This study addresses the following objectives:

- To examine the extent and nature of interaction between rural communities and the management of the HiP.
- To assess the types of tourist facilities as well as resources found within the HiP that impact on or has the potential to impact on the lives of adjacent rural communities.
- To examine whether rural communities are involved in the development and promotion of ecotourism in the HiP.
- To assess the attitudes and perceptions of adjacent rural communities towards the HiP.

1.5 Chapter Sequence

This study comprises of five chapters. Chapter one presented the introduction, motivation of the study, aim, objectives and the chapter sequence. In chapter two the current literature in the field relating to the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism in rural areas is critically examined. It also provides a review of the literature which focuses on thematic issues pertinent to the study such as sustainability, tourism, ecotourism, socio-economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism, rural development and community involvement, policy environment in South Africa relating to wetlands and protected areas, and the challenges of ecotourism development in South Africa. Chapter three deals with the description of the study area as well as the methods and techniques used to obtain the required data. In chapter four the description of data and the discussion of the research findings are presented. Finally, chapter five concentrates on the conclusion and recommendations.

1.6 Conclusion

It is very important to consider the question of sustainability as an integral component when evaluating the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism in rural communities neighbouring protected areas. The issue of involving different stakeholders, especially local communities, and their contribution to ecotourism in South Africa remains a difficult task. However, ecotourism has the potential to provide many opportunities for rural local communities in the post-apartheid period, enhancing their economic base with an alternative income and improving livelihood options linked to accessing natural resources.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the key debates and issues relating to ecotourism. The focus of the literature review is to examine social, economic and environmental issues of ecotourism in rural areas. The period of globalisation has made the world more ecologically interdependent (Macedo et al., 2011). Bob et al. (2008) illustrate that the lives of humans throughout the ages have been inextricably linked to nature and natural forces. Economic activities have increased tenfold between 1950 and 2000 since the world's population is more closely connected than ever before by means of globalisation of economies and information flows (Anwar et al., 2013). Furthermore, tourism has emerged as a rapidly growing sector of economic importance in the process of globalisation (Ma et al., 2009). Given the above, it is important to examine key debates and concerns related to tourism generally and ecotourism specifically. In this chapter, the aspects under consideration are the key concepts (tourism, ecotourism, biodiversity and sustainability) as well as other issues such as sustainability and tourism, pro-poor approaches, ecotourism and guiding principles for its development, sustainable ecotourism, rural tourism, ecotourism impacts (environmental, economic and socio-cultural), rural development, policy environment and ecotourism development in protected areas.

2.2 Key Concepts

In this section key concepts are considered. It is important to clarify key concepts (specifically tourism, ecotourism, biodiversity and sustainability which are the focus of this study) since there is considerable literature which has contributed to an understanding of these concepts from a range of disciplines (Bramwell and Lane, 2011). Furthermore, Thomas et al. (2011) also note that these terms can be closely contrasted, especially when their meanings are not elucidated by the user.

2.2.1 Tourism

It is difficult to define tourism since any such phenomenon that is intricately interwoven into the fabric of life economically, socio-culturally and environmentally and relies on primary, secondary and tertiary levels of production and service, is complicated to delineate in simplistic terms (Fennell, 2007 :76). Numerous studies focus on one or more of the following

characteristics of the tourist: income, lifestyle, education, characteristics of the tour (duration, number of countries or places visited), mode of organisation (individual or all-inclusive package) and type of facilities used (for example, visiting friends and relatives, business, holiday, conference) (Okech, 2004).

Conservationists see tourism as a tool or vehicle to expand conservation areas (Saayman and Saayman, 2006) and in developing countries such as South Africa, nature-based tourism or ecotourism has proved to be an increasingly essential source of foreign exchange and a tool that can be used to attract investment (Devi and Kumar De, 2010). As such, the tourism industry can be seen as being inclusive of a number of key elements such as facilities, accommodation, transportation and attractions that tourists depend on to achieve their universal, specific goals and needs within a destination (Fennell, 2007). The industry comprises of a number of different yet interlinked service industries and other support services (D'Antonio et al., 2013).

Travel for pleasure has conventionally been categorised as adventure, relaxation, recreation, ecotourism, cultural and heritage tourism, cruise ships tourism and even medical tourism (Cole and Razak, 2009). Tourism is defined as “all travel for whatever purpose that result in one or more nights being spent away from home” (Van der Merwe and Wocke, 2007: 14). Tourism is facilitated and mediated by public and private institutions ranging from travel agents to local chambers of commerce, national tourism offices and international agencies (Rogerson, 2006). Tourism covers all geographic scales from the global corporation to remote highland village to the illegal beach vendor (Cole and Razak, 2009). Tourism seldom occurs in isolation since it competes for the use of scarce resources such as land, water, labour, energy and waste assimilation capacity with uses that require that some resources should not be consumed (Tao and Wall, 2009).

2.2.2 Ecotourism

Ecotourism entails a combination of conservation and tourism (the economics related with it) to benefit local communities, especially focusing on sustainability (Kiper, 2013). Ecotourism operates as one or more of the eco-friendly alternatives for the economic use of natural resources compared with mining, hunting, farming and so on (Li, 2004). Ecotourism promotes an enhanced appreciation of natural environments and environmental education by exposing visitors and locals to nature and conservation (Bob et al., 2008). Butcher (2006) refers to the potential that ecotourism has in relation to being a lucrative venture and also

being a comparatively less destructive and sustainable form of land use in enhancing people and their economic needs while supporting resource conservation. However, (Sarkar and Illoldi-Rangel, 2010) suggest that the concept of setting land aside for the protection of natural resources was popularised in the late nineteenth century with the formation of the world's first National Park, Yellowstone in the United States of America, in 1873. This Park was established to protect waterfalls, hot springs, geysers and other curiosities from private ownership and to promote tourism by railroads (Vale, 2005). However, researchers have argued that the Park was established with little consideration of the needs of indigenous peoples (Runte, 2010).

Bob et al. (2008) state that ecotourism includes sustainability principles which cover the broad spectrum of diversity in all its dimensions. Furthermore, Haberl et al. (2009) refer to the conservation of biodiversity as an important goal in the sustainability context. According to Ficke et al. (2007), currently the world experiences biodiversity loss at a yearly rate that exceeds the natural rate of species loss by a factor of perhaps 100 or even 1 000. There is growing recognition that effective policies for biodiversity conservation need to focus on the reduction of socio-economic pressures on biodiversity either directly or through alteration of underlying driving forces (Spangenberg, 2007).

Ecotourism is tourism that involves travelling to relatively undisturbed natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural aspects (both past and present) found in these areas. Ecotourism implies a scientific, aesthetic or philosophical approach, although the 'ecotourist' is not required to be a professional scientist, artist or philosopher. The main point is that the person who practices ecotourism has the opportunity of immersing him or herself in nature in a way that most people cannot enjoy in their routine, urban existence (Buckley et al., 2013). This person will eventually acquire a consciousness and knowledge of the natural environment, together with its cultural aspects, that will change him into somebody keenly involved in conservation issues (Tsaour et al., 2006).

2.2.3 Biodiversity

Biodiversity is a very imprecise concept which cannot be defined exclusively as maximisation of the number of species or as maintenance for some ideal pristine balance (Guldmond and Aarde, 2008). The Department of Environmental Affairs Tourism (DEAT, 1997: 89) states that "biological diversity - or 'biodiversity' can be referred to as the number

and variety of living organisms on Earth, the millions of plants, animals and microorganisms as well as the genes they contain, the evolutionary history they possess and the potential they encompass, and the ecosystems, ecological processes, and landscapes of which they are integral parts”. Hence, biodiversity can refer to the life-support systems and natural resources upon which society depends on (Sarkar, 2014).

According to the DEAT (1997), the government recognises that South Africa's protected area system is an asset of supreme value which, besides conserving biodiversity, produces substantial economic benefits through tourism. Biodiversity conservation comprises of not only protecting flora and fauna but also the sustainability of human communities (Bob et al., 2008). Local people would have greater incentives to conserve the biological resources in their environment if the beneficial effects from tourism filtered down to individual families and households (Child, 2013). Linkie et al. (2008) contend that highly successful ecotourism can sustain biodiversity conservation by influencing national policy. Payments for ecosystems (PES) have often been implemented through local-scale projects involving private investors, Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs), governments and resource managers with the focus on watershed, carbon and biodiversity-related services (Kosoy et al., 2008). For example, in countries such as Costa Rica and Mexico, PES projects have emerged from national policy programmes where State-based public institutions perform as service buyers and reward resource managers in return for a single or a bundle of ecosystem services (Alix-Garcia et al., 2012).

2.2.4 Sustainability

The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) (Brundtland, 1987) popularised the concept of sustainability (Reed, 2008). This concept of sustainable development has achieved importance and acceptance in recent years and can be applicable to all levels of economic development and tourism development from local to global in the future (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2009). Bernstein (2014) states that the Brundtland Commission explicitly mentioned that it has not developed a detailed blueprint for action, but rather a route through which people in different countries could create suitable policies and practices. The definition of sustainability as used by the WCED was to engage in development in such a manner that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs (Morelli, 2013). According to Ghai and Vivian, (2014: 6), sustainable development consists of two key concepts which are:

(1) needs of the poor people in the world, to which over-riding priority was essential; and (2) limitations created by technology and social organisation regarding the capacity of the environment to satisfy both present and future needs. Thus, sustainable development, as interpreted by the Brundtland Commission, is an anthropocentric (human-centred) concept.

Logar (2010) brings to light four arguments for intra-generational equity and sustainability. First, it is the local community, especially the disadvantaged social groups who experience the brunt of negative costs. Second, poverty encourages unsustainable practices in order to seek quick returns to meet immediate needs. Third, increasing charges for the use of some scarce resources results in poorer people being excluded. Finally, it is difficult to justify caring about fairness to future generations without extending this concern to people in society presently.

2.2.5 Rural Tourism

Rural tourism in the South African context showcases rural life, arts, culture and heritage thereby benefitting local communities and enabling interaction between tourists and locals for a more enriching experience. It is multi-faceted and entails agricultural tourism, cultural tourism, nature tourism, adventure tourism and ecotourism (Hall and Page, 2014). Moreover, the institutional and scholarly definitions in the Rural Development Framework (1997), White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa (1996), National Tourism Sector Strategy (2011), Statistics South Africa and the World Bank tend to assist the process of defining the meaning of rural and rural tourism in general (Coria and Calfucura, 2012). In support of this strategy, the National Tourism Sector Strategy as a guiding authority on tourism development has three relevant strategic themes which focus on “tourism growth and the economy, an enhanced visitor experience and sustainability and good governance”, the latter puts emphasis on the issue of geographic, seasonal, rural spread and the promotion of responsible tourism practices within the sector and reiterates the relevance of developing rural tourism in South Africa (Chaminuka et al., 2012a: 174).

South Africa’s top tourism destinations including national parks, wilderness areas, mountains, lakes and cultural sites are generally located in rural areas. Thus, tourism is already an important feature of the rural economy in these specific sites. Nelson (2012) argues that the aim of promoting tourism is to increase the net benefits to rural people and increase their participation in managing the tourism product. If more tourism can be

developed in rural areas, particularly in ways that involve a high level of local participation in decision-making and enterprises, then poverty alleviation impacts are likely to be improved. Rural tourism allows rural people to share in the benefits of tourism development, promoting more balanced and sustainable forms of development (Nhemachena et al., 2014).

2.2.6 Community

Researchers argue that there is no common definition for community. It is a concept that holds many points of contention and disagreement for researchers, sociologists, and community developers. Some researchers argue that a community needs to have a social component, where community members care about and respect one another. Etzioni (1997) argues that people are naturally members of a community; they cannot be seen as individuals, but rather as parts of society. He also suggests that community is defined by social characteristics, such as a shared set of values or culture, rather than as a physical place (Etzioni, 1997).

2.3 Tourism as a Sustainable Development Approach in Rural Areas

Approximately 75% of the total poor in the world lives in rural areas (Dixey, 2008). Most of the highly demanded tourist destinations in less developed countries are located in rural or peripheral regions (Hall and Page, 2009). These destinations range from national parks, wilderness areas, mountainous areas, cultural sites, protected areas and biosphere reserves which are rich ecosystems and biodiversity (Gretzel, 2011). Rural economies are exposed to global influences; they are economically, socio-cultural and environmentally different and their inhabitants are becoming stronger in regional centres (Gössling et al., 2010). Furthermore, (Flora and Flora, 2014) argue that developments in both local and global economics bring changes to rural areas and tourism is becoming an important approach to help rural areas adapt to these changes. As a result, there is widespread optimism that tourism can be potentially developed as an important sector to help improve rural economies. Poor rural areas are often characterised by tourism potential which provides good opportunities for economic development in a long-run (Akyeampong, 2011). Furthermore, (Rogerson, 2013: 35) argues that “tourism has been regarded as a tool that spreads out benefits to areas, while at the same time triggers positive impacts on poverty reduction and environmental strengthening”. A key question behind sustainable development is what type of tourism can be adapted as a pro-poor catalyst compliant with unique characteristics of each rural area.

Introducing appropriate or responsible tourism such as ecotourism to rural areas can provide a variety of advantages to people. It increase local ownership of businesses and control over resources in the locality, and enhances local participation in development (Kala, 2013). Apart from this, it may also bring other benefits to rural areas such as economic growth, diversification, stabilisation, job creation, expansion of local services, scope for integration of regional development strategies, decrease emigration and depopulation, maintenance and improvement of public services and infrastructure, renaissance of local culture and identity, community empowerment, protection and improvement of natural and built environment, increased local sense of pride, increased awareness of rural primacy and increased development capacity by policy-makers and economic planners (Stronza and Gordillo, 2008).

2.4 Pro-Poor Approach to Tourism-based Development

The focus of Pro-Poor Tourism (PPT) is based on tourism destinations in the South and developing tourism good practices that are pertinent to addressing poverty (Holden, 2004). PPT has its intellectual origins in concepts such as sustainability, alternative tourism and ecotourism (Smith, 2009). McCririck (2011) defines pro-poor growth as projects that allow the poor to actively participate in and significantly benefit from economic activity. According to Harrison (2008), PPT can be defined as tourism that generates net benefits for the poor. Grosse et al. (2008) propose that there are two possible ways to achieve pro-poor growth. Firstly, the direct way entails that growth is pro-poor if it immediately raises the income of the poor. Secondly, an indirect way of pro-poor growth occurs if the gains from overall economic growth are redistributed to the poor by means of progressive taxation and targeted government spending, either by direct financial transfers or investments in the assets of the poor by providing frequent basic social services.

According to Akyeampong (2011), the basis of PPT deals with empowering the poor to have increased sustainable livelihoods which include environmental, economic, cultural and social benefits as well. Additionally, Smith (2009: 125) suggests that “the empowerment of individuals and communities through self-help is more often a case of wishful thinking, belied at a local level by the local elites, by the knowledge, skills and resources of remote or foreign entrepreneurs seeking profit as well as the nature of political coalitions and decision-making structures”. However, Thede (2009) found little evidence that either democracy or decentralisation is essential for poverty reduction in rural or urban areas. PPT demands a focal point on equity rather than growth of the tourism sector (Harrison, 2008). In addition, Holden (2004) suggests that PPT requires the poor themselves to specify the benefits

(economic, cultural, environmental, political, land rights and skills) sought from tourism projects. According to Timothy et al. (2007), for host communities, participation and empowerment are essential objectives in any tourism initiative that seeks to address issues of poverty.

2.5 Sustainable Livelihood Framework

The Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) is a developmental framework that helps in understanding interconnections that exist among elements of rural livelihoods (Battersbury, 2008). Farrington et al (1999: 2) state that the SLF was born out of the desire by the British Department for International Development (DFID) to understand these connections which would clarify the nature of poverty and how it may be addressed in their bid to reduce poverty levels by half by 2015. This framework was developed on the basis of the concept of sustainable livelihoods developed by Robert Chambers (Kollmair and Gamper, 2002) which led to the emergence of the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) in the 1990s. Chambers and Conway improved on it and came up with the most widely used definition of what sustainable livelihoods comprise (cited in Houinato and Castro, 2009: 1): “it (a livelihood) can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks, and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base”.

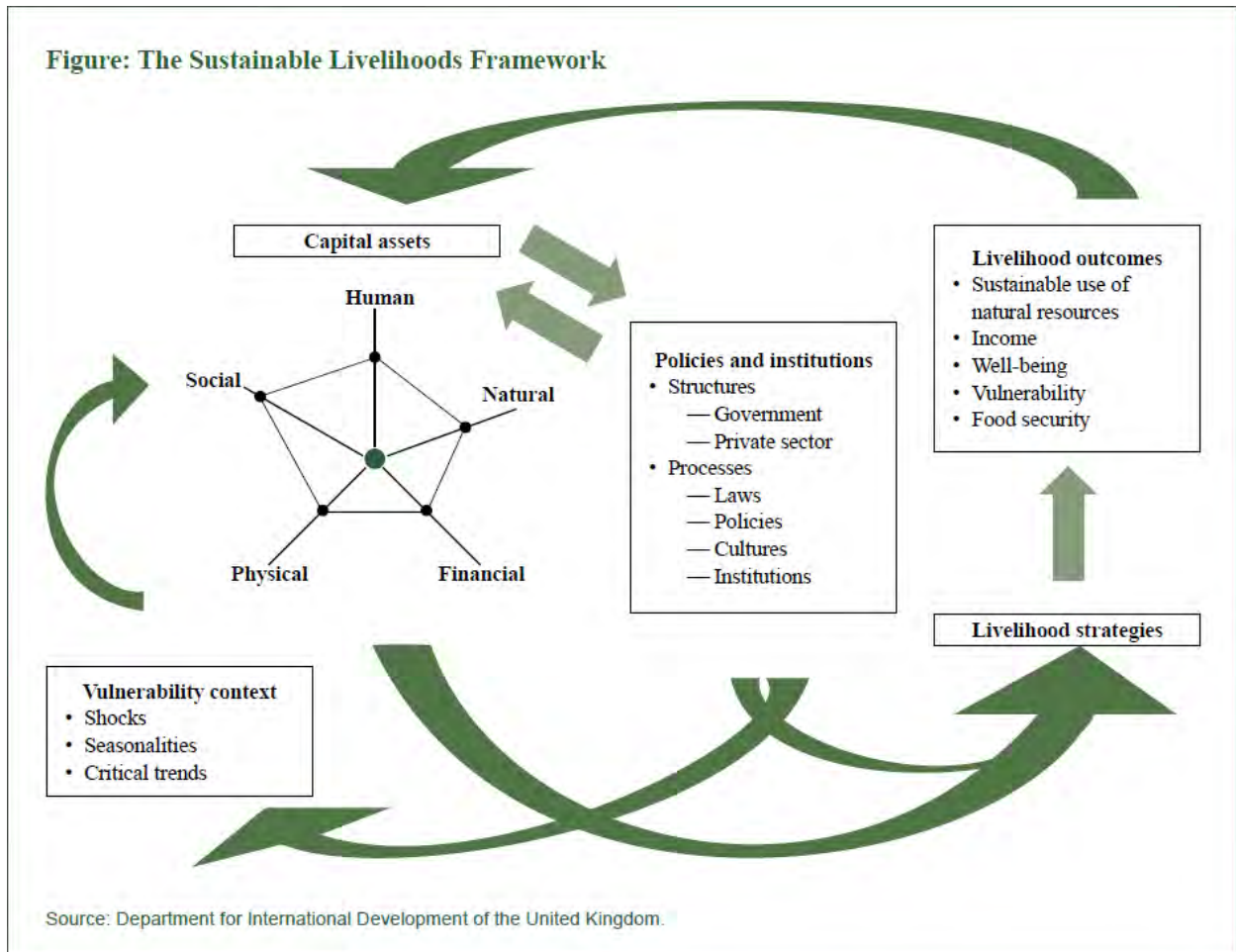
The framework as an analytical device shows how households are able to utilise resources creating particular activities that enable them to survive. It presents an organised way to explore and critically scrutinise households in the light of what their environment offers (Battersbury, 2008). The application of this framework in this study is the key to understanding patterns that emerge in resource accumulation, use and even absence and how they shape the activities households adopt.

Figure 2.1 is a representation of the SLF. This flow diagram shows processes and intricate interconnections between the assets households have, the livelihood strategies they adopt, the livelihood outcomes they realise in doing so, assets accrued as a result of the activities, policies adopted which shape asset availability and accessibility, as well as vulnerability households experience and how this affects the asset base of the households (Serrat, 2008).

The SLF developed by DFID (1999), was slightly modified/adapted to suite the study. Every geographical area has its background characteristics be it socio-economic or environmental factors which give rise to their livelihood assets (asset pentagon), which are grouped as

physical, financial, natural, human and socio-cultural capitals which are possessed by rural people.

Figure 2. 1: The Sustainable Livelihood Framework



Ashley (2009) provide some of the highlights of the advantages the SLF has brought to the rural development arena:

It helps to bring together different perspectives on poverty and integrate the contributions to eliminating those different skills and sectors can make, for instance designing projects and programmes, sector analysis and monitoring. It makes explicit the choices and possible trade-offs in planning and executing different development activities. It helps to identify the underlying constraints to improved livelihoods and the means of overcoming these. It helps to link improved micro-level understanding of poverty into policy and institutional change processes.

In addition, Battersbury (2008: 56) argues that “when working with communities, SLF makes one realise the transferability of assets and capital switching”. Some of its greatest

achievements lie in its compatibility with the dynamics of rural communities. Because of its people-centredness, researchers find that the framework can easily be adaptable to varying circumstances and still allow for responses and participation as both governments and agencies apply policies that relate to livelihoods (Baumann, 2002).

While success stories can be told about the SLF, Ashley (2009) also draws attention to some challenges associated with its use as a conceptual framework for development which need to be addressed to improve its applicability which include:

Understanding how conflict over access to resources impinges on livelihood choices and what can be done to address this. Developing cost-effective modes of livelihood analysis that ensure that the needs of the poorest are prioritised. Identifying appropriate in-country partners, and developing collaborative approaches to understanding the complexity of poverty and integrating that understanding into a common livelihoods frame. Understanding how, in practice, to handle trade-offs, for instance between local pressures (for example, for increased short-term income or better infrastructure) and wider concerns about resource sustainability and national-level policy considerations.

Although current debates indicate that the SLA is not tailor-made to suit every community (Houinato and Castro, 2009), its application in most projects is due to the participatory nature of its approach (putting households at the centre). In some cases where its principles have been compromised, its effectiveness has not been substantial or long running (Houinato and Castro, 2009). Success stories of its application in some regions of the world have been highlighted. Oxfam in Great Britain, Africare (America) and many other United Nations sponsored development projects have carried out development poverty alleviation projects in rural communities of Africa using this framework (Houinato and Castro, 2009).

Despite its strengths, Mensah (2012: 7) states that the SLF needs to be reconstructed since there is an argument that “it tends to be too micro and too household focused, thereby limiting its utility as a micro-macro analytical tool for policy analysis and impact evaluation”. In addressing this weakness, Mensah (2012) calls for assets (the focus of this research) to be elaborated on in the framework in relation to the degree of user rights that households are able to exercise rather than only dealing with the form in which they exist.

2.6 Ecotourism Development in Protected Areas

Nature reserves are protected areas created under the United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organisation's (UNESCO) Man and Biosphere programme to create or to provide demonstrations of sustainable landscape management, encapsulating the principles of sustainable development by managing both conservation and local economic development (de los Angeles Somarriba-Chang and Gunnarsdotter, 2012). However, nature reserves are normally established over human occupied landscapes in rural contexts, seeking ways to incorporate development and resource needs of those local communities and the conservation of the natural environment (Schmitz et al., 2012). The International Ecotourism Society (TIES) and United Nations Environmental Programmes (UNEP) declared 2002 as the international year of ecotourism, and presented ecotourism as one of the major components of the Earth Summit in Johannesburg (WSSD, 2002). This declaration has sensitised and popularised international development aids to implement ecotourism as a tool for Integrated Conservation Development Programmes (ICDP) in resource rich areas. Ever since, ecotourism is often regarded as a reliable alternative for sustainable local community livelihoods because the main concern of ecotourism development is sustainability, encompassing multiple aspects in social, economic, environmental and cultural aspects (Kaplan, 2013). The conservation community has adopted ecotourism concept as means to partake in the sustainable development discourse, which justifies conservation regimes in the face of development needs (Browne-Nuñez and Jonker, 2008). Currently, tourism policy-makers and developers regard ecotourism as a reliable means which comprises pro-poor tourism concepts in rural nature-based areas (Job and Paesler, 2013). This is because it places importance on both the protection of local natural ecosystem and the adoption of SLA.

In current conservation management, customary forms of resource use such as agriculture, fishing and hunting are often conceptualised as potentially unsustainable are restricted or prohibited (Fletcher, 2010). Without significant involvement in and benefits from protected area tourism, protected area communities struggle to meet subsistence needs to the extent that resettlement may be the only option to sustain livelihoods (Harihar et al., 2014). Hence this results in the trend of emigration among the locals as a result of tough restriction over available resources or prohibition on other forms of resource use (Vedeld et al., 2012). This strategy of marginalising protected area communities to the extent of exclusion is connected with a renewed emphasis on traditional protectionist approaches to conservation and protected area management (Büscher and Dressler, 2012). Kieti et al. (2013). These

approaches prioritise ecological importance over socio-economic objectives under the perception of a global biodiversity crisis (McShane et al., 2011). Instead, conservationists promote ecotourism as the most sustainable form of resource use. Through resource extraction (restricted or prohibited in specific contexts), local involvement in tourism development and the provision of economic incentives are important steps to meet subsistence and livelihood needs of communities within the protected areas.

2.7 Rural Communities as Resource Owners in Protected Areas

Developing ecotourism requires a participatory process including all concerned stakeholders who directly and indirectly influence its operation (Maier et al., 2012). Rogerson et al. (2013) present twelve role players of ecotourism ranging from government, academic institutions, private business sector, local communities, consulting agents, tourists, media and local NGOs to donor agencies. Donor agencies are considered as main sources of development funding for ecotourism projects. However, these are external stakeholders, while local communities and their authorities are the most important actors of ecotourism within their own internal system.

The definition of communities varies depending on spatial or social factors; internal structure or local system; external linkages and cultural, political or natural boundaries (Wasonga et al., 2010). The term can refer to members or people who have different ideas, interests, strength, capabilities, needs and concerns based on their demographic and socio-economic backgrounds but would like to share common tasks and things together in a same location (Sifuna, 2010). According to Conservation International (CI, 2003 cited in (Butchart et al., 2010: 35), the effects of integrating tourism into development projects in the world are mostly evident through alternative local income generation and community participation, followed by expansion of protected areas, job creation and biodiversity conservation.

There is almost no literature which previously states that ecotourism can be developed successfully without local community support (Okazaki, 2008). Developing ecotourism as a responsible agent of change in conservation context requires developers and planners to reflect on the sense of community (Leigh and Blakely, 2013). Community perceptions and attitudes towards ecotourism development within their own system affect overall processes, especially the host and guest relationship (Aref, 2010). The sense of pride from community members is regarded as an important determinant constituent of long-term community development (Roseland, 2012). This relates to sustaining community identity, purpose and

culture, and at the same time directing the ways to grasp diversity and progressiveness and tolerance within the community (Davis and Corsane, 2014).

2.8 Ecotourism Impacts

The ecotourism industry has a significant impact on regional economic development, especially in developing countries and regions (Aguila and Ragot, 2014). Many Protected Areas in Africa are surrounded by low income communities and challenges, trade-offs and potential synergies exist between optimising for income from visitors and delivering benefits and building and maintaining a healthy relationship with neighbouring communities (Biggs et al., 2011). Indeed, the relationship between tourism, conservation and broader society forms part of a broader social-ecological system (a joint system of humans and nature) (Ban et al., 2013). Furthermore, ecotourism involves various complicated aspects related to environmental, social and economic factors (Siew et al., 2013). Currently, there is growing concern about the impact that some forms of tourism development are having on the environment, economies and communities. The impacts of tourism on destination areas have been the focus of a great deal of research for the past two decades (Mason, 2010). This section addresses the current literature on economic, social and environmental impacts of ecotourism in rural areas.

2.8.1 Economic Impacts of Ecotourism

Fennell (2007) argues that tourism being a private sector activity capitalises on the market for the purpose of making a profit. Furthermore, Lew et al. (2008) suggest that there are many impacts that tourism may exert upon host areas, the processes of physical and economic development are the most prominent. These effects may be apparent in the physical development of tourism infrastructure (accommodation, retailing, entertainment, attractions and transportation services), the related creation of employment within the tourism industry and a range of potential impacts upon Gross Domestic Product (GDP) balances of trade and the capacities of national or regional economies to attract inward investment (Lew et al., 2008). Conservation of protected areas is costly and many governments have reduced their financial assistance to protect these areas (Bushell and Eagles, 2007).

Conservatively, Fennell (2007) refers to the management of Parks as not being subject to the same market principles and philosophies as the private sector. However, (Wunder et al., 2008) refer to tourism in a country as both an expression of its economic development and a medium to promote development. Bushell and Eagles (2007) view tourism as a means to

replace funding that has been misplaced via donations, entrance and user fees, concession and rental fees and licenses, taxes on retail purchases by visitors, levies and increased tax revenues from economic activities relating to tourism. This creates increased pressure for visitation and the granting of more concessions and licenses (Bushell and Eagles, 2007).

While it is acknowledged that ecotourism in protected areas have positive economic development, such as direct employment, both on and off site, the diversification of the local economy, the earning of foreign exchange, and the improvement to transportation and communication systems. There are also related negatives such as the lack of sufficient demand for ecotourism, which could result in the loss of funds since ecotourism may not generate local employment opportunities rather supporting expatriates and the fact that it may not be socially and economically acceptable to charge fees in Parks (Browne-Nuñez and Jonker, 2008).

Sebele (2010) raises four questions which need to be asked when assessing the economic impact of an ecotourism venture in any community: Firstly, how do financial benefits reach the community in the form of rent, gate fees and profit sharing? Secondly, to what extent are earnings, wages or shared community income distributed across the rural community? Thirdly, how successful have these projects been in creating employment? Finally, to what extent has tourism development encouraged the creation of secondary income generating activities such as laundry services, charcoal making, butcher facilities or taxi services?

To understand how tourism impacts upon an economy it is essential to understand a key theory of Keynesian economics, the multiplier concept. Fennell (2007) declares that the impact of money on the economy has led to economists further understanding the multiplier effect and the related concept of leakage. According to Cooper (2008), the underlying principle of the multiplier process is that a change in the level of demand in one section of the economy affects not only the industry that produces the final product or service but as well as other sectors of the economy that in turn supply it. In relation to tourism, as new money enters a local economy it changes hands many times resulting in a cumulative economic impact that is larger than the initial amount of tourist expenditure (Fennell, 2007).

Imports leading to leakages are referred to as import substitution and are an important issue in the context of ecotourism and sustainable tourism (Chirenje et al., 2013). There is much evidence that tourism in Less Developed Countries (LDCs) has been hampered because management control of the industry lies in the hands of external, multinational interests

(Fennell, 2007). Tour operators are private sector businesses that operate under the system of capitalism and their primary target is to achieve optimum profits (Adriana, 2009). Furthermore, tourists have a tendency to shop around for the lowest possible price; consumer loyalty is not often seen in the tour operating industry (Smithson et al., 2011). The tour operator serves as the sales office of individual tourism service suppliers since they have the knowledge of market trends and provides front-end and promotion budgets as well as accepts a part of the risk of primary suppliers (Strasdas, 2008). As an intermediary, tour operators have the authority to influence the consumer's choice of destination and accommodation (Adriana, 2009). Tour operators buy tourism products in bulk, they benefit from scale economies and can offer packages at prices that are usually lower than consumers could negotiate individually (Strasdas, 2008). Apart from decreasing transaction costs, Strasdas (2008) mentions that tour operators bring convenience and experience through their local presence at the destination. As powerful intermediaries, tour operators must focus on good practices which can be understood as practices leading to a more sustainable form of tourism that enables tour operators to compete on the basis of more than just price (Schwartz et al., 2008). Furthermore, it is the tour operator who has the means to choose the suppliers who seriously try to recycle their ecological and social impact at the same time enhancing the multiplier effect (Strasdas, 2008).

Tourism is advocated by tour operators as a major employment generator due to its labour-intensive nature (Beaumont, 2011). It is common that the planning, staff and management of Parks is often done by developed country personnel or expatriates and this can have negative effects on the affected local communities as a result leading to homogenisation of cultures as well as the trivialisation of local and traditional methods of managing natural resources (Beaumont, 2011). A lack of skills and resources has resulted in many ecotourism ventures are owned and operated by expatriates (DongPing, 2008). In addition, the literature on women's experiences of employment in the tourism industry is generally negative since women occupy the majority of low-skilled and low-waged employment (Thrane, 2008).

Holden (2004) argues that, theoretically, the initial tourism investment could flow into the economy. However, it does not because in each round of expenditure money will leak out leading to economic leakages thus removing it from circulation in the economy. Subsequently, the foreign-exchange earnings do not disclose its true economic benefit to an economy, basically revealing what remains after deducting the foreign-exchange costs of tourism (Holden, 2004). Seetanah (2011) talks about over-dependence on tourism for

economic growth and welfare just as depending on any other single product can make some countries defenceless to economic stability. The degree of factors that will influence the tourism income will be greatly determined by a nation's or community's level of economic development (Holden, 2004).

2.8.2 The Social Impacts of Ecotourism

The social impacts of tourism refer to the changes in the quality of life of the host communities (Narayan et al., 2010). They are divided into two categories. The first category involves tourism and social change and includes the demonstration effect, neo-colonialism and health impacts. The second category deals with tourism and moral conduct and includes prostitution, crime, gambling and religion (Liu et al., 2014). They vary widely according to region, culture, race, numbers, gender, social outlook and the differences between the tourists and their hosts (Saxena and Ilbery, 2008). The social impacts of tourism were until recently an ignored focus of study. However, there are signs that the topic is attracting much attention. The available studies include the relationship between tourism, security and crime (Saxena and Ilbery, 2008), tourism and prostitution (Sinclair and Sinclair, 2013) as well as female sex tourism (Taylor, 2006). These studies tend to emphasise the negative social effects of tourism.

2.8.2.1 Demonstration Effect

The demonstration effect as described by Telfer and Sharpley (2007) involves the disruptive role of tourism in reinforcing locally unattainable socio-economic aspirations. For instance, local people, mainly the youth, tend to copy the behaviours and spending patterns of tourists (Snyman, 2012). Such a process can, however, have some benefits provided the local people gain the courage to receive a better education in order to improve their standards of living rather than relying on the lifestyles of tourists. For instance, with better education they may be able to secure better jobs, hence improved standards of living. However, most evidence shows social disbenefits as locals strive for the marks of affluence staged by tourists, thus living beyond their means (Ringer, 2013). The behaviours and spending patterns may include the abandoning of traditional agriculture for jobs in the service industries or migration either within or to other countries and the desire for luxurious material goods previously undreamed of and which in most cases are imported (Ringer, 2013). Though there is not enough evidence to regard tourism as the major cause, nevertheless people tend to migrate to tourist areas in search of job opportunities. Foreign countries too may offer better social services, higher

material standards and better employment opportunities; an example is that of the Tongans from the Pacific Islands who migrated to New Zealand (Gu and Ryan, 2008).

At the same time, the female population can experience a change in their ascribed gender roles although traditionally within specific cultural contexts their responsibilities are supposed to be child bearing and upbringing, food production as well as other related domestic chores (Beechey, 2013). For example, there is a drastic increase in female-headed households as a result of migratory male practices as well as general lack of security (poverty, lack of jobs and lack of access to land) (Mallick and Rafi, 2010). These often force rural women into the tourism employment sector so that they can provide food for their families. Job opportunities have also increased in the informal sector (Günther and Launov, 2012). These include cloth washing, sale of food and curios (Mazur, 2013). Some women have been able to run their own businesses such as hotels, restaurants and shops (Jaafar et al., 2011). At the same time, (Snyman, 2012) and (Sinclair and Sinclair, 2013) argue that the employment of women in the tourism industry in some instances may lead to deserting of families and unstable marriages.

2.8.2.2 Neo-colonialism

The term neo-colonialism is used to describe tourism as a form of western culture imposing itself as superior upon poorer nations (Teo and Leong, 2006). In fact, there is a well-known view that tourism is a new form of colonialism and imperialism (Zhong et al., 2011). The argument is that local groups are forced to entertain tourists through art, music, dance and literature as well as the transformation of the relics of past colonial regimes (old fortresses and historical buildings) into tourist attractions (Manavhela and Spencer, 2012). This is regarded as a sign of exploitation with the sole aim of meeting the demands of the curious tourists and generation of money.

The claim that tourism is a neo-colonial activity can be further substantiated by three economic conditions (Duffy and Moore, 2010: 39):

- Firstly, many developing countries depend on tourism as a means of securing revenue since they regard tourism as the most viable option for achieving their goal of foreign exchange earnings. In order to succeed, they partly have to be willing to meet all the tourists' needs. In other words, their political and economic priorities plus organisation have to be directed towards the satisfaction of the tourists' demands.

- Secondly, a one-way transfer of wealth often accompanies tourism development from the host region to points of tourist generation. A big proportion of expenditure and profits flows back to foreign investors thus leaving little profits in the host region. Furthermore, a large proportion of goods and services, which are consumed by the tourists, are produced in the tourist generation areas, thus a transfer of most of the profits to such areas through economic leakage.
- Thirdly, many tourist facilities are owned and managed by foreign investors from the developed countries and foreigners (in most cases from developed countries) are always employed in professional and managerial positions at the expense of the local people. These features are a contributing factor to high leakages through the remittances of salaries and profits to the tourist generating regions.

Although the above discussion is clear evidence to suggest the exploitative nature of tourism and a display of a number of characteristics of colonial economies, its validity is subject to debate (Hall and Page, 2003). Firstly, tourism as an economic activity is not imposed on many governments of developing countries by the developed countries, but instead it is welcomed as a means of stimulating economic growth. Secondly, most developing countries are already politically independent an indication that colonial powers are not the determinants of the decisions made by the governments of such countries though to some degree, there is a manipulation and control of local politicians and the elite by foreign interests (Rogerson, 2013). For example, the relationships between developing countries and the tourists markets in the developed countries are mediated by organisations like travel agencies, tour companies and airlines, which are in most cases based in developed countries (Hall and Page, 2009). This is, however, unlikely to be as influential and domineering, as was the case during the colonial era (Garrod and Kosowska, 2012). There is an urgent need for investigations to look into patterns of ownership, investment, decision-making, profits as well as levels of financial involvement of foreign investors in order to examine the two perspectives.

From a social point of view, tourism brings people and cultures together; they also have a desire to meet the people (Kim and Eves, 2012). In Kirk Albrecht's article "Shalom means Tourism", (Newsome and Moore, 2012) describe how Israeli tourism is popular in Jordan. Despite the fact that at one time the two countries were enemies, they open their borders and learn from each other. Israeli tourists are welcomed in Jordan and, apart from Jordan benefiting economically, both Jordanians and Israelis get together to see the other side and possibly even the other point of view (Morakabati, 2013).

2.8.2.3 Health

Although tourism can promote the provision of improved health care in the destination areas since it has to meet the high standards of tourists, it can act as a vehicle to spread some forms of diseases. For instance, sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) such as Acquired Immunity Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) can also be transmitted through sex tourism (Guilamo-Ramos et al., 2013). In fact, there is a close link between STDs and sex tourism (Kibicho, 2012). This statement has been found to be true in Kenya, Morocco and Thailand (Kibicho, 2012); Goa (India) and Mexico (Joffres et al., 2008); Thailand, Philippines and Korea (Fredette, 2009) and South Africa (Parry et al., 2009). Kibicho (2012) asserts that there is a rapid and efficient spread of HIV/AIDS by the brothels in Thailand because men dislike wearing condoms. The prostitutes cannot afford to lose customers simply because they have refused to use a condom. Furthermore, most of the men involved with prostitutes are reported to have non-prostitute partners whom they have unprotected intercourse with. This means that such men can bring the disease home to their wives and children (Pope, 2013). In addition, it is reported that HIV/AIDS can be internationally exported through sex tourism and as a result sex tourists are abandoning the hotspots of Bangkok and Manila (Scambler and Paoli, 2008).

Jacob (2008) study on tourism and prostitution in Goa has revealed that the clients are aware of the dangers of HIV/AIDS. For example, on two different occasions the clients admitted that they have few agents due to fear of contracting HIV/AIDS and that they turn down the offers from white women because of a similar reason (Jacob, 2008). According to the Cape Town Tourism Manager (Bird and Donaldson, 2009), a new marketing organisation has been put in place to advice tourists about the services of prostitutes. Its major focus is on fair conditions for the sex industry employees and it is believed that this would assist in the fight against HIV/AIDS (Richter et al., 2014).

2.8.2.4 Tourism and Moral Conduct

It has also been noted that considerable and increasing attention has been directed towards the moral changes attributed to tourism mainly the rise in crime (Park and Stokowski, 2009), gambling, prostitution and, most recently, the spread of HIV/AIDS through sex tourism (Bird and Donaldson, 2009). For example, the introduction of first world tourism within developing countries normally results in a decline in moral standards of the local people (Spenceley, 2010). At the same time, several forms of prostitution, alcohol and drug abuse, gambling as well as crime have been cited internationally as evils of tourist development (Frey and George, 2010). For instance, the devout Muslims in Malaysia are directly affected by the

hedonistic lifestyles of the visiting tourists (Bramwell and Lane, 2011). Furthermore, Shetty (2012) observed that the local people in Goa have been humiliated by witnessing nude bathing, drug abuse, prostitution and the corrosion of their local cultural attitudes.

2.8.2.5 Prostitution

Prostitution as an activity is believed to have been in existence even before mass tourism developed (Sanger, 2013). It is, therefore, not easy to determine how much, if at all tourism has been responsible for high rates of prostitution in several destination areas (Tutenges, 2012). However, there are four hypotheses that can be used to support and explain the so-called increases in prostitution as a result of tourism in tourist areas (Gentry, 2007).

Firstly, there is the locational hypothesis. It states that tourism processes and developments have created locations and environments, which are conducive and attractive to prostitutes and their clients (Aalbers and Sabat, 2012). This can be attributed to the patriarchal attitude. For example, women who have been rejected by their male partners as a result of seduction or rape are often cut-off from other forms of employment and marriage (Ryan, 2011). Instead, they resort to prostitution in order to meet their social and economic needs as well as those of their children. But on the other hand, they may acquire STDs, the worst one being HIV/AIDS (Shih, 2011). For example, according to Dasarath (2010), rural KwaZulu-Natal has the highest rate of HIV/AIDS infection in South Africa. However, there is no recorded evidence to prove that this high rate of HIV/AIDS infection is a result of tourist activities within the region. The relationship between the two needs further investigation.

Secondly, the societal hypothesis indicates that the nature of tourism means that people are away from the bonds of normal living and have money to spend (Ye et al., 2014). For example, a number of business and conference tourists utilise the services of prostitutes while travelling away from home (Rogerson et al., 2007). Such practices may be attributed to the fact that the opportunity arises or the tourists meet similar-minded individuals (Trotter, 2007). In some other cases, the tourists feel lonely and sexually deprived and so they utilise the advantage of being "unknown strangers" in order to buy the services of prostitutes (Advani, 2013) Such circumstances are believed to be conducive to the survival and expansion of prostitution (Smith, 2012).

Thirdly, the economic aspect hypothesis indicates that the tourism industry provides employment, especially for women who are in most cases discriminated against in terms of job opportunities (Christian et al., 2013). For example, Sinclair and Sinclair (2013) observed

that many women in the Third World who lack other channels of sufficient income generation use prostitution as a surviving strategy. Furthermore, the lack of jobs in the agricultural sector and the discrimination of women in most areas of formal employment make women resort to prostitution in order to earn a living (Shdaimah and Wiechelt, 2013). For instance, many women in South East Asia are denied opportunities for economic independence and prostitution has been left as the highest paying job available (Muzaini, 2006). In so doing, it may have a tendency of improving their economic status. This, in turn, may lead to their liberalisation and eventually to their involvement in prostitution with a sole aim of maintaining or acquiring new economic levels (Nana-Fabu, 2013).

Finally, tourism may be used as a scapegoat for a general loosening of morals (Herbert, 2014). For example, in the existing literature, sex tourism is often used to refer to commercial sexual relations (Orchard, 2007) yet most of the tourists who utilise the services of prostitutes do not travel only for that purpose (Dawdy and Weyhing, 2008). In fact in a number of cases, this is just a by-product or side attraction rather than the major and sole reason (Sinclair and Sinclair, 2013). In addition, there are also cases where prostitution often takes place without any travel being involved like in the case of the Internet where the customer is not physically travelling, but nonetheless may be viewed as a "cyberspace sex tourist" (Döring, 2009). This is attributed to the fact that the Internet, with faster video and sound access, may conceivably result in "peep-shows" into the house of the cyber-sex tourist (Döring, 2009). Further still, there is a practice known as "phone sex lines" (Jeffreys, 2009), where the customer is at home but the prostitute is on the other side of the world.

2.8.2.6 Crime

Crime involves robbery, larceny, burglary, vandalism, drug abuse, assault, murder, rape and car theft (George, 2010). Unlike prostitution and rape, data based on crime are relatively easy to secure, but it is difficult to associate them with tourism (Perry et al., 2013). However, there is substantial empirical evidence that suggests a relationship between crime and tourism (Mansfeld and Pizam, 2006). This can be attributed to the following three factors as depicted by Maitland and Ritchie (2009: 87)

- Firstly, the population density during the peak season is relatively high. This means that there are many targets and congestion, which in return increases the potential gains and reduces the probability of detection as far as the criminals are concerned.

- Secondly, the position of the tourist resorts in relation to international borders attracts illegal immigrants who are in most cases unemployed so when they fail to obtain the jobs they had hoped for they resort to crime in order to earn a living.
- Finally, there are always big differences between the per capita incomes of hosts and tourists. The tourists are in most cases richer than their hosts are and this leads to increased frustration in the local community which in some cases spills over as crimes against tourists.

Mansfeld and Pizam (2006) believe that there is a close link between tourism and crime. They argue that tourists can be easy prey for criminals and this is attributed to the fact that the tourists are not aware of dangerous areas or local situations in which they might be exposed to crimes. At the same time, tourists can easily be identified by the criminals and in most cases not very well equipped to safeguard themselves.

2.8.3 Environmental Impacts of Ecotourism

Miller et al. (2012) consider nature as being a major attraction and resource of tourism. Buijs (2009) argues that the fast pace of tourism around the world is causing indescribable damage to some of the most endangered ecological systems. Tourism's interaction with the environment is complex: it can assist to conserve resources, have negative impacts and can be threatened by human-induced changes in the environment (Newsome and Moore, 2012). Drumm et al. (2007) state that visitation to natural protected areas is escalating rapidly in many countries around the globe. Schelhaas et al. (2007) emphasise that if tourists are unaware of the value and fragility of nature and if tourism operators and providers are not careful about the natural environment, tourism could be a disaster for nature and biodiversity.

Liu (2003) refers to the environment as being all encompassing since it not only consists of natural elements but is inclusive of cultural, social, economic, historical and political components. The expanding tourism tide is exceeding protected areas' capacity to keep it within sustainable levels so that tourism can be identified as a threat to biodiversity (Drumm, 2007). Tourism impacts do take a variety of negative forms such as habitat fragmentation and loss due to infrastructure development, travel related air pollution, facility-related water and land pollution and activity related soil and vegetation damage and wildlife harassment (Newsome and Moore, 2012).

The economic rationale for nature conservation will be even stronger when tourism is calculated to have potentially greater economic value than other development options

(Holden, 2004). At the same time, Schelhaas (2007) asserts that tourism can contribute to nature conservation since it gives nature an economic value, raises awareness and provides a motive for conservation, including an effective venue for environmental education. Furthermore, in developing countries there is an enormous pressure to earn foreign currencies to service foreign debts and to increase exports (Gereffi and Frederick, 2010). Thus, nature tourism may offer an attractive means to earn foreign exchange (Holden, 2004). The poor and the disadvantaged bear the burden of negative environmental impacts, for instance, pollution and natural resource depletion (Tschakert, 2007).

Dudley (2008) state that tourism should not be perceived as a conservation panacea for all areas of increasing biodiversity, since tourism does not always generate adequate revenue to pay for conservation management. Thus, the government has to step in with subsidies and public donations are also needed. Weaver (2008) emphasises that the responsibility for conserving the natural environment in an area should not be the responsibility of the locals working on their own. All stakeholders must be involved. A key determinant of how tourism interacts with the environment is the issue of environmental ethics held by its stakeholders, inclusive of tourists, tourism businesses (private sector), local communities and the government (Holden, 2004). It is also important to consider the symbiotic relationship that exists between visitors, local communities and destination areas since these three elements interact with each other creating negative and positive economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts (Timothy, 2011).

Bushell and Eagles (2007) suggests that to avoid the loss of precious biodiversity through tourism-related pressures and to access the benefits that tourism can produce for protected areas it is imperative that they have sufficient capacity in respect of infrastructure, personnel and management systems in place. In many developing countries, Park systems have not been able to finance the investments required to establish this capacity at the areas facing pressure from visitation (Drumm et al., 2007). Most ecotourism operators have acknowledged the value of sustainability and conservation and are changing their business practices to preserve their natural resources and rehabilitate the environment (Fennell, 2007). Drumm et al. (2007) assert that given the rising tourist demand for access to protected natural areas, it is more and more important that adequate pricing mechanisms be applied to ensure that tourism and recreation contribute to biodiversity conservation.

Loon et al. (2007) provide a case study of a community-run project, the Lillydale Environmental Education Centre which is supported by Sabi Sabi. This centre serves as a multifunctional environmental education centre promoting Shangaan knowledge and rural development tourism to the area and encouraging local environmental conservation practices through training workshops. The Lillydale Environmental Education Centre has demonstrated successful involvement of the local community. Timothy (2011) discusses practical measures that can be taken to involve host communities in their local tourism systems such as the establishment of local tourism forums where ideas can be exchanged and issues aired, concessionary admission schemes for local people to tourist attractions and facilities as well as public awareness programmes stressing the benefits of tourism to communities.

Timothy (2011) suggests that there is an increase in awareness and concern for the environment which has meant that tourism organisations are becoming more involved in determining the effects they have on their environment. Clifford et al. (2010) discuss the principles of sustainable development as incorporated in the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA), Act 107 of 1998. Hall (2008) emphasises that Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) is a means for evaluating the possible consequences of tourism and other forms of development. The Integrated Environmental Management (IEM) is designed to ensure that the environmental consequences of development proposals are understood and adequately considered in the planning process (Beven, 2007). Hall (2008) discusses that an EIA is a very useful technique used to make certain that environmental impacts of proposed projects have been evaluated and providing the foundation for making any necessary adjustments to the project. Geneletti and Dawa (2009) discuss that the EIA is a tool used in many developing countries as well as in South Africa to assist development, mitigate negative impact of developments and enhances positive impacts.

Timothy (2011) contends that imposing limits on tourist use through the formation of maximum thresholds may cause resentment, both with tourists who may be denied access to facilities, and with commercial tourism operators who may object to what they see as intervention in the market. Mowforth and Munt (2008) argue that carrying capacity calculations can be influenced by tour operators, officers of conservation organisations or government officials who promote either a destination's exclusivity (a low carrying capacity) or its capability and potential to absorb more visitors (a high carrying capacity).

Fennell (2007) deals with carrying capacity from a sociological perspective and suggests that it is difficult to quantify. Weaver (2008) considers carrying capacity from an environmental setting, community viewpoint and an economic concern. In an environmental situation the concept applies to the maximum number of people who can utilise a location without an unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by tourists (Zhong et al., 2011). Furthermore, (Kim et al., 2013) argue that from a community standpoint, carrying capacity relates to a destination's ability to absorb tourism before the community feels the negative effects. From an economic concern, carrying capacity deals with employment and revenue earned and as long as these are positive and the host community benefits from tourism, the predetermined level is correct (Weaver, 2008).

2.9 Ecotourism and Guiding Principles for its Development

There are possibilities that ecotourism may collapse (especially tourism projects that are funded by donor agencies) at the end of project funding. Local people's naivety and shortage of technical knowledge and expertise as well as different political agendas, which set nature and economic values above human virtue and values, could also contribute to this collapse (Sakata and Prideaux, 2013). However, there are cases when ecotourism succeeds, especially when the coordinating agencies are able to bring up the right mix and work out the right ways that suits the locals and the markets (Okazaki, 2008). In this case, ecotourism becomes prosperous and communities benefit more from the project. They can learn about the problems they are facing and understand the right strategies to alleviate problems and earn from it (Zapata et al., 2011). For example, the ecotourism industry in Costa Rica has operated since the early 1980s by privatising some of its reserves, such as Monteverde Biosphere Reserve and Rava Avis Reserve to maximise profits (Stronza, 2009). The commodification of these natural reserves into commodities has benefited its government and private enterprises, while local communities continue to face problems of economic leakage and ownership rights (Spierenburg and Brooks, 2014).

Regular assessments prior to and after development are important for understanding ecotourism trends, so that appropriate strategies could be set up and incorporated into coherent and pragmatic frameworks. Most important, appropriate guiding principles for planning and management of ecotourism are important and needed for all concerned stakeholders to follow. According to Guttentag (2009), after identifying clear purposes and projecting the potential benefits and negative impacts of development, the responsibility of ecotourism developers and planners is to take key guiding principles into consideration.

These include community involvement and empowerment, stakeholder partnership, collaboration and integrated development strategies, protection and maintenance of environmental and cultural integrity, market realism and effective promotion, quality tourism product development and appropriate marketing strategies, impact management and monitoring, encouragement for tourists and private sector interests and supports, and performance management, monitoring and excelling (Shani and Pizam, 2012).

2.10 Rural Development and Tourism

This section discusses rural development and tourism. The main focus is on the role of tourism in rural development, particularly in South Africa and KwaZulu-Natal.

2.10.1 Rural Development

Viljoen and Tlabela (2007) assert that those stakeholders such as National Parks, provincial Parks and private Parks who are already involved in ecotourism ventures have started to consider the importance of involving local communities in the planning processes and distribution of costs and benefits. The significance of rural livelihoods in Africa highlights the necessity to nurture an understanding of rural development and its evolution within broader development thinking (Hill et al., 2008). Issues such as economic restructuring, demographic change (particularly out-migration and aging) and the loss of social capital are recognised to be major problems affecting rural areas (Sharma and Dyer, 2009). According to the Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs (1997), rural areas can be defined as the sparsely populated areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources which are inclusive of villages and small towns that are isolated through these areas. It is also inclusive of the large settlements in the former homelands, produced by the apartheid removals, which depend for their survival on migratory labour and remittances (Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

Tacoli (2009) refers to the southern African countryside as being in the grip of multiple crises since political and structural macro-social processes have fractured, fragmented or ruined the agricultural base that is central to rural social development. It is advocated that the protected area approach bears many controversies at the various levels of policy debate and implementation (Engel et al., 2008). Conflicts over resources between local resource users and those involved in nature conservation, in many of the biologically diverse rural areas in developing countries, are characterised by increasing levels of poverty, insecure land tenure and landlessness, and unstable or undemocratic political systems (Igoe and Brockington,

2007). Raymond et al. (2010) advise that African rural development has resulted in the identifying of three aspects: firstly, to recognise that centrally-driven, top-down, dictatorial and economically biased approaches have not been a great success; secondly, the need to re-assess the potential and inherent capacity within communities to help themselves; and thirdly, the recognition of the sustainability and appropriateness of 'indigenous' skills and expertise in the form of 'appropriate technology'.

Rural areas have suffered from the effects of urbanisation and a reduction of many traditional industries thus, tourism, especially ecotourism, offers communities in rural areas an alternate avenue to sustain their livelihoods (Rogerson, 2011). Tourism has been frequently taken as an alternative option in developed nations or developing ones to maintain the continuous development of the economy in remote or rural areas where primary traditional industries are in decline (Su, 2011). Tourism has been acknowledged as one of the primary industries with the potential to assist local communities in developing economic diversity (Frauman and Banks, 2011). Internationally, there is a trend moving towards various forms of tourism which educate the visitor about history, environment and culture (Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs, 1997). Tourists will not venture into areas which are not safe or secure and lack basic facilities (Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs, 1997). The development of tourism in South Africa will depend on private investment, underpinned by a government framework which promotes the channelling of benefits to local people through their constructive involvement, together with their participation in sustainable environmental management and commerce (Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

Groom and Palmer (2010) refer to ecotourism as being a viable option in the search for sustainable production activities in local rural communities that confront a deterioration of their natural resources and a reduction in activities that focus on self-subsistence. Non-consumptive forms of land utilisation, for example, ecotourism ventures, can be a good option for providing wildlife-related benefits to impoverished local communities in Africa (Okello et al., 2011). Bushell and Eagles (2007) refer to ecotourism in relatively poorer countries to be seen as a way of attracting tourists from wealthier countries. Governments see ecotourism as a promising choice in promoting economic development and conservation in protected areas of developing countries (Groom and Palmer, 2010). Kepe (2008) listed three main issues about ecotourism in rural areas of less industrialised countries: first, there is a strong relationship between ecotourism and biodiversity conservation; second, ecotourism

can be seen as the main benefit of the poor rural neighbours; and third, foreign tourists and ecotourism are linked.

Byrd et al. (2009) advise that the increasing demand for tourism has required that rural communities are using tourism and recreation as an economic development tool. Rural areas were not accessible thus DEAT (1996: 30) identifies the importance of considering improving the accessibility and infrastructure of rural areas to allow these areas to unleash their tourism potential. However, Sharma and Dyer (2009) mention that tourism is regularly seen as a panacea for the ills of declining rural communities. (Rogerson and Rogerson, 2011) observe a change from the passive, low key use of rural areas for recreation to the explosion of tourism as an increasingly active and dominant agent of change and control in rural communities. Obi et al. (2011) affirm that rural policies are out of touch and are not sympathetic to the rural masses, however, top-down policies are not suitable to the needs and aspirations of the African working class. Stronza and Gordillo (2008) identify restrictions on the viability of tourism as a far from ideal entry-level business for rural communities since they have little previous experience, it is competitive as well as demanding, can take years to get off the ground and even people with extensive experience can fail to make a profit.

2.10.2 Rural Development in South Africa

The general level of development in South African rural areas is low and most people in these areas are trapped in a subsistence economy (Woods, 2007). The immediate goal of rural development should, therefore, be implemented by both governmental and NGOs for example, the Rural Foundation, a NGO is already in action to improve the quality of life and raising the standards of living of the rural communities in the Western Cape (Viljoen and Tlabela, 2007). The programmes that are offered, according to Raymond et al. (2010), include literacy, pre-schools on farms and basic health facilities. The Community-Based Development Organisation (CBDO) linked with the Pilanesberg National Park in the North West Province has also launched several projects catering mainly for widows and poorer community members (West et al., 2006). Examples of projects include production of overalls for nearby mines, vegetable growing as well as supplying haberdashery items to Sun City Hotel. The Kruger National Park is currently offering support for community projects through fund raising, direct financial support, health and education services (Naughton-Treves et al., 2005).

In KZN, although the Lubombo Spatial Development Initiative (LSDI) was basically designed to boost tourism development and investment in the areas straddling South Africa's international borders with Swaziland and Mozambique, it has funded a number of infrastructure projects (Hulme et al., 2012). Examples of projects include small hospitals, clinics, schools, creches as well as business training initiatives for rural residents. In addition, small agricultural projects have constructed irrigation dams, plant nurseries and stock raising infrastructure. Still in KZN, the Phinda Private Game Reserve funded by CC Africa is yet another non-governmental organisation which has assisted a rural community to enjoy the benefits of natural beauty as well as raising money for community projects (West et al., 2006). For example, the Phinda's Rural Investment Fund which was established in 1992 assists local communities with planning, networking, fund raising, training of rural entrepreneurs as well as projects for social services (Beinart and Hughes, 2007). Furthermore, the Makhasa community, situated along the shores of Lake St Lucia in northern KZN is enjoying the existence of social services/basic needs and regional infrastructure, small business development as well as capacity building and training (Rolfes, 2010).

2.10.3 Rural Development in KwaZulu-Natal

Rural KZN is characterised by high unemployment and poverty (Rolfes, 2010). This is in agreement with what Wadge (2008) observed that many rural areas are characterised by extensive poverty and few prospects for substantial economic development. Most of the rural households (which comprise the largest percentage of the entire population) in KZN have an expenditure of less than R1 000 per month and 63% of the rural population are categorised as poor (Shackleton et al., 2007). The main income generating activities include agriculture (which is mainly subsistence), non-farm self-employment, wage labour, pension and disability grants as well as remittances from a family member living elsewhere (Sifuna, 2010). The non-farm self-employment comprises of a range of activities. Such activities include the extension of distribution network, which involves micro-enterprise traders and hawkers selling food, flowers and handicrafts. There is also the petty commodity production, which deals with the making of clothes, furniture, handicrafts, beer and brooms as well as the building of houses. The production and sale of crops through intermittent markets are also prevalent. In fact, the construction and home crafts sub-sectors seem to be the most important categories with two thirds of this group engaged in the construction and home crafts activities (Shackleton et al., 2007). In addition to the extension of distribution network and petty commodity production, there are also niche markets in the service sector (Rogerson and

Rogerson, 2011). These are specific services that have a competitive advantage when performed by micro-enterprises. Furthermore, (Shaw et al., 2014) argue that in rural areas such services include water collection, preparation of mud for floors and walls as well as contract agricultural services. Casual labourers who are used during the weeding and harvesting seasons could also fall into this category.

Wage labour, which includes migrant farm workers and an increasingly big group of commuter labourers, is yet another income generating activity in the rural areas of KZN (Neves and Toit, 2013). Another income generating activity is the claims from the state. Unlike other developing countries, South Africa has a well-functioning social pension system, which covers the elderly people in rural areas (Van der Berg et al., 2010). The elderly are entitled to claims in the form of pensions and disability grants from the government (Surender et al., 2010). Such claims contribute significantly to household incomes. Remittances from household members living elsewhere also contribute significantly to household incomes in rural areas (Mendola, 2012). Despite the fact that apartheid laws and policies were brought to an end after 1994, migration of black people in search for employment is still an important aspect of many rural peoples' lives (Casale et al., 2013). Furthermore, (Mendola, 2012) argues that this then result in rural households relying heavily on a share of the migrant's income in the form of remittances.

Despite the above noted income generating activities, the gap between rural and urban areas is still wide and the unemployment rates are increasing. However, there is still hope for a better change and alternatives as it has been argued that the government is focusing on rural development such as micro-farming, outgrower crop development, work in tourism, livestock raising and craft production (Reid and Vogel, 2006).

2.10.4 Rural Development and Tourism

According to Mowforth and Munt (2008), rural areas have participated in an important role in tourism and leisure within the developing world. Tourism planning in rural and isolated areas has an intense bearing on the social organisation and decision-making process in the relevant communities (Okazaki, 2008). Garrod et al. (2006) express the view that rural tourism is culturally defined by the expectations, perceptions and cultural background of tourists as it is by the activities they participate in within a rural context. However, the tourism industry is one of a number of small players using natural resources as their selling point.

In relation to the diversification of the local economy, rural tourism supports local services and maintains farming in marginal areas. Agri-tourism can contribute to the income of farmers as a complementary activity (Calado et al., 2011). Davies (2009) emphasises that rural tourism is treated in the same manner as regional development with much of the focus for development being left to local entrepreneurship and initiative. However, DEAT (1996: 13) stresses that “the lack of infrastructure in rural areas is rigorously hampering the participation of rural communities within the tourism industry as suppliers of the products and services and as tourists”. In addition, rural development projects need to be not only environmentally and economically sound, but also as socially acceptable to those people intended to participate (Kepe, 2009). Across Sub-Saharan Africa, tourism is being supported as a means to rural development (Sandbrook, 2010). In rural areas, the excesses of tourism present a contradiction to residents’ modest lifestyles (Lepp, 2007). Local communities negatively perceive tourists as excessive consumers of sex, alcohol, food and natural resources (Lepp, 2007). According to Van der Merwe and Wocke (2007): 115, “communities must be empowered to take part in the management of areas so that they can have a say in the distribution of the benefits and the sustainable use of their environment. Efforts are not being made to enable local communities to experience wildlife in the parks”.

Brockington (2007) maintains that wildlife conservation imposes significant costs on these people through crop damage, livestock predation and human deaths, and restriction of access to natural resources. Lesorogol (2008) states that the exclusion of rural communities in relation to conservation areas is of concern since most people who live in these areas are generally poor and depend on natural resources for their livelihoods. Additionally, Eagles (2009) states that with little or no corresponding benefits this situation compromises people’s livelihoods and reduces their willingness to support conservation efforts. Rinzin et al. (2009) indicate that the perception among some people still lingers that conservation initiatives are at conflict with the needs of local communities.

Mutana et al. (2013) advise that rural poverty is to a large extent an outcome of a number of interrelated forces which hamper the success of any single action programme. March and Wilkinson (2009) claim that the increased demand for ecotourism has resulted in a large number of small, local businesses catering to ecotourists’ needs, frequently run by their owners. Tsaur et al. (2006) refer to these local suppliers as a means to reaching the economic and social benefits associated with ecotourism and are contributing to rural development.

2.10.5 Rural Development and Ecotourism

Many rural communities view ecotourism as a major option for addressing rural economic decline (Okech, 2011), especially as many communities depend solely on a single natural resource extractive industry, namely, mining and forestry (Su, 2011). Such a view is based on the argument that tourism is widely perceived to have the potential to provide rural communities with local job opportunities, tax revenues and economic diversity (Wang and Pfister, 2008). In addition, tourism is viewed as a clean industry with limited serious environmental effects as compared to resources extractive activities that many rural communities have traditionally relied on for survival (Marchak, 2011). It is, therefore, not surprising that from an international point of view, the major focus is on forms of tourism that aim at balancing the needs of the local people with the need to protect the environment (Bennett et al., 2012). In a number of cases, this is the most suitable form of tourism in rural areas, which possess most tourist attractions (Rogerson, 2006). South Africa as a country possesses considerable potential for tourism. This can be attributed to South Africa's diverse heritage, a wide variety of cultures, wildlife, beautiful sceneries and coasts, as well as the novelty of her post-apartheid era. However, until recently tourism has been generally kept within former White South Africa and protected areas and it has been providing income mainly to the major hotel chains and transport companies (Richardson and Butler, 2014). Its contribution to local economies has been neglected as most of the generated incomes are utilised in cities. This is clearly reflected in the local peoples' attitude towards protected areas. In fact, the local people feel that they have limited reasons to protect wildlife or tourists (Rural Development Task Team (RDTT) and Land Reform Policy Branch: Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

Despite the negative attitudes and perceptions of the local people, Rowat and Engelhardt (2007) argue that of late the focus for economic development in KwaZulu-Natal has been placed on tourism development and community empowerment. This is believed to be a vehicle to generate tangible benefits to poor rural communities and at the same time a means of integrating conservation and development (Ballesteros et al., 2008). Viljoen and Tlabela (2007) also argue that nature conservation and associated tourism development is being considered as a means of contributing to the alleviation of rural poverty in KwaZulu-Natal. However, tourists cannot be attracted into areas which are unsafe or insecure and without basic facilities. Ecotourism development, therefore, will depend upon both private and government investment and in order to make this viable benefits should be channelled to

local people but through their constructive involvement and inclusive participation in sustainable environmental management and commerce (RDTT and Land Reform Policy Branch: Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

In recent years promising developments have been realised in various parts of South Africa where poor rural communities are being offered the opportunities to become partners in an economic venture within a protected area (Gardner et al., 2013). In fact, the issue is not just offering employment opportunities or meaningful participation but ownership with decision-making powers (Ndlovu, 2005). The Pilanesberg National Park in the Northwest Province has been noted as the first attempt in South Africa where protected area conservation has been integrated with community development (Naughton-Treves et al., 2005). The neighbouring communities are part of the decision-making process and this has been achieved through a joint liaison forum (Manavhela and Spencer, 2012). For example, the local communities were fully consulted prior to the introduction of lions in the Park. Furthermore, the communities decide on the allocation and distribution of money obtained from the Park. So far the money has been used to develop a community owned and managed game reserve, to improve water supplies and to build school classrooms (Saayman et al., 2012). In addition to participation in decision-making, local communities have the opportunity to share the benefits received as a result of the Park's existence. For example, 10% of gate entry fees go to the local communities, the local people hold some of the senior Park positions, and small local firms receive contracts for road construction and maintenance (Carruthers, 2011). The Madikwe Game Reserve (Northwest Province) is also run in joint venture between the state, private sector and local communities and the impoverished communities in the sparsely populated Dwarsberg area are provided with jobs and other economic benefits (De Beer and De Beer, 2011).

The Richtersveld National Park in Northern Cape, which is based upon a contract between the local people and the National Parks Board, is yet another example. The local people are allowed to live inside the park and they co-manage the park with the National Parks Board (Naughton-Treves et al., 2005). Furthermore, the local communities lease out the land occupied by the Park to the South African National Parks at R900 000 per annum (Gumede, 2003). In addition, a local goods industry has been created on the boundaries of the Park, technical training programmes have been designed to increase the capacity of local residents as well as the expansion of environmental programmes and bursary schemes to enable the local people to participate in sustainable development schemes (Connolly, 2010).

The Mpakheni tribe in Mpumalanga Province receives rent for the tribally owned land occupied by the Mthethomusha Game Reserve and participates in the management of the reserve along with the Mpumalanga Tourism and Parks Authority (MTPA) (De Koning, 2010). Other benefits include job opportunities, community development initiatives, and carefully supervised/managed natural resource harvesting as well as direct income from tourism revenues going into a community development trust fund (Naughton-Treves et al., 2005).

In KZN, the Somkhanda community in a remote rural area in northern KwaZulu-Natal has already found a measure of prosperity by eagerly accepting ecotourism (Hansen, 2013a). According to (Rolfes, 2010), the average income per household had trebled from R450 a year to approximately R1 300 in 2010 as a result of ecotourism. This is a good example of how successful ecotourism can combine environmental conservation with the development of depressed rural economies. In Maputaland, the Rock Tail Bay and Ndumo Wilderness Camp are run in partnership between the state, the affected local communities, a private sector operator, Wilderness Safaris as well as the KwaZulu Finance and Investment Corporation who supplied the financial expertise, loan and equity finance (Ndlovu, 2005). Indeed, other communities are now approaching the Department of Economic Development and Tourism with a view of tourism development within the area (Hansen, 2014). Still in Maputaland, a group of rural residents from KwaDapha successfully resisted removal from the Kosi Bay Nature Reserve (Hansen, 2014). At the present moment, they run their own tourism operations on the publicly owned land after acquiring permission from EKZWN (Naughton-Treves et al., 2005).

EKZWN has also adopted a 'Neighbour Relations Policy' and set up a network of Neighbour Liaison Forums comprising of local community leaders and field staff in the province (Naughton-Treves et al., 2005). The field staff play a facilitation role in mobilising resources and expertise for community projects and in helping communities in problem solving (Ngubane and Brooks, 2013). For example, some of the local communities bordering the HiP have received skills to enable them to reap the benefits of economic opportunities that exist within their own environment (Brooks, 2005). The following are the three examples from this approach. Firstly, the Mchunu Bed and Breakfast, which is community based, was established near the iMfolozi section entrance. It is locally owned by one family and consists of traditional Zulu huts accommodating about thirty people. The guests have an opportunity of being served traditional Zulu food and entertained through Zulu songs and dances. Guests

normally spend one or two nights and often combine it with a visit to the park. This facility is the major source of income for the family but there are some problems that hinder its successful operation. Examples of hindrances include communication barrier, poor accounting skills, marketing problems as well as jealousy from other community members (Nzama, 2010).

Secondly, a piece of land was put aside to establish a Community Conservation Reserve for conservation/ecotourism opportunities in one of the communities living adjacent to the western boundary of the Hluhluwe section. The community has recognised the potential for cultural tourism, which will involve Zulu dancing, and singing as well as visits to traditional healers and the tribal court. Another additional entrepreneurial activity would be the sale of handicrafts (Nzama, 2010). This is a well-developed community from an institutional point of view since associations like tourism development and *Izinyanga* (traditional healers) are already in place (Brooks, 2005). In addition, the community has developed a high level of trust with EKZNW and regards it as a reliable partner in community development and upliftment (Nzama, 2010).

Thirdly, craft outlets have also been established near Nyalazi and Memorial entrance gates. The two curio shops are a source of income to those involved mainly women without any formal education as well as accessibility to formal employment. Though the business is not very promising, there is potential to increase the income of the local people. The local communities, however, have to bear in mind the problems brought about by tourism (Adeleke and Nzama, 2013). For example, there is a danger of tourists being seasonal, unreliable income as well as stress brought about in the process of tourism promotion especially if not well planned and properly understood (Nzama, 2010).

2.11 Policy Environment in South Africa

Conservation policy and practices over the past few decades have strongly emphasised the linkages between rural poverty and environmental degradation and, more specifically, the importance of reconciling the socio-economic needs and expectations of local communities with the objectives of biodiversity conservation and protected-areas management. Several international agencies and organisations, including the World Bank (WB), World Wide Fund (WWF) for Nature, The World Conservation Union, USAID and United Nations (UN) agencies, have come out in support of the idea that biodiversity-conservation programmes should take into account the socio-economic needs of the local population (Kepe, 2009).

Protected areas are thus increasingly expected to cross the boundaries of conventional biodiversity protection and take their place on the national development agenda by contributing to poverty reduction among rural communities adjacent to parks and reserves. Therefore, this section discusses the policies and programmes that seek to involve local communities adjacent to protected areas in decision-making and equitable benefit sharing from such areas.

2.11.1 The People and Parks Programme

The concept of a “protected area” was invented in the late 1800s in reaction to increasing apprehension at the loss of wilderness areas (Sass et al., 2012). Although the World Conservation Union differentiates six different types of protected areas (Western et al., 2009), the term is now universally used as an umbrella concept so as collectively to include national parks, biosphere reserves, nature reserves and marine protected areas (Leroux et al., 2010). The majority of protected areas are situated in rural environments with the primary purpose of protecting biodiversity (Nelson, 2012). Yet such areas may also include a variety of significant social, cultural and economic utilities (Dudley et al., 2009).

Since the declaration of the very first National Park in the world, official approaches to conservation had, almost without exception, focused on protecting the ecological biodiversity inside a defined and fenced area (Kyrgyzstan et al., 2012). This was achieved by separating the local population from the protected area and preventing the use of biodiversity within proclaimed Park or Reserve (Pelser et al., 2011b). Local communities living adjacent to protected areas have traditionally been fenced out from such protected areas and have, in some occurrences, even been forcibly removed for the sake of conservation (Vedeld et al., 2012). Some approximations set the total number of people globally who have been displaced as a result of the formation of protected areas at more than ten million (Dudley et al., 2009). The foremost attention of protected areas fell on the conservation of biological biodiversity, the demarcation of borders and the establishment of tourist facilities, with slight contemplation for the impacts of these areas on the livelihoods of (often poor) local communities (Vedeld et al., 2012). The equivalent approach to conservation was assumed by authorities in Southern Africa, where local communities were occasionally consulted in the formation of protected areas (Strickland-Munro et al., 2010a). This tactic nurtured by the swift development of protected areas during the second half of the twentieth century frequently clashed with the evolving needs of rural populations in developing countries (Lam, 2011).

Protected areas globally have increased more than tenfold in respect of total coverage since 1980 (Liu et al., 2010). During the period 1900-1949, there were less than 600 officially protected areas universally (Pelser et al., 2011b), but this figure has amplified exponentially over the past decades. The drive to increase the fraction of protected areas considerably was first seriously endorsed at the 1982 World Parks Congress in Bali, where all nations were set a target of having 10% of countries under protection (Lam, 2011). At the World Parks Congress in 2003, it was reported that the number of protected areas had increased over the previous 20 years bringing the total to an estimated 100 000 worldwide (World Parks Congress, 2003), while some put the current figure at more than 105 000 (Holland, 2012). The effect of these increasing protected areas on the livelihoods of adjacent communities has, however, as shown earlier, mainly been disregarded by conservation authorities.

The unceasing growth and decree of protected areas for the exclusive protection of attractive regions of biodiversity became progressively ill-suited to the socio-economic authenticities of the developing world and tended to clash with both the existing resource-use and livelihood practices of local people (Sims, 2010). Conservation authorities in Africa and elsewhere soon comprehended that “protection” and “development” were not inevitably reciprocal irreversibly entangled with the provision of reimbursements to and the cooperation of rural communities. More specifically, the growth of large protected areas, such as national Parks, is today gradually challenged by the reality of rural communities stricken with dire poverty communities who are often entirely reliant on for their survival on the very resources that have now been proclaimed as “protected” (Child, 2013). As, internationally, both the debate around sustainable development and the necessity for conservation approaches to take into contemplation not only socio-economic but also environmental aspects gained momentum (Spenceley, 2010), management approaches in Southern Africa started to change towards conservation that involved local communities in both the distribution of conservation benefits and in the running of the natural resources in the protected areas (Kreuter et al., 2010). In terms of this approach, people are recognised as the primary resource, or, as Muzeza and Snyman (2013): 218 puts it: “it is essentially a bottom-up conservation approach”, while Chaminuka et al. (2012b): 247 describe it as “conservation of biological biodiversity based on the involvement of local communities”.

In spite of this shift in biodiversity conservation, many of the programmes assumed within this new management approach seem to have failed to offer communities with benefits that make a tangible and durable transformation to their livelihoods. In fact, the transferal of

concrete benefits to local communities has been hindered by several factors, amongst others the lack of commitment among stakeholders (Harwood, 2010), internal pressures and uncertainties (Spenceley, 2012) and the contradictory interests of stakeholders (Treves et al., 2009). The current conservation approach, however, is also progressively being confronted by a conflicting perception, for example, in recent times there has been, as Dressler et al. (2010) state, “a renewed magniloquence supporting both (i) an abandonment of the social agenda linked to conservation efforts ... and (ii) a greater emphasis on, or return to stringent conservationist practices”. This basically signifies a demand from the ranks of “protectionist conservationists” for a return to the central mission of biodiversity conservation, and to do so without being hampered by efforts to accommodate social encounters and agendas. Regardless of this backlash rhetoric that has developed in some circles, both the leading conservation philosophy and conservation practice in most countries are still firmly entrenched in a people-sensitive approach (Chaderopa, 2013). This predominantly relates to South Africa, where the People and Parks Programme of the new political indulgence is realised as an effort to address some of the socio-economic tribulations that became associated with conservation during apartheid rule (DEA, 2009). For the foreseeable future thus, the once dominant narrative of stronghold conservation has lost its official standing both in Africa and elsewhere in favour of a counter-narrative of people-centred conservation approaches (Van Wilgen, 2012).

2.11.2 The Nature of Community Conservation Approaches

Many of the protected areas established before the 1980s had no or limited linkage to neighbouring communities (World Parks Congress, 2003). The 1980s, however, saw conservation agencies pioneering a variety of new approaches to protected area management approaches that aimed to foster a stronger symbiotic relationship between conservation and development (World Parks Congress, 2003). Growing recognition that the social and economic needs of local communities had to be considered in conservation approaches had since spawned a number of innovative people-centred conservation approaches that allow for community involvement in biodiversity conservation and management (Andrade and Rhodes, 2012). The common denominator in these approaches is the assumption that whenever communities feel that they are part of conservation efforts and where the conservation of the resources translates into benefits for the community, the sense of ownership and positive attitudes towards conservation can be enhanced (Simpson, 2009). Bennett (2010) confirms

this in arguing that seeing protected areas as common resources which also generate value for the surrounding communities, conservation objectives can be achieved more sustainably.

Poor rural communities, particularly those living adjacent to Parks and other protected areas, may potentially reap significant benefits from conservation spin-offs in protected areas (Fabricius et al., 2013). Such benefits span a wide range of opportunities and could vary from employment opportunities, shared revenues, small-business development opportunities, and the sustainable utilisation of resources inside the protected area (Fabricius et al., 2007). It is nevertheless important to bear in mind that hand-outs alone will not necessarily contribute to either dynamic relationships or sustainable livelihoods (Ghimire and Pimbert, 2013). As Al-Busaidi (2012) emphasises, communities should also feel that they are able to participate in decision-making processes and the management of the protected area.

The new initiative towards people-centred conservation does not however imply a uniform or homogeneous approach, or even some kind of blueprint applicable to all communities and to all conditions. Labels such as community-based conservation, community wildlife management, integrated conservation and development projects, collaborative management models and community-based natural resource management are commonly attached to initiatives of this kind (Child, 2013). These approaches have become known under many different collective names, but the umbrella term “integrated conservation and development programme(s)” (ICDP), as suggested by Mannigel (2008), is perhaps the most descriptive and viable collective term for conservation initiatives with socio-economic development goals. Murphree (2009) propose a threefold classification of ICDP approaches: protected area outreach, which is aimed at the education and economic benefit of neighbouring communities in order to enhance the biological integrity of protected areas; collaborative management, whereby conservation authorities and local communities (or their representative bodies) enter into agreements for access to natural resources under the jurisdiction of a joint management committee or other statutory monitoring authority; and community-based conservation that strives to put communities in control of the sustainable management of natural resources by placing the control over such resources in the hands of community structures.

Although many of the benefits offered by protected-areas management are non-financial in nature, these are nevertheless valued by communities (Büscher, 2010). Some of the non-financial benefits may include new and improved infrastructure; environmental education programmes; increased access to health, education training and information; improved

relations between stakeholders; skills development that unlocks employment opportunities for local people; an increased sense of identity of communities and the building of local leadership (Ezebilo and Mattsson, 2010). Direct benefits such as employment opportunities, for instance, may arise in terms of either the primary conservation function of the protected area, or through commercial tourism operations and accommodation facilities, or even a combination of these options (Sachedina and Nelson, 2010). As described by Spenceley (2008), shared incomes could take the form of tourism incomes through joint ventures with private operators, revenues from concession fees, community-based tourism and accommodation facilities, and revenues from wildlife-utilisation activities, such as hunting fees and live game sales. Several examples of such initiatives, and in many cases a combination of them, can be found across Southern Africa and particularly in South Africa. Examples of this include a partnership between the Makuleke Contractual Park (MCP), owned by the Makuleke community and the Kruger National Park where they are partnering with the Outpost to manage tourism operations within the park. In addition to the mentioned direct revenue streams that could be channelled to communities, indirect incomes could also be generated by developing local small and medium economic enterprises (Cundill et al., 2013). This particularly applies to opportunities offered in the supporting and associated activities rendered to the protected area, such as the sale of goods and the rendering of services by both local entrepreneurs and the informal trade sector (Spenceley, 2008a).

These benefits particularly the direct benefits could, however, be limited and sometimes community members might feel that they are not deriving sufficient economic benefits from the protected area (Spenceley, 2008). In many instances, communities tend to over-estimate the potential financial benefits that can potentially be accrued (Blore et al., 2013). The reality, however, is that the latter are often negligible, particularly in the case of large communities, high poverty rates and many households that need to share the limited revenues on offer (Büscher, 2010). In other cases, the financial benefits could be limited to only those few members of the community directly involved in employment or tourism opportunities (Simpson, 2009: 201). Yet despite such limitations, it should be emphasised that large segments of the said communities live in conditions of extreme poverty, high unemployment levels and with otherwise very limited options from which to derive an income (Van Wijk et al., 2014). It therefore stands to reason that, when compared with other sources of income, the potential additional income that some households may expect to derive from opportunities in

the protected area, no matter how marginal these may be, “can make a significant difference to people living on the edge of subsistence” (Van Wijk et al., 2014: 63).

The transfer of worthwhile benefits derived through biodiversity conservation is often hindered by one or more barriers, barriers that erode the benefits that accrue to local communities (Moswete et al., 2012). Some of the most common barriers to the realisation of community benefits include inter-community rivalry and power struggles (Spenceley, 2010); a lack of commitment, and the conflicting interests of different stakeholders (Mbaiwa and Sakuze, 2009); weak or malfunctioning local structures (Van Wijk et al., 2014); indecisiveness when it comes to decision-making (Spanceley, 2010); nepotism and undemocratic decision-making (Hansen, 2013b); the domination by elite hierarchies imposed by established tribal systems (Simpson, 2008); and the non-equitable distribution of benefits (Rands et al., 2010). These barriers contribute to constrain the progress of development projects; they dilute the potential impact of benefits and thus, eventually also the success of poverty reduction initiatives in local communities.

2.11.3 Protected Areas as Means for Poverty Alleviation in Rural Areas

Ever since the Stockholm Conference on the Human Environment in 1972, the links between environment and development and, more specifically, conservation and poverty, have been intensely discussed and fiercely debated (Minteer and Miller, 2011). Scrutinising the social role of protected areas and their impact on rural livelihoods and development has become an increasingly central component of this debate (Simpson, 2009). In the Durban Accord of 2003, the World Parks Congress emphatically emphasised the role of protected areas as “contributors to poverty reduction and economic development and as creators and strainers of livelihoods” (World Parks Congress, 2003: 2) and, moreover, continued to urge commitment to protected areas that strive to alleviate poverty amongst their neighbouring communities. Although much has been achieved in terms of understanding the links between conservation and development in different spatial contexts (Minteer and Miller, 2011), the absence of extensive comparative data on the dynamics of poverty among the communities surrounding protected areas worldwide continues to hamper comprehensive analyses of the interrelationships between protected areas and neighbouring communities (Coria and Calfucura, 2012).

The insistence on protected-areas management to contribute towards poverty reduction should be seen in the context of the prevailing poor economic development and the low levels

of quality of life that typify rural conditions all over Africa. Almost two-thirds of the population of Africa are currently subsisting on less than US\$1 per day (Bremner et al., 2010). Further complicating this situation is the fact that those African countries displaying the highest indices of poverty also enjoy the greatest coverage in terms of protected areas of the World Conservation Union's Protected-Area Categories I-V (Graham et al., 2009). Sachedina and Nelson (2010) note that in most African countries rural communities surrounding protected areas are likely to experience poverty rates higher than the national average. Amidst these realities, the policy switch towards people-centred conservation in Africa has promised to alleviate poverty, not only by contributing to local economic growth, but also more directly by creating employment opportunities for local people and, in some cases, providing increased access to resources within the protected area. It must, however, also be emphasised that the additional flows of income to households via community conservation initiatives in most cases is not of sufficient magnitude to make fundamental contributions to the eradication of poverty (Breen, 2013).

Sachedina and Nelson (2010) explain that although there might be a few cases where the economic benefits derived from a protected area could form an element of a poverty-reduction strategy, the magnitude, benefits and impacts of these programmes are, however, too small to claim that they could become the cornerstone of a comprehensive poverty alleviation programme, no matter how favourable the circumstances. At best, such programmes can hardly be more than a welcome supplement to the livelihoods of the poor, which means that such programmes should be seen as no more than additions to the more formal and existing human development programmes (Satterthwaite et al., 2013). The size of a population (neighbouring community) living around a protected area is an important factor that determines the ability of any conservation outreach initiative to contribute to the well-being of the community (Ferraro et al., 2011). In the case of a relatively small population that is reliant on the opportunities in a protected area, such opportunities and outreach initiatives could indeed make a significant contribution to poverty eradication. What this means is that the capacity of a protected area to function as a poverty-reduction tool strongly correlates with the size of the neighbouring community that stands to benefit from such opportunities: the smaller the target population or the number of potential beneficiaries, the greater the outreach impact of the protected area is likely to be, and vice versa (Foerster et al., 2011). In the face of significant population pressure, however, any attempt to promote a protected area as a vehicle for poverty alleviation will simply not be feasible (Ferraro et al., 2011).

Strategies that aim to reduce poverty, and that are initially successful may later run into problems if, for instance, they create such expectations as to encourage increased human migration to the protected area. If not managed with care, increased population pressure on the available opportunities may threaten to turn a potential “win-win” situation into a “lose-lose” one (Nzama, 2010). Even successful examples of the mutually beneficiary relationship between biodiversity conservation and poverty reduction have their limitations and cannot necessarily be duplicated as blueprint models (Zapata et al., 2011). Furthermore, Mora and Sale (2011) argue that the most important socio-economic role of protected areas is fulfilled through benefits that are not narrowly interpreted in financial terms. If poverty is indeed understood and recognised as a multi-dimensional reality, then a protected area’s contribution to poverty alleviation should not be confined to the financial aspects of poverty only, but should also allow for a broader social and economic scope (DEA, 2009). This perception of poverty reduction is clearly manifested in the South African approach of channelling conservation benefits to neighbouring communities (McConnachie et al., 2013).

2.11.4 South African Approaches to Conservation

Housing an estimated 10% of Earth’s diversity of plants and animals, South Africa is considered the world’s third richest country (following Indonesia and Brazil) in terms of biodiversity (McGeoch et al., 2011). Of all the vascular plant species found in South Africa, some 80% occur nowhere else on the planet (Pelsers and Redelinghuys, 2009). Notwithstanding this wealth in biodiversity, a series of factors such as population pressure, land degradation, overconsumption of resources, pollution and the expansion of agricultural land and urban settlements have interlocked to both cause and propel the destruction of natural habitats at an alarming rate (Bullock et al., 2011). Strengthening the existing network of protected areas in the country therefore implies not only an improvement in terms of management effectiveness; it also requires that the protected area estate be expanded (Department of Environmental Affairs - DEA, 2009). To this end, a National Protected Areas Expansion Strategy (NPAES) was tabled in 2008, its aim being to expand the current 6.2% of land area under conservation to 12% in order adequately to cover a representative sample of national biodiversity (DEA, 2009). The target of 12% will meet the 10% international target for terrestrial biodiversity cover (DEA, 2009).

Following the example set by international practice, the official approach to conservation in South Africa had also traditionally been a protectionist ideology, that is, one of excluding local people from management decisions and restricting the utilisation of biodiversity (Ikpa et

al., 2009). Emerging in the late 1930s, this management style would form the basis of conservation policy in South Africa for some decades to come (Ikpa et al., 2009). Firmly embedded in the broader philosophy of apartheid that demonstrated disrespect for basic human rights, this conservation approach often resulted in forced removals of communities, social conflict, hostility towards conservation, increased levels of poverty and even further environmental degradation (Schmidt-Soltau, 2009). With the dawn of the new political dispensation, EKZNW (as the official conservation authority in KwaZulu-Natal) gradually transformed from an institution of protectionist conservation to one embracing a community-oriented model that attempts to reconcile the conservation of biodiversity with the challenges of human needs and socio-economic development (EKZNW, 2011).

EKZNW post-1994 approach to conservation centres around linking conservation with economic development and human needs, that is, on the inclusion of neighbouring communities rather than on the exclusion of the local population in its conservation practices. Unlike its predecessor (Natal Parks Board), this conception of conservation is imbedded in a philosophy that embraces the principle of a harmonious relationship between Parks and their neighbouring communities (EKZNW, 2011). It further subscribes to the belief that the protection of biodiversity should be linked to human benefits and, if possible, the sustainable utilisation of resources (EKZNW, 2011). Essentially, this entails various initiatives aimed at improving the quality of life of neighbouring communities through options such as environmental education, recreational opportunities and the unlocking of economic opportunities (EKZNW, 2011). This change in conservation philosophy has been supported and enabled by changes in the legal and policy frameworks of environmental conservation in the country (DAE, 2009). The National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act (Act No 57 of 2003 as amended in 2006), for instance, provides the legal framework for the People and Parks Programme of EKZNW (DEA, 2009).

2.11.5 The People and Parks Programme of EKZNW

The People and Parks Programme of Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife originated from the World Parks Congress held in Durban in 2003 (Pelser et al., 2011a). Various significant themes began from this conference. The “benefits beyond boundaries” theme, for instance, stressed the significance of providing socio-economic benefits to adjacent communities (DEA, 2009). The interdependence of communities and conservation was accepted, and the conference confirmed that protected areas can and should contribute towards the alleviation of poverty (DEA 2009). The Congress further emphasised the significant role of protected

areas in sustainable development and of the conservation of biodiversity and the mitigation of poverty amongst neighbouring communities. The People and Parks Programme should be perceived as a direct response to these apprehensions, and symbolises the South African Government's efforts to address land reform, rural development and conservation in a harmonised and holistic fashion (Stevens, 2014).

The main objectives of these environmentally oriented programmes (such as the working for water, working for ecosystems and others.) are improved biodiversity through the clearing of alien plant species and rehabilitation of penetrated wetlands and other areas, the building of conservation-related infrastructure (roads, rest camps, fences, etc.) and the facilitation of the development of small and medium enterprises within the neighbouring communities (McConnachie et al., 2013). Depending on a specific situation, a total of 2 000 - 8 000 people are employed annually by the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP) nationwide (DEA, 2009; Pelsler et al., 2011b). The EPWP is a government initiative to alleviate poverty by encouraging labour-intensive activities and by providing provisional employment opportunities, particularly by targeting disadvantaged communities and susceptible sectors within these communities (DEA, 2009). There are four programmes precisely devoted to job-creation opportunities in the environmental sector, that is, People and Parks (focusing on infrastructure), Working for Wetlands (wetland rehabilitation), Working for Water (alien vegetation removal) and Working on Fire (fire control and prevention) (McConnachie et al., 2013). As shown in the next section, these programmes exemplify HiP efforts to contribute to the alleviation of poverty in communities adjacent to the Park.

2.12 Challenges of Ecotourism Development

The effectiveness of using ecotourism as a means for sustainable conservation and community development is still ambiguous, and this apprehension is emerging amongst tourism scholars and experts (Mearns, 2011). The level of success or effects of ecotourism is varying depending on many factors, many of which are unknown as challenges of ecotourism (Moscardo, 2008). Ecotourism, as it is grounded or extended, is not really devolved or community-oriented but is suppressed by the conservation or developmental agenda according to who initiates it and leads its management and implementation (Sebola et al., 2013). Linkie et al. (2008) argue that ecotourism has been imposed by responsible NGOs to be developed on community-based level as they need to follow the "greening of aid", which inspire them to play more roles in spreading participatory development and environmental governance. These NGOs are fund-oriented and the outcomes of their community-based

ecotourism (CBET) projects have to fulfil the agendas of donors who support them rather than to address the exact needs of communities (Manwa and Manwa, 2014). Furthermore, Bandyopadhyay and Wall (2006) noted that the donor agencies include funding for conservation activities and capacity building in the development aid packages. Both technical and financial aids are given to ensure that CBET project is small-scale and devoid of mistakes caused by mass tourism (Bandyopadhyay and Wall, 2006). However, many programmes run by NGOs have short mandates and are fund-dependent (Marzano and Scott, 2009), and they normally make CBET project collapsed when the communities, whose capabilities (money, knowledge and skills) are seen inadequate to continue after the programmes terminated (Linkie et al., 2008).

The rationale that communities are a homogenous group and that they have a single voice is another challenge of ecotourism development. Several ecotourism projects have failed to address the structural disparity within communities that impacts local participation in planning and implementation (Lyon, 2013). In their roles as supporters of the local resource management regime, ecotourism co-ordinators, especially NGOs often collaborate with a small legitimised group which work on behalf of the community constituting the entities and interests they claim to represent (Cater, 2006). The failure to grasp the multifaceted nature of community means ecotourism paradigms assume communal interests and consensus on the desired outcomes from tourism and conservation enterprises (Carlisle et al., 2013).

The right of communities to partake in the management and implementation of ecotourism is also considered as a challenge. Cater (2006) argues that the conservationists policies to protect and promote an area to be an attraction of nationality and globally environmental importance could enforce ecotourism developers and planners to eliminate local people from accessing its resources. The absence of local participation would lead to inappropriate patterns of the management and use of territory and resources to the hand of outsiders who have limited knowledge about local land-use practices (Linkie et al., 2008). In addition, it would also lead to conflict over resource access and consumption as well as commodification of local natural and cultural resources (Wearing and Neil, 2009). The transformation of natural area and its resources, which provide use values for subsistence livelihoods into tourism products, affect the relationship between the locals and nature.

2.13 Conclusion

Tourism as an activity brings about both positive and negative impacts to the host population. The focus in this study is on the economic and social impacts. The positive economic impacts include job creation, income generation, and entrepreneurial activity and multiplier effects. There are, however, some notable examples of negative impacts which include economic leakage, inflation in prices of land/goods and services as well as foreign dominance and overdependence on tourism. Since there is a complex relationship between tourism development, nature conservation and the needs of local people living in close proximity to protected areas, it is difficult to differentiate between the positive and negative aspects of accessibility to natural resources. Most studies, however, show that local people are denied access to natural resources and are expected to put up with problematic animals from the protected areas. On the other hand, through ecotourism, there are cases where a positive link between the nature conservationists and the upliftment of the local communities is realised.

Most studies on social impacts of tourism tend to emphasise its negative effects on the host communities. These effects include the demonstration effect, neo-colonialism, health, prostitution, crime, gambling and religion. There is evidence, however, from countries such as Thailand and Columbia that tourism may not always be destructive. Instead, it can help to improve health as well as leisure since the local people may interact with tourists and learn and appreciate other societies.

CHAPTER THREE

STUDY AREA DESCRIPTION AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the description of the study area and the methodology used for the study. The major focus is on the historical background, reasons for the selection of the study area, location and size, topography, drainage, climatic conditions, soils, flora and fauna, land use, as well as tourist facilities and activities. In the methodology section attention is given to the sampling technique, data categories, sample size, procedure in the field, data collection, data description and limitations of the study.

3.2 Description of the Study Area

3.2.1 The Historical Background of the (HiP) and the Nompondo Community

A number of studies that have been conducted that suggest that there is evidence of human settlement about 1500 years ago in some parts of the HiP (Brooks, 2005). For example, whereas Watson (1995) noted that humans occupied the area as far back as pre-historic times, Brooks (2000) stated that there is evidence of Stone and Middle Age cultures as depicted from several rock art sites, as well as extensive settlement by Iron Age people which are indicative of iron smelting and metal working activities. The area was later occupied by members of the Mthethwa clan under the leadership of King Dingiswayo until 1818 (Cryer, 2010). King Shaka succeeded the throne and during his reign (1818-1828) he conducted one of the biggest hunts in the history of Zululand between the White and Black Umfolozi River near their junction at Siyembeni (van Schalkwyk, 2013). There is a record that King Shaka had a private hunting ground located between the two rivers. In fact, the remains of hunting pits are still visible near the confluence. The western part of Umfolozi and the higher-lying Corridor were populated up to the time of the Anglo-Zulu War in 1879 (EKZNW, 2011). There is also evidence of inter-tribal conflicts as well as periods when the area was not occupied. The lower-lying areas were not suitable for human occupation due to malaria and the presence of tsetse flies (EKZNW, 2011).

The former Hluhluwe and Umfolozi Game Reserves (HGR and UGR) were proclaimed as protected areas in 1895 because some conservationists were concerned about the reduction of game animals in Zululand due to hunting (Adeleke and Nzama, 2013a). In fact, the particular

concern was that of the near extinction of the white rhinoceros. After the proclamation, the Zulu Land Game Conservator, who was stationed at Nongoma, was put in charge of controlling the two reserves (EKZNW, 2011). This was followed by successive proclamations and temporary deproclamations of the Hluhluwe Umfolozi Park (HUP) (this was the old name of the HiP) components, which specifically affected the Umfolozi Game Reserve (UGR) (Pooley and Player, 1995).

Firstly, the neighbouring farmers appealed to the Natal Provincial Administration to deproclaim a portion of the reserve due to the nagana outbreak (Pooley and Player, 1995). The nagana disease, sheltered by game and transmitted by tsetse flies, was causing massive livestock losses in the area. The farmers succeeded and the entire area adjacent to the reserve was opened up in 1916 (EKZNW, 2011). Two years later, the nearby Ntambanana settlement was opened up for soldiers who had returned from the First World War and any game wondering up to 20kilometres from the unfenced reserve was shot (EKZNW, 2011).

Apart from pressures from farmers and hunters, the UGR was also affected by the efforts of eradicating tsetse flies. In fact, attempts were made during separate campaigns that were conducted between 1920 and 1952 to get rid of all the game in the reserve except the rhinos, until successful eradication of the tsetse flies was achieved (EKZNW, 2011). Unfortunately, the issue of tsetse fly eradication resulted into the displacement of people and cattle that were occupying the Corridor area, which was finally proclaimed, as a protected area in 1989 (EKZNW, 2011).

Due to further nagana outbreaks, the Provincial Administration was forced to hand over the reserve to the Department of Veterinary Services in 1932. In fact, between 1932 and 1939 the reserve was actually deproclaimed. Another deproclamation occurred between 1945 and 1947. The UGR was then proclaimed and managed by the veterinary authorities until 1952 (EKZNW, 2011). After the 1952 reproclamation, the Veterinary Department handed over the UGR control to the newly established former NPB established in 1947 (EKZNW, 2011). The establishment of the Umfolozi Wilderness Area (Africa's first wilderness area) in the region during 1957 and 1958 was also a significant factor (EKZNW, 2011). On March 19, 1959 the first wilderness trail took place under the command of Magqubu Ntombela (the senior game guard) and Ian Player (the first NPB ranger) (Pooley and Player, 1995).

Despite the total proclamation, the UGR experienced a series of problems during the years that followed. The reserve was invaded by well-armed poachers especially that there were

very few rangers and game guards at the time. The absence of a fence around the reserve also contributed to large numbers of poachers flocking into the reserve (EKZNW, 2011). In addition to the poachers, there were squatters who moved into certain areas of the reserve and in the absence of a fence it was not easy to stop them. However, the erection of fences plus diplomatic negotiations between the former NPB staff and local chiefs gradually resolved the problems to a reasonable extent (EKZNW, 2011). The fencing of a sufficient area of the reserve meant the re-introduction of game species such as lion, cheetah, giraffe and elephant (EKZNW, 2011). At present HiP is, therefore, made up of the following distinct protected areas proclaimed in terms of the KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Services (KZNNCS) Management Act (Act No. 9 of 1997): the HGR and UGR originally proclaimed in 1895 and the state-owned Corridor area originally proclaimed in 1989 (EKZNW, 2011).

3.2.2 Reasons for Selection of the Study Area

The HiP and the neighbouring Nompondo community were chosen for study due to a number of reasons. Firstly, these communities (adjacent to HiP) are characterised by a relatively high population density, poverty, unemployment and also by increasing degraded subsistence agricultural land around the Park (Knight et al., 2006). These communities perceive a great need for land and other natural resources within the Park, so this facilitated the study in order to examine these perceptions and needs. Secondly, there has been a long history of difficult relations and conflict between poor communities residing adjacent to the HiP and the former NPB, the Conservation Authority in the former Natal Province (Du Plessis, 2000). The conservation management, therefore, faces the challenge of protecting the unique biodiversity resources and at the same time has to ensure the provision of tangible benefits to the various stakeholders such as tourists, conservationists and the local communities in particular. Thirdly, the HiP is a popular tourist destination and is regarded as the foremost wildlife attraction in KZN (Adeleke and Nzama, 2013). This is attributed to its high diversity in terms of landscapes, fauna and flora. Its favourable weather conditions, is yet another contributing factor. The warm Mozambique current keeps the area warm even during winter, thus making the Park accessible all year round. HiP receives tourists on a regular basis and therefore is a relevant case study to address the set objectives.

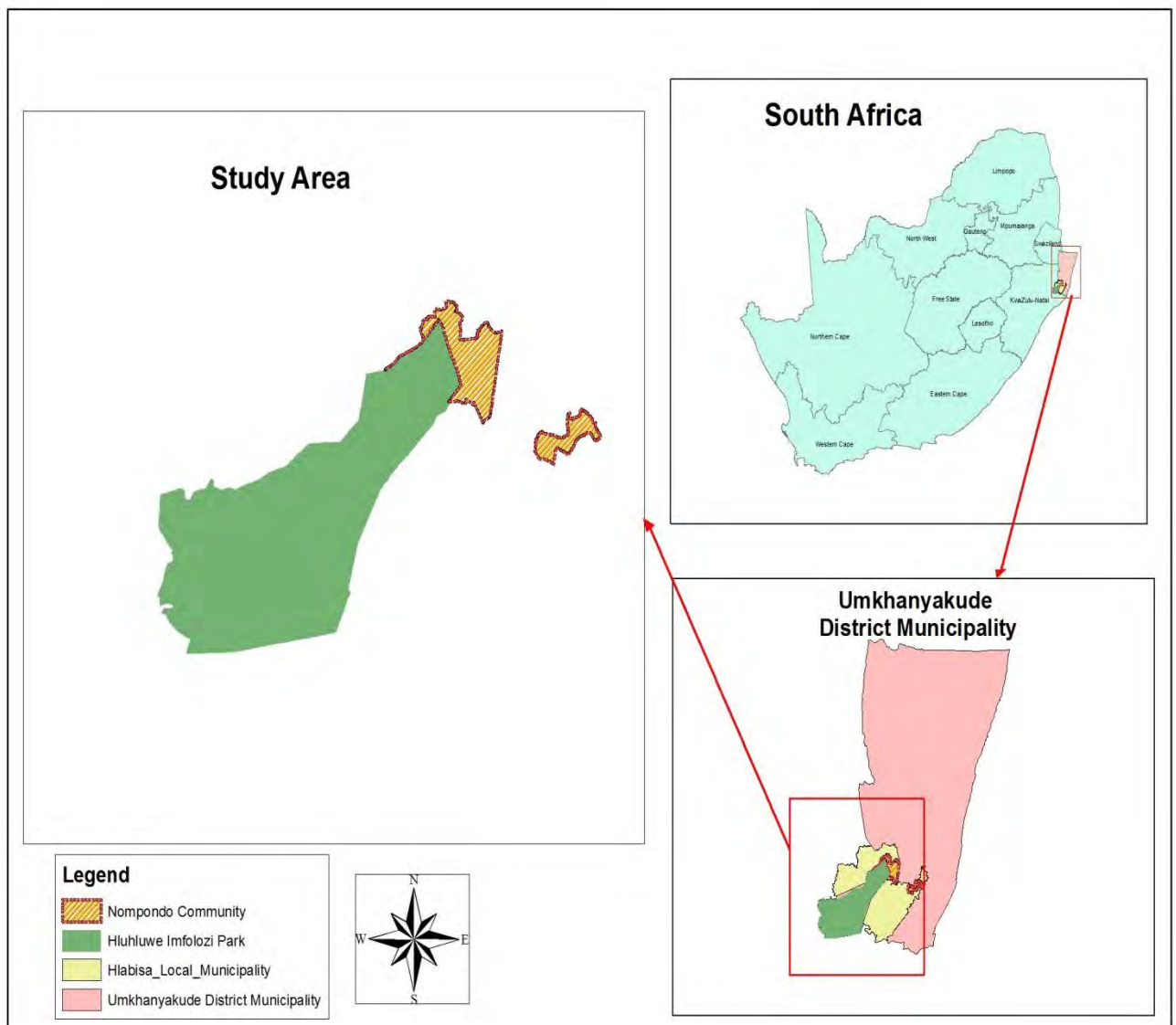
3.2.3 Location and Size of the Study Area

The HiP is located in South Africa in the north-eastern part of KwaZulu-Natal between 28° 00' S 31 ° 42' E and 28° 26' S 32° 09'. It is approximately 60 km from the sea and 270 km

from Durban. It can be easily accessed from the north via the Hluhluwe town, from the south via Mtubatuba and from the west through Ulundi. It is surrounded by ten Tribal Authorities (TAs), namely, Mdletshe, Hlabisa- eMpembeni, Hlabisa- abakwaHlabisa, Mandlakazi, Zungu, Ximba, Obuka, Somopo, Mhlana and Mpukunyoni. The HiP covers an area of approximately 96 453 hectares. A perimeter fence encloses the entire complex as a unit and a tar road links the Hluhluwe and iMfolozi Sections through the corridor section (EKZNW, 2011). Figure 3.1 below indicate the location of the HiP and the Nompondo community in relation to the UMkhanyakude District Municipality and the Hlabisa Local Municipality in northern KZN.

The Nompondo community is approximately 250 km from Durban. It falls under the Mdletsheni tribal area in the Hlabisa Local Municipality, which is located in one of the world's richest and most diverse tourism areas. According to the Hlabisa Municipal Integrated Development Plan Review (2005/06), Hlabisa Municipality has a great tourism potential because of its close proximity to ecotourism destination (HiP, Isimangaliso Wetland Park (ISWP) (Shabalala Consulting, undated). Hlabisa Municipality is completely rural, so some of its problems are lack of infrastructure and basic services, distance from major employment centres, and inadequate transport networks (Lehohla, 2012). Although the tourism sector offers economic opportunities for the area, these have yet to be fully exploited. According to Shabalala Consulting (undated), the tourism potential must be unlocked so that local communities can also benefit from the tourism industry.

Figure 3. 1: Study Area Map: Nompondo Community and the HiP



Source: Produced from ArcGIS

3.2.4 Topography of the HiP

The HiP consists mostly of hilly, undulating landscape, dissected by a number of deeply incised watercourses and wide, deep river valleys (EKZNW, 2011). It lies within an altitude range of 60 metres in the riverbeds to 650 metres in the western hills (Dumalisile, 2008). Its highest point is situated in the north of Hluhluwe section.

3.2.5 Drainage system of the HiP

HiP is trisected by three main watercourses, the White iMfolozi River, the Black iMfolozi River and the Hluhluwe River with its main tributaries the Mansiya, the Manzibomvu and the Nzimane Rivers. The White iMfolozi River, with its source near to the town of Vryheid, has

the largest catchment and flows through iMfolozi Game Reserve (iGR) in a predominantly west-east direction. The Black iMfolozi River has its origins east of Vryheid and flows through iGR from north-west to south-east (EKZNW, 2011). The confluence of the two rivers is at Siyembeni on the eastern boundary of iGR after which the river is known as the iMfolozi River. The ecological status of this river is moderately to largely modified (EKZNW, 2011). The substantial flood plain of this river system is of considerable importance for fish conservation, as it contains a number of large pans, which are linked to the river in times of flood (EKZNW, 2011).

The Hluhluwe River has its origins to the west of the Park in the hills surrounding Hlabisa (EKZNW, 2011). It flows from here in a largely north-east direction to Maphumulo, the point where it exits the reserve and enters the Hluhluwe Dam. When the dam is full, the headwaters back up into HGR. From the Hluhluwe Dam the river drains into False Bay of Lake St Lucia. The ecological status of this river is moderately to largely modified (EKZNW, 2011). The catchments of two rivers, the Nyalazi River in iGR and the Manzamnyama in Hluhluwe Game Reserve (HGR) are wholly contained within the Park and as such are not impacted by upstream land uses other than conducted by Park management (EKZNW, 2011). The Nyalazi River is entirely contained in quaternary sub-catchment (EKZNW, 2011).

Most of the smaller rivers and streams in the Park, including the Nyalazi and the Manzamnyama River are non-perennial and only the three main rivers generally have water throughout the year. The status of most of these rivers has declined significantly in the stretches above and below the Park, due to human-induced environmental degradation (EKZNW, 2011). According to Kleynhans (1996; 1999), the ecological status of all the rivers in the Park (are generally significantly below satisfactory, to the detriment of the ecological integrity as well as dependent aquatic biodiversity. Both water quality and regularity of flow have deteriorated significantly in recent years, as a result of the non-sustainable land uses and increased abstraction upstream of the Park (Dumalisile, 2008). Permanent water bodies are represented by numerous seasonal and permanent pans distributed throughout the Park such as the eMgqizweni and Dlabé Pans south of the White iMfolozi (in iGR) and Hidli Vlei (in HGR) (EKZNW, 2011). Some of these pans are fairly large and will only dry out after an extended dry season while others are only a few metres across. There are also a number of small perennial springs and seepage lines in HiP (EKZNW, 2011).

3.2.6 Climatic Conditions of the HiP

HiP has a coastally modified climate with much of the variability in local weather being related to topography. Annual rainfall is strongly seasonal with most rain falling between October and March (EKZNW, 2011). At the longer time scale there is evidence for an 18-year cycle of wet and dry years: nine wet years followed by nine dry years (EKZNW, 2011). The probability of an above or below average rainfall year being followed by another above or below average rainfall year is close to 50%, implying that it is not possible to predict the rainfall from one year to the next (EKZNW, 2011). Within the Park the mean annual rainfall ranges from 985 mm in the high altitude regions in the north to 650 mm in the low-lying western areas (EKZNW, 2011). The coefficient of variation for long-term data for Egodeni (HGR) is 27%, while for Mpila (iGR) it is greater at 34% (EKZNW, 2011).

Annual temperatures range from ± 13 °C to ± 35 °C and are also strongly influenced by altitude (EKZNW, 2011). Frosts are rare and hail storms occur one to three times per year. Thunderstorms are a common feature of the summer rainfall season and lightning strikes occur in densities of approximately five ground-flashes per square kilometre per year (EKZNW, 2011). These strikes were probably the main source of ignition of fire in the region before significant human habitation occurred (EKZNW, 2011). The prevailing winds, which are generally light to moderate, blow in both directions aligned along a general north-south axis (EKZNW, 2011). The influence of the coast is felt through north-easterly to easterly winds which bring moisture laden air and mists in the summer season, while drier westerly winds are experienced during winter (EKZNW, 2011). The southerly winds are the main rain-bearing winds (EKZNW, 2011). The autumn and winter winds tend to be dry and have a strong evaporative effect on the vegetation, particularly on the herbaceous grass layer, and enhance its general flammability from June onwards (EKZNW, 2011).

3.2.7 Soils of the HiP

Upland soils tend to be shallow and have a low moisture storage capacity. In contrast, the bottomland soils are deeper, less stony and favourably fertile, though highly erodible (EKZNW, 2011). Deep unconsolidated alluvial soils, which are unstable and easily erodible, are common in the major river valleys (EKZNW, 2011).

3.2.8 Flora and Fauna of the HiP

The HiP lies within an area which contains elements of both tropical and temperate flora and fauna. In terms of flora, the HiP is typical of the Savannah biome of Southern Africa and this

structure is influenced by two principal factors, namely, rainfall and soils (EKZNW, 2011). The two principal vegetation types include the Zululand thornveld, which covers a third of the Park and the lowveld covering the remaining two thirds (EKZNW, 2011). The HiP has average species richness compared to other biomes in Southern Africa and above all, it contains a number of threatened or endemic species (EKZNW, 2011). The principal plant communities include riverine forests, woodland, thicket, induced thicket and grasslands (EKZNW, 2011). The Hluhluwe section is characterised by closed forest communities and ridge top grass lands, which occupy the higher altitudes, woodlands, lowland forests and wetlands in the valleys while open acacia woodlands dominate much of the iMfolozi section (EKZNW, 2011).

Approximately 59% of the recorded vertebrates (excluding fish) and 67% of the recorded species of birds in KwaZulu-Natal are known to exist in HiP (Wakeling et al., 2011). The HiP is the home for the African mega herbivores, the big five, all the large carnivores and a full spectrum of raptors (EKZNW, 2011). The significant components, however, are some of the species (notably the black and white rhinoceros, wild dogs, cheetahs, crocodiles, bateleur eagle and ground hornbills), which are or have been threatened with extinction (O'Kane et al., 2013). There is, however, little information available on invertebrates and this may require further investigation. The Park is also known as the original source of many species that have been re-established in other parts of the province and beyond South Africa's borders (EKZNW, 2011). This successful protection and translocation of large herbivores has therefore established the HiP's international reputation and are fundamental factors attracting the interests of tourists (EKZNW, 2011). For example, by 1988 more than 3 300 white rhinos were successfully translocated to other game reserves and zoos all around the world (Preston-Whyte et al., 2005). Furthermore, since black rhino populations all over Africa are pressurised by poachers, the management has tirelessly worked towards the distribution of these animals to other places in order to ensure their survival (EKZNW, 2011).

3.2.9 Land Use within the HiP

To the east of the HiP, the land use is characterised by extensive agricultural, commercial, industrial and infrastructural development (EKZNW, 2011). However, as you move closer to the HiP and to its west, land use practices are more traditional consisting of rural residential and subsistence agriculture on communal land (EKZNW, 2011). The areas in the former homeland of KwaZulu have mainly remained undeveloped when compared to the commercial farms in the former Natal province (EKZNW, 2011).

3.2.10 Vegetation of the HiP

HiP falls in the savannah biome of Southern Africa (Rutherford and Westfall, 1986), in the southern extremity of the Maputaland-Pondoland Region Biodiversity Hotspot. The vegetation of HiP may in some respects be considered to be atypical with respect to the bulk of savannah vegetation as it occupies a narrow strip along the coastal margin (EKZNW, 2011). Of the total area of savannah found within protected areas in KwaZulu-Natal, 60% is contained within the Park. In HiP there are \pm 300 tree and \pm 150 grass species (EKZNW, 2011).

There are a number of distinct communities in the Park including fire-driven communities, herbivore-driven communities and climate-driven communities (Harrison, 2010). The fire maintained, open grassland is found on the ridge tops in HGR (EKZNW, 2011). The transition zone between this and the savannah grasslands, which are being encroached by Acacias and *Dichrostachys cinerea*, is very abrupt (EKZNW, 2011). The moist hilltops and gullies in the north also contain scarp forest (EKZNW, 2011). A large percentage of the Park comprises savannah, which ranges from open fire-maintained grasslands through open woodlands to densely encroaching woodlands, thicket and closed woodlands as well as grazing lawns maintained by white rhino (EKZNW, 2011). Most of the streams are fringed by riverine woodlands except for the two iMfolozi Rivers where the gallery fig forests dominated by *Ficus sycamorus* were removed by the Cyclone Domoina floods in 1984 (EKZNW, 2011). There is, however, evidence of recruitment of substantial numbers of riparian plant species (Wakeling et al., 2011).

The HiP with its historical background, biophysical features as well as tourist facilities and activities appears to be a popular tourist destination area (Harrison, 2010). With the exception of the children's environmental education camps, the rest of the facilities and activities seem to cater for international tourists and wealthy domestic tourists and not the local communities residing in close proximity to the HiP (Pinchuck et al., 2012). Although the local communities are provided with curio stalls at Nyalazi and Memorial Gates to market their products, there is a need for HiP management in partnership with the local communities to devise ways of promoting nature conservation, tourism as well as the upliftment of neighbouring communities (EKZNW, 2011).

3.3 METHODOLOGY

This section describes the various processes used to carry out the study in the Nompondo community adjacent to HiP. The manner in which the research was conducted is explained in detail next.

3.3.1 The Sampling Frame

Individual households were selected as the basic sample unit from the Nompondo community, which lies to the east of the HiP. The Nompondo community was selected as the area of study because of its close proximity to HiP as compared to the other nine communities. In addition, the community has identified and recognised the potential for community-based ecotourism and has developed a high level of trust with HiP management through community conservation department and regards it as a reliable partner in community development. This community therefore, serves as a model for the other communities. The time and funds available to carry out the survey dictated the sample size to be drawn and a maximum limit of 130 households was set. Though a larger sample size is preferred to reduce sampling errors and to increase the likelihood that the sample is representative of the population, this was not possible in this study. For the best results, respondents were selected from each of the 6 sub-wards (Ngqumela, Dakaneni, Mgodla, Ncemané, kwaNtshangase and Dulikhulu) that make up the Nompondo community. There was approximately 435 households in the Nompondo community, so every third household was sampled. The criterion used was that the respondent had to be an adult member (>18 years) from each household.

3.3.2 Research Techniques/methods

The data categories included both primary and secondary data sources. The primary data sources were personal observations, questionnaires and interviews with key respondents from the Nompondo community, and EKZNW (HiP and Community Conservation Section). Secondary data sources included maps, official reports, policy documents, publications, research papers, Integrated Management Plan (IMP) of the HiP, Integrated Development Plan of Hlabisa Local Municipality and newspapers. From these sources data was gathered on the socio-economic characteristics and needs of the Nompondo community in relation to the Park as well as the tourists who come to visit in the Park. In addition, questions related to the spatial interactions between the community and the HiP were also posed. Spatial interactions are measured by using levels of labour and income flows, social movements and flow of natural resources within the HiP and conservation-related information.

3.3.3 Sample Size

The data in this study were gathered from two sources: the Nompondo community members using the systematic sampling method and HiP management. From the Nompondo community one adult (> 18years) was selected where every third household was interviewed until the required number (130) of households was completed. The first case was selected randomly, and then using a particular interval (third household) for subsequent cases. The choice of respondents from the HiP management was purposive. Two officials from the Community Conservation Section were selected because they are directly involved with the communities. The Conservation manager (Hluhluwe Section) and the Regional Ecologist in charge of the HiP Research Centre were chosen as key informants. The remaining respondents were selected because they are HiP employees who reside in the communities bordering the HiP.

3.3.4 Procedure in the Field

The community in which the study was to be carried out was selected after a preliminary interviews and consultation with the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator. An introduction to the Chief of the relevant Tribal Authority was made. The Chief with his *izinduna* (headmen) and Councillors met with the researcher. The nature of the survey was explained and permission to carry out the research was requested. The questionnaire was also presented to the same forum and the questions were discussed. Questions that required further clarification were dealt with accordingly. The Chief requested his *Izinduna* and Councillors to inform the people living within their jurisdictions about the survey.

3.3.5 Data Collection

Triangulation (a multi-method approach) was used to collect the data. The methods used included questionnaires and interviews. The key respondents were selected from the Nompondo community and EKZNW (HiP and the Community Conservation Section).

The questionnaire survey constituted the main source of data for the study. A series of questions were designed to obtain information on the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism in the Nompondo community. In accordance with the generally accepted format suggested by Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2007), biographical questions were used to open the questionnaire and then followed with the more complex questions dealing with the key issues to be addressed. A researcher together with trained fieldworkers explained the questionnaire to respondents in isiZulu before distribution.

Open-ended and close-ended questions were used. Open-ended questions were used to obtain unsolicited responses and this enabled the respondents to give their own opinions thus helping the researcher to draw out information from the respondents (Pallant, 2010). On the other hand, closed questions (questions in which the responses were restricted to "Yes/No" or "Good/Bad") were used to gather information about the respondent's attitudes towards or knowledge of specific issues which the researcher thought might be important. These questions provided easily interpretable information to be collected on a wide range of issues.

The sample frame was the resident households of the Nompondo community. Since most of the respondents were unable to read and write, the researcher and the trained field workers read the questions to them in isiZulu and recorded the answers in English. There were few individuals who requested clarification on certain issues in the questionnaire, so verbal explanations had to be provided. For the respondents who were able to read and write, the questionnaires were distributed (91 questionnaires) from door to door and the respondents were given time to complete them in the presence of the researcher and trained field assistants.

Key informant interviews were also conducted with the community tribal leaders and committee members as well as HiP management. The purpose of the interviews was to obtain clarity on certain issues related to the interaction between the HiP management and the Nompondo community members. The key informant interviews also sought clarification on the role of the HiP in community development, the number of HiP employees from the community as well as the attitudes and levels of interaction between the local community and tourists.

Direct observations and informal interactions also played a vital role in data collection, particularly with regard to the qualitative assessment of the community and physical set up of the study area. This was achieved through a series of visits to the Nompondo community as well as the HiP.

3.3.5.1 Survey Questionnaires as Data Collection Method

The researcher used survey questionnaires as one of the data collection methods. The advantage of questionnaires is that they provide data economically and a very large sample can respond to a questionnaire (Cohen et al., 2007). Questionnaires are very cost-effective and are easy to analyse. Data entry and tabulation for nearly all surveys can be easily done with many computer software packages. Questionnaires are familiar and user-friendly to most

people. Nearly everyone has had some experience completing questionnaires and they generally do not make people apprehensive. Questionnaires reduce bias because there is uniform question presentation and no middle-man bias (Cohen et al., 2007).

However, Cohen et al. (2007) further provide the disadvantages of using questionnaires. Some of the disadvantages, according to Cohen et al. (2007), are that questionnaires often show too low a percentage of returns. Questionnaires also do not allow for 'thick' or a deep understanding of the subject matter (Cohen et al., (2007), therefore, I relied on both methodologies (qualitative and quantitative) in conducting this research. On the basis of their responses, the results from the 130 questionnaires were inputted in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) for analysis version number 21.

3.3.6 Data Analysis

Data was presented in tables and bar graphs form to allow easy description and interpretation. Some of the techniques employed included pie charts.

3.3.7 Validity of the Study

The researcher used a combination of different methodological techniques in order to confirm the validity of the study. A protocol of data collection was developed using multiple data collection methods. Triangulation of evidence strengthened the research thereby enhancing trustworthiness. The use of different methods of data collection helped in revealing the different perspectives of the participants involved in the research inquiry. The participants were requested to justify and explain their responses to certain questions that required more understanding and further clarity. All questions for the interviews and survey questionnaires were designed in such a way that it would be easy for participants to respond. To further ensure trustworthiness in my research, the researcher took data transcriptions back to the participants for them to verify the accuracy and trustworthiness of all data collected during the interviews.

Best and Kahn (1989: 160) contend that "validity is that quality of data gathering instrument or procedure that enables it to measure what it is supposed to measure". In qualitative research, validity might be achieved "through the honesty, depth, richness and scope of the data, the range of participants approach the extent of triangulation and the objectivity disinterestedness of the researcher" (Castro et al., 2010). In qualitative research, validity of an instrument refers to whether an instrument of data collection gets the data relevant to the research questions posed (Guion et al., 2011). The researcher ensured that this research is

high on validity by using triangulation to collect data. Triangulation is the “use of multiple forms of data, and multiple methods of data analysis to enhance validity” (Guion et al., 2011: 147). Furthermore, Guion et al. (2011) contend that the most practical way of achieving greater validity is to minimise the amount of bias as much as possible. I used a combination of different methodological techniques in order to confirm the validity of my data. Triangulation of evidence strengthens the research thereby enhancing trustworthiness. Yin (2009) provides the assertion that external validity could be achieved from theoretical relationships and from these generalisations could be made. It is the development of a formal case study protocol that provides the validity that is required of all research.

3.4 Limitations of the Study

Some of the respondents were not prepared to provide the required information. For example, some respondents wanted to know why researchers always frequent their community while others insisted that a report should be compiled and presented to them by the researcher. Furthermore, there were respondents who made it clear that they could only participate if the researcher assured them that there were benefits to be accrued at the end of the survey. They based their argument on the fact that previous researchers had not fulfilled their promises. The main limitation of this study is its focus on one community, given the fact that HiP has 10 communities surrounding it. However, given the gap in the literature, the researcher felt justified in claiming that the study makes a valuable contribution.

3.5 Conclusion

The main focus of this chapter was to discuss the study area, research design, methodology and techniques that were used for data collection during the research process. The main focus of the whole study has been discussed in detail. Furthermore, the researcher has tried to reduce subjectivity and bias in findings, but it was difficult to remove this bias completely because, as an inexperienced researcher, I acknowledge that my research might have some errors that might need attention for future research. The next chapter focuses on the presentation and discussion of the findings in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on the presentation of data based on the systematic empirical evidence collected from the Nompondo community, KwaZulu-Natal. It analyses and discusses data from respondents according to their demographic and socio-economic characteristics. It also uses research findings in the form of both qualitative and quantitative data to answer the pertinent research questions raised in chapter one.

4.2 Local community Living Adjacent to HiP

This section focuses on the level of community involvement and participation in ecotourism initiatives within the HiP. Local community perceptions that relate to key social, economic and environmental issues in the HiP are examined. The questionnaire was administered in the Nompondo community, located adjacent to HiP. DeFries et al. (2010) argue that there has been a slow but gradual change in the mind-set on how to manage protected areas. This change involves becoming more focused, less centralised and looking for better balance between conservation, social and cultural objectives (West et al., 2006). Furthermore, Mascia et al. (2010) argue that local communities living adjacent to protected areas have customary rights relating to the area, its natural resources and strong relationship with the area in one or various dimensions (which includes cultural, social, spiritual and economic) as well as strong dependency on the area for survival and identity.

Ecotourism can be seen as an alternative tool from conservation in protected areas to empower local communities and issues relating to conflict and the lack of capacity to participate in ecotourism development can be addressed by empowering the community. (Wearing and McDonald, 2002: 199) argue:

Ecotourism seems to have a widespread and global appeal in search for sustainable ways of securing an income for many rural and isolated area communities. Relatively speaking, it is not reliant on access to markets; it is not perceived as harmful to the natural environment, at least not compared to logging operations. And it is often viewed as a welcome opportunity to meet new people from foreign places. But the question remains, under what conditions can community-based tourism or

ecotourism, strike a balance between conservation and development between the old forms of knowledge and the new? The answer to this question must lie in the hands of communities themselves.

Thus, community-based approach to ecotourism development can be perceived as a process whereby individuals and their families and the community at large can holistically initiate and generate their own solutions to developing a tourism venture, building a long-term community capacity by promoting the integration of social, economic and environmental objectives (Fuller et al., 2005).

Therefore, in order to understand the level of community participation and involvement ecotourism initiatives in the HiP, the following issues were addressed in the community survey:

- Respondents' details
- Household background information
- Community and the social impacts of ecotourism
- Community and the economic impacts of ecotourism
- Community and the environmental impacts of ecotourism
- Suggestions

4.2.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

The background information of community respondents is presented in relation to their gender, age, racial classification, nationality, home language, education level, marital status, disability and occupation.

Table 4. 1: Gender of respondents

Gender	Frequency (n= 130)	Percentage
Male	47	36.2
Female	83	63.8

The results indicate that 63.8% of respondents were female as compared to 36.2% who were male (Table 4.1). When the researcher asked a few respondents to give reasons for such results, the responses were that the women are generally at home whereas men are at work either on the plantations, forests or in the urban areas such as Richards Bay, Empangeni, Durban and Johannesburg. This is in keeping with migratory patterns identified in the literature as well as the prominence of female headedness (Collinson, 2010). It therefore,

implies that there is a need to provide the people with either life skills in order to create their own jobs or the basic facilities such as health, literacy and adult education. This in the long run will improve on the quality of life as well as the living standards of rural communities. Furthermore, the questionnaires were administered in the morning when women have more time while carrying out household tasks.

Table 4. 2: Age of respondents

Age	Frequency (n= 130)	Percentage
18-25 years	14	10.8
26-35 years	43	33.1
36-45 years	38	29.2
46-55 years	24	18.5
56-65 years	11	8.5

The average age of the respondents was 38.1 years and ranged from 18 years to 65 years as shown in Table 4.2. The majority of respondents were in the 26-35 years range that made up a total of 33.1%. The 36-45 years group who made up 29.2% follows this age group closely. The least number of respondents belonged to the more than 65 years old age group (8.5%) and the less than 25 years old (10.8%). The results of the survey indicate that there was a greater response from the respondents of 26-35 years and this could be attributed to two reasons. Firstly, most of the community members of 25 years and below were absent during the survey period. The researcher learnt from the respondents that due to high unemployment rate in the area a significant proportion of younger people have relocated to urban areas in search of employment. Secondly, it is the elderly who are perceived to have most of the information and knowledge. The results, therefore, imply that there is a need to create jobs for younger generation who will remain in the community. Furthermore, it will be important to integrate the knowledge of the elders into the process of community-based ecotourism ventures.

Table 4. 3: Race, nationality and languages of respondents

Race	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
African	129	99.2
White	1	0.8
Nationality		
South African	125	96.2
Nigerian	5	3.8
Language		
English	8	6.2
IsiZulu	115	88.5
IsiXhosa	7	5.4

In terms of racial classification, the majority of the respondents in the Nompondo community were Africans (99.2%) and one White was interviewed (Table 4.3). With regard to nationality, 96.2% of the respondents were South African and only 3.8% were Nigerians. The researcher learnt from the respondents in the Nompondo community that Nigerians were working in the area as teachers and some were running small spaza shops. In terms of home language, a significant portion of the respondents in the community speak isiZulu (88.5%), English (6.2%) and isiXhosa (5.4%). The 2011 Census data also indicated the trend that is similar to this in the UMkhanyakude District Municipality, where the majority of the people are Africans and the main language that is spoken is isiZulu. This is in line with what the researcher has observed in this study.

Table 4. 4: Education level, marital status and disability status of respondents

Education	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
No education	39	30.8
Level 1 (preschool)	22	16.9
Level 2 (Grade7)	23	17.7
Level 3 (Grade10)	13	10.0
Level 4 (Grade 12)	23	17.7
Level 5 (diploma/degree)	10	6.9
Marital status		
Currently married	46	35.4
Single	56	43.1
Widowed	2	1.5
Separated	5	3.8
Living with a partner	21	16.2
Disability		
Yes	4	3.1
No	126	96.9

Thirty percent of the respondents from the Nompondo community had no formal education and only 17.7% of the respondents had matriculated. In addition to this, only 6.9% had a formal qualification in the form of a diploma or a degree (Table 4.4). However, only 16.9% had level 1, 17.7% had level 2 and 10.0% had level 3 education. The respondents could pursue some form of training related to ecotourism. Loon et al. (2007) describe “Teach the Teachers” and “Reach and Teach Education” programmes which are implemented at the Sabi Sabi Private Game Reserve. These coordinated education programmes involve workshops at the Reserve and expose rural teachers to the relationship between ecotourism, conservation and communities (Loon et al., 2007).

The majority of the respondents in the Nompondo community (43.1%) were single, followed by currently married (35.4%). Some respondents in this community indicated that they were living with a partner (16.2%), separated (3.8%) and only 1.5% indicated that they were widowed.

Three percent of the respondents living near the HiP stated that they were disabled. Kotze and Dippenaar (2004) emphasise that people with disabilities find it difficult to come into their own in a world that focuses on the needs of able-bodied individuals. It seems that greater care should be taken to familiarise the built environment for the benefit of the disadvantaged group of people. In terms of recreational activities, stigmatisation and inadequate opportunities are one of the greatest sources of stress for people with disabilities. The

disabled people from the Nompondo community may require specific tactics of support and aid in order to ensure that they have adequate access and opportunities to participate completely within the ecotourism sector.

Table 4. 5: Occupation of respondents

Occupation	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Unemployed	100	77.7
Domestic	8	6.2
Labourer	3	2.3
Manager	2	1.5
Professional	5	3.8
Pensioner	12	8.5

Table 4.5 shows that the unemployment level of the Nompondo community is very high. The majority of the respondents (77.7%) who live adjacent to HiP are unemployed. Allen and Brennan (2004: 258) argue that “millions of workers live in awful poverty. There is a chronic housing shortage and millions of families, in spite of the pledges made by the African National Congress (ANC) in 1994, still lack basic facilities such as fresh water supply and adequate sanitation. Unemployment runs at 40% and over half million jobs have been lost since the ANC came into power”. The households in this study in part reflect the situation described by Vally and Spreen (2014), especially in relation to high unemployment rates and lack of basic infrastructure and services as will be discussed later.

The employed respondents who lived in the Nompondo community consisted mainly of domestic workers (6.2%), professionals (3.8%) and managers (1.5%). In order to remedy the high levels of unemployment, management at HiP should consider adopting the employment model that was adopted at the Sabi Private Game Reserve as indicated by Loon et al. (2007: 264):

Sabi’s commitment to the practice of fair trade with regards to working conditions, employment principles, conservation and sustainability go back to its earliest days, before these issues were in the spotlight. As early as 1985, Sabi instituted employment practices that saw staff, drawn mainly from local communities, rewarded and recognised for their efforts and promoted to senior positions of responsibility. Sabi realised that laying a foundations of a sustainable business that embraced local communities was the only way the resort would survive and flourish into the future. The policies and decades of groundwork have paid off and the resort is proud to put

the South Africa's first recipient of the Fair Trade in Tourism South Africa (FTTSA) trademark.

4.2.2 Household Profile

The average number in the household was 9 and ranged from 3 to 15 (Table 4.6). Larger household size reflects demands that are likely to be placed on the natural resource base. For example the larger the family, the greater demand for food and other amenities. Data shows that the majority of the respondents live in households of between 10 to 15 people which is representative of the profile of South African communities who currently take in children orphaned by AIDS. Additionally, most African rural households are extended families. They live according to kinship and therefore households tend to be large. However, 3.1% of the respondents had 3 household members.

Table 4. 6: Number of households members

Number of people	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
3	4	3.1
4	8	6.2
5	8	6.2
6	8	6.2
7	8	6.2
8	12	9.2
9	3	2.3
10	37	28.5
11	9	6.9
12	18	13.8
13	6	4.6
14	3	2.3
15	6	4.6

X = 9

The results indicate that a significant number of respondents (28.5%) have more than 10 family members (Table 4.6). In fact, respondents in the category of 10 family members accounted for 28.5%. When some of the respondents were asked why they have opted for big families and the response was that child bearing is a natural phenomenon and is not easy to control. This is a reflection of the old African traditional practice where the reproduction of many children was regarded as a source of wealth, labour for the family as well as increased security for the elderly in terms of being taken care of by children. In addition, it also shows the patriarchal practice where the women have no say on the size of the family and other related issues such as child bearing and rearing. According to Statistics South Africa (2011)

the results indicate that the average household size of the Hlabisa Municipality where Nompondo community is located is 5.4. This is not in line with what was observed by the researcher in the Nompondo community.

Table 4. 7: Households’ sources of monthly income (multiple responses)

Income	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Pensions	10	7.7
Remittances	50	38.5
Wages	15	11.5
Informal income	10	7.7
Farm harvest	15	11.5
Disability grant	3	2.3
Child support grant	21	16.2
Formal income	6	4.6

The results reveal that households from the Nompondo community engage in a variety of income generating activities, which is indicative of multiple survival strategies (Table 4.7). Empirical evidence from a variety of different locations suggests that rural households do indeed engage in multiple activities and rely on diversified income portfolios. In sub-Saharan Africa, a range of 30–50% reliance on non-farm income sources is common; but it may attain 80–90% in southern Africa (Ibnouf, 2013). Furthermore, (Himanshu et al., 2011) argue that in south Asia, on average, roughly 60% of rural household income is from non-farm sources; however, this proportion varies widely between, for example, landless households and those with access to land for farming. Increased diversity promotes greater flexibility because it allows more possibilities for substitution between opportunities that are in decline and those that are expanding. Remittances as a source of income accounted for 38.5% of the households interviewed. Other income generating activities include child support grants (16.2%), wages (11.5%), farm harvest (11.5%), pensions (7.7%), informal income (7.7%) and formal income (4.6%). Only 2% of the respondents indicated that their households rely on disability grants as a source of monthly income. Despite a variety of income generating activities, most of the respondents claimed that they were living below the poverty line as they are unable to meet all their basic needs. This dilemma is also reflected in the suggestions forwarded by the respondents (creation of job opportunities, income generating projects, better agricultural practices as well as donations from either the government or EKZNW) to address the challenges they faced. The researcher also noted that although some of the respondents sell crop and animal products to earn a living, they mainly practise subsistence farming. This is a

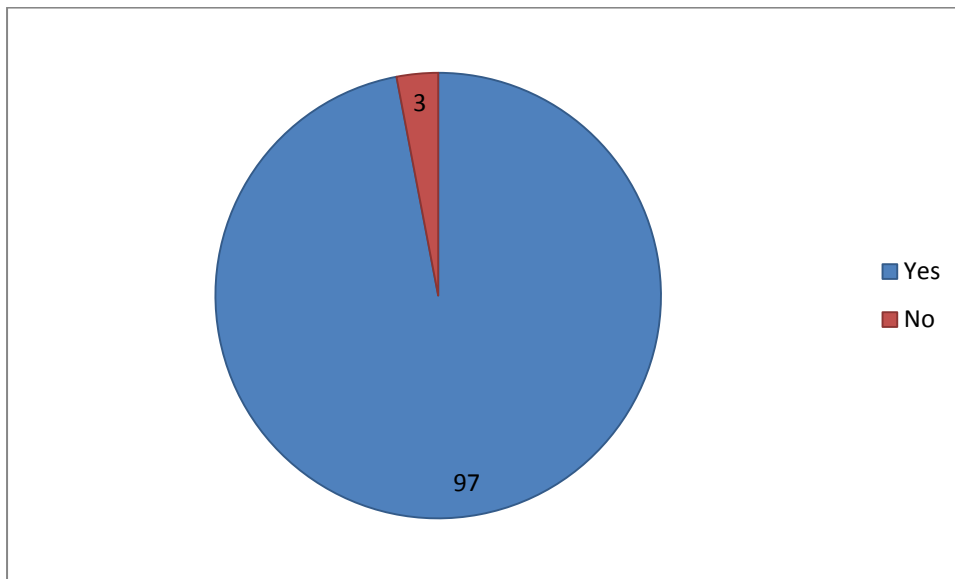
typical practice in a poor rural set-up where there is not enough resources such as capital, land, market as well as skilled human power to engage in commercial farming practices for survival.

One of the concerns of this study was to assess whether there were any improvements in the living conditions of the local community in terms of type of dwelling, sanitation, water and electricity. During apartheid it was common practice to take families from areas of prime cultivable land to locations where there was overcrowding and soil conditions were not conducive to sustainable farming (Ruhiga, 2011). Furthermore, Levin and Weiner (1997: 5) state:

Apartheid's legacy of mass poverty hangs like a dark cloud over the new 'rainbow nation'. This is one reason why the discourse of development is rapidly spreading within bureaucracies of the new state, in the NGO sector and private sector, as well as among elements of civil society. The emerging vision is a strange combination of top-down technicism, neo-liberal economism, and language calling for 'grassroots' community participation.

In the province of KwaZulu-Natal there was increasing violence and the fear of it, the resurgence of chieftainship, political venality, the slow development of an appropriate institutional framework to support communal empowerment and a shared memory of apartheid's injustices which impacted on the rural population from progressing (Allen and Brennan, 2004).

Figure 4. 1: Households' traditional right to the land (in %)



Ninety seven percent of the respondents from the Nompondo community indicated that they have the land that was traditionally allocated to them by indunas and the chief and only 3% indicated that they do not have traditional right to the land (Figure 4.1). The colonial system ensured that most if not all of the African people were dispossessed of their land. This was further exacerbated by the imposition of the tax system on African people of South Africa which forced men to offer their labour to the mining and other industries that were rapidly increasing (Kepe, 2008). Land dispossession for the purposes of protecting and conserving biodiversity also squeezed rural communities into the money economy where they were exposed to gender discrimination, language barriers, race discrimination and ignorance on the workings of the money economy left them exposed to poverty. At the 5th IUCN World Parks Congress (2003: 63), it was acknowledged that:

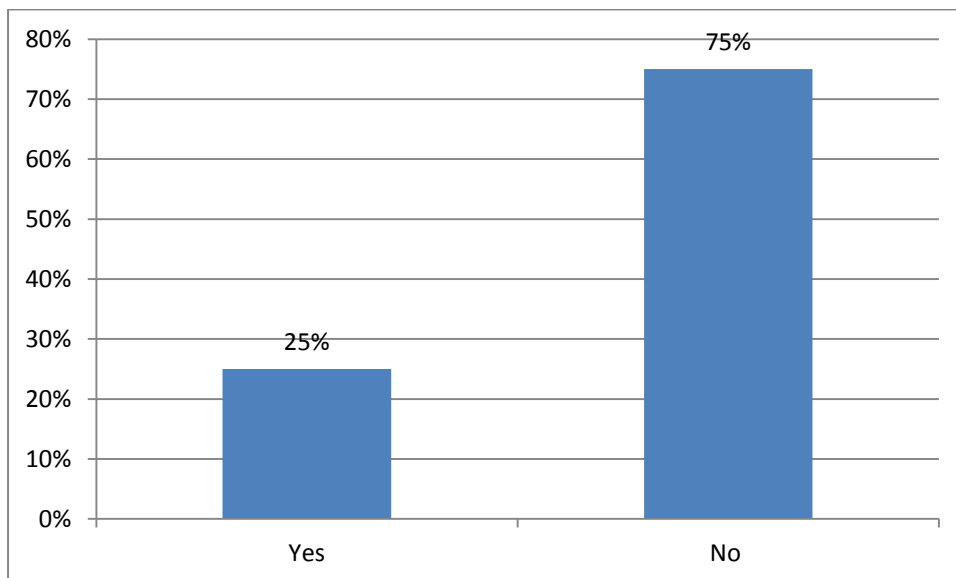
Many protected areas of the world invade and are found within and overlap with lands, territories and resources of indigenous and traditional people. In most cases the establishment of these protected areas has had a major effect on rights, livelihood and interest of indigenous and traditional people and consequently resulted in tenacious conflict.

Table 4. 8: Household duration of stay in the area

Duration of stay	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
>5 years	2	1.5
6-10 years	3	2.3
11-15 years	10	7.7
16-25 years	17	13.1
>25 years	98	75.4

The results reveal that 75.4% of the respondents have been living in the area for more than twenty five years. A significant number of the respondents from the Nompondo community, especially old people, have indicated a strong connection with their environment. It is therefore important that HiP management should understand the strong connection that local residents have with their environment. This will allow HiP management to make informed decisions that consider a community's attachment to avoid conflicts. The rest of the respondents either have been staying in the area for sixteen to twenty five years (13.1%), between eleven and fifteen years (7.7%), between six to ten years (2.3%) and more than five years (1.5%) (Table 4.8). When the respondents were further asked whether they were born in the area or moved from somewhere else, the results show that 75% of the respondents claimed that they were born in the area as compared to 25% who migrated from the surrounding regions (Figure 4.2).

Figure 4. 2: Whether respondents previously resided in another area (in %)



The results clearly show that the majority of the respondents could be a reliable source of information for issues like the relationship between the HiP management and the

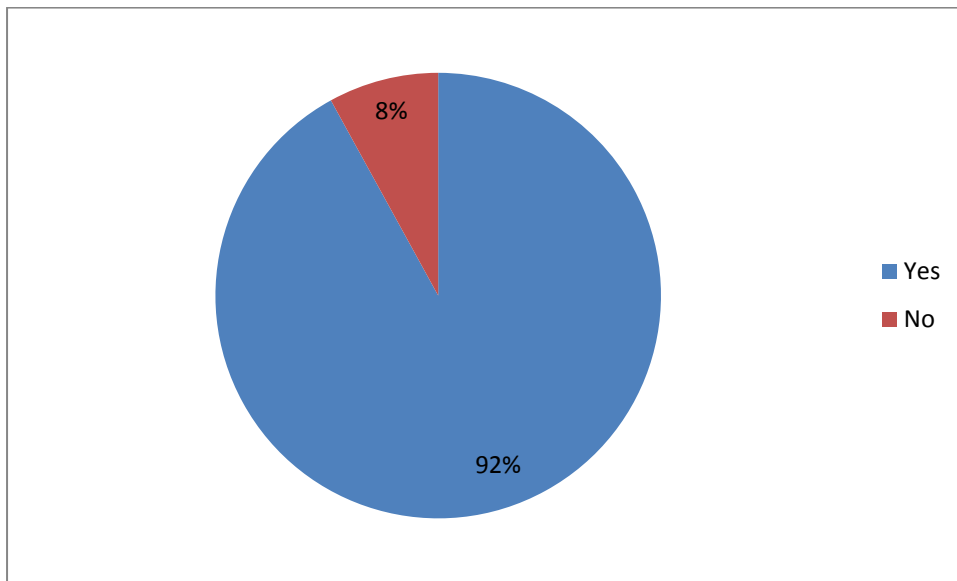
neighbouring communities, the accessibility to resources and facilities in the HiP, and the impacts of tourism on rural communities residing adjacent to the HiP.

Table 4. 9: Respondents reason for moving into the area

Reasons	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Forced removals	19	14.6
Better prospects	13	10.0
Not applicable	98	75.4

When the respondents who were not born in the region were asked to state reasons for their migration (Table 4.9), the reasons cited were forced removals (14.6%) and better prospects (10.0%). The reasons cited for the eviction included the establishment of protected areas as well as commercial farming within their former locations. These reasons are a reflection of what happened to many South Africans from the disadvantaged ethnic groups due to the policies and practices of colonialism and apartheid. The discussions with these respondents also revealed that many of them had high hopes of being employed in commercial farming and conservation. Forced removals can be attributed to the past conservation strategies in African States which have seldom been based upon the participation or consent of communities whose lives they affected (Ngubane, 2012). The creation of Parks has led to forcibly removing communities without receiving adequate compensation for the land they had lost (Butt, 2012). Roe et al. (2009) affirm that local communities have suffered resource loss through the declaration of protected areas, profited modestly from its development for tourism and then been left to try to extract some value from the influx of visitors.

Figure 4. 3: Access to land for grazing



Ninety two percent of the respondents from the Nompondo community indicated that they have access to grazing land and only 8% stated that they do not have access to grazing land (Figure 4.3). Livestock ownership and grazing lands are vital to the Nompondo community. It is important to note that land and cattle form an important part of African culture and a lack in one or the other has a ripple effect on other forms of traditional living such as the ilobolo (bride price) system as well as the use of cow dung to shine houses and as manure in subsistence farming.

Figure 4. 4: Access to land for cultivation (in %)

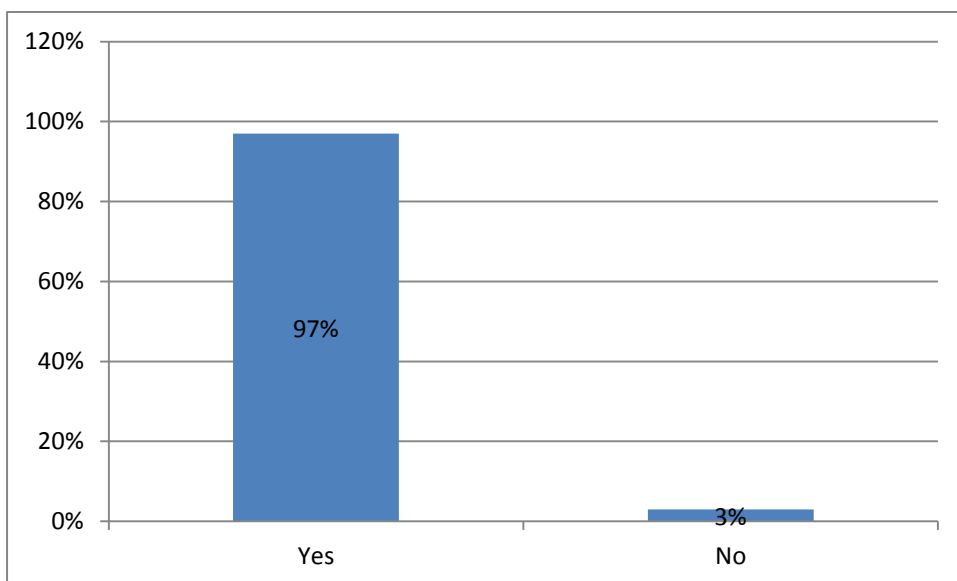


Figure 4.4 indicates that 97% of the respondents in the Nompondo community stated that they have access to cultivation land. Land for cultivation purposes in the Nompondo community occurs on a very large scale. During the interview process, many respondents indicated that land for cultivation was the first priority for them. The households in the Nompondo community are more scattered which leaves a lot of land for agricultural purposes. The researcher observed that land for agricultural purposes occurs on a larger scale within the Nompondo community. The values, perceptions and relations to land amongst the residents of the Nompondo community seem to be more immersed in subsistence agriculture.

Table 4. 10: Perceptions of quality of land available for grazing and cultivation

	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Grazing land		
Not applicable	10	7.7
Poor	8	6.2
Satisfactory	17	13.1
Good	87	66.9
Excellent	8	6.1
Cultivation land		
Not applicable	4	3.1
Poor	3	2.3
Satisfactory	12	9.2
Good	84	64.6
Excellent	27	20.8

Respondents were asked to rate the suitability of their land for grazing and cultivation purposes on a five-point scale. From Table 4.10 below, it is evident that 66.9% of the respondents in the Nompondo community felt that the land is good for grazing and a further 13.1% indicated satisfactory, 7.7% indicated none due to the fact that they do not own any livestock, 6.1% indicated excellent and another 6.2% indicated poor. Similar findings were observed for cultivation land where the majority of the respondents (64.6%) indicated that they have good cultivation land. The rest of the respondents indicated excellent (20.8%), satisfactory (9.2%), poor (2.3%) and those who indicated none (3.1%) were due to the fact that they are not involved in cultivation.

Table 4. 11: Types of dwelling pre and post 1994

Dwelling Type	Pre 1994 (n=100)	Post 1994 (100)
Own formal house	2.3	92.3
Own traditional hut	96.2	7.7
Employer provided house	1.5	

The majority of the respondents indicated that prior to 1994 they were living in traditional huts (96.2%), own formal house (2.3%) and only 1.5% indicated that prior to 1994 their employers provided them with some form of housing (Table 4.11). However, it is interesting to note that after the 1994 period the majority of the respondents lived in formal houses (92.3%) and only 7.7% continue to live in traditional houses. The researcher learnt from the respondents of the Nompondo community that those who continue to live in traditional houses are the old people in the community above the age of 60 years because of their strong cultural beliefs. The old people in the community argued that traditional huts create a strong connection between them and their ancestors.

Table 4. 12: Types of Sanitation pre and post 1994

Sanitation	Pre 1994 (n=100)	Post 1994 (100)
Flush toilet	0.8	4.6
Chemical toilet	3.1	1.5
Pit latrine	93.8	93.8
Bucket toilet	1.5	
No toilet	0.8	

The majority of the respondent (93.8%) living in the Nompondo community indicated that prior to 1994 they had pit latrine as a form of sanitation, while 3.1% of the respondents indicated that they used chemical toilets, 1.5% of the respondents were using bucket toilets and only one respondent stated the use of flush toilet in the household. However, in the post 1994 period there were only slight changes in terms of the form of sanitation that was used by the households with 4.6% of the households now having flush toilets. The majority of the respondents (93.8%) continue to use pit latrine toilets in the post 1994 period. When the researcher asked the respondents about this, they indicated that they cannot afford to have flush toilets in their households due to the nature of water supply that is not reliable in the area. Some respondents stated that they cannot afford to build flush toilets as they are not employed. Furthermore, when the researcher asked the ward counsellor as a key informant in this study about this, he indicated that pit latrine seems to be the most efficient and reliable form of sanitation for the Nompondo community as they cannot afford to have flush toilets in their houses due to the nature of water supply that is not reliable. The latest findings of Statistics South Africa, 2011 indicate that about 4.1% of households in the area have toilets that are connected to the sewage system.

Table 4. 13: Main sources of water pre and post 1994

Water source	Pre 1994 (n=100)	Post 1994 (100)
Tap water in dwelling	0.8	6.9
Tap water on site		23.8
Public tap	1.5	69.3
Community borehole	10.0	
Rainwater tank on site	3.1	
Flowing stream	71.5	
Communal well	11.5	
Dam	0.8	
Communal spring	0.8	

Before 1994, 71.5% of the respondents living in the Nompondo community sourced their water supply from a flowing stream. However, some respondents living in the Nompondo community also listed communal wells (11.5%), communal borehole (10.0%), rainwater tank on site (3.1%) and public tap (1.5%). dam and communal spring each accounted for 0.8%. There was only one respondent who indicated that he/ she had a tap water in the dwelling. It is interesting to note that after 1994, there was big change in terms water sources for the Nompondo community. About 69.3% of the respondents sourced their water from a public tap, 23.8% from tap water on site and 6.9% had tap water in the dwelling. This is in line with the findings of Statistics South Africa, 2011 census from the Hlabisa Municipality which shows that about 12.5% of the population in this Municipality has tap water inside their dwellings. The provision of safe drinking water can have a decisive effect on the improvement of the lives and health of rural people (Statistics South Africa, 2011) . Furthermore, Wagah et al. (2010) argue that water is a basic need and human right and as such modern governments have the responsibility of ensuring that it is available, accessible, adequate, safe and affordable.

Table 4. 14: Main sources of energy pre and post 1994

Energy source	Pre 1994 (n=100)	Post 1994 (100)
Electricity from public supply	0.8	7.7
Gas	1.5	9.2
Paraffin	3.8	6.9
Fuel wood	59.3	28.5
Coal		1.5
Candles	34.6	46.2

Table 4.14 indicate that the main sources of energy prior to 1994 for the majority of the respondents (59.3%) residing in the Nompondo community was fuel wood. Other sources of energy used by the respondents in the community were candles (34.6%), paraffin (3.8%), gas (1.5%) and electricity from public supply (0.8%). However, in the post 1994 period there has been a slight change in terms of the form of energy that is used by respondents in the Nompondo community. There has been an increase in the usage of electricity from public supply (7.7%), gas (9.2%), paraffin (6.9%) and coal (1.5%). Despite the increase in electricity and forms of energy usage, some respondents from the community still continue to use fuel wood (28.5%) and candles (46.2%). When the researcher asked the ward counsellor about this he indicated that due to the high unemployment rate in the area it is very difficult for community members to keep up with the cost of electricity. The results reveal that there has been significant changes in terms of the conditions experienced post1994 with improvements in relation to housing and access to water, sanitation and electricity. This study's findings are therefore in contrast to Chakauya et al. (2009) assertion that development in rural areas is slow. However, given widespread poverty and continued high levels of unemployment, it is important to note that much still needs to be done in terms of rural development. While the conditions of some households have improved when compared to pre 1994 situations, a significant proportion of households still lack basic services.

Table 4. 15: Location of community households in relation to HiP

Reside	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
1-5 km radius from the park boundary	111	85.4
6-10 km radius from the park boundary	10	7.7
11-15 km radius from the park boundary	7	5.4
16-20 km radius from the park boundary	1	0.8
>20 km radius from the park boundary	1	0.8

The majority of the respondents (85.4%) reside within 1-5 km from the HiP boundary. However, there were some respondents (7.7%) who resided 6-10 km from the boundary of the HiP. Furthermore, about 5.4% of the respondents indicated 11-15 km from the HiP boundary and this is still within the Nompondo community. There were also those who indicated to be 16-20 km from the HiP boundary (0.8%) and more than 20 km from the boundary of the Park (0.8%) (Table 4.15). Respondents were questioned on whether they

were asked or forced to relocate from the private Park areas. All the respondents living adjacent to HiP indicated that they were not asked or forced to move out from the area.

Figure 4. 5: Land claims of community respondents (in %)

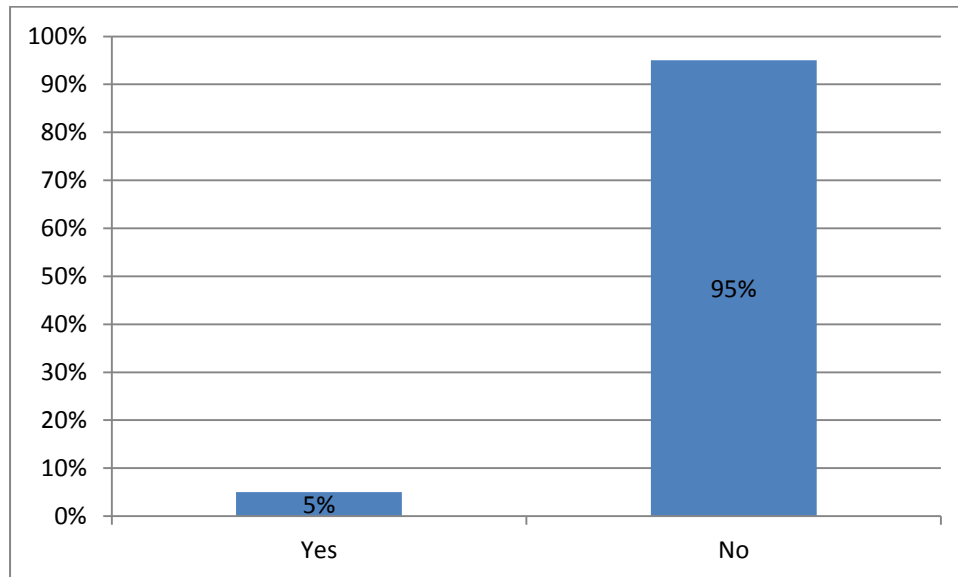
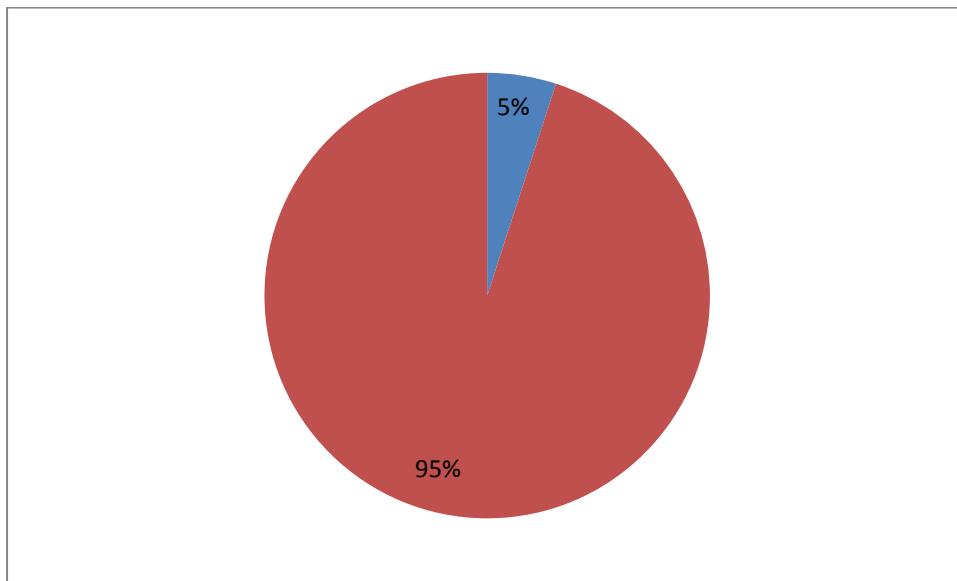


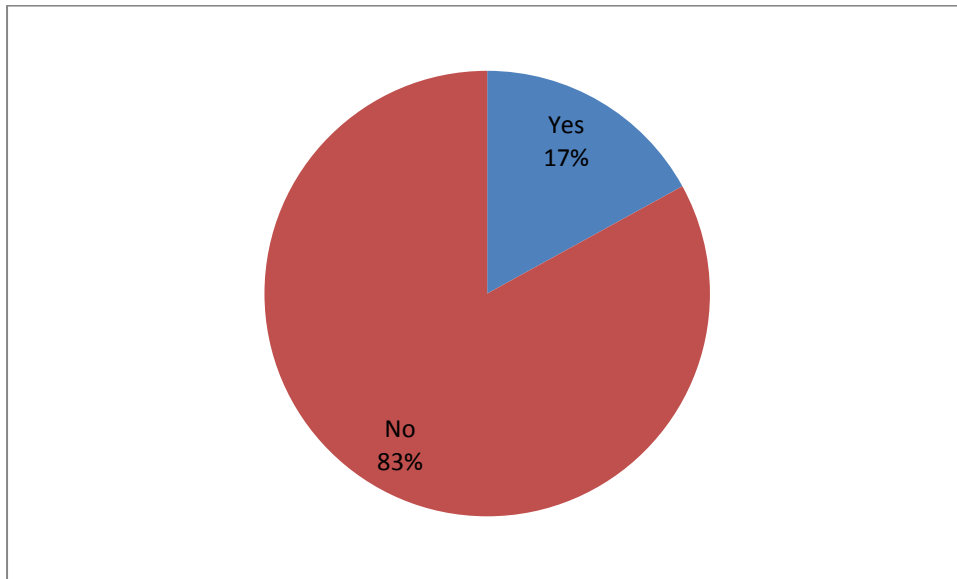
Figure 4.5 indicate that 95% of the respondents from the Nompondo community indicated that they do not have land claims to the land within the HiP and only 5% of the respondents indicated that they did have land claims to the land within HiP. The Department of Rural Development and Land Reform is in a process of compensating rural communities who were displaced from their land by the apartheid regime and the majority of these areas are found in protected areas. In South Africa, the government has embarked on a programme for the restitution of land rights lost through racially discriminatory laws of the past (Spenceley, 2010). Furthermore, Peters (2009) states that the land reform process incorporates the involvement of disadvantaged communities in the management and control of protected areas and the establishment of economic benefits for such communities from protected areas. The HiP is currently in the process of settling a land claim for three of the adjacent communities in the southern part of the Park and the community conservation officer further indicated that the Park has been successful in settling other land claims.

Figure 4. 6: Settlement of land claim (in %)



With regard to the settlement of land claims, 5% indicated the land claim has been settled by the HiP and communities are considered to be important stakeholders in the HiP (Figure 4.6). A co-management structure was formed, involving all the landowner communities of the claim that was settled and the management authority, where a co-management agreement was negotiated. The land use did not change and EKZNW continue manage the entire HiP including the restored or claimed land according to the co-management agreements. The success of the land claim has resulted in the communities establishing the Umkhombe ecotourism project and the Nselweni Bush Lodge that is 100% owned by the 10 tribal authorities bordering the HiP. This is an indication of the past wrongs being redressed by providing some parts of the community to own a share in the ecotourism industry.

Figure 4. 7: Problems experienced due to living next to the HiP (in %)



The majority of the respondents (83.1%) indicated that they did not experience any tourism related problems due to living next to the HiP (Table 4.12). However, 17% of the respondents indicated that they experienced problems as a result of tourism due to residing next to HiP. Historically, African societies had a stable coexistence with wildlife, a function of the intrinsic value attached to ecological conservation in African culture (de Pinho et al., 2014). However, the institution of colonial centralised governments undermined customary laws as well as the authority of traditional African leaders who enforced them (Rahman et al., 2014). As the colonial governments were unable to provide an effective alternative means of wildlife conservation, the result was a poaching "gold rush" for the riches of rhino hoary, elephant ivory and other short-term gains (Jones, 2013). Following independence, most African states maintained the colonial structure of centralised game departments and national parks systems (Spierenburg and Brooks, 2014). In most cases, wildlife management has been based on the adoption of punitive measures designed to maintain barriers between wildlife resources in protected areas and local residents living in or around such areas.

Table 4. 16: List of problems experienced by community as a result of residing adjacent to HiP: Multiple responses

Problems	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Crop damage by wild animals	13	10.8
Wildlife crime	2	1.5
Limited job opportunities	4	3.0
Livestock loss due to wild animals	1	0.8
Human wildlife conflict	1	0.8
Not applicable	108	83.1

Some of the respondents indicated problems experienced and these were crop damage by wild animals that escape from the HiP (10.8%), human wildlife conflict (0.8%), livestock loss (0.8%), limited job opportunities (3.0%) and wildlife crime (1.5%) (Table 4.16). In contrast to this study, Pantoren’s (2009) study in Kenya mentions that wild animals were seen to be a key problem. The difference could be attributed to conditions in South Africa whereby most, if not all, National Parks are fenced. However, in Kenya indigenous communities often reside in the Parks or reserves and these are not fenced, specifically to allow wild animals to move freely. In addition to problematic animals, in this case study according to some of the Park staff from the neighbouring communities, there are other major concerns. The other major concerns include lack of knowledge about nature conservation, few visits from the Park management, protection of wild animals instead of people, inaccessibility to resources and lack of farming land as it was used to establish the Park.

Table 4. 17: Community respondents suggested solutions to the perceived problems: Multiple responses

Solutions	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Introduce more security in the Park	1	0.8
Community committees to be elected	1	0.8
Every damage caused by animals from the Park must be compensated	10	7.7
Work closely with Park officials	1	0.8
Community gardens be fenced properly	1	0.8
HiP to fund sakha izibaya project	2	1.5
Not applicable	108	83.1
Fire Park management	1	0.8
Offer more job opportunities	5	3.8

The important aspect emerging from Table 4.17 are some of the perceived conflicts between rural communities and protected areas. These include poor conditions of rural communities,

the danger posed by wild animals and general breakdown in communication among various affected stakeholders. The proposed suggestions by respondents from the Nompondo community are a clear indication of desperate situations or conditions that they find themselves in. Stakeholders of protected areas have acknowledged the integral and essential links among adjacent communities to protected areas, interested and affected parties and the wider natural environment beyond boundaries of protected areas (Hansen, 2013a). Proponents of ecotourism have realised that the involvement of local communities is essential for sustainable tourism development (Guerrero et al., 2013). Operation Sakha Izibaya (translated as building enclosures) is a new ground breaking initiative taken to the forefront of the human wildlife conflict by EKZNW in collaboration with local communities around one of the flagship and financial muscle of EKZNW famously known as HiP. This initiative interfaces the Iron Age Zulu living lifestyle of farming with modern technology of protecting livestock from predators such as leopards and hyenas. This initiative will go a long way in minimising the financial loss to farmers and citizens from human/wildlife conflict which constitutes a substantial drain on the regional economy. The targeted pilot area involves ten Traditional Authorities around HiP and it is envisaged to improve relationships and trust dramatically, taken into account the EKZNW policy of non-compensation to species that was not introduced by the authority to that area.

4.2.3 The Community and the Ecotourism Parks

Tourism is widely perceived as an industry with the potential to provide rural communities with job opportunities, income and economic diversity (Simpson, 2009). This perceived potential has influenced the KwaZulu-Natal province to utilise tourism development and community empowerment as the major focus for economic development in the province (Blignaut et al., 2010). This is believed to be a means to generate tangible benefits to previously disadvantaged communities and at the same time to integrate conservation and development. Dahlberg and Burlando (2009) argue that nature conservation and associated tourism development are being earmarked as a solution to rural poverty in KwaZulu-Natal. However, tourists cannot be attracted into areas which are insecure and without basic facilities. Tourism development, therefore, will depend upon both private and government investment and in order to make this viable, benefits should be channelled to local people but through their constructive involvement and inclusive participation in sustainable environmental management and commerce (Rural Development Framework. 1997). This subsection examines community perceptions of ecotourism in HiP.

Table 4. 18: Respondents’ knowledge of ecotourism

Community knowledge of ecotourism in HiP	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Yes	129	99.2
No	1	0.8
People visiting to see plants and animals		
Yes	118	90.8
No		
Vacation		
Yes	12	9.2
No		

The respondents were asked about their understanding of ecotourism in HiP. Ninety nine percent of the respondents of the Nompondo community indicated that they have heard of ecotourism in HiP (Table 4.18). Ninety one percent of the respondents from the Nompondo community agreed with the statement that ecotourism is about people visiting the place to see plants and animals. Only 9.2% attested to the fact that ecotourism is about people going on vacation. Community understanding of ecotourism is in line with The International Ecotourism Society’s (TIES) definition of ecotourism. TIES (1990) define tourism as responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and improves the well-being of local people. Furthermore, ecotourism provides effective economic incentives for conserving and enhancing bio-cultural diversity and helps protect the natural and cultural heritage of our beautiful planet (Nzama, 2010). Ecotourism can also be seen as an important aspect of empowering communities adjacent to protected areas and has the potential to alleviate poverty amongst these communities (Nzama, 2010). This clearly shows that different initiatives by HiP, such as community conservation and the rhino ambassador programmes, are playing meaningful roles in shaping communities’ understanding of the tourism and conservation sectors.

4.2.4 The Community and the Social Impacts of Ecotourism

This sub-section examines community perceptions of social impacts in relation to relationships with Park management, views on social impacts of ecotourism as well as positive and negative impacts.

Table 4. 19: Community relationship with management and staff of HiP

Community relationship with HiP management/staff	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Yes	129	99.2
No	1	0.8
Description of relationship		
Excellent	3	2.3
Very good	3	2.3
Good	97	74.6
Average	16	12.3
Bad	4	3.1
Very bad	7	5.4

The respondents were asked about their relationship with the management or staff of the HiP. The overwhelming majority of the respondents (99.2%) indicated that they have relationship with HiP management or staff and only 1% indicated no relationship with HiP management (Table 4.19). Raymond et al. (2009) discuss examples in India, Nepal, Africa and Brazil where contributors to this anthology advocate an integration of concern for biodiversity with sustainable living by indigenous people. There is a need to build relationships between staff, community and management since, no Parks or reserves can exist without viable and constructive community participation.

Improving relations between Parks and the neighbouring communities has been underscored as one of the highest priority on the conservation agenda in South Africa (Strickland-Munro et al., 2010a). This is attributed to the fact that since economic costs incurred by some of the local residents bordering protected areas far exceed the benefits, there is a need to provide incentives for local people to support, rather than oppose protected area conservation ventures.

The results from Nompondo community reveal that most of the respondents perceived their quality of interaction with the Park management and staff as excellent (2.3%), very good (2.3%), good (74.6%) and average (12.3%). Only 3.1% rated the interaction as bad and 5.4% indicated very bad (Table4.19). The reasons the respondents gave for their positive perceptions are availability of job opportunities (12.3%), accessibility to natural resources (15.4%), good relationships (20%), joint problem solving (5.4%), receive assistance when needed (1.5%), opportunities for interaction with tourists (7.8%) and environmental education (20%) (Table 4.20). This positive interaction is further supported by the

information obtained through personal communications with the various affected and interested parties. For example, one of the general assistants who is both a Park employee and a resident in one of the neighbouring communities perceived the interaction as good. The general assistant further stated that with the exception of a few residents, who still claim the ownership of the animals in the Park, there were no more serious conflicts such as land claims. At the same time, the Park ecologist perceived the interaction as fair according to the information supplied by the HiP staff residing within the neighbouring communities.

Table 4. 20: Reasons for the perceived quality of interaction

Reasons	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Job opportunities	16	12.3
Access to natural resources	20	15.4
Interaction with tourists	10	7.8
Good relationship	26	20
Joint problem solving	7	5.4
Environmental education	26	20
No assistance from HiP	5	3.8
Problematic animals	13	10
Receive assistance	2	1.5
No response	5	3.8

The Conservator and the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator also perceived the quality of interaction as generally good, although the latter cautioned that the land ownership issue and the illegal use of natural resources cause some of the local people to have poor to very poor relationships. The reasons the Conservator gave for his perception are the existence of easy and free communication, interdependence, joint problem-solving, good personal relationships with the Tribal Authorities (TAs) and the role played by the HiP in community development and upliftment. For instance, the local communities are assisted in developing funding proposals to establish vegetable gardens and craft centres, when they hold functions the Park provides transport and tents and in cases of emergency sicknesses or accidents they are taken to hospitals.

Additionally, according to the Conservation Manager and the Community Conservation Co-ordinator, the Park also offers nature conservation education though on a small-scale and in collaboration with the communities, it is in a process of building an education centre. The main target will be the school groups where the primary school learners will be catered for during the day and high school learners will stay overnight. The Community Conservation

Co-ordinator further clarified that nature conservation education as well as biodiversity education programmes, which are varied and diverse, are in operation. Each programme is developed in response to the educational needs of the instructors and learners. The programmes, which are undertaken at schools and in the Park include a study project, which looks at the investigation of diverse environmental issues. Environmental education camps are also available where the focus is on people and parks as well as day visits which focus on animal wildlife population dynamics. In joint problem-solving, the problems addressed include problematic animals and alien plant control. This is achieved through either direct discussions or via the TAs who then pass on the information to their subordinates.

On the other hand, 13% of the respondents rated the interaction as poor (Table 4. 19). The reasons they gave for their response are problematic animals (10%) and absence of assistance of any form from the Park (3.8%) (Table 4.19). The Conservation Manager, Chief and some of the Park staff who reside in the neighbouring communities also cited problematic animals as a concern. The problematic animals cited are mainly hyenas, lions and baboons that destroy crops and attack the livestock. Similarly, this problem has been identified in other parts of the world. For example, according to Hartter (2009), the communities that borders Kibale National Park in Uganda are also facing a challenge of problematic animals that attack their livestock and damage crops. The problematic animals include hyenas that attack goats as well as monkeys and baboons that threaten maize and banana crops. Khadka and Nepal (2010) also observed that animals from the Makalu-Barun Conservation Area in Nepal are a major threat to the neighbouring communities and unfortunately local communities are neither allowed to destroy the animals nor compensated for the losses encountered.

When the respondents were asked whether the Park management had taken any steps to resolve the above problem, they responded positively. The respondents stated that since the erection of an electrified fence, the number of animals that escape had decreased although some still escape. Personal communications with the Conservator revealed that in addition to the electrified fence, the park management has put other measures into place. The measures include regular fence line upgrading and patrol, hunting and destruction of the animals as well as compensating for the losses but only those incurred as a result of animals that were re-introduced into the Park. The affected parties, however, felt that the compensation should also cover the losses caused by all animals and not only the re-introduced ones. In addition, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator argued that the issue of problematic animals requires effort from both Park management and neighbouring communities. She

suggested that whereas the Park management has to put in a lot of effort in educating people about what should be done, communities have to properly kraal their livestock at night and take preventive measures (such as dog keeping). The community members were also urged to stop the habit of cutting the Park fences, which allow animals to escape.

Table 4. 21: Respondents’ perceptions of access to HiP for cultural and social reasons

Access for cultural and social reasons required	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Yes	130	100
No	-	-
Access given		
Yes	115	88.5
No	15	11.5

Respondents from the Nompondo community were asked whether they require access to HiP for social and cultural reason and all of the respondents indicated that they do require access to the Park (Table 4.21). They were further asked whether they are given access to HiP for desired reasons and the majority of the respondents (88.5%) indicated that they are given access. Some of the respondents (11.5%) indicated that they are not given access to the Park. The community conservation officer in the HiP indicated that communities are not allowed to practice cultural rituals in the Park but they are allowed access for social reasons.

Table 4. 22: Respondents perceptions of social impacts of ecotourism

HiP investment in clinics	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Yes	1	0.8
No	129	99.2
HiP investment in schools		
Yes	33	25.4
No	97	74.6
HiP investment in educational Trust		
Yes	6	4.6
No	124	95.4
HiP investment in housing		
Yes	-	-
No	130	100
HiP investment in small business ventures		
Yes	83	63.8
No	47	36.2
HiP investment in sport facilities		
Yes	87	66.9
No	43	33.1
HiP investment in events		
Yes	3	2.3
No	127	97.7
HiP investment in community Gardens		
Yes	38	29.2
No	92	70.8

Table 4.22 indicates that one respondent from the Nompondo community indicated that HiP has invested in clinics around the area. The majority of the respondents (99.2%) from the community stated that HiP had not invested in clinics around the area. This was confirmed by the interview with the conservation manager of the HiP where he argued that clinics are not the mandate of the HiP. The majority of the respondents (74.6%) from the Nompondo community indicated that the HiP had never invested in schools and 25.4% argued that the Park had invested in schools around community. This was confirmed by the community conservation officer that the HiP is running the Sifundimvelo programme around local schools where they are taking learners from local schools into the Park for a week to offer them environmental education. The results from the Nompondo community survey indicate that 95.4% of the respondents stated that HiP had never invested in the education trust and only 4.6% argued that HiP had invested in the education trust. All the respondents indicated that the Park had not invested in any housing projects in the community.

When the respondents were asked about the investment of HiP in small business ventures, 66.9% indicated yes and only 33.1% indicated no. This was confirmed by the hospitality manager and the Park manager that the Park over the past years has built craft market (Vukuzame and Vulamehlo) at the gate entrances of the Park where communities are benefiting and those craft markets are owned by communities. Furthermore, respondents also indicated that HiP has invested in sport facilities in communities. This was supported by the regional community conservation officer that every year EKZNW in partnership with AmaZulu football club sponsors a day event in communities bordering the Park as part of investment in sport facilities. The majority of the respondents (97.7%) indicated that the Park does not invest in events and only 2.3% indicated that the Park does invest in community events. Finally, respondents were also asked about the investments of HiP in community gardens. Table 4.21 indicates that 70.8% of the respondents indicated no and only 29.2% indicated yes. The researcher learnt from the regional community conservation officer that previously the HiP used to invest in community gardens and they produced a lot of successful farmers in other communities adjacent to HiP. This community garden project was stopped because communities wanted to engage in other income generating activities such as curio stalls and being partners in ecotourism related projects within the HiP.

Table 4. 23: Respondents’ perception of social impacts of ecotourism

Social impacts of ecotourism	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Meet the tourists that visit HiP		
Yes	105	80.8
No	25	19.2
Enjoy tourists coming to HiP		
Yes	124	96.9
No	4	3.1
More sex workers in the area		
Yes	1	0.8
No	129	99.2
Lowering of traditional values		
Yes	93	71.5
No	37	28.5
More casinos in the area		
Yes	1	0.8
No	129	99.2
Feeling negative about your culture		
Yes	22	16.9
No	108	83.1

Table 4.23 illustrate that 80.8% of the respondents from the Nompondo community interact or meet with tourists that visit the HiP. In addition, 96.9% of the respondents from the Nompondo community enjoy tourists visiting the HiP. The respondents (19.2%) who indicated that they do not meet the tourists that visit the HiP are mainly those who reside further away from the HiP. The results clearly indicate that some community respondents would like to interact with tourists that visit the HiP. Therefore, it would be important that different stakeholders (including Park managers and tour operators) need to work together to ensure that opportunities materialise and are sustainable.

The majority of the respondents (99.2%) living adjacent to HiP do not perceive that tourism results in an increase in sex workers (Table 4.23). In Australia, there is an increase in tourism-oriented prostitution and Asian females are brought into the country to cater for both Australian and Japanese tourist (Buultjens et al., 2013). However, it is interesting to note that respondents from the Nompondo community do not perceive sex workers as a problem. Ninety nine percent of the respondents living near the HiP indicated that casinos did not increase in the area as a result of tourism (Table 4.23). The majority of the respondents (71.5%) in the Nompondo community indicated that traditional values were being lowered due to an increase in tourism (Table 4.23). Furthermore, a significant number of the respondents from the Nompondo community (83.1%) indicated that tourism has not resulted in the community feeling negative about their culture. The majority of the respondents (97.7%) indicated that the establishment of the HiP had impacted their lives.

Table 4. 24: Perceived negative and positive impacts of HiP on people’s lives (in %): (Multiple responses)

Negative impacts	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Cannot visit relatives working in HiP	5	3.8
High pregnancy rate	62	47.7
Human wildlife conflict	7	5.4
Not allowed to use plants for medicinal use	3	2.3
Wildlife crime	20	15.4
Increase in HIV/AIDS rate	10	7.7
Restricted access to natural resources	17	13.1
Limited employment opportunities	4	3.1
Lowering community values	2	1.5
Positive impacts		
Job opportunities (seasonal)	117	90
Benefit sharing	6	4.6
Selling arts and crafts to tourist	2	1.5
Training and education	1	0.8

Sifundimvelo programme	4	3.1
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The respondents from the Nompondo community described the negative impacts of ecotourism as cannot visit relatives working in HiP (3.8%), high pregnancy rate (47.6%), human wildlife conflict (5.3%), not allowed to use plants for medicinal purposes (2.3%), wildlife crime (15.3%), increase in HIV/AIDS (7.6%), restricted access to natural resources (13%), limited employment opportunities (3%) and lowering community values (1.5%). Most of the negative impacts relate to social disruption and restricted access to resources.

From Table 4.24 it is evident that 90% of the respondents from the Nompondo community agreed that an increase in job opportunities (though seasonal) will lead to development in the community. Respondents of the Nompondo community listed the following additional positive changes due to ecotourism: benefit sharing (4.6%), selling arts and crafts to tourists (1.5%), training and education (0.7%) and the sifundimvelo programme (3.0%). Therefore, most of the positive impacts are associated with development in the community and specifically economic opportunities.

4.2.5 The Community and the Economic Impacts of Ecotourism

Table 4. 25: Respondents' perceptions with regards to stakeholder partnership with HiP

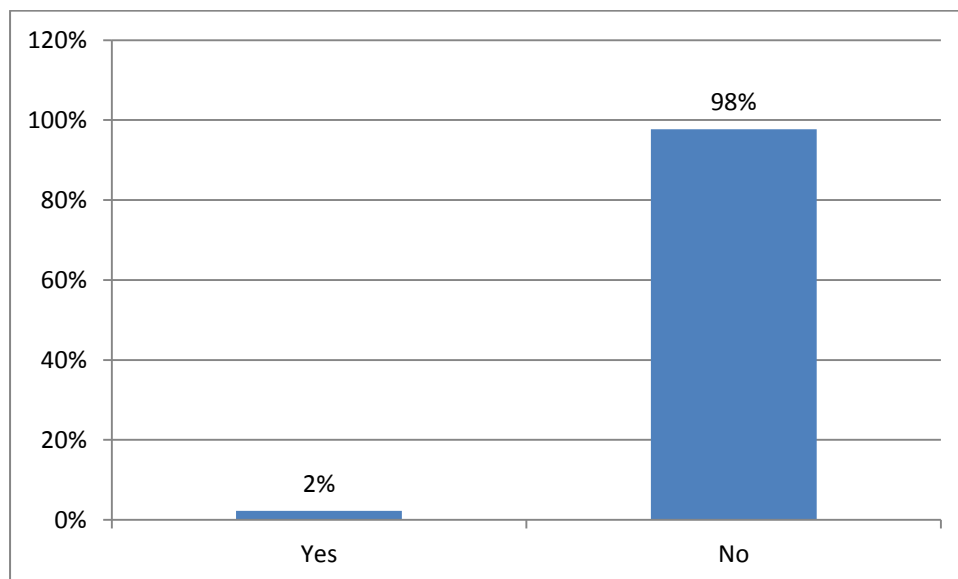
Stakeholders approached by HiP management to develop partnership	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
The iNkosi/Chief approached by HiP		
Yes	125	96.2
No	5	3.8
Selected members of the community		
Yes	1	0.8
No	129	99.2
Community-based organisations		
Yes	2	1.5
No	128	98.5
The counsellor		
Yes	25	19.2
No	105	80.8

Table 4.25 indicates that 96.2% of the respondents of the Nompondo community believed that the iNkosi/Chief of the area was approached by the HiP to develop partnerships. This

was confirmed by the regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator that the iNkosi and selected members of the community are serving on the local board of directors for the HiP. In addition, 19.2% of the respondents from the Nompondo community also indicated that the local counsellor was also approached to develop partnerships with the HiP.

The results are a clear indication for a lack of information dissemination with regards to partnership development and the income generated by the ecotourism sector in the HiP. The researcher learnt from the respondents that ecotourism sector in the HiP tends to attract only the community members that are articulate, have information and have positions of power (either traditional or political). This is a clear indication that information about partnership development and income generated by ecotourism in the HiP is not disseminated to the wider community.

Figure 4. 8: Respondents' family members working in the HiP (in %)



Ninety eight percent of the respondents from the Nompondo community indicated that no family members work in the HiP. Only 2% of the respondents indicated that family household members work in the HiP (Figure 4.9). The respondents attributed this to a very high unemployment rate and very few job opportunities within the area, which is a clear indication that the HiP cannot meet the job demands of the unemployed. This was in agreement with what the researcher learnt from the conservation manager. The results from the interviews with HiP management suggested that the best way forward would be to

establish more curio markets and maintain good relations with the management of privately owned tourist related facilities within close proximity, which have proved to be a source of additional jobs to the neighbouring communities.

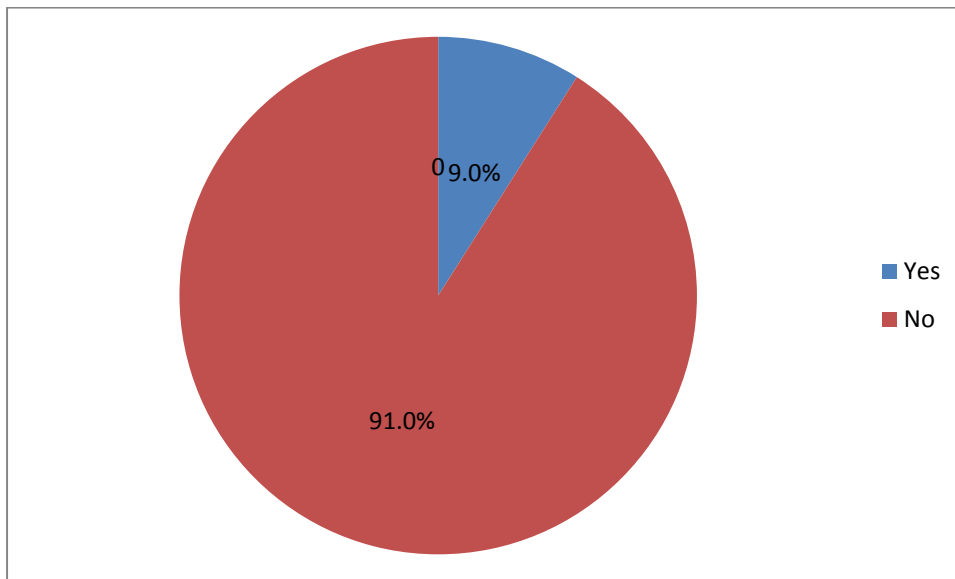
Similarly, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator suggested that EKZWN should put into action the following plans: ensure that more tourists visit the Park, maximise the opportunities for tourism both within and outside the Park and facilitate community-based tourism and outsourcing opportunities.

Table 4. 26: Job details of the respondents who are employed by the HiP from the Nompondo community

Job details	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Family member: Father	1	0.8
Son	2	1.5
Not applicable	127	97.7
Type of job: General assistant	1	0.8
Game capturer	1	0.8
Tour guide	1	0.8
Not applicable	127	97.7
Monthly salary: >R3000	3	2.3
Not applicable	127	97.7
Nature of job: Permanent	2	1.5
Seasonal	1	0.8
Not applicable	127	97.7

With regard to the family members who are employed, one respondent mentioned a cousin and another 1.5% stated a son (Table 4.26). The respondents further stated that the jobs offered include general assistants (0.7%), game capturers (0.7%) and tour guides (0.7%). Furthermore, 2.3% of the respondents indicated that the family member receives a monthly wage of more than >R3 000 a month (Table 4.26). Regarding the nature of the job, 1.5% of the respondents mentioned that the jobs are permanent while one stated that employment was seasonal (Table 4.26). The implications of these findings are that although unemployment is rife in the area, the Park is trying to tackle this challenge by employing local community members.

Figure 4. 9: Respondents' knowledge of black-owned tourism business (in %)



Respondents were questioned whether they knew of any Black-owned tourism businesses. The majority of the respondents from the Nompondo community (91%) indicated that they did not know of any Black-owned ecotourism businesses. However, there were few respondents (9%) that indicated that they knew of Black-owned tourism businesses in the area. This is similar to earlier findings that illustrate that most of the tourism tour operators and Park owners are Whites and reflects the South African economic landscape.

When the respondents were further asked whether they would like to have tourists visit their community, the results reveal that all responded positively. Bruyere et al. (2009) also noted a similar response from the communities bordering the Amboseli National Park. This is to some degree an indication that the majority of the people from local communities have positive attitudes and perceptions towards tourists though there are a few isolated cases of crime, especially within the iMfolozi section. In fact personal communications with the Community Conservationist, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator and the Conservation manager revealed that EKZNW has already implemented the plan of taking tourists to the neighbouring communities. The tourists are already visiting the community though not in large numbers probably because there are limited attractions. This is similar to what Johnson et al. (2009) noted that lodge operators in the Madikwe Game Reserve (North West Province) take tourists to a local village to experience traditional food or theatre and in return the villagers receive a fee. The community members are, therefore, urged to organise more attractions within the community. Furthermore, according to the Community

Conservation Co-ordinator, there is a plan to take tourists from Hilltop Camp into the communities but she cautioned that the success of this venture would depend on the interest of the tourists. In addition, community tour guides are also being trained in order to conduct tours within the neighbouring communities.

Table 4. 27: Desired tourist facilities to be established in the Nompondo community

Desired tourist facility in the community	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Community accommodation	65	50
Cultural centre	20	15.4
Community conservation area	16	12.3
Restaurant	7	5.4
Jobs and income generation	13	10
Security	7	5.4
No response	2	1.5

When the respondents were asked to mention the facilities they desire to be set up in their community, their responses reflected a wide variety of facilities. The specific facilities mentioned were community accommodation (50%), cultural centre (15.4%), community conservation area (12.3%), restaurant (5.4%), jobs and income generation (10%) and security (5.4%). However, 1.5% did not respond (Table 4.27).

The results in Table 4.28 reveal that most of the respondents are willing to assist in putting up tourist facilities within the community. When the respondents were asked to indicate how they would assist the following ways were stated: providing person power in construction (6.9%), security (15.4%), craft products (6.9%), provide site (2.3%), financial assistance (2.3%), maintaining the facilities (29.2%), serve as a worker (13.1%) and promotion of Zulu culture and tradition (6.9%). The rest of the respondents suggested any form of assistance (10.8%), did not know (2.3%) or did not respond (3.9%). The results clearly indicate that the local communities are willing to work jointly with the interested parties in promoting the tourism industry within the community.

In fact, with EKZNW facilitating the process a lot of desired tourist facilities have been proposed for the neighbouring communities and Park management has moved a step ahead. For example, plans are underway to set up cultural villages at the community education centre.

Table 4. 28: Respondents' views on their input into developing facilities

Input in facility development	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Person power	9	6.9
Security	20	15.4
Craft products	9	6.9
Provide site	3	2.3
Financial assistance	3	2.3
Maintain the facilities	38	29.2
Serve as worker	17	13.1
Promotion of Zulu culture and tradition	9	6.9
Any form of assistance	14	10.8
Don't know	3	2.3
No response	5	3.9

4.2.6 The Community and the Natural Environment

Respondents from the Nompondo community were asked if they depend on any natural resources from HiP. The overwhelming majority (98.5%) indicated that they depend on natural resources from the HiP. Most studies that have been conducted indicate that local communities residing adjacent to protected areas are denied access to natural resources, which are a viable source of their basic needs (Biodiversity Stewardship Programme, 2012). In the case of the HiP, the results from Nompondo community reveal that some community members have access to at least one of the resources in HiP (Table 4.28). This is in agreement with what the researcher learnt from the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator (Zululand Region) that for the past thirty years neighbouring communities have had access to a number of natural resources such as thatching grass, hay, reeds, meat and wood. There have also been times when HiP provided water, sand and other building materials. On the contrary, Hoole and Berkes (2010) reported that the local people in West Caprivi (Namibia) clearly stated that they had a feeling of alienation from wildlife as a resource and desired to share in its economic benefits. In Madagascar, the local people bordering the Mananara Biosphere are not allowed to enter into its two Parks (marine and terrestrial) even to gather dry wood (Ferse et al., 2010). The findings from this study show that community members in this instance have access to natural resources within the Park. The nature and extent of access to specific natural resources as well as the problems encountered are discussed below.

Table 4. 29: Types of resources within the HiP that impact on the lives of respondents from the Nompondo community

Resources	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Community levy trust fund	20	15.4
Thatching grass	52	40
Water	7	5.4
Firewood	33	25.4
Animal by-products	4	3.8
Meat donation for ceremonies	1	0.8
None	13	10

Table 4.29 indicate that 15.4% of the respondents from the Nompondo community are benefiting through the community levy trust fund. This was further supported by the Community Conservation Manager. Communities adjacent to HiP benefit from income generated by the Park through a community levy paid by visitors. These funds are administered through the Community Trust Fund and provided to communities for development needs as prescribed by EKZNW Board Policies. Through this fund EKZNW authority has been able to build the Nselweni Bush Lodge for 10 traditional authorities that border the HiP. Furthermore, a 4x4 game viewing vehicle was purchased through the profit that is generated by this lodge that is 100% owned by communities that borders the HiP including the Nompondo community under the Mdletshe Tribal Authority.

The majority of the respondents (40%) from the Nompondo community mentioned that they harvest thatching grass from HiP (Table 4.29). This was similar to what Rinzin et al. (2009) identified in Nepal where the Park officials allow the neighbouring local communities to collect grass for house construction and thatching from the Royal Chitwan National Park once a year. Nzama (2009) learnt from the Khula and Dukuduku communities that the local people harvest grass, reeds and thatch from ISimangaliso Wetland Park in KwaZulu-Natal. In fact, all the homes that the researcher visited had at least one traditional item made from grass materials. This proves that there is a large demand for the grass materials, especially thatching grass and reeds which have to be replaced periodically. Grass is also in high demand for handicraft work, which was cited as an important source of income for most of the female respondents. In fact, the majority of the female respondents were busy working on their handicraft products when approached to be interviewed. However, one major complaint from the respondents was that the grass is not completely free. This was based on the fact that for every four bundles of grass cut one belongs to the Park and it is used to roof some of the

accommodation facilities within the Park. Personal communications with the Conservator revealed the same. The Conservator, however, explained that this kind of arrangement was put in place in order to promote sustainable utilisation of the resources. Apparently, some community members perceive the concept of sustainable utilisation negatively. For instance, discussions with a few respondents revealed that some of the people from the neighbouring communities still hold the old belief that EKZNW the government or simply the "white person" wants the grass for herself/himself or her/his animals. Therefore, the idea that the natural resources in the Park are limited is viewed with a certain degree of scepticism though not complete rejection.

Only 5.4% of the respondents indicated that they have access to water in HiP (Table 4.29), which they either utilise while on duty in HiP or fetch in containers with varying capacities to take home. The rest of the respondents claimed that most of the community members have access to either clean tap water or water from the rivers. The clean tap water is provided free of charge through the Water Project Scheme, which was facilitated by HiP management. In fact the researcher observed a fair distribution of water taps within the community. The low response indicates that access to water as a resource has not been denied but instead the community members have other easy alternatives of obtaining water and so they do not have to depend on water in the HiP.

The results show that while 25.4% of the respondents obtain firewood from HiP (Table 4.29), the rest either get firewood from trees in the surrounding communal land/own plots or in addition use other sources of fuel like gas, paraffin, charcoal and electricity. However, 5.4% respondents who reside 11-15 km from the HiP complained that they are unable to access firewood from HiP and they attributed this to the very long distances they have to travel in order to collect firewood from HiP (Table 4.11). This is an indication that they have not been denied access to firewood in HiP but the limiting factor is the long distances they have to cover in order to obtain the firewood.

Results show that only 3.8% of the respondents admitted that they obtain animal by-products from the Park (Table 4.29). The low response was due to the fact that most of the respondents are more interested in meat than the animal by-products. In fact, the researcher learnt from most respondents that it is the traditional healers and their helpers who mainly collect the by-products such as hides and skins for healing purposes.

One respondent indicated that through the tribal leaders they receive donations of meat from the Park when they are having ceremonies (Table 4.29). However, during informal discussions, some of the respondents claimed that the donations are mainly given to the tribal leaders. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator attributed this complaint to the fact that there are instances where nepotism (the donations go to relatives of the tribal leaders) occurs and as a result some people end up claiming that they have been denied access. It will not be fair to blame HiP management for this unfair practice and so the tribal leaders have to set up a fair system for the distribution of the donations.

Table 4. 30: Respondents’ views with regards to accessing resources in the HiP: (Multiple responses)

Conditions under which access is granted	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Access under professional field ranger	30	23.1
Allowed only in a certain period of time	13	10
Apply for permission	4	3.1
Only allowed during winter	1	0.8
Only get firewood in winter	5	3.8
Limited access due to park ecology	2	1.5
Park manager must grant permission	75	57.7

Table 4.30 illustrates the conditions under which the respondents from the Nompondo community are allowed to access natural resources in the HiP. The majority of the respondents (57.7%) indicated that they must first apply for permission to access the natural resources from the HiP manager. Twenty three percent indicated that access to natural resources must be under the supervision of a trained field ranger. Furthermore, 10% indicated that they should be only allowed to access natural resources at certain times of the year.

These results indicate a clear restriction of community members to access natural resources from HiP. For rural communities residing adjacent to protected areas, the natural environment is a source of livelihood in terms of providing subsistence at a household level; it also forms the spiritual and cultural context.

Table 4. 31: Respondent’s perceptions as to whether tourists have contributed to negative environmental impacts

Perception on natural environment	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Plant and tree destruction		
Yes	30	23.1
No	100	76.9
Water pollution		
Yes	1	0.8
No	129	99.2
Air pollution		
Yes		
No	130	100
Vandalism of artifacts		
Yes		
No	130	100
Animal depletion		
Yes		
No	130	100
Don’t know		
Yes	130	100
No		

The overwhelming majority of the respondents from the Nompondo community perceive that tourism activities did not cause any destruction to the plants and trees (76.9%), water pollution (99%), air pollution (100%), animal depletion (100%) or the vandalism of artefacts (100%) in HiP (Table 4.31). With domestic and international tourism rapidly increasing in the country it is important that legislation curtails the impact of tourism on the environment. In this study the majority of the respondents indicated that they do not feel that visitors have contributed to negative environmental impacts which are an indication that the natural environment is well managed. However, it is of outmost importance that HiP management mobilise community support since the current benefits derived directly for communities from ecotourism in the area are limited. As the literature indicate that when communities do not see any benefits from protected areas particularly in ecotourism they are most likely to undermine conservation efforts.

4.2.7 Suggestions from the Nompondo Community with Regard to Ecotourism Operations in the HiP

Although the overall results show that some members of Nompondo community have access to a number of natural resources within the HiP, 87% of the respondents indicated that there

are other beneficial resources they desire to have. The desired natural resources include building poles, medicinal plants, job creating resources as well as animals especially the warthogs and fish (Figure 4.5). This was in agreement with the information that the researcher obtained from the Conservation manager. This to some extent shows that some members of Nompondo community regard the natural resources within the Park as a possible way to survive, since in the community there is badly anything to meet their demands. The respondents further claimed that they are not allowed to hunt in the HiP as well as to collect medicinal plants. When they were asked how such a problem could be resolved, they suggested that there is a need for more negotiations between the HiP management and the community.

The Conservation manager, however, indicated that HiP management especially the office of the HiP Ecologist has taken a decision not to allow communities that are adjacent to HiP to obtain the desired natural resources due to a number of reasons. Firstly, the building poles can only be obtained depending on the trees cut. Secondly, since hunting in the HiP is not permitted, it is only the dead animals that are given to the traditional healers who utilise the animal parts for healing purposes. Thirdly, with regard to the issue of gathering medicinal plants, the Conservation manager clearly stated that the EKZNW policy does not allow for this practice. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator also confirmed the policy requirements. The Conservation manager and the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator further emphasised that the issue of medicinal plants has been addressed by providing traditional healers with seedlings from the indigenous plant nursery, which is stationed within the Park so that they can grow their own plants.

Some traditional healers, however, have a belief that the only medicine that can heal is that obtained from the plants that are growing naturally. This is similar to what Msuya and Kideghesho (2009) noted regarding the Bondei tribe of Tanzania bordering the West Usambara Mountains that it is not easy to persuade traditional healers to give up the use of traditional medicine plants growing naturally in protected areas. Fourthly, concerning the issue of job creating resources, the ilala palm (*Hyphaene Coriacea*) and incema grass (salt marsh rush – *Juncuskraussii*) types used for handicraft products are not presently found within HiP. Finally, the fish that are present in the HiP are minimal and are not harvested at all. Of late, many conservationists have come to realise the lawful rights of rural populations concerning the utilisation of natural resources (Ashley, 2009) and therefore the Park

management needs to harmonise the exact needs, motivations as well as the capabilities of the local people in order to address the concerns of the local communities.

In addition, personal communications with the Community Conservation Manager revealed that since the rate of poor rural communities exceeds that of the natural resources in the HiP, it is not possible to meet all their demands. The Community Conservation Manager, though sympathetic, further raised an important issue that it is not feasible to allow each and every person to have access to the HiP for resources, as this will make HiP lose sight of its sustainable utilisation motive. He, therefore, suggested that the EKZNW head office in collaboration with the HiP management need to conduct more workshops with the neighbouring communities to make them aware and clearly grasp the importance of nature conservation. This corresponds with what Lindsey et al. (2013) concluded that education is a pre-requisite to make people aware of the potential economic value of wildlife and the disadvantages of alternative land uses like agriculture in marginal lands.

The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator also felt that it is not practical for every single person living around the Park to have access to natural resources within the Park. The feeling was based on the fact that the natural resources in the Park are limited and, therefore, have to be shared equitably amongst the many people living on the Park's boundaries. Furthermore, EKZNW would only be able to provide natural resources, which are available and can be sustainably harvested without impacting on the Park's ecology. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator further advised that presently the harvesting of the natural resources is monitored as well as evaluated and that there are recommendations in place as to which species are suitable for harvesting and in what quantities. In addition, there is a protocol through TAs relating to how the natural resources are shared. However, there could be instances where nepotism occurs as already mentioned and this makes some people claim that they have been denied access to natural resources.

Whilst the local communities perceive that it is their right to have access to all resources in the Park, one has to bear in mind that there are principles, guidelines and policies in place for the smooth operation of protected areas. It is also true that as the rural population grows, the demand for resources also increases and it is biodiversity to suffer in the long run. Therefore, a combined approach to conservation is needed in order to assess the various benefits and costs to all the involved parties.

4.2.3.3 Benefits Received by the Community from HiP

There is a general perception in developing countries and, to some degree in developed countries, that protected areas have been until recently established to preserve important natural resources and special habitats (Adams et al., 2009b). In addition, little attention has been given to the needs of local people residing inside or near the areas set aside for protection (Lockwood, 2010) and instead they bear the costs with hardly any benefits (Henson et al., 2009). The results from the study reveal that some members of Nompondo community benefit from the Park through various ways (Figure 4.6).

The respondents who stated admitted that they benefit from education/training programmes offered by the Park accounted for 8% (Figure 4.6). This was in agreement with some information gathered through personal communications with key informants. According to one of the Chiefs, once a year matric candidates from the schools within the community are taken for camping in the Park where they receive environmental education. This is further supported by the report of Adams et al. (2009) on the conceptual development plan of the HiP, which stated that in 2003 over 2000 children from neighbouring communities had an opportunity of being exposed to lectures, videos, slides and children's wildlife camps. In fact, an educational children's camp has been running in HiP since 1992 and has provided an outdoor classroom for the learners and educators through the Sontuli education camp (Adams et al., 2009). Despite the fact that the government has cut down on the subsidy to HiP of late, thus denying children from neighbouring poor rural communities an opportunity to camp, an alternative channel has been put in place. This has been made possible through the Sifundimvelo programme, which is self-sustaining where the more "advantaged" schools subsidise the "poorer" schools, that are adjacent to HiP who do not pay at all.

Furthermore, personal communications with the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator also revealed that local communities bordering the HiP benefit through various education/training programmes. The programmes that currently run include those with Local Board members, traditional healers, community tour guides, TAs as well as scholars/teachers. The biodiversity programmes involve teachers' workshops, junior research programmes and day visits. There is also a scholarship programme, which is funded by the Wilderness Foundation. Other programmes include capacity building related to learnerships, internship and the recently launched rhino ambassador programme.

Additionally, personal communications with the Conservation manager revealed that some members from the neighbouring communities are trained as community guides and also provided with skills in market gardening as well as in conflict resolution. In fact the researcher was privileged to see one of the community garden projects, which is a product of the training programmes. The researcher also learnt from one of the daughters that they harvest vegetables throughout the year. The family members consume the vegetables and the surplus is sold in order to generate income.

The results reveal that 20% of the respondents indicated that the Park offers some job opportunities to neighbouring local communities (Figure 4.6). This was in agreement with the information the researcher gathered from the Conservation Manager and the Community Conservation Manager. According to the Conservation Manager, about 80% of the permanent workers are from the 10 neighbouring communities. This is further supported by the report produced by Govindasamy (2013) on the workers of the HiP in which he noted that 91% of the employees are from the neighbouring local communities. The Community Conservation Manager also had the same notion but he emphasised that due to a high unemployment rate within the region, the HiP cannot meet the job demands of all the unemployed members within the community. The Conservation manager further expressed a major concern that although most of the permanent employees are from the neighbouring communities, the majority are either unskilled or semi-skilled. On a positive note he revealed that plans have already been put in place to change this situation. For example, the unskilled and semi-skilled workers are sent to the training centre of EKZNW in Midmar in order to acquire and improve their skills. This is, however, a slow process due to the history of the past and to high illiteracy rates among some of the employees. This is in agreement with what Alkan et al. (2009) noted that local people from impoverished communities adjacent to South African Parks have limited chances of being employed in the tourism sector due to lack of education, skills and training.

Fifteen percent of the respondents indicated that natural resource management (which they perceive as the managing and controlling of their own game reserve) is one of the benefits offered by HiP (Table 4.31). This was in agreement with what the researcher learnt through personal communication with the chief that the majority of the community members are aware of and support nature conservation. The chief further revealed that most of the respondents are very excited about the Umkhombe tourism project which has been established for the Nompondo community to manage and control.

Apart from the community members being involved in managing their own ecotourism projects, some of the members are also involved in natural resource management through taking part in alien plant control, burning programmes, game population management and culling. In addition, other forms of natural resource management include education programmes and extension advice from the Community Conservation team field staff. This practice is similar to what Hoole (2009) identified in the West Caprivi region of Namibia where local communities have agreed to work jointly with the Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs in promoting nature conservation.

The results reveal that 30% of the respondents consider ecotourism as a benefit from HiP (Figure 4.6). This high response is due to the fact that some of the respondents have a chance of interacting with tourists who come to visit HiP. For example, some of the respondents mentioned that sometimes the HiP management take tourists to the community. This is similar to what was observed in the villages that surround the Ngorongoro and Serengeti National Parks (Tanzania) where tourists are encouraged to visit the locals in order to gain a better insight into how people exactly live (King, 2010). Furthermore, the respondents who are involved in handicraft work stated that they benefit from the tourists who buy their handicraft products at the Nyalazi and Memorial entrance gates as well as along the roadside. The HiP management also runs workshops with the community members geared towards the introduction of tourism within the area.

Although the results generally show that members of Nompondo community benefit from the Park, some of the respondents felt that there are other ways they could benefit. Examples of other benefits cited were accessibility to natural resources in the Park (12.6%), environmental education (11.5%), community development (23%), more job opportunities (14.6%), good relationship with the HiP management/staff (30.7%) and preventive measures for problematic animals (7.6%) (Table 4.32). When the respondents were asked to suggest some of the ways to make this a reality, they indicated that the way forward is for them to have their own community-based ecotourism project.

Table 4. 32: Other perceived benefits from the HiP

Other perceived benefits	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Access to natural resources	16	12.6
Environmental education	15	11.5
Community development	30	23
Job opportunities	19	14.6
Good relationship with management/staff	40	30.7
Preventive measures for problematic Animal	10	7.6

The Community Conservation Manager supported the respondents though he cautioned that the HiP cannot manage on its own to meet the needs of the impoverished communities since it is not a profit-making organisation. The Community Conservation Manager, therefore, suggested that the government and other interested parties have to work hand in hand with the HiP management to meet the needs of impoverished communities. This could be attained through co-ordinating with other agencies to channel funds to community initiated development projects, provided they will not create negative impacts such as reduced land and resource availability, increased rates of wildlife depletion as well as impoverishment on the well-being of the local people.

On the other hand, the researcher learnt from the Conservation Manager that most of the cited benefits, except that of accessibility to all natural resources in the Park, have already been realised. For example, according to the Conservation Manager, community development as a benefit has to some extent been realised as a result of the establishment of the Umkhombe tourism project. Furthermore, although personal communications with the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator revealed that community development is not the mandate of EKZNW; most projects based on the conservation of biodiversity within the community involve community development and capacity building. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator, therefore, suggested that one of the ways through which community development could be realised is to collaborate with partners who are in position of providing a wide community development service. This has been partly achieved in Madwaleni community, which is currently working in partnership with the Mtubatuba municipality concentrating on community development projects through the Expanded Public Works Programme (EPWP).

In addition to community development, job opportunities as a benefit has also been realised to some extent. The Conservation manager based his argument on the fact that the establishment of the Umkhombe tourism project called for the establishment of new tourism facilities and this meant additional job opportunities for the communities. Furthermore, some community members have been trained as tour guides to take tourists around the HiP and the community (Adeleke and Nzama, 2013b). In addition, the establishment of Nselweni Bush Lodge also created more job opportunities as well as income generation in the communities as the TAs have shares in the businesses operated. On the other hand, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator suggested that since EKZNW is about to embark on retrenchment in the HiP, more job opportunities could be made available through community-based ecotourism opportunities. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator, therefore, advised that this would require partnerships from the private sector as well as the creation of a more conducive environment (for example, less crime in the region) to serve as an attraction.

The TAs relate quite well with the Park management although in some cases they do not communicate the outcomes of the meetings held with the Park management to their constituencies. This poor communication results in some of the community members having a negative attitude towards, and poor relations with the Park management. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator, however, was optimistic that the transformation of the organisation and the establishment of the Local Board for HiP will go a long way towards improving the relationship between the Park management and the neighbouring communities. Environmental awareness is yet another benefit that has been realised though not fully due to financial constraints. For example, Chief Mdletshe has been actively involved in educating local people as to why animals and trees are important and discouraging local residents from poaching in the Park. The issue of having access to all resources in the Park, as already stated, is not favoured at all by the EKZNW policy. The Conservation manager, however, admitted that if there are excess resources the local communities are allowed to have them.

4.2.3.4 Tourism Development in the Community

Many rural communities regard tourism as an economic development strategy (Mbaiwa and Stronza, 2010). In fact, most studies reveal that rural residents are positive towards tourism since they perceive that it positively affects community development and quality of life. Strickland-Munro et al. (2010b) argue that tourism generates revenue for use in the management of Makuleke community (Mpumalanga province) and development of the

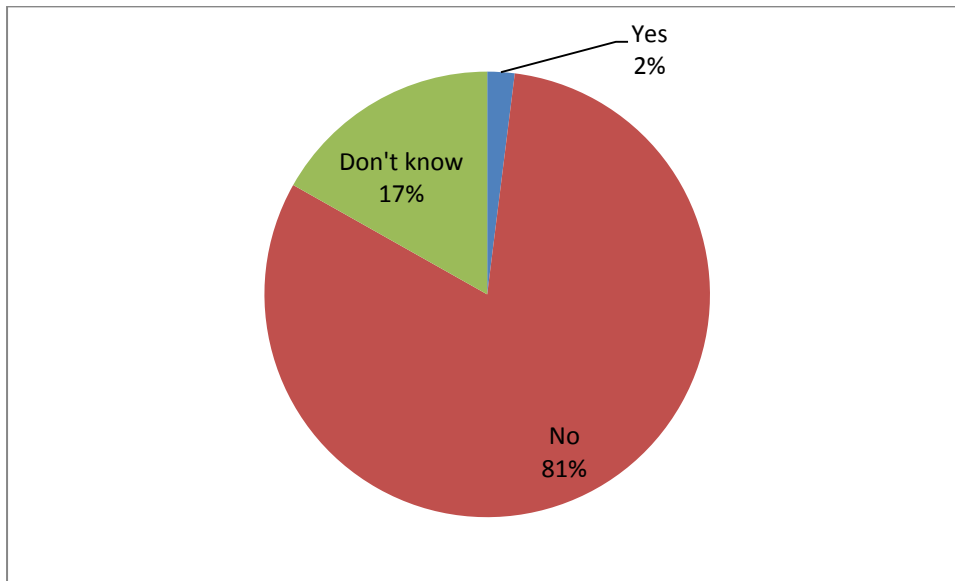
bordering local communities. So far, the majority of tourism enterprises in the area are locally controlled initiatives.

Community's Participation in the Operation and Management of the Park

A study of a few Integrated Conservation and Development Projects (ICDPs) in developing countries indicates that local participation is vital in order to achieve both conservation and development goals (Coria and Calfucura, 2012). However, few communities are involved in the establishment or management of neighbouring protected areas (Nicholas et al., 2009) and insufficient attention has been given to the linkages between local participation, conservation and national economies (Tomićević et al., 2010). The results from Nompondo community show that the minority of the respondents (2%) agreed that the local communities participate in the operation and management of the HiP as compared to 81% who did not (Figure 4.8). This was in agreement with what was noted in the northern part of Ghana that there has been very little or no attempt to encourage local community participation in the management of the protected areas (Strickland-Munro et al., 2010a).

Although the respondents had a problem in identifying the various forms of local people's participation in the operation and management of the Park, information gathering, decision-making, employment opportunities, private enterprise and consultation as noted by (Berkes, 2009) were observed by the researcher. For example, the researcher learnt from the Park manager that some of the family members are either employed as game guards, game capturers and general assistants or serve as communicators whose role is to act as the mediators between the local community and the Park management.

Figure 4. 10: Community's participation in the operation/management of the Park (in %)



Furthermore, the respondents stated that some members from their families serve in various capacities on committees such as rhino ambassadors (16%), tourism committee (12%), the local board (4%) and committee member (32%) for the *Vukuzame* craft market (Table 4.33). Thirty six percent of the respondents did not respond. When the respondents were asked to explain the roles of the cited committees they gave the following responses. They claimed that the local board committee is in charge of the entire community development. They further stated that it had already assisted with the establishment of Umkhombe ecotourism project, which aim at encouraging ecotourism development in the community as well as the establishment of Nselweni Bush Lodge. The role of the organising committee for the *Vukuzame*, according to the respondents, is to make sure that the craft market directly benefits women in the community. On the other hand, the respondents admitted that they do not have enough information on the role of the tourism committee. The researcher, however, learnt from the Community Conservation manager who works directly with the community that the role of the tourism committee is to determine how tourism can meet the social and economic needs of the community members.

In addition, the researcher learnt from the Conservation manager that a Local Board comprising of members from tribal and local authorities, formal agriculture, regional tourism, business sector, regional and town councils, environmental groups, special interest groups and formally constituted organisations is already in place. The role of the Board is twofold: firstly, it promotes local decision-making regarding the compilation and implementation of

the Park's development plan and secondly, it promotes the integration of the activities of the Park into the bordering communities including the implementation of the community levy. The two roles, however, have to be implemented in consultation with the Nature Conservation Board.

Despite the fact that the local communities are involved in the operation and management of the Park through various forms, the researcher identified that members are not given equal opportunities. For example, the majority of members who have a chance to participate were men except in the case of the handicraft private enterprise. Agarwal (2009) observed a similar practice in the case of Ranomafana National Park in Madagascar. In addition, local participation is largely limited to occasional gathering of information and consultation with specific attention to local leaders and members of various committees, who in some cases do not pass over the information to the rest of the people. This can be avoided by improving on the channels of communication.

Table 4. 33: Different ways through which community members are involved in the operation and management of the park as perceived by respondents

Involvement	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Rhino ambassador	4	3.1
Committee member	8	6.2
Tourism committee (chairman)	3	2.3
Local board member	1	0.8
No response	9	6.9
Not applicable	105	80.7

On the other hand, although the majority of the respondents (81%) claimed that local communities are not involved in the operation and management of the Park (Figure 4.11), the results reveal that they expressed a desire to do so if given an opportunity. The various ways they mentioned include job opportunities (7.7%), accessibility to natural resources (2.3%), decision-making (3.8%) and promotion of environmental education (3.8%) (Table 4.34). However, they did not have any ideas on how to make this possible. They did highlight that HiP management had promised them some funds and game animals to set up their own game reserve. In fact the researcher learnt from the Community Conservation Manager that the community levy, which is obtained from monies paid by the Park's visitors, had already been introduced in this regard and, according to the Conservation manager, the community levy

fund has been used to construct the community owned lodge in the HiP that is already generating R1.5 million per annum.

Table 4. 34: Desired ways through which community members would like to be involved in the operation and management of the HiP

How you would like to be involved	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Decision-making	5	3.8
Job opportunity	10	7.7
Access to natural resources	3	2.3
Promote environmental education	5	3.8
No response	2	1.5
Not applicable	105	80.8

Some of the respondents also indicated their willingness to work jointly with the Park management in order to develop and uplift their community. The ways suggested include access to resources and facilities in the Park, more job opportunities, soliciting of funds, extension of tourist facilities and activities to the community and joint decision-making. According to the Conservator, some of these have already been implemented. The community has already received donations to put up schools and clinics as well as establish vegetable gardens. A craft market and restaurant have been set up at the Centenary Centre in iMfolozi Section and the running of the restaurant is shared between the local communities and the Park. The committees that have been put in place have the mandate to oversee the proposed projects. Furthermore, the Park financially supported the establishment of the Nselweni Bush Lodge, which is owned and operated by ten tribal authorities neighbouring the HiP. When the respondents were further asked what they hope to gain from the partnership, they gave responses like income (4.6%), job opportunities (5.4%), recreation and entertainment (2.3%), community environmental awareness (2.3%) and accessibility to resources within the Park (3.8%) (Table 4.35). This to some degree indicates that communities neighbouring the HiP are aware of the opportunities for joint tourism ventures. The ten tribal authorities surrounding HiP meet annually to decide on how they are going to use the funds generated by the Lodge. This is done in consultation with community members from the ten TAs. The communities meet annually with the representatives of the Local Board to decide on various sustainable projects that can be financed through the profits generated by the Lodge.

Table 4. 35: Various ways through which community members hope to gain from working in partnership with the HiP management

What you hope to gain from this partnership	Frequency (n=130)	Percentage (100)
Community environmental awareness	3	2.3
Access to resources in the park	5	3.8
Recreation and entertainment	3	2.3
Job opportunities	7	5.4
Income	6	4.6
No response	1	0.8
Not applicable	105	80.8

4.3 Conclusion

The major focus of this chapter was to describe and interpret the collected data. The findings were obtained from the background information as well as the socio-economic and environmental impacts associated with ecotourism related activities. The background information revealed that most of the respondents were female and 35 years and above, who have lived in the area for more than 25 years. The researcher also found out that despite the fact that most of the respondents are unemployed and depend on a multiple survival strategy, they have opted for big families.

The socio-economic impacts of tourism on poor rural communities bordering the Park was revealed in specific areas which include access to natural resources, participation in the operation and management of the Park, interaction with the Park management/staff, tourism development and other specific benefits. The results revealed positive socio-economic impacts in all the identified specified areas except in participation of the management of the Park where local communities are not fully involved. This suggests that there is a need to focus on structures that will involve local communities in the operation and management of the Park. This may involve many areas like training/educational programmes yet to be introduced. Some of the problems highlighted in the study include problematic animals that destroy crops as well as attack the livestock, the perception that wild animals are protected instead of people, inaccessibility to natural resources as well as lack of farming land. Finally, the results show a desire among the respondents to develop and participate in community-based tourism ventures linked to the Park with a hope of raising the standards of living hence community upliftment.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to provide a summary of the findings as well as recommendations based on the research. The main findings of this study indicated that the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism in rural areas adjacent to HiP were revealed in specific areas. The specific areas identified are: interaction with the management and staff of the Park, participation in the operation and management of HiP, access to natural resources, tourism development ventures in the community and other specific benefits. Despite some limitations, these findings offer direction for the planning of tourism-related initiatives and serve as an assessment of the potential of ecotourism since, if well planned, ecotourism can contribute to the social, economic and environmental development of host communities. This potential is reflected in the specific areas as outlined below.

5.2 Summary of the Key Findings in Relation to the Objectives of the Study

This section summarises the key findings of the research in relation to the formulated objectives presented in chapter 1. The issues pertaining the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism are centralised.

5.2.1 The Extent and Nature of Interaction Between the Nompondo Community and HiP Management

The results from this study indicate a range of opportunities for positive interactions, which are attributed to job opportunities, good working relations and joint problem solving. This suggests that HiP management has moved a step ahead in order to reduce the tensions that exist between communities and HiP. In fact, this is relevant mainly in regions where a long history of animosity has been into existence, as is the case in many South Africa's protected areas owned by the state (Muzeza and Snyman, 2013). Despite these positive views, problematic animals that escape from the Park and are a threat to livestock and crops were identified as a major source of conflict. Although no one mentioned any danger posed to human lives, it is common that if the animals escape, they can easily attack human beings. The respondents, however, indicated that unlike in the past, the HiP management has shown their concern by putting in place a couple of measures to curb the problem. Examples of measures that have been put in place include the erection of an electrified fence, regular fence

line upgrading and patrol, hunting and destroying the animals as well as compensating for the losses but only those incurred as a result of animals that were reintroduced into the Park. It is, therefore, important to have a deeper understanding of the issues of conflict as well as the level of communication in order to determine the relationship between management and communities. This in the long run plays a vital role in attaining favourable relations between communities and management.

Furthermore, the results showed that the Nompondo community does not participate fully in the operation and management of HiP. Similar results were obtained in some developing countries where a few communities are involved in the management of protected areas (Nicholas et al., 2009) and insufficient attention accorded to linkages between local participation, conservation and national economies (Akama et al., 2011). Although the involvement of neighbouring communities in the operation and management of protected areas is essential, one has to bear in mind that due to the colonial and apartheid policies, not all local people have the skills and expertise required in this regard. However, many training programmes have been initiated to equip the local people with the relevant skills. In addition, some local people serve on committees like tourism, rhino ambassador and the organising committee for *Vukuzame* craft market as well as on Local Board which work hand in hand with EKZNW officials. Most of the respondents were also positive and expressed a desire to fully participate if offered an opportunity.

5.2.3 Types of Tourists Facilities and Resources within HiP that Impact or has the Potential to Impact on the Lives of the Nompondo Community

Indications are that some of the communities bordering the HiP have access to at least one of the natural resources, namely, meat, water, firewood and thatching grass. Thatching grass which is received through the cut and take-system, where 3 of every 4 bundles cut is taken by the community member participating in the cutting accounted for 40%. This is similar to what Snyman and Spenceley (2012) found out that some materials such as venison, firewood and reeds for crafts are available to local communities adjacent to the Nyae Nyae Conservancy in Namibia. (Strickland-Munro and Moore, 2014) also indicated that some of the traditional healers living on the western border of the Kruger National Park admitted that they harvest medicinal plants from inside the Park. In the Pilanesberg National Park, North West Province, local people are supplied with meat from culling programmes and are allowed selective harvesting of some resources (Carruthers, 2011). This suggests that there is a mutual

benefit for both the community and the HiP and communities are developing some trust in HiP Management.

5.2.4 The Nompondo Community's Involvement in the Development and Promotion of Ecotourism in HiP

Tourism development in the community was revealed through two specific areas. Firstly, there is interaction between the tourists who visit HiP and the neighbouring rural communities. This kind of interaction has brought a number of positive socio-economic benefits to the community. Examples of such benefits include job opportunities, income generation through the sale of handicraft and other related products as well as sharing cultures and traditions. The high regard for job opportunities and income generation as benefits in the community deserves special attention. This can be attributed to the fact the poverty within the region makes the monetary benefits to be considered very significant. The second form of ecotourism development was revealed as a result of the desire to have more tourists' visits as well as the establishment of other tourist facilities in addition to the Umkhombe tourism project in the community. This is an indication that since there is limited income generating opportunities in the region, the communities perceive ecotourism as an alternative. Such perceptions in most cases lead to negative impacts since the expectations far exceed what ecotourism can offer. Furthermore, it is also important to consider the time required for the communities to realise tangible benefits from ecotourism related projects as the communities tend to expect immediate benefits. Ecotourism initiatives should not be looked upon as the remedy for rural development, but instead should be part of a larger development strategy for the region.

5.2.5 The Attitudes and Perceptions of the Nompondo Community Towards HiP

Other benefits highlighted during the study are education/training programmes which include children wildlife camps, biodiversity education, capacity building, internship for field rangers, training of tour community guides, as well as market gardening. In addition, natural resource management, which partly involved the establishment of Nselweni Bush Lodge, as well as participation in park management/operation, which the community enjoys through Local Boards and committees are other benefits. Although a lot of focus is on economic benefits due to poverty that is prevalent in the community, the above stated benefits are equally important as they also enhance the livelihoods of local people through capacity building and other related opportunities.

5.3 Reflections on the Study

Despite the fact that the study aim and objectives were achieved, the researcher feels that better and more informative results would have been obtained and this is attributed to the following: the issue of protected areas involves the conservation authorities, communities and tourists. Unfortunately, the tourists were not involved in the survey. It would have been beneficial to get the views of the tourists concerning their visits to communities.

The rural communities in KwaZulu-Natal have a top-down tribal authority system where the members have to be subordinates. The possibility that the ruling system had an impact on the responses of local people cannot be ignored. The HiP is surrounded by ten communities under ten tribal authorities with different opinions about and attitudes/perceptions towards nature conservation. More communities should have been selected to be part of the sample population. The researcher mainly interviewed EKZNW officials from the management. It would have been useful to also get the views and opinions of more junior employees who happen to be from the neighbouring communities as well.

5.4 Recommendations

The study revealed the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism in rural communities residing adjacent to HiP with specific reference to Nompondo community. This research project simply has touched the surface of many wider issues at stake. The recommendations provided below may play an important role in the realisation of the potential of ecotourism in the socio-economic development of the neighbouring rural communities without jeopardising the biodiversity conservation of the HiP.

More research should be undertaken such as a comparative study of separate communities around the HiP and how they perceive the HiP, a follow-up on the Nompondo community case to see whether any long-term changes have come out of the process discussed in this research project, an investigation into the land claim and settlement affecting people in the Dakaneni area of Nompondo, a more in-depth look at the histories and life narratives of community members to understand how they view the environment around them, and a study of environmental legislation in the area and its effect on local people who value and use natural resources. These topics could provide insight into the complexities of how local communities, especially those who depend on natural resources, continue to struggle to meet their needs.

There is a need to promote ecotourism, which will promote off-farm opportunities for local communities while at the same time reduce negative environmental impacts. In addition, local communities should be made more aware of the potential socio-economic values of wildlife as a natural resource and the possibilities for wildlife-based rural development.

HiP management as well as local communities should collaborate and work in partnership with both government and non-government organisations in increasing the expenditures of tourists to the communities within the respective regions. Possible ventures may include motivating and assisting the local communities to develop more tourist accommodation facilities outside the Park in suitable areas close to the boundary. This could be advantageous in that further disruption of the Park's ecology will be minimised and the communities will benefit economically from catering for tourists' requirements provided there is proper and careful planning.

The organisation of more attractions (such as traditional dancing and singing, storytelling, traditional healing and other related activities) as well as tours to persuade tourists to stay longer than they had originally planned are recommended. Since in most cases the lack of alternatives forces rural people to use natural resources in an unsustainable manner, the major focus should be to reduce pressure on the Park and this can be best achieved through activities that generate benefits to the adjacent rural communities. Future projects should at least include one or more activities (such as craft making/selling, agricultural production and job creation opportunities) designed to uplift the social and economic needs of communities residing adjacent to HiP, thus treating biodiversity conservation and economic development as integral aspects of the same process of sustainable development.

The local communities should, therefore, be encouraged to learn more about the values of the protected natural resources as well as their role in depleting or maintaining them. At the same time, local communities should be motivated and assisted to gain skills in a number of areas such as community relations, land use planning, poaching control as well as organisation and leadership.

5.5 Conclusion

The history of the HiP requires that the Park make strong efforts to ensure that local people, such as the group from the Nompondo community, benefit from its existence. Indeed this is in the best interest of the goals of preserving biodiversity and promoting environmental awareness. Community members must also understand that the HiP cannot be the sole

provider that meets their needs. While the HiP can play an important role in addressing issues of rural poverty and unemployment, addressing community needs requires cooperation between government, interested NGOs and the private sector, HiP authorities and community members themselves. The difficulty of accomplishing goals even when these actors are in contact is shown in the Nompondo community case. From the legacy of apartheid and realities of unemployment to histories of tense relations between wildlife authorities and local people to ‘bureaucratic red tape’, the situation in the HiP and adjacent communities demonstrates the challenges of promoting protection of the environment while also supporting the people who are affected by such policies. Yet dealing with these factors is central to ensuring that people such as those from the Nompondo community are able to see the Park in positive ways. In addition, the establishment of a permanent body composed of representatives from various stakeholder groups (such as from those involved with land claims to wildlife authorities to government representatives, interested NGOs and, most importantly, community members) might prove to provide a foundation for dealing with similar cases that may arise.

Ecotourism as an industry is seen as a significant contributing factor to the socio-economic development of destination areas. The issue of whether rural communities bordering protected areas benefit from ecotourism is subject to debate, especially in South Africa where conservation of wildlife is firmly associated with the colonial and apartheid period. The study aimed at examining the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism in rural areas bordering the HiP with specific reference to the Nompondo community. The community was chosen because of the fact that it is well developed as compared to the other nine communities. In addition, the community has recognised the potential for cultural tourism and has developed a high level of trust with HiP management, which it considers to be a reliable partner in community development. Nompondo community will, therefore, serve as a model for the other communities. Triangulation (a multi-method approach) was used to determine the attitudes and perceptions of the communities towards Park management/staff and tourists, resources within the park as well as the part communities play in the development and promotion of tourism in the Park. The results from this study indicate that Nompondo community do benefits in different ways.

The benefits highlighted include accessibility to natural resources, tourism development, participation in the operation/management of the Park, education/training programmes as well as natural resource management. Furthermore, the results show that a range of

opportunities for positive interactions between the Park management/staff, tourists and adjacent communities to HiP exist. Examples of opportunities include job prospects, good working relations and joint problem-solving. Despite the above outlined benefits, some of the respondents still have the perception that they are denied access to natural resources, namely, building poles and medicinal plants. In addition, since only a few of the respondents indicated that there is involvement in Park operation/management, there is a need to improve on this aspect and also to involve them in other tourism ventures in order to uplift their standards of living. There are also problematic animals from the Park that were cited as a threat to livestock and crops, but unlike in the past, measures have been put in place to curb the situation.

Finally, this study reveals that ecotourism has the potential to contribute to the socio-economic development of rural communities bordering the HiP. For the Nompondo community this potential has been enhanced because of the cooperation between EKZNW officials, park management and the community. This resulted in the establishment of Nselweni Bush Lodge, which is operated and owned by ten tribal authorities bordering the HiP. This is a significant step towards the socio-economic development of this community through opportunities such as environmental education, jobs, ecotourism as well as cultural tourism. The researcher, however, feels that there is a need for further research to explore possibilities for the socio-economic potential of other communities bordering the Park.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A: Community Questionnaire

SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE, EARTH AND ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM IN RURAL
AREAS: A CASE STUDY OF NOMPONDO, A COMMUNITY BORDERING HLUHLUWE
IMFOLOZI PARK (HIP).

COMMUNITY SURVEY

Park: _____

No.: _____

Municipality: _____

Good day, I am undertaking a survey of the socio-economic impacts of ecotourism within your community on behalf of a student, Mr. Sakhile Nsukwini for his Master's degree at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. May I ask you a few questions in this regard? Your answers will be treated confidentially and anonymously. If at any time during the interview you do not wish to continue, please feel free to do so. Thank you for your participation.

1. HOUSEHOLDS PERSONAL DETAILS

1.1. Gender

1. Male	
2. Female	

1.2. Age of Respondent

1. <25 yrs	2. 26-35 yrs	3. 36-45 yrs	4. 46-55 yrs	5. 56-65 yrs	6. >65 yrs
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1.3. Race Classification

1. African	
2. White	
3. Coloured	

4. Indian	
5. Other	

1.4. Nationality

1. South African	
2. Nigerian	
3. Zimbabwean	
4. Mozambican	
5. Other (specify)	

1.5. Home Language

1. English	
2. Zulu	
3. Xhosa	
4. Afrikaans	
5. Other(specify)	

1.6. Disability

1. Yes	
2. No	

1.7. Education

1. None	
2. Level 1 (preschool, ABET)	
3. Level 2 (std 6, trade certificate)	
4. Level 3 (Std 8, professional trade qualifications)	
5. Level 4 (std 10)	
6. Level 5 (diploma/degree) (specify)	
7. Other (specify)	

1.8. Marital status

1. Currently married	
2. Single	
3. Widowed	
4. Separated	
5. Living with partner	
6. Other	

1.9. Occupation

1. Unemployed	
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2. Domestic	
3. Labourer	
4. Business owner	
5. Technician	
6. Manager	
7. Artisan	
8. Professional	
9. Pensioner	
10. Other	

2. BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF HOUSEHOLD

2.1. Number of people living in your household?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	>10

2.2. Sources of monthly income

Sources	Amount in rands
1. Pensions	
2. Remittances	
3. Wages	
4. Informal income	
5. Farm-harvest	
6. Disability grants	
7. Other state grants (specify)	

2.3. Does your household own any land?

Yes	1
No	2

2.4. For how long have you been living in this area?

1. > 5 years	
2. 6-10 years	
3. 11-15 years	
4. 16-25 years	
5. > 25 years	

2.5. Have you or your family lived elsewhere previously?

1. Yes	
2. No	

2.5.1. If Yes, why did you move here?

1. Forced removal	
2. Better prospects	
3. Other (specify)	

2.6. Does your household have access to land for the following?

	Yes	No
Grazing	1	2
Cultivation	1	2

2.6.1. How would you rate the adequacy of land for the following use?

	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent
Land				
Grazing	1	2	3	4
Cultivation	1	2	3	4

2.7. Where do you reside?

1. Within the Park	
2. 1-5 km radius from the Park boundary	
3. 6-10 km radius from the Park boundary	
4. 11-15 km radius from the Park boundary	
5. 16-20 km radius from the Park boundary	
6. >20 km radius from the Park boundary	

2.7.1. Do you think you will be asked/forced to move out?

1. Yes	2. No
--------	-------

2.7.2. If yes, how far away from the Park are you being relocated?

1. 1-5 km radius from the Park boundary	
2. 6-10 km radius from the Park boundary	
3. 11-15 km radius from the Park boundary	
4. 16-20 km radius from the Park boundary	
5. >20 km radius from the Park boundary	

2.7.3. If yes, how will you be compensated?

1. Money	
2. Another piece of land	
3. Other (specify)	

2.8. Do you have any land claim to the HIP Region?

1. Yes	2. No
--------	-------

2.8.1. If yes, has the claim been settled?

1. Yes	2. No
--------	-------

2.8.2. If yes, how much have you received for your land?

1. <R50 000	
2. R50 000-R100 000	
3. R100 000-R150 000	
4. R150 000-R200 000	
5. R200 000-R250 000	
6. R250 000-R300 000	
7. R300 000-R350 000	
8. Other (specify)	

2.9. Are you experiencing any problems because of living next to HIP?

1. Yes	2. No
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2.9.1. If yes, could you list these problems?

2.9.2. How can these problems be resolved?

2.10. Type of dwelling

Type of house	Pre 1994	Post 1994
1. Own formal house		
2. Own traditional hut		
3. Shack/informal		
4. Formal farmhouse		
5. Employer provided house		

2.11. Type of sanitation

Type of sanitation	Pre 1994	Post 1994
1. Flush toilet		
2. Chemical toilet		
3. Pit latrine		
4. Bucket toilet		
5. None		

2.12. Main sources of domestic water

Sources of water	Pre 1994	Post 1994
1. Tap water in dwelling		
2. Tap water on site		
3. Public tap		
4. Bore-hole communal		
5. Rainwater tank on site		
6. Flowing stream		
7. Well communal		
8. Dam/pool		
9. Spring communal		

2.13. Main sources of energy/fuel for this household

Sources of energy	Pre 1994	Post 1994
1. Electricity from public supply		
2. Gas		
3. Paraffin		
4. Wood		
5. Coal		
6. Candles		
7. Other ()		

3. THE COMMUNITY AND THE ECO-TOURISMPARKS

3.1. Have you heard of ecotourism in HIP Region?

1. Yes	
2. No	

3.1.1. If yes, could you tell me what you understand by ecotourism?

1. People visiting to see plants and animals	Yes	No
2. Vacation	Yes	No
3. Don't know	Yes	No
4. Other (specify)	Yes	No

4. THE COMMUNITY AND THE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM

4.1. Is there a relationship between the community and management/staff of HIP?

1. Yes	
2. No	

4.1.1. If yes, how would you describe this relationship?

1. Excellent	
2. Very good	
3. Good	
4. Average	
5. Bad	
6. Very bad	

4.1.2. Give a reason for your choice of answer.

4.2. Do you require access into HIP for cultural and social reasons?

1. Yes	
2. No	

4.2.1. If yes, are you given access into HIP for such activities?

1. Yes	
2. No	

4.3. Has the HIP invested in any of the following projects in the community?

1. None	Yes	No
2. Clinics	Yes	No
3. Schools	Yes	No
4. Educational trusts	Yes	No
5. Housing	Yes	No
6. Small business ventures	Yes	No
7. Sports facilities	Yes	No
8. Events	Yes	No
9. Community gardens	Yes	No
10. Other ()	Yes	No

4.4. Do you meet the tourists that visit HIP?

1. Yes	
2. No	

4.5. Do you enjoy tourists coming to HIP?

1. Yes	2. No
--------	-------

4.6. Do you think that tourism to your community has resulted in?

1. More sex workers in the area	Yes	No
2. More casinos in the area	Yes	No
3. Lowering of traditional values	Yes	No
4. Feeling negative about your culture	Yes	No
5. Other ()	Yes	No

4.7. Do you think that the establishment of the HIP has an effect on the peoples' lives?

1. Yes	2. No
--------	-------

4.7.1. If yes, in what ways are these changes negative?

4.7.2. If yes, in what ways are these changes positive?

5. THE COMMUNITY AND THE ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM

5.1. How much income do you think is generated by the HIP Ecotourism Park per month?

1. 0-R1000	
2. R1000-R10 000	
3. R10 000- RR50 000	
4. R50 000- R100 000	
5. R100 000-R500 000	
6. >R500 000	

5.2. Who, if anybody, has HIP approached to develop a partnership with?

1. Nobody	Yes	No
2. The Nkosi/Chief	Yes	No
3. Selected members of the community	Yes	No
4. Community Based Organization	Yes	No
5. The counselor	Yes	No
6. Other	Yes	No

5.3. Do you or any of the household members work at HIP?

1. Yes	
2. No	

5.4. Are any members of the community on the management of HIP?

1. Yes	
2. No	
3. Don't know	

5.4.1. If yes, complete the ffg. Table.

Family member	Type of job	Salary per month (see codes)	Permanent, seasonal, casual (see codes)

Codes

Salary per month	Nature of job
1. <R1000.00	1. permanent
2. R1000.00- R3000.00	2. seasonal
3. >R3000.00	3. casual

5.5. Do you know of any Black-owned tourism business?

1. Yes	2. No	3. Don't know
--------	-------	---------------

5.5.1. If yes, what type of business/es is/are it/those?

1. Resort	
2. Tour operator	
3. Arts and crafts	
4. Community accommodation	
5. Consultancy	
6. Other (specify)	

5.6. Would you like to have tourist facilities in your community?

1. Yes	2. No
--------	-------

5.6.1. If yes, what type of facilities would you like to have?

5.6.2. In what ways would you assist in developing the facilities?

6. THE COMMUNITY AND THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

6.1. Do you depend on any natural resources from HIP?

1. Yes	
2. No	

6.1.1. If yes, do you depend on any of the following natural resources that is within or close to HIP?

1. None	Yes	No
2. Water	Yes	No
3. Wood (building, fuel)	Yes	No
4. Plants (food, medicinal)	Yes	No
5. Animals (food, muti)	Yes	No
6. Ancestral worship at specific site	Yes	No
7. Other (specify)	Yes	No

6.1.2. If yes, are you allowed access into HIP for such natural resources?

1. Yes	
2. No	

6.1.3. If yes, please state the conditions (if any) under which access is granted?

6.2. Do you think that tourism to your community has resulted in?

1. Plant and tree destruction	Yes	No
2. Water pollution	Yes	No
3. Air pollution	Yes	No
4. Vandalism of artifacts	Yes	No
5. Animal depletion	Yes	No
6. Don't know	Yes	No
7. Other (specify)	Yes	No

6.2.1. If yes, could you please elaborate?

7. SUGGESTIONS

7.1. What are the advantages of HIP for the community in relation to ecotourism?

7.2. What are the constraints facing the community in relation to ecotourism?

7.3. List ways in which you think HIP can contribute positively towards the development of the community.

7.4. List ways in which you think the community can contribute positively towards the development of the Park.

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

Appendix B: Key informant questionnaire
SCHOOL OF AGRICULTURE, EARTH AND ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES
UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

AN INVESTIGATION OF THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM
IN RURAL AREAS: A CASE STUDY OF NOMPONDO, A COMMUNITY
BORDERING HLUHLUWE IMFOLOZI PARK (HIP).
KEY INFORMANT INTERVIEW

1. Job Title: _____

2. List ways in which the park authority (Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife) is encouraging the HIP to develop a sustainable relationships with local communities bordering the Hluhluwe-iMfolozi Park:

3. What policies are in place for tour operators and park authorities to be accountable to the sustainable development of local communities adjacent to HIP:

4. List ways in which government (KZN Department of Agriculture, Environment and Rural Development) through policy initiatives or schemes are encouraging HIP management to include local communities in the day to day management of the HIP:

5. How is the government in collaboration with the park authorities assisting the local communities to develop their skills:

6. What policies are in place to reduce environmental impacts especially in the HIP:

7. Is the government providing incentives which encourages the park to invest in community developments:
