

# A Policy Analysis of Conservation and Development

## A Case Study of Policy Implementation in Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife

SIPHO BRUCE BUTHELEZI

200270836

Highest degree obtained: Bachelor of Social Science (Honours) in Policy and  
Development Studies (University of KwaZulu-Natal)

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As the candidate's supervisor I have / have not approved this thesis/dissertation for submission.

Signed:.....

Name:.....

Date:.....

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## **DECLARATION**

Except where it is clearly indicated to the contrary, this research project is the original work of the author.

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## ABSTRACT

The study explores the ways in which the nature conservation policy of Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife enhances the promotion and implementation of community development. This study is partially informed by the United Nations conferences on the Environment and Development, especially the latest one of these conferences, the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) which was held in South Africa in 2002. The conference reinforced the need for the integration of the social, political, economical and ecological elements in conservation and development initiatives. As South Africa is a developing country, it is understandable that development is a central issue in the policy agenda of all spheres of government.

Government and public entities are identified as some of the key role players responsible to champion and drive the course of development. Provincial government in South Africa is tasked with environmental management as well as conservation alongside development. This relationship informs the essence of this study. It identifies that national environmental policy now requires conservation authorities to have a more developmental focus. This study is important because it examines the changing policy perspectives and implementation strategies of conservation and development. The study will focus on how Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife's (which is KwaZulu-Natal's nature conservation authority) policy addresses integration of issues of community development and development in KwaZulu-Natal.


The theoretical basis of this project is found on theories of public policy and policy implementation. The crux of the study is to determine the extent to which Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife's nature conservation policy seeks to implement development-led-conservation. The findings show a broad policy commitment to community development. However, when one takes a closer look at the implementation of their policies at one particular reserve (Ithala Game Reserve) then a number of implementation gaps become clear. (i)

The Ithala Game Reserve is adjacent to poor rural communities. The national nature conservation policy requires conservation areas to be more sensitive to the needs of neighbouring communities and to promote community development. Whether this is happening or not is one of the key research objectives of this study.

## RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The specific aims of the study were as follows:

- To understand and examine the concepts of public policy and policy implementation.
- To examine the public policy literature on conservation and community development.
- To examine Ezemvelo's nature conservation policies
- To explore Ezemvelo's understanding of the concept of community development and how this is translated into their nature conservation policy.
- To determine the extent to which the nature conservation policy informs crucial operations for community development projects in the Ithala Game Reserve, and
- To establish the extent to which Ezemvelo's nature conservation policy creates favourable conditions for Ithala Game Reserve to initiate and implement community development projects.

 The above research questions were investigated using a variety of research methods. The majority of the study entailed a policy content analysis. The review of literature focused on theories of public policy and policy implementation. This analysis included examining the policy implementation framework which focuses on the formulation, legitimization, constituency-building, resource accumulation, organizational design and resources mobilization as identified by Brinkerhoff and Crosby (2002).

Besides content analysis, qualitative research methods was used or applied to this study because it provided the researcher with an opportunity to ask questions that allowed for gathering insightful information and the establishment of an in-depth understanding about the topic (Neuwman, 2003).

The study predominantly applied descriptive and interpretative approaches, mostly because both these approaches advocate that information and meaning are influenced by the context. This perspective was very important and applicable to this study because the nature and understanding of development and conservation varied context and organization.

The specific qualitative research methods adopted were in-depth interviews. In-depth interviews entail asking questions, listening to, recording the answers, and then posing additional questions to clarify or expand on a particular issue. Questions were open-ended and respondents were encouraged to express their own perceptions in their own words. The in-depth interviews determined the participants' view of a particular program. There are three basic approaches to in-depth interviews that were employed; namely informal conversation interviews, semi-structured and standardized open-ended interviews (Neuwman, 2003).

Besides in-depth interviews, the study also entailed documentary reviews; documentary material included a broad range of information. This material included legislation, rules and regulations and corporate strategies with specific reference to environmental legislation and nature conservation policies of the national government, provincial government and KwaZulu-Natal's nature conservation authority (Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife). The key policy documents consulted included the National Environmental Management Act (Act 106 of 1998), the Protected Areas Act (Act 57 of 2003), the Environmental Conservation Act (Act 73 of 1998) and the KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Management Act (Act 9 of 1997). Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife nature conservation policy documents were assessed in terms of whether or not they reflect the broader stipulations as set out in the KwaZulu-Natal's Provincial Growth and Development Strategy which are more development orientated.



Considering the nature of the study, time and cost factors, the context of the study; a context-specific sampling method which is the “purposive sampling method” was employed. Participants were selected on the basis of their relevance to the topic and on their potential value to the research project. The target population or sample included key participants or stakeholders at the Ithala Game Reserve, such as the conservation manager, the business manager and the four local contractors who are part of the poverty relief projects at Ithala Game Reserve. All these participants are currently involved in the actual implementation of nature conservation and community development policies at the Ithala Game Reserve.

In addition, the study entailed spending time at Ithala Game Reserve, which enabled casual observation and the opportunity to engage in discussions with the operational staff, conservation management and hospitality management. In this way, the researcher developed an understanding of the policy provisions and the operational reality.

### **Limitations**

During the course of the investigation there was a change in the management structure at the Ithala Game Reserve. One of the key informants (the chief conservation manager) was transferred or re-deployed to the Head Office of Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife, in Pietermaritzburg. After this move, he was reluctant to discuss his experience (from 2002-2004) on policy implementation at the Ithala Game Reserve. However, enough data and information was collected during initial discussions and as well as casual conversations with other members of the staff.

## **Outline of the Study**

The study was organized into separate, yet interrelated parts. The focus initially was to explain the theoretical policy framework based on literature. The focus then changed to looking at a case study to attempt a comparison with literature.

**Chapter One** establishes the theoretical foundation for the research project and offers a review of the literature on concepts of policy, public policy and policy implementation. It tackles the inherent complexities that constitute the practical application of these concepts. The discussion highlights the fact that public policy is a lengthy process which involves a number of stakeholders such as the political leadership, governmental officials, civil organization as well as the private sector. This chapter also recognizes the fact that policies are not usually clear and straightforward but are sometimes vague, thus demanding further interpretation by the policy implementers.

**Chapter Two** seeks to discuss and place into context some of the main concepts around conservation and development. It focuses and highlights the historical and theoretical framework that underlines the application of these concepts which shows an interesting and changing relationship. This change has had a serious impact on environmental policy and environmental management. The emphasis of this chapter is on the exploration of the relationship which exists between preservation, conservation and development. This chapter highlights that the paradigm shift towards sustainable development highlights the need for economic initiatives to benefit local communities while preserving and conserving the natural resources. The argument is that if local communities do not benefit, then the sustainability of conservation areas could be threatened.

**Chapter Three** places the study into the South African policy framework for environmental policy and management. The inclusion of the concept of sustainable development into the South African environmental policy will also briefly be explored as it relates to the background of contemporary environmental policies in South Africa. It becomes clear that there is a strong element or emphasis on the principle of sustainable development in current legislation a platform for future South African environmental management policy.

**Chapter Four** tries to explore policy implementation by looking closely at the KwaZulu-Natal province, its conservation authority, Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife (EKZNW) and one of its game reserves (Ithala). This chapter explores and analyzes the conservation and development policy framework of the province and its conservation authority with special reference to community development. This chapter highlights that the province has a strong policy framework for both conservation and development. It also highlights the fact that conservation and tourism have been identified as being the best option for development in the province. However, implementation seems to be a problem when it comes to community development, as the Ithala Game Reserve illustrated community development programmes have not fully been implemented. Based on the existing experiences of community development for communities adjacent the nature reserve, it can be said that very little has been done.

**Chapter Five** reiterates some of the key findings of the case study and their significance on the theory of public policy and policy implementation.

## CHAPTER ONE

### 1.1 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK: POLICY AND PUBLIC POLICY.

This chapter establishes the theoretical foundation for the research project and offers a review of the literature on concepts such as policy, public policy and policy implementation. An in-depth descriptive discussion on the above concepts is imperative because this research project is based on a policy analysis.

The Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA) and the provincial Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs (DLGTA, 2003: 3) in KwaZulu-Natal refer to policy as “the setting of objectives that indicate what is intended, how those objectives are going to be achieved, who will take action or implement, what resources will be used and where and when such action will be taken”. Anderson (1997:5), says that policy is a purposive and a goal orientated statement rather than random and haphazard behaviour. Cloete and Wissink (2000: 3), have a similar view of policy in that they refer to policy as a statement of intent. This implies that policy goals and objectives are specific and problem orientated.

Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie (2002: 73), present a similar description of policy. They refer to policy as a proposed course of actions or guidelines to follow to achieve goals and objectives which are continuously subjected to effects of environmental change and influences. Colebatch (2002: 99), further defines policy as “a structured commitment of important resources and looking for ways to restructure the commitment that maximize greater change or impact of resources available”. It is clear from the above that policy involves activities that take place in a site or an institution. The institution in question this study focuses on government. This automatically locates policy as public policy.

Colebatch (2002: 84), states “that public policy is different from policy in that public policy is a set of interrelated decisions taken by *political actors* or groups of actors concerning the selection of goals and the means for achieving them”. According to Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991: 27), public policy consists of courses of action (activities or duties) by *governmental officials* rather than their separate discrete decisions. Public policy is not only the enactment of law but also the decisions relating to its implementation and enforcement and the feedback from part of the policy. Public policy goals are generally broad, whereas objectives are more specific and operational duties that are derived from the broad policy framework that contains goals, which are allocated to government actors. It can be concluded that public policies are those kinds of policies that are specifically developed by government actors. These policies are meant to enable government officials and stakeholders to be effective and efficient in their process of managing public affairs (Fox, Schwella and Wissink, 1991).

The need for policy, argues Cloete (1998: 126), emerged as soon as human beings started living together in communities and became no longer self-sufficient. Communities needed goods and services that they were unable to produce and provide as individuals or as families. As a result, institutions were created to provide goods and services to make living together in closer settlements possible and reconcile the conflicting interest of individuals and groups. The need for public policy, he argues, arose to bring order to the allocation of responsibilities, the definition of expectations and outline of provisions for government officials, the public and service providers. Public policy is about people and social order. It responds to their needs, circumstances and living conditions. Colebatch (2002: 117), says that public policy involves the creation of social processes, which becomes a shared understanding about how the various participants should act in particular circumstances. Public policy justifies and legitimizes certain behaviour, actions and practices.

According to De Lange (2004: 15), public policy has two major purposes: to improve efficiency and to improve equity. Public policy is said to be efficient if it maximizes benefits for society at the least cost. This depends on the wise use of public funds and resources and effective public accountability of government. Equity, on the other hand, means that public policy is not necessarily concerned with the amount of available resources but whether those resources are distributed to promote equality among the members of society. Both efficiency and effectiveness are crucial in the core intention of public policy because the nature of state power and authority is penetrative, extractive and collaborative (Muller, 2001: 63). Directly and indirectly, the State is dependent on its citizens for a number of reasons, which include legitimacy and sustainability. Muller (2001), explains that state authority and power is penetrative in a sense that the State communicates and engages with society to ensure that its policy objectives are carried out. In addition state power is extractive in a sense that the State generates its revenue from its people, for example, through taxation. Muller further says that state authority and power is collaborative in a sense that the State negotiates the relationship between itself and society and it seeks to enhance the capacities of both. According to Craythorne (1990: 82), there is “no public body or institution that can operate without a policy framework”. In a liberal democracy, the policy framework is often reflected in a constitution. A constitution becomes a point of reference and foundation for government decision-making and activity.

Lowi (1963), cited in Cloete and Wissink (2000: 179), says that public policy distributes, regulates or redistributes. Cloete and Wissink (2000:179), explain that regulatory policies specify rules of conduct with sanctions for failure to comply. Regulatory policy in its making and in its practice can involve negotiations or bargaining by different stakeholders on specific issues of interests and involvement. In this respect Colebatch (2002), says policy is not made and implemented in a vacuum, but both processes involve a variety of

stakeholders with various vested interests, which manifest themselves in that particular context. Distributive policies are policies that are aimed at distributing public goods and services for the general welfare. Re-distributive policies attempt to change allocations of resources or power of some groups to other groups (which may be at the expense of others). Re-distributive policies are created mostly on the basis of ideological considerations of specific issues, for example, like redress policies in South Africa such as Affirmative Action policies. Both distributive and redistributive policies can be political in nature because they involve the balancing of competing interests. Policy creates a foundation for certain practices, activities and processes to occur with regard to a particular issue or priority (Cloete and Wissink, 2000).

With regard to the nature of public policy, Anderson (1997: 4), argues that policy can take on positive and negative forms. The positive nature of public policy may involve some overt form of action for example it can represent an authoritative, potentially, legal or coercive quality. In practice, this could mean the sentencing of offenders or the application of sanctions, or the promise of rewards for those who comply with policy. Government can also follow a “laissez faire” attitude, for example where the imposition of fines or sentences in case of non-compliance is absent. This could be seen as the negative side of public policy, as there could be an increase of chaos and recklessness in society because it seems as if government has limited means of discouraging inappropriate societal behaviour (Anderson, 1997).

According to Cloete and Wissink (2000: 176), public policy is important in establishing the parameters and directions of the action of government, but it tends not to determine the course of implementation. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa Act 108 of 1996, (hereafter referred to as the constitution) for example lists broad goals and policy

statements without specifying how to achieve the stated policy goals. Administrators are then responsible for drafting their own policies to give effect to the broad policy. Venter (1998: 124), says that no policy in South Africa may deviate from the provisions of the constitution, which is the supreme law of the land and therefore the ultimate policy document in South Africa. Hanekom and Thornhill (1986: 41), say that public policy and goal determination are therefore linked to each other and it can be concluded that the statement of a policy is a precondition for planning, creating governance structures and designing administrative processes.

Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991: 28), say that public policy in a democracy can be seen as the authoritative but also democratic allocation of values. They imply that public policy is the result of engagement, consensus and compromise between contending or competing groups in society. Colebatch (2002: 8), also explains that for some scholars, practitioners and officials, policy has to do with control. Accordingly policy acts as a vehicle for control, for example, regulations can be put in place to enforce compliance. Colebatch further says that the idea of policy rests on three assumptions, which are that policy;

- is about achieving social order,
- is instrumental in giving directives and guidance,
- facilitates the forging of coherence of activities within hierarchical institutions (Colebatch, 2002: 8).

Coherence is the assumption that all the bits of action fit together, and form part of an organized whole, a single system (Colebatch, 2002: 8). Policy, in this context, has to do with how this system is (or should be), steered. This is an assumption that rests on its inherent value more than on the experiences of the participants and on this basis, it can be said, that policy is also concerned with *order* and it implies systems and consistency.

Colebatch states that the policy action is not uninformed and irregular, but it is governed by a known formula of universal application or function. This implies that there are external



factors which impact or influence policy activities on the ground. In this way, policy is seen to *set limits* on the behaviour of officials. At the same time, it frees them of the need to make choices and it draws a range of activities into a common framework (Colebatch, 2002: 8).

According to Colebatch (2002: 8), hierarchy is significant in public policy. Hierarchy is when public policy and implementation flow from those governing to those responsible for implementation. This is an important part of the validation or confirmation of organizational activity that is seen as an authoritative determination of what will be done in what particular area. This is done so that the various participants do not each go their own way, whether it is the different offices of one organisation or different organizations within the broad framework of government. The policy process here is concerned with securing the endorsement and support of a single course of action (Colebatch, 2002).

It has to be recognized that there are two dimensions to policy, the 'vertical' and the 'horizontal' (Colebatch, 2002: 23). These dimensions have a big impact on the way that policy is made and implemented. The horizontal dimension of public policy is seen as the structuring of action on the same level (Colebatch, 2002: 24). The horizontal dimension recognizes that policy work takes place across organizational boundaries as well as within them. Colebatch further says that the horizontal dimension is concerned with the nature of these linkages across organizations (Colebatch, 2002: 24). It recognizes that there are participants who are involved in the forming, interpretation and sustaining of policies even at field or lower administration levels. There is also a realization that there are constraints that demands that both the hierarchical and horizontal dimensions need to be integrated so that acceptable policy outcomes can be achieved (Colebatch, 2002).

Kickert, Klijn, and Koppenjan (1997: 137), have similar views about the horizontal dimension practice of public policy. It is unlikely, especially in contemporary governance, that a single public institution can possess all the necessary resources such as expertise, knowledge, authority, leadership, and so on, to singled-handedly implement its mandate. Based on this view, public policy-making and implementation requires the concerted efforts of multiple actors all possessing some capabilities for action but each dependent on others to solidify policy intention and seek its translation into action. The management of policy implementation involves the sharing and coordination of 'management' between multiple parties, often located at different levels of government or even outside of government institutions (Kickert *et al*, 2002: 25). Stakeholders or partners in both the policy-making and implementation processes can involve civil society, community organizations, government officials, the private sector and service providers (Kickert, Klijn, and Koppenjan, 1997).

Colebatch (2002), Brinkerhoff and Crosby (2002: 72) view the vertical dimension to policy as a closed governance system, which they argue is usually managed by arrogant and ignorant officials. The vertical dimension identifies policy-makers, who focus on developing tools for ruling and control and play their roles as rulers (Colebatch, 2002: 25). Fox, Schwella and Wissink (1991: 30), say that some practitioners and academics refer to public policy as political, governmental and administrative. According to them policy 'trickles down' from a higher authority (which might be a national government department) to field administrators at implementation sites.

In this respect, Colebatch (2002), concludes that the vertical dimension is concerned with the transmission downward of authorized decision-making and maximizing the greatest compliance. This dimension stresses instrumental action, rational choice and it prioritizes

intensification and force of legitimate authority. The vertical dimension is also concerned with the ability or capacity of subordinate officials to give effect to the decisions taken and instructions given. Problems arise in policy implementation because resources (such as capacity and funds) tend to be inadequate. In addition, administrators are often not allowed to exercise their discretion during their implementation of policy without approval of their superiors (Colebatch, 2002).

According to Hanekom and Thornhill (1986: 19), public policy in a democracy predominately originates from three sources, namely legislative institutions (such as parliamentary and or municipal councils) the executive (such as ministers and other top government officials), and civil society interest groups. Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie (2002), as well as Fox, and Schwella and Wissink (1991), say that policy relevant information can originate within the formal structures of government at any level. This might be at parliament, local councils, the cabinet, management committees or government departments.

Although public policy making is the primary responsibility of the legislative arm of government, public policy often emanates directly from the executive and public administrators. This is often as the result of problems experienced in their work situation (Hanekom and Thornhill, 1986: 19). The executive (Ministers) can introduce policy proposals to the legislative authorities (parliamentarians) for consideration. Lastly, policy can originate from civil society (for example interest groups such as pressure groups, non-governmental organizations (NGOs), trade unions, personnel associations, professional institutes and organized commerce). The executive cannot make public policy unaided or independent of society at large. In fact, Cloete and Wissink (2000: 242), argue that public policy innovation is impossible without a mandate from politicians and that policy

innovation requires that legislators approve budgetary allocation. It is important that there is an understanding between society, policy makers and policy implementers, so that values and interests of all stakeholders are captured in policy (Cloete and Wissink, 2000: 242).

Colebatch (2002:118), states that through a recognized process of consultation and the involvement of representative groups, the public policy process could draw organized interests into a stable relationship with government. Colebatch (2002), explains that in this way, the so-called official players acknowledge their clientele or stakeholders and their contextual circumstances. Colebatch (2002: 118), reasons that during the interaction between the stakeholders some interests are recognized, “organized in” and some are “organized out”. As they are many participants in a particular policy fields a support base for particular policy issues are created, which can overpower other policy issues. Van der Waldt, Van Niekerk, Doyle, Knipe and Du Tiot (2002: 273), have a similar view in that they argue that public participation forces government in general to act more responsibly and is accountable for its actions.

Cloete and Wissink (2000: 173), state that policy cannot be shaped in isolation. It requires a comprehensive view of the conditions and events in the real world environment and recognition of the demands and aspirations of the people in its context. Cloete and Wissink further state that the government institutional context is itself impacted by the above factors and further shaped by the larger contextual of social, economic, political and legal realities of the system. Beyond these factors, there is an inevitable plurality of separate interests, goals and strategies both in policy-making and implementation (Cloete and Wissink, 2000). Both Cloete (1989), and Craythorne (1990), argue that public policy-making and implementation is affected by various internal and external circumstances. These include technological development, population increase, national mood, crises, natural disasters,

war, depression, international relations, economic and industrial development. Such events and circumstances occur and exist in international, regional, national and local settings. Dorner and El-Shafie (1980: 483) say that it is very important therefore that policy and strategy is flexible so that it can be adaptable to the changing circumstances and context. Inflexible policies and strategies cannot be easily adjusted fast enough to address unpredictable events and circumstances. In other words, too rigid policy can lead to policy implementation failure.

Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie (2000), Hanekom and Thornhill (1986:19) stress the fact that public policy-making and implementation are never static processes, but are continuous. Once the broad policy framework of the government of the day has been established and made known to all the stakeholders, attention is then given to the administration or implementation of policy (Cloete, 1989). This is often called “administrative policy and is concerned mainly with actual implementation of policy”. Venter (1998: 124), explains that administrative policy is required to achieve more specific departmental objectives relating to the day-to-day functioning of a department. Policy decisions at this level guide and determine the actual interaction between service providers, government officials and the public beneficiaries (Cloete. 1989: 133). This is the level, for example, where constitutional mandates are translated into tangible goods and services. This is the stage where policy implementation is crucial.

## 1.2 POLICY IMPLEMENTATION

The concept '*implement*' means to "accomplish, fulfill, produce, complete or carry out" and in this context to implement means to take action which could include executing duties and provide services (Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973: 4). It is clear that implementation has an element of activity (of action or doing) and this implies that there is a person or persons involved in implementation. Implementation refers to the process of converting or translating resources into real goods and services, which support behavioural change in beneficiary groups in a society (Conyers and Hills, 1986). The focus centres on what action needs to be taken, and what resources have to be converted into goods and services that have to be delivered to the intended beneficiaries (Pressman and Wildavsky, 1973).

According to Pressman and Wildavsky (1973: 5), policy implementation is a process that involves interaction between the setting of goals and actions geared to achieving them. Parsons (1995), Anderson (1997), and Cloete and Wissink (2000), have similar views about policy implementation. They say that because of the continuous interaction and actions, policy implementation culminates into a 'seamless web.' This confirms that the formulation of a policy or a plan; decision-making about the means; commitment of resources and personnel are an integrated process.

Colebatch (2002: 52), as well as Pressman and Wildavsky (1973), describe policy implementation as a connected process of choosing goals and selecting appropriate alternatives of implementing those particular goals. This view sees policy implementation as an inclusive declaration of the intended outcomes, and the provision of means for attaining or achieving those outcomes. Furthermore, this view recognizes the fact that policy implementation must be located in a context and be policy content specific. In this respect, Kickert *et al* (1997: 138), explain policy implementation as a problem-solving

effort stimulated by government and ordered into programmes. In this context then we refer to policy implementation as it relates to government and its stakeholders.

Conyers and Hills (1986) and Quade (1989), state that the policy implementation is the practical activity that is a result of a directed instruction, which could be a public policy mandate. Conyers and Hills also state that policy implementation is the process of rearranging patterns of conduct to honour the prescriptions set forth in the decision. This view recognizes the fact that policy implementation is directed by the policy content and influenced by the contextual circumstances. Cloete and Wissink (2000:176), have a similar view of policy implementation. They view policy implementation as the process that produces the goods and services that become a reality for the beneficiaries and implementers. This reality is based on the content, context and resources committed to its production.

Brinkerhoff and Crosby (2002: 48), state that policy implementation process usually crosses agency lines and reaches beyond the boundaries of the public sector to involve business and civil society. It is in the context or level of policy implementation that the elements such as participation, partnership and actual community engagement can join the processes in that particular activity (Cloete, 1998). Policy implementation usually takes place at the level where the opportunity for community or public participation is possible and it is a policy directive to create such an opportunity. This further implies that the nature of policy and its content determines who gets (or should get) involved in the implementation process (Brinkerhoff and Crosby, 2002).

As stated above, policy implementation consists of a variety of activities and stakeholders. Cloete (1998: 159), points out that the success of policy implementation lies in improved

performance in all public administration activities, which include generic administrative, the auxiliary and instrumental activities, as well as the functional activities. Brinkerhoff and Crosby (2002: 22), express a similar view about policy implementation activities and stakeholders. They say that effective policy implementation requires more of all the stakeholders. Furthermore, they argue that policy implementation could more appropriately be called service delivery processes. It is important that every official concerned with the making and implementation of policy is always on the lookout for new techniques that may be used to improve policy implementation (Cloete, 1998).

Policy implementation is often described according to two dominant approaches, namely the top-down approach and the bottom-up approach (Parsons, 1995). Firstly, the top-down approach is hierarchical. It looks at policy implementation as it exists in a context of clear separation of politics, administration and implementation. This view is informed and complemented by the thought that policy implementation relationships are easy and straightforward. This view assumes that a policy implementation exercise or process must be driven from the top of government hierarchy and authority. This means that some implementers on the ground are depended on the decisions that are taken by their leadership. They have to comply and implement the directives from above without power to change the directives (Parsons, 1995).

Based on the top-down approach, policy implementation or administration is regarded as a straightforward, evidence-based, rational, predictable and machine-like system. There is an expectation that there is a clear line of coordination from the policy-makers on issues of capacity and resources allocation. Parsons (1995: 466) says that this notion of rationality of the policy implementation process is based on the practice of getting workers to do what they are told and then keeping control over a sequence of stages in a system so that results



can be achieved. Clearly, this approach seeks to achieve what Parsons (1995), call 'perfect implementation', which is impossible in some instances of policy implementation. This approach is criticized for excluding public servants (referred to by Parsons as the street-level-bureaucrats) from taking part in decision-making and being recognized for the work that they do (Parsons, 1995).

The second approach is the bottom-up approach, which recognizes all the significant stakeholders in the process of policy implementation as being part of the whole system (Parsons, 1995: 467). The bottom-up approach argues that the implementation process involves both stakeholders in policy-making and policy administration, such as the street-level-bureaucrats who serve the public on a daily basis. This approach further argues that the policy implementation output (especially in the public domain) is not well defined, quantified and or evaluated. It is thus difficult to measure the contribution of bureaucrats in both the processes of policy-making and implementation (Parsons, 1995).

This simply means that the bottom-up approach recognizes the role that is played by public servants or street-level-bureaucrats at operational level as both policy-makers and administrators in various levels of the process. In this respect, Elmore (1979), says that the bottom-up approach has also been referred to as the 'backward mapping' approach, simply because policy implementation is cared for in the process of policy-making and planning. This approach is said to stress the fact that street-level-bureaucrats have discretion in how they apply policy, implying that they have some power in decision-making. Teachers, for example, may establish new ways of teaching or implementing 'government policy' as long as the stated outcomes are achieved, and not contrary to what is intended or desired by the policy-makers. There is thus a view that public policy often fails to produce the required outcomes if it is driven from 'above' or from the 'top' while the 'bottom up' approach can

produce better and more inclusive policy outcomes (Parsons, 1995). The interpretation of policy implementation as either being top-down or bottom-up is similar to the argument earlier which described policy from a vertical or horizontal dimension.

Bardach (1977), (cited in Parsons, 1995: 470), says that power is central to the dynamics of policy implementation. Implementation, he argues, involves a lot of negotiation and bargaining under conditions of uncertainty around the issues of resources and capacity for getting the job done. According to Colebatch (2002: 89), “policy coordination operates largely in the vertical perspectives”. In other words, in the vertical perspective it is where the principal-agent relationship is more dominant and it is less comfortable with horizontal relationships. Executive leadership (such as ministers or senior managers) dominate because they have access to administrative power and discretion to direct and monitor implementation (Parsons, 1995: 10). These views emphasize the fact that the bottom-up approach makes it more possible for members of a policy community to cooperate with one another. As a result, it is important that the knowledge, experience and efforts of those in the front-line of service delivery are recognized and given space in the policy-making arena (Parsons, 1995).

Cloete and Wissink (2000: 174), state that there is general agreement that both public policy-making and implementation are complex and multilevel processes that are influenced both by the content and context of the public policy being implemented. Kickert *et al* (1997:139), say that the image of the ‘policy implementation network’ can be used to convey the idea of the highly differentiated and complex array of public and private organizations that are involved in the translation of the policy intentions. Such a network can bring the national political community into appropriate measures or interventions for the realization of the objectives at the level of the consumer (Cloete and Wissink, 2000).

Government entities or institutions may have the most plausible policy, which may even pass the cost-benefit analysis with flying colours, but if those responsible for carrying it out are unwilling or unable to do so, little will happen (Warwick, 1982, cited in Cloete and Wissink, 2000: 180).

According to Parsons (1995: 484), policy implementation can also be analyzed in the context of institutional structures, composed of clusters of actors and organizations. Parsons states that a useful approach could be to focus on the relationship between the types of policy and factors that impact on its implementation process. Rudig (1999: 118), explains that a model of intergovernmental policy implementation is useful in studies concerned with the state's role in carrying out programs. A similar point is raised by Elmore (1979: 610), and Cloete and Wissink (2000: 185), in their support for policy implementation to be people-driven because policies directly affect them. This, they argue, must be done through progressive partnerships and a clear understanding of the goals and objectives of the interventions. The involvement of the intended beneficiaries increase the effectiveness of the policy implementation exercise (Cloete and Wissink, 2000).

In this respect Cloete and Wissink (2000: 254), say that the implementation structures or agencies need to be designed appropriately for the specific tasks they have to fulfil, and they need to be flexible enough to accommodate, if necessary, change of strategies in the implementation process. They also state that implementation strategies should be explicitly conceptualized, planned and explained in business plans in such a way that they are compatible with the context at which implementation takes place. All the key concerns must be dealt with in detail explaining exactly who should do what, how, when, why, and for whom (Cloete and Wissink, 2000).

Parsons (1995: 472), proposes a policy-action model, which is an interactive bargaining process between those who are responsible for enacting the policy and those who have control of resources. In this model, more emphasis is placed on issues of power, dependence, interests, motivations and behaviour. Furthermore, this model focuses on factors, which affect the scope for action and behaviour of individuals and agencies, as well as how perceptions of that scope are formed (Parsons, 1995: 134). One of the solutions to policy implementation challenges could be that policy-makers must remember that policy, ultimately, affects real people, those living and those yet to be born (Owens and Owens, 1991: 78). There is evident from history that economic development has always been associated with and perhaps has even resulted from political and social changes. Policy, in a way, should give a clear mandate and provide a directive as to how and where capacity and resources could be found. Owens *et al* also say that according to conventional wisdom, resource management in a democratic pluralist system is about an open bureaucracy that is responsive to the public interest (Owens and Owens, 1991).

There is an ever-increasing need for capable administrators who possess tangible and even intangible resources and capabilities to implement policies (Bardach, 1998: 29). The manner in which power is acquired and used, impacts and determines policy outcomes (Cloete and Wissink, 2000: 173). This process involves among other things, the identification of various activities associated with a plan or project, preparing a time schedule which indicates when they will be undertaken and mobilizing the resources (such as financial, human, material and equipment), required for implementation. In recognition and seeking solutions to the above challenges of policy implementation, the element of capacity is emphasized as a key factor in the policy implementation process (Cloete and Wissink, 2000: 182). Dealing with these challenges will have to involve capacitating program administrators, field workers and educating the beneficiaries so that they can

become useful resources especially in monitoring and evaluation (Cloete and Wissink, 2000).

In the process of policy-making, there are potential disagreements and clashes of ideas, which impact on the actual policy content. When decision-makers cannot get real consensus, and their varied interests are captured in the policy process, the policy end product can become a very broad and a vague document. This vagueness can make it difficult for those responsible for implementation. The policy implementers are predominantly responsible for interpreting and applying the policy intentions to achieve the required results (Cloete and Wissink, 2000).

Colebatch (2002: 111), too discusses the challenge of integrating policy and implementation, because most policies are broad and vague and it becomes the problem of the program administrators to analyze and implement. Colebatch further states that a policy should be clear in terms of what the government wants to do or not to do. But the reality is that clear, coherent and concise policies are very scarce. Most policies are not very helpful in explaining their objectives, or indicating to the practitioner what action would be effective. This is why policy implementation is such a struggle and complicated. "Public policy must be more than just a set of abstractions laid in a national development plan it must consist of specific, realistic objectives, which could be translated into tangible goods and services" (Dorner and El-Shafie, 1980: 256). This view recognizes that a lot of time is often wasted in the process of interpreting and operationalizing policy statements (Colebatch, 2002).

Cloete and Wissink (2000: 182), have a similar view regarding the vagueness of policy and they stress the fact that the policy 'in question' should be specific in terms of goals, targets

and indications. Policy must also be clear as to where and how key elements such as experienced staff and other resources like material are going to be found. In so doing, “the conditions for successful implementation can be created and the level of complexity of policy implementation can be reduced” (Cloete and Wissink, 2000: 182).

## Conclusion

This chapter gives a thorough description of concepts such a policy, public policy and policy implementation. The discussion has highlighted the fact that public policy is a lengthy process which involves a number of stakeholders such as the political leadership, governmental officials, civil organization as well as the private sector. There is a recognition that policy influences and impacts on the implementation process. In addition, it is also evident that policies are not usually clear and straightforward but they are sometimes vague, thus demanding further interpretation by the policy implementers. The next chapter will focus on the theory of environmental policy which is the dominant policy field of this research project. A background to the concepts such as preservation, conservation, sustainable developments are going to be discussed as they inform environmental policy-making.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. THEORIES OF ENVIRONMENT: CONSERVATION AND DEVELOPMENT

This chapter seeks to discuss and place in context some of the main concepts around conservation and development. History shows an interesting and changing relationship between the two concepts. This change has had a serious impact on environmental policy and environmental management.

The term, environment is widely used and means different things to different people. For the purpose of this study, the concept 'environment' refers to the surroundings within which humans exist and is made up of land, water, the atmosphere, micro-organisms and plants. It also includes the physical, chemical, aesthetic, and cultural properties that influence human health and well-being (NEMA, 1998). This view of the environment signifies the fact that the environment includes the ecosystems and their constituent parts, which includes people, plants, animals and communities of ecosystems.

In addition, this definition of the concept of environment reflects that there is the natural and built environment. The built environment is a concept that refers to man-made things such as buildings, roads, parks, and so on. Although both the built and natural environment are important, this study will look more closely at the natural environment and how this concept has evolved and how it has been interpreted in environmental policy. The focus is on acknowledging that human existence depends completely on the continuing availability and utilization of natural resources such as air, water, foodstuffs, land and other resources. Doyle and McEachern (1998: 15), argue that there can be no economy and no society without human interaction with ecosystems or ecology. All the social and economic

processes are directly linked to the natural environment. Ecology is said to be the study of the balance and interrelationship of all life on earth (Henry and Jackson, 1996: 16).

According to Doyle and McEachern (1998: 15), there is also an 'external' view of the environment, which is referred to as the 'instrumentalist perspective'. On the basis of this view, the environment is seen as a biophysical reality existing outside of humans.

Environmental study is the study of the relationship between the human and non-human worlds. This view looks at the environment as being a set of resources, which are important in a number of human processes and which need to be managed by humans in a sustainable manner (Doyle and McEachern, 1998).

Any discussion on the natural environment should consider natural resources. Natural resources are defined in a number of ways. According to the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) in the United States of America (USA) natural resources refer:

.....to the natural gifts of available visible, non-visible material, objects and species such as land, fish, wildlife, biota, air, water, groundwater, drinking water supplies, and other such resources (including the resources of the exclusive economic zone). Some of the very useful economic minerals are natural gas, petroleum, coal, copper, chromite, talc, barites, sulfur, lead, zinc, iron ore, salt, precious and semi-precious stones.<sup>1</sup>

Bartelmus (1994: 88), says that natural systems provide free amenities such as water, oxygen, nutrient flows, capacities of waste assimilation and other consumption. This view basically looks at natural resources as products for consumption and utilization. Kidd (1997: 102), says that natural resources are conventionally divided into categories of the living or non-living resources which includes soil, water and minerals as well as living resources which includes animals, wildlife and plants. Biodiversity refers to the variety of species and ecosystems on earth and the ecological process of which they are a part of (Bennun, Aman and Crafter, 1995). Bennun *et al* (1995), identify three components or



levels of biodiversity. They are genetic diversity, species diversity and ecosystems diversity. This simply translates into the understanding that mankind derives ecological, ecological, cultural and spiritual benefits from biodiversity.

There is undoubtedly a strong need for human beings to manage the earth's biodiversity. This need translates into discussions on preservation, conservation and development and how these concepts impact or have informed policy. This discussion will show how the conventional paradigm of preservation has slowly been replaced by a paradigm of conservation and sustainable development.

## 2.1 PRESERVATION

The preservation of biodiversity is an important aspect of nature conservation and the maintaining of the sustainability of ecosystems. According to Bennun *et al* (1995), to preserve is to restore and keep and preservation is the total process of collecting, acquiring and identifying spaces, and objects that are valued. The level of commitment to this process of preservation signifies the importance of those preserved spaces, natural resources or objects.

Preservation is an activity of protecting something from loss or danger, the condition of being (well or ill) preserved a process that saves organic substances from decay. Preservation is the action or process of reserving, protecting or safeguarding a portion of the natural environment from unnatural disturbance.<sup>2</sup>

Foster (1997: 103), says that there are various purposes of preservation. Firstly, preservation is important in a sense of keeping and restoring objects for their intrinsic value. This view refers simply to an appreciation of the environment or the value of objects not for being instrumental but just for being there. In this context, the intrinsic value relates

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<sup>1</sup> [www.epa.gov/earth](http://www.epa.gov/earth).

to preservation as a moral practice or exercise (Foster, 1997). The second, purpose of preservation is that it is about the protection of objects or things that are said to be good and impose a sense of a duty to protect and preserve. Foster explains that the other purpose of preservation is that it affords those involved an opportunity to enjoy the pleasure of being in the presence of the valued items or objects. A critique of preservation is that the preserved object's value is determined by the preserver who may not consider the consequence of preservation on larger social needs (Foster, 1997). The view on preservation has mostly been one of protectionism and human separation from those natural resources. Its justification was interpreted in the ideology of deep ecology. Bartelmus (1994: 88), says that this ideology considers the preservation of ecosystems as an imperative that overrules any anthropocentric views of human need or utilization. This kind of resource preservation approach tends to emphasize or value natural resources that can be enjoyed by human beings for their intrinsic value and not their utility (Doyle and McEacher, 1998).

It can be concluded that the preservation ideology largely informed conservation practices. Preservation was for the larger part designated as the principal aim of conservation actions, to which other value systems, particularly community needs were perceived to be subordinate (Doyle and McEachern, 1998). This focus on the preservation of the wilderness areas and particular species and animals asserted that it operated 'outside of the normal political arena.' Within this perspective 'overpopulation' was often identified as the main environmental problem and the reason for the need to preserve natural resources. Poor people especially were often perceived as those responsible for abusing natural resources, for destroying trees and generating excessive waste, because the poor are often dependent on wood to make fire for cooking. According to Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow

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<sup>2</sup> [wordnet.princeton.edu](http://wordnet.princeton.edu).

(1997: 258), conservation was divorced from all kinds of human or development needs. In this way, many conservation projects in the past disregarded human needs, rights and dignity. For instance, the establishment of many game reserves meant forced removals and the social dislocation for local people. Conservation, for many people meant the dispossession off their land. In this sense preservation at all costs dominated environmental conservation policies.

### **2.3 CONSERVATION**

Conservation as a concept has undergone a significant reinterpretation. Conservation also includes elements of preservation, protection, restoration or sustainability of natural resources. To conserve means to protect, save, safeguard, preserve, sustain and restore something. Conservation is a process of protection and improvement but where it differs from preservation is that it allows the wise use of natural resources to provide some social and economic value for the present and future (Singh, Kaur and Singh, 1982). The modern or contemporary concept of conservation relates more to balancing human activities with environmental protection. Conservation involves the process of preservation, management and the enhancement of natural plant and animal communities, and occasionally modified vegetation, as representative samples of their kind (Nyambe, 2005: 16).

Conservation is the wise use of natural resources (nutrients, minerals, water, plants, animals, etc.). Planned action or non-action to preserve or protect living and non-living resources. Conservation also refers to the management of the human use of the biosphere so that it may yield the greatest sustainable benefit to present generations while maintaining its potential to meet the needs and aspirations of future generations. It includes the preservation, maintenance, sustainable utilization, restoration and enhancement of the environment.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>3</sup> [www.for.gov.bc.ca](http://www.for.gov.bc.ca).

It is said that there are three overall goals or objectives of conservation. These goals are to ensure that the biosphere can continue to renew itself, provide the means for all life and to ensure human survival and well-being (Siegfried and Davies, 1982:4). Conservation areas, after all are established for the good of mankind. In this sense protection and the management of natural resources are to prevent abuses that would destroy them. It can be concluded that conservation must be practiced to achieve balance in ecosystem because man's well-being and survival is dependent hereon (Singh, Kaur and Singh, 1982: 18).

Whitelock (1985: 114) says that the concept of conservation has been fruitfully enlarged and diversified. It is now also seen as an economic resource (for example, its tourism potential) and is a vital element in proper planning and efficient land-use if it is to address social needs. Therefore, conservation is no longer a luxury of the wealthy to enjoy its intrinsic value but it is necessary for development too. Nyambe (2005: 18), says that it has been recognized that an effective approach to conservation is one that considers the environmental, economical, social and political issues as being related and integrated. Whitelock (1985: 141), argues that conservation should be defined not just as a desire to maintain naturally beautiful wilderness but it must be defined in such a way that it becomes a popular attitude and culture.

The contemporary view of conservation stresses its developmental aspect. There has been a rising interest in examining the relationship between conservation and development (Whitelock, 1985). For example national parks and wildlife reserves are slowly being associated with the development of communities. Bartelmus (1994: 72), says that the national parks are seen to be appropriate sites for not only the preservation of biodiversity, but also as recreation grounds for people. This signifies that conservation is seen as having multiple values or uses, both intrinsic and utilitarian. Whitelock (1985), says that there is

an indication of a rising tide in community and governmental interest in environmental matters. Conservation should not always be perceived as a negative and discriminatory process but it could also become a positive contributor to development of life styles compatible with nature preservation. Those in support of this ideology argue that there can be a symbolic relationship between preservation, recreation and conservation, which adds an important new dimension to people's perceptions of wildlife and its economic utility. The human element more and more is taking the centre stage in the processes and practice of conservation. However, this in itself brings about its own set of complications and need for environmental policy that can balance preservation, conservation and development.

The task of preserving and conserving natural resources requires capacitated leadership that is committed to the practice of 'just' environmental conservation. This indicates a great need for environmental management. O'Neil (1993), and Miller (2000: 621), as well as Fuggle and Rabie (1992), argue that environmental policy has for long been dominated by scientific paradigms of preservation at the expense of social considerations. Contemporary environmental management policy therefore must be used as an essential instrument of protecting natural resources while at the same time enabling human development (Kidd, 1997). The fact remains that human beings, if left alone, can cause irreparable damage to the environment. Increasing population growth worldwide increases the pressure on the natural environment to supply humans with natural resources (such as water, land, minerals and air). This increasing pressure has brought forth the ideology of sustainable development into environmental policy.

## 2.4 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

In efforts to satisfy human needs and desires, there has been a massive, excessive and unsustainable exploitation of natural resources (Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie, 2002:128). This has had an undesirable impact on the global biodiversity and ecosystems. Ecosystems are being degraded, and species and genetic diversity are being lost at an alarming and unprecedented rate and natural resources such as water and air are increasingly being polluted by consumption patterns and behaviour (Bennun *et al.*, 1995). Developed countries are guilty of environmental degradation in their unsustainable natural resource use. This loss of biodiversity is also critical in economically poor but biodiversity-rich developing countries of the world where a whole range of ecosystems are being destroyed or irretrievably altered not only by local population, but by large multi-national corporations (MNCs) that extract natural resources such as minerals for its monetary value in the developed world.

O'Riordan (2000), says that rapid economic development has been identified in many countries as the reason for the depletion of natural resources. He further states that most of the environmental degradation damage is caused by the theory and practice of separateness of man and nature, which has informed human attitude towards natural resources. In addition, O'Riordan (2000: 83), argues that the depletion of natural resources has triggered a massive establishment of advocacy groups for the protection of the environment and practice of just development by specific social movements or interests groups. Seemingly these social environmental groups have successfully advocated for fair or 'just' development and the ending of the depletion of environmental or natural resources. This is shown through the global awareness on the impacts of the unsustainable exploitation of natural resources and the emergence of global environmental movements such as Green-Peace and the Worldwide Wildlife Fund (WWF), (O'Riordan, 2000).

According to Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie (2002:128), increasing environmental disasters in the last decade (such as El Nino causing massive droughts, storms and hurricanes) have triggered imbalances in the natural environment and have brought global economic values to a crossroads in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. There has also been an increase in the level of urgency of finding holistic and long lasting solutions. The search for solutions has shaped the contemporary international and national landscapes especially in areas of environmental management, conservation and development policies (Kuye *et al*, 2002). There is a greater need for environmental management policy to respond effectively to the current crisis and bring balance into the notion of development. This challenge has informed the debates on sustainable development (Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie, 2002).

The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), published an influential and widely recognized report, '*Our Common Future*', (also known as the Brundtland Report), which was adopted by the United Nations in 1987. It popularized the concept of sustainable development by identifying its underlying philosophy:

Sustainable development seeks to meet the needs and the aspirations of the present without compromising the ability to meet those of the future. Economic growth always brings risks of environmental damage, as it puts increased pressure on environmental resources. But policymakers guided by the concept of sustainable development will necessarily work to ensure that growing economies remain firmly attached to their ecological roots and that these are protected and nurtured so that they may support growth over the long term. Environmental protection is thus inherent in the concept of sustainable development, as it is the focus on the sources of environmental problems rather than the symptoms (WCED, 1987: 41).

Bartelmus (1994), says that in 1987, the Brundtland Commission concluded that sustainable development entails integrating environmental concerns into mainstream policies, shifting the focus from weak and peripheral environmental management policies to socio-economic policy sources of environmental impacts. Bartelmus (1994: 61), says that originally, sustainability was an ecological concept and further explains that the quest

for sustainability seems to confirm the somewhat alarmist idea that ultimate limits of economic growth are about to be reached because not all natural resources are renewable (Bartelmus, 1994).

The 1992 World Conservation and Earth Development Summit (WCED), held in Brazil, Rio de Janeiro emphasized the need to integrate elements of environmental protection and preservation into the environmental policies and development process and it stipulated that all countries should establish programmes of integrated environmental and economic accounting for use in sustainable development, (Bartelmus, 1994: 72). Secondly, the Earth Summit also established that a global institutional framework was established. This global institutional framework is known as Agenda 21 (Kuye *et al*, 2002: 136). Agenda 21 proposes a plan for environmental management and development that provides for a new and integrated policy framework for national and regional action to enhance sustainable development. Agenda 21 is an action plan that seeks to emphasize the importance of strengthening environmental and development and resource management policies and agencies in countries (Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie, 2002).

Sustainable development focuses on improving the quality of life of all of the Earth's citizens without increasing the use of the natural resources beyond the capacity of the environment to supply them indefinitely. It requires an understanding that inaction has consequences and that we must find innovative ways to change institutional structures and individual behaviour. This therefore demands that policy and practice methodologies be changed so that they can respond to the contemporary challenges.<sup>4</sup>

One of the important findings of the 1987 Brundtland Report was the identification of sustainable development problems in developing countries, such as those experienced by African states. This recognition or finding led to their inclusion in global agenda setting in areas of policy on environment conservation and sustainable development. This is perhaps



most evident in the latest World Summit on Environment and Sustainable Development (WSSD), convention, which was held in Johannesburg, South Africa, in 2002. At this convention, African states had an opportunity to participate and influence the global sustainable development and environment conservation policy agenda and to make sure that the resolutions reached would recognize the African conditions and problems.

One of the resolutions adopted at WSSD (2002), was the Johannesburg Plan of Implementation (hereafter referred to as JPOI). The JPOI advocates for the protection and management of natural resources while achieving economic and social development. The JPOI also emphasizes that human activity is having an increasing impact on the integrity of ecosystems that provide essential resources and services for human welfare and economic activities. Managing the natural resource base on a sustainable and integrated basis is essential for sustainable human development. This is crucial because the major contributors towards the realization of sustainable development are human beings, as a result they must be the key concern of sustainable development practice (JPOI, 2004).

The JPOI (2004: 15), further explains that actions should be taken to facilitate public information and participation, at all levels (including the poor and marginalized) in support of policy and decision-making related to conservation, preservation and development project implementation. This plan proposes that a variety of policy instruments must be used to achieve sustainable development. For example, governments can use policy instruments such as regulations, monitoring and evaluation, land-use planning, information management, control of production and markets, imposition of fines for pollution, and so on. This means that an integrated environmental conservation approach should be adopted so that all institutions within the states can be subjected to a uniform practice. It is also said

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<sup>4</sup> [www.edu.pe.ca](http://www.edu.pe.ca)

that sustainable development should ensure that it addresses questions of sustainable human development, especially for communities adjacent to protected areas. This is crucial because the communities are custodians of the natural resources, so they need to be empowered to sustainably use and protect their natural resources (JPOI, 2004).

Balancing the protection or conservation of natural resources while pursuing development in poor and underdeveloped countries presents a serious problem for policy-makers. Many African states are rich in a range of natural resources. They are often rich in minerals (like gold, copper, iron ore, coal and zinc) compared to other parts of the world. African states have an abundance of natural resources and biodiversity. Perhaps their most renowned asset is their wildlife, a resource that is increasingly being marketed by tourism agencies. Nature conservation in African states is complicated by citizens' dependency on natural resources to overcome poverty (Child, 2004: 11). Hunger is forcing many African states to resort to illegal poaching for income or makes people heavily dependent on natural resources to feed their families. In addition, some countries are overwhelmed by civil wars and diseases such as cholera, HIV/AIDS, and malaria. In Africa, conservation has to compete with all these problems (Child, 2004).

The JPOI (2004), reveals that there has been a global recognition that African states need to play their part in the struggle to curb environmental problems. A basic management tool available to any state is policy. However, states firstly have to realize that they are the key decision-makers and responsible for managing their natural resources. At present, contemporary environmental and development policies tend to focus on the promotion or unleashing of tourism development as this offers a quick route to development and economic growth. The World Bank has identified tourism as the world's largest growing

industry. However, whether or not tourism development initiatives are beneficial to the poor and environmentally sustainable remains to be seen.

According to the JPOI (2004), it is possible for governments (especially in poor African States) to encourage ecotourism, that will in return create benefits for the population in host countries. The argument even goes as far as saying that this will assist countries to maintain their cultural environmental integrity. To be beneficial, states the JPOI, such approaches must include education and training programmes, affording access, providing information that will empower and enable the indigenous communities to benefit from the ecotourism activities. Ecotourism is a concept which claims to embrace a holistic protection of the environment, natural and culture resources or heritage for the purpose of development and which must inform environment management policy. The problem however, is its pre-occupation with economic value. The sustainable development theory is promoted as the responsibility of each nation to maximize its potential in a 'just' manner that will ensure sustainability (JPOI, 2004).

Bartelmus (1994), states that environmentalists and economists see sustainable development as a new paradigm for development. That this can help them achieve qualitative economic growth and development, which will allow human beings to live in greater harmony with nature. Cavalcanti (2000: 4), says that the first principle to be stressed in the context of policies for sustainable development is that, since growth always means some environmental degradation, the economic process has to use nature on a more enduring, sound basis than has been the practice up to now. More emphasis must be placed on the creation of mechanisms that will ensure that political, social and economic dimensions are made part of the broader environment and development policy agenda (Cavalcanti, 2000).

It is crucial that developing states adopt integrated legislative and policy frameworks for environmental management that will ensure the inclusion of sustainability considerations in both decision-making and implementation (Cavalcanti, 2000: 12). This is crucial because human and economic processes directly and indirectly affect the environment. If sustainability is addressed at the macro policy level (such as in a Constitution), then government can insist that further policies that emanate from it will be in line with the principles of sustainable development. In addition, government policies must provide clear measures or indicators for sustainable practices so that environmental degradation and resources depletion can be reduced and managed (Cavalcanti, 2000: 13). Therefore new ways of dealing with issues such as inefficiency, waste products, pollution, throughput, overuse or mining of renewable resources, and dissipation of exhaustible resources have to be found and implemented (Cavalcanti, 2000). However, as discussed in the first chapter, policies can be vague which make its implementation very difficult. The policy field of environment is by its nature very broad and all encompassing.

## **2.5 THE ECONOMIC VALUE OF CONSERVATION**

Child (2004: 13), argues that it is an undeniable fact that, “there is a critical link between ecological, economic, social and political forces in successful conservation as well as a biological diversity and ecosystems conservation”. Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow (1997: 237), identify four major economic roles of environmental resources namely:

- its life-supporting role, which includes the regulation of climate, the composition of the atmosphere, and the maintenance of biodiversity,
- its resource-providing role, (which includes non-renewable resources such as fossil fuels, renewable such as plants, animals, and fish, and continuing resources such as sunlight, wave, wind, and tidal energy),
- its waste-assimilation role, (which includes the assimilation of natural and produced wastes, whether by dispersal into low concentrations, reconstitution into usable compounds, or storage in inert or polluting form), and
- its recreational and aesthetic role, (which includes space for recreation, scenery, wildlife, and so on).

Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow (1997: 237), identify three types of economically valuable resources. These are non-renewable resources (primarily fossils, fuels, and minerals), renewable resources (animals, fish, and plant stocks) and continuing resources (sunlight, wave, and wind energy). The economic activity involves the use of material and energy resources, which are transformed into goods and services (Fitzgerald *et al*, 1997). The economic value of natural resources, argues Foster (1997: 75), is a prime site of conflict between values and interests, and institutions and communities that articulate those values and interests. One of the dominant perspectives in the area of cost-benefit analysis is the utilitarian perspective, which has its philosophical foundations in the neo-classical economics. Foster further explains that the utilitarian outlook downplays individual integrity and commitment, associated with moral values and rules that are typically acquired through the individual's immersion in a social culture (Foster, 1997: 75).

According to Tisdell (1999: 49) the economic use of natural resources can be consumptive or non-consumptive, commercial or non-commercial. As a result the total economic value of species usually exceeds its commercial value. The monetary value in the analysis of cost and benefits provides a tool for measurement and in that way it complements the process of cost-benefit analysis as a method of determining value during decision-making. The danger of a purely economic or utilitarian view of natural resources is that poor countries would only be supportive of conservation approaches that are economically viable. The contemporary practice of environmental conservation is based on the notion of preserving natural resources for a number of reasons, which include its intrinsic and utilitarian value (Fuggle and Rabie, 2003).

Bartelmus (1994: 88), argues that both economic growth and environmental protection are important and that it is imperative not to focus mainly on how much economic growth is

needed but also on the kind of growth that is needed. Tisdell (1999: 52) says that the utilization of wildlife must be balanced in a sense that both the public and private conservation practices that exist encourage conservation and the preservation of natural resources. This is crucial because if the balance is lost, both the present and future generations could be deprived of the pleasure of appreciation and experience of the value of natural resources. Tisdell also states that what is important is that conservationists need to be selective in their support of economic incentives and values for wildlife conservation if their main goal is to preserve biodiversity. According to O'Neill (1993), it is important to acknowledge the fact that there is an ongoing challenge around the cost-benefit analysis for economic and social benefits that governments have to deal with. This brings the discussion to the need for finding ways in which cost and benefits of conservation can be applied to community development.

## **2.6 CONSERVATION, DEVELOPMENT AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT.**

The quote below provides a suitable interpretation of development:

The concept of development cannot be defined in any simple way because it is a concept that is widely used in different contexts. But what is important to note is that development is no longer about economic growth alone which was thought to be the basic step towards the betterment of life and living conditions. Development is wider and it is inclusive of the social elements which put more emphasis on social practices. This means that development is no longer about an individual success and betterment of his/her conditions, but it is inclusive of a variety of systems in society because they affect each other. Development today is viewed from the perspective of achieving good for the majority of society and securing sustainable future generations (HSRC, 2002: 270).

The above definition stresses the human component of development. In addition to the above, Fitzgerald *et al* (1997: 276), argue that there has been a massive change in the notion or concept of development. For example the concept of development in contemporary theory and practices is more inclusive and integrated. This is shown in many

areas of both policy-making and implementation. There is a serious consideration of all the values and orientations of development including the environmental, economic, political and human aspects. Whitelock (1985: 233), argues that unless development is guided by the combination of ethical ecological, social and cultural principles much development will continue to have little impact on poorer communities.

The base for a nations' development must be its own resources, both human and material, fully used to meet its own needs.....development has therefore to be an effort of, by, and for the people. True development has to be people-centred (Rist 1999: 202).

On the basis of this view, the challenge is that of achieving more people-centred development. Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow (1997: 289), state that “sustainable development is dependent on the empowerment of people to sustain their own development in order to be the sustainers of development in their communities”. Fitzgerald *et al* argue that in a community, development can only be sustained if people concerned have the capacity and the will to use that capacity to manage development themselves. Capacity-building is crucial in this context because it could result in process ownership by the affected people, which will double the chances of sustainability (Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow, 1997).

Based on the above, the generally accepted belief now seems to be that development policy and practice has to integrate social development, economic development and enhance the preservation of natural and cultural resources. This highlights the importance of environmental policy in the planning and execution of conservation practices that seek to achieve community development. These views of development stress the concept of sustainable livelihoods and how this relates to community based development approaches. The development of local capacity for example could lead into the development of strong

social practice that will seek to achieve sustainable livelihoods. Such an approach or practice is very important especially for rural communities. It could translate into sustainable livelihoods, which will translate into the integration of community knowledge, resources, capital and so on. This will, in the end lead to a more holistic approach to community development which is based on active participation and ownership of development operational activities (Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow, 1997).

According to Swanepoel and De Beer (2004: 3), community development is a people-centred approach to development. Therefore one of the key or central challenges in community development is that of human resource development, capacity building and institutional strengthening for the management of sustainable development (Fitzgerald *et al*, (1997: 276). By human resource development Fitzgerald *et al* (1997), means the process of increasing the knowledge, skills, and the capacities of all the people in a society. Coetzee (1989: 4), believes that one of the ways in which the requirement of community development can be addressed. is that the processes of development needs to be owned and managed by people themselves. He argues that these beneficiaries will have to be orientated, educated and capacitated to add value to the particular development process (Coetzee, 1989: 4). Such a practice can enhance or increase the awareness of people that live in that particular area.

Tourism is seen as a means for economic development that will in turn benefit local people (Tisdell, 1999: 147). In poor countries with a rich wildlife biodiversity, ecotourism (also known as nature-based tourism) is regarded as being the most conducive to community economic development because of its potential to integrate a wide range of services and partners (Gunn, 1994: 16). Ecotourism is frequently seen as a promising method of



reconciling nature conservation with local economic development to countries possessing the natural resources on which such ecotourism depends (Tisdell, 1999). But the fact is that benefits of tourism are not automatic or always guaranteed. Ordinary citizens cannot effectively work or contribute in conservation and tourism without being equipped with skills. Their participation in conservation and tourism is closely linked to knowledge, skills and expertise in the management of the enterprise or project.

The appeal of ecotourism is a result of the view that ecotourism embraces both the economic, and ecological sustainability. The argument is that it can provide an economic incentive for nature conservation and sustainability which extends to social development. Tisdell (1999: 137), stresses that ecotourism may become a vehicle for providing economic support for the preservation of local culture, through sale by the local community of their culturally inspired handicrafts, performing arts and so on. This stresses the view that local communities can revive the practice of their culture because tourists seem to be attracted to the social life and activities of locals when they interact. Therefore local people turn to realize that their cultural practices and heritage are worth conserving and using.

Gunn (1994: 100), argues that nature reserves and ecotourism development can be compatible and if well planned, they can provide a balance in the process of achieving sustainability in a social, ecological and political sense. To make this practical, sustainable development would have to be made a principal planning requirement for both conservation and ecotourism. Integrated environmental management (IEM), is regarded as a tool for better and more holistic planning. As far as Gunn is concerned, IEMs are crucial because it fosters the integration of activities such as conservation, ecotourism business and support for community development programmes. Such an approach or view could validate and concretizes the symbolic relationship between resource protection as well as good business.

In this respect, the inclusions of monitoring and evaluation mechanisms are crucial. Careful planning of development initiatives is the key in achieving good results (Gunn, 1994). This view emphasizes the need for environmental management.

According to Tisdell (1999: 137), “the viability of the nature reserve system depends on developing successful programs to address the economic needs of discouraging unwise development”. This means that nature reserve managers need to cooperate with local communities to encourage the search for types of development that can be sustainable over the long term and compatible with reserve management goals. This emphasizes that the contemporary management of nature reserves has a challenge of reaching out to its neighbouring communities so that ways of sustaining activities within and outside the protected areas can be negotiated (Tisdell, 1999).

For the effective management of the policy implementation process to take place, policy must provide enabling tools for management to effectively achieve the expected results. It is important that government environmental policy objectives are structured in such a manner that they respond to the ever-changing needs and demands of society and adapt to changing levels of development in the society. This also implies that there is a need for the creation of institutional structures that can enable leadership to function effectively. Warburton (1998: 50), says that local economic development practices increasingly recognize the importance of supporting local business and of creating long term jobs for local people. One of the central characteristics of current community involvement is its institutionalization in formal programmes of physical renewal of neighbourhoods and estates of economic and social regeneration and of environmental protection and management. The above sentiments demands that management structures are put in place (Warburton, 1998: 53).

There is recognition that effective conservation is no longer understood as being the preservation of formally protected areas and fauna and flora. Effective conservation now relates to management which captures the notion of forging and maintaining functional relations with all stakeholders. This understanding is more important now that ecotourism is being pursued. Best-practice conservation now extends to the potential of management to ensure biodiversity planning and scientific know-how that recognize the existence of the other partners (DEAT, 1997, cited in Nyambe, 2005: 23).

What is crucial about this above view or statement is the fact that it recognizes effective management as a requisite for the opening of community participation and empowerment with regard to the use and protection of natural resources. Gunn (1994: 95), identifies key potential business relationship between community, private owners or public authorities. For example they can manage entrance fee collection systems, tourism training for park personnel; trail systems with interpreters; tour guides; curio centers; and offer hospitality services such as lodging facilities, accommodation and restaurants. In addition, the local community can be actively involved in a system of monitoring and evaluation (Gunn, 2004).

Gunn (1994: 95), says that ecotourism activities can stimulate conservation in that it can provide as strong base of revenue generation for research and community development, which can in turn sustain conservation and improve infrastructure to enable community development. There can be a mutually beneficial relationship between conservation authorities or private enterprises and the local community (Gunn, 1994). It cannot be disputed that there is an intimate relationship between resource protection and community development. It is important therefore that the integration of community development and conservation practices are encouraged. The strategy of co-management of conservation

areas could provide more opportunities for communities to participate and learn about conservation.

## Conclusion

This chapter has emphasized the relationship which exists between preservation, conservation and development. The recent paradigm shift towards sustainable development is highlighted and the reality that most nature reserves tend to be located in poor and underdeveloped areas, where biodiversity is rich and varied. This makes them vulnerable to private exploitation especially with the rise of ecotourism ventures. The debate on sustainable development highlights the need for economic initiatives to benefit local communities while preserving and conserving the natural resources base on which the ecotourism industry depends. The argument is that if local communities do not benefit, then conservation in poor and underdeveloped areas could be threatened and become unsustainable.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3. POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR ENVIRONMENT: POLICY AND MANAGEMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA.**

The previous chapter described the changing philosophies of preservation, conservation and its interpretation into the paradigm of sustainable development. This chapter seeks to explore the South African policy framework for environmental policy and management. The inclusion of the concept of sustainable development into the South African environmental policy will also briefly be explored as it relates to the background of contemporary environmental policies in South Africa. The introductory section of this chapter contains a brief discussion of how sustainable development and applies to South Africa environmental management policies. The later part of this chapter looks at the South African contemporary environmental management and conservation policies.

Like any other state, South Africa has a long history in the area of environmental management and conservation. Fuggle and Rabie (1992), argue that environmental conservation policy in South Africa has for a long time been dominated by scientific parameters of preservation. Conservation projects in the past disregarded human needs, rights and dignity (Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow, 1997: 258). The establishment of many game reserves in South Africa often meant the forced removal and social dislocation of local people, and conservation for many local people meant the dispossession of their land.

Kidd (1997: 12), says that most of the laws that were passed from 1652 until the early 20<sup>th</sup> century on environmental nature conservation were predominantly concerned with the conservation of natural resources, particularly wildlife. In this way, the previous South

African environmental policies and management practices reflected the old worldwide paradigm, which was based on the separation of human processes and the natural resources. South Africa's old environmental policies were designed to protect the environment (or natural resources) from human utilization. An example of such a policy is the Environmental Conservation (Act 100 of 1982). This Act did not holistically address and respond to the social developmental challenges of the time (Kidd, 1997: 47).

Fitzgerald *et al* (1997: 258), argue that major environmental problems in South Africa were caused by an inadequate environmental policy. There was a fragmentation of environmental controls and functions which were splintered between different government departments and enforcement was minimal. As a result, the administrative system was also caught up in a dualistic orientation, whereby government was responsible both for resources exploitation and environmental protection. Thus there was a need for a policy that was going to provide for a clear separation of functions such as implementation, monitoring and evaluation functions of environmental management policy within government (Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow, 1997: 258). The above statement reflects that there was no balance in the actual processes of the use and protection of natural resources. Conservation was then traditionally premised on a command- and-control philosophy that was founded on a protectionist philosophy (Rudge *et al*, cited in Nyambe: 2005: 15). The other weakness in environmental policy was that there was no integration of social, environmental, economic and political activities. The environment and its natural resources were treated in isolation from its social, economic and political context (Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow, 1997).

Cock and Koch (cited in Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow, 1997: 258), identify the fact that there has been a lack of a strong mass-based environmental movement in South Africa. This might have been caused by the number of other more pressing political issues

represented by apartheid. Cock and Koch believe that the lack of environmental advocacy was also based on the lack of a more holistic understanding between conservation and development. This view enforced the understanding that natural resources were to be protected and preserved and had to be separated from human activities. Overpopulation and poverty often identified as a main environmental problem. The argument was that poor people were destroying their natural habitat. Thus in practice, conservation was divorced from development in South Africa. This practice also affected the way the black majority viewed conservation practices. Nature reserves become the exclusive playground for the rich (Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow, 1997).

At this point, it is important to consider how the concept of sustainable development has been integrated into contemporary South African environmental policy. There is no doubt that the global theory of sustainable development has influenced the content of South African environmental management policies. For example, the concept of development and environment is reflected in the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) (Act 106 of 1998) as “the collective means of improving human well-being through a reallocation of resources that involve some modification of the environment and economic activity or processes”. According to NEMA, sustainable development means the integration of social, economic, ecological and political factors or aspects into the planning, decision-making and implementation.

The above definition of sustainable development puts emphasis on the need for public policy to reflect these broad considerations, values and aspirations in the construction of policy theory and in policy implementation. In addition, this implies that sustainable development cannot be achieved if social, economic political and ecological concerns are not integrated and aligned. According to Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow Sustainable

development is a paradigm that seeks to promote full cooperation, consultation and transparency amongst stakeholders such as government departments, public and civil society organizations..

The concept of sustainable development is important and relevant in South Africa for a number of reasons. South Africa is a developing country and is faced with high levels of poverty, unemployment, disease, HIV/AIDS, poverty, and rapid population growth. The democratic government in South Africa is expected to extend socio-economic services and achieve rapid economic development. Pursuing economic growth has become the primary priority. However, if development is to be sustainable then the economic system must be structured in a way that it is compatible with the principles of sustainable development and maintaining South Africa's environmental capacity. Economic growth must be in line with the continued availability of natural resources. This view clearly highlights the fact that economic production must take place in accordance with the environmental standards and that environmental protection must be guaranteed (Cavalcanti, 2000).

Cavalcanti (2000: 19), says that the concept of sustainable development should not be seen as totally separate from the concept of economic growth. Economic growth is limited to quantitative and material growth of the economy. Cavalcanti further explains that the first principle to be stressed in the context of policies for sustainable development is to acknowledge that development entails some environmental degradation. Total environmental preservation is impossible, in one way or the other economic processes depend on the use of natural resources. The challenge is how to pursue development on a more enduring, sound basis than has been the practice up to now. Therefore, there must be a genuine understanding of the fact that sustainability of development depends on the preservation of environmental resources as well as its utilization. To do all this, South



Africa, needs a strong environmental policy framework if it is to achieve sustainable development (Cavalcanti, 2000: 12).

Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie (2002:129), explain that developing countries, like South Africa should grasp the opportunity presented by their 'late' development. This means that developing countries can avoid repeating the same mistakes developed nations have made. They should strive for a balance between the economical, social, ecological and political values in development. Rapid industrialization in developed countries have come at great environmental costs. If managed properly, African states can achieve great outcomes with their wise utilization of natural resources. The fact that South Africa is now a democratic state, enables it to foster partnerships with many private stakeholders and communities that are able to work with government. More financial and human resources can be made available through partnerships (Kuye, Thornhill and Fourie, 2002).

This philosophy became dominant when a democratic government came into power in 1994. All legislation that discriminated against South African citizens were replaced. On the basis of past history, it was rather obvious that focus was now going to be directed at eradicating inequality, alleviating poverty, job creation and meeting the basics needs of the majority of South Africans. This also meant that environmental management and the use of natural resources had to be reviewed within this new context (Duggan, 1999).

However, South Africa was not unique in this paradigm shift. Towards the 1980's, the external and global context also underwent a paradigm shift. This contributed to the shaping of the new South African environmental management landscape. Since 1994, government has ensured that environmental management policies reflect a more human-orientated philosophy.

Conservation policies in South Africa have changed and adopted the global contemporary views and perspectives of sustainable development that govern environmental management. This is reflected in policies enacted and the political commitment to environmental conservation and sustainable development as has been witnessed by South African government delegates at the World Summit in Johannesburg in 2002. The Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa (EEASA, 2002:4 -8), states that in South Africa the concept of sustainable development has grown alongside with the maturity or process of consolidation of democracy and that it has been embraced;

- as a green agenda of nature conservation,
- as social and economic agenda of needs satisfaction,
- as an integrated agenda of caring for the community of life on earth, and
- as a radical and ethical agenda of transformation.

Kuye, Schwella and Fourie (2002), explain that the noble effort and commitment on the side of the South Africa Government can be observed in legislation like the Constitution (Act 108 of 1996), the National Environmental Management Act (Act 106 of 1998), and the Protected Areas Act (Act 57 of 2003). The above mentioned South Africa environmental management policies are aimed at creating an enabling environment for the integration of economic, social and environmental developments. In addition these policies can enhance the preservation of the environment to eradicate poverty, increase economic growth, protect the environment and enhance social development (Kuye, Schwella and Fourie, 2002). This is crucial because the environment and conservation strategies in the national, provincial spheres of government should all respond to the development challenges in a sustainable manner (Rist, 1999). NEMA stresses the need for cooperative or intergovernmental cooperation and coordination, which must translate into the harmonization of policies, legislation and actions relating to the environment at all levels.

The South African Constitution (Act 108 of 1996), is the first constitution in South Africa that makes provisions for environmental protection for citizens and it identifies an understanding of human beings' relationship with natural resources. For example, the Bill of Rights (section 24) stipulates that everyone has the right;

- to an environment that is not harmful to their health or well being; and
- to have the **environment protected, for the benefit of present and future generations**, through reasonable legislative and other measures that-
- prevent pollution and ecological degradation;
  - promote conservation; and
  - (ii) secure **ecologically sustainable development** and use law of natural resources while **promoting justifiable economic and social development**.

The third clause especially identifies the key principles of contemporary theories and practices of environmental management. It stresses the relationship between sustainable development, natural resources and social development.

### **3.1 The National Environment Management Act (Act 107 of 1998), (NEMA).**

NEMA gives more details on the relationship between environmental protection and social, economic and cultural rights. Some of the key principles are:

- Sustainable development requires the consideration of all the relevant factors including the following:
- That the disturbance of ecosystems and **loss of biological diversity are avoided**, or, where they cannot be altogether avoided, are minimized and remedied;
  - **community well-being and empowerment must be promoted**  
through environmental education, rising of environmental awareness, the sharing of knowledge and experience and other appropriate means.

- the social, economic and environmental **impacts of activities**, including disadvantages and benefits, **must be considered, assessed and evaluated**, and decisions must be appropriate in the light of such consideration and assessment.
- **decisions must be taken in an open and transparent manner** and access to information must be provided in accordance with the law.
- the environment **is held in public trust for all the people**, the beneficial use of environmental resources must serve the interest and the **environment must be protected** as the people's common heritage.

The above clauses reflect a strong development-based conservation policy in South Africa. Natural resources are seen as very important resources that can contribute to the larger development goals, if well managed. Kidd (1997: 12), argues that such a declaration expresses government's commitment to environmental management and outlines the responsibility of citizens as well. Basically, this legislation advocates and provides the framework for the integration of social, environmental, political and economic processes. It also provides for a dual beneficial relationship between man and nature, in that people and their needs must form part of the environmental practices and they in return should care for the natural resources. In his writing, Crush (1995: 65), advocates for the promotion and implementation of the 'people-centred' development especially in the conservation sectors. This approach put emphasis on community participation and the restoration of indigenous knowledge. By community, he means "any groups of persons or part of such group who share common interests, and who regard themselves as a community" (Crush, 1995: 65). The people-centred approach to conservation and development could ensure the sustainability of conservation itself in a long run (Crush, 1995).

Doyle and McEachern (1998: 149). explain that much of what happens or fails to happen in protecting the environment is informed by management and the making of policy by government and bureaucracy. Governments' regulatory measures, indicators and laws have an impact on the success of environmental policy implementation. Government institutions or agencies have to practically use these regulatory directives in their operational activities to achieve the expected results. For example, NEMA requires that all here spheres of government must compile Environmental Implementation Plans (EIPs) and Environmental Management Plans (EMS), the Integrated Development Plans (IDPs) and Integrated Environmental Management (IEM). These are meant to provide the legal framework for environmental management and development as well as planning. Provisions in the constitution and NEMA become the yardstick to measure the compliance and success of environmental conservation.

### **3.2 National Environmental Conservation Act (Act 73 of 1989).**

Although enacted in 1989, the National Environmental Conservation Act (Act 100 of 1982), has not been repealed. It provides for;

- the **protection of ecological processes**, natural systems and natural beauty establishment as well as the preservation of biotic diversity in the natural environment,
- the **promotion of the sustainable utilization of** species and ecosystems and the effective application and **re-use of natural resources**,
- the **protection of environment against disturbance**, deterioration, defacement, poisoning, pollution or destruction as a result of man-made structures, installations, processes or products or human activities; and
- the **promotion of the effective management of cultural resources** in order to ensure the protection and responsible use thereof,

- the **promotion of environmental education** in order to establish an environmental literate community with a sustainable way of life;
- the execution and coordination of integrated environmental monitoring.

The Environmental Conservation Act (Act 73 of 1989), provides for the promotion of effective and controlled utilization of the environment. This includes the promotion of environmental education, sustainable utilization of species and ecosystems. According to the World Conservation Strategy, the most serious conservation problem faced by developing countries is the lack of rural development opportunities and resources, hence their heavy reliance on natural resource-use. Development countries need to be equipped and supported to attain a livelihood in a sustainable way and the Environmental Conservation Act of South Africa identifies this reality. The purpose of environmental management policies are to create an enabling environment for the integration of economic, social and environmental developments and preserve the environment to eradicate poverty, increase economic growth, protect the environment and enhance social development.

Nyambe (2005: 8), argues that in a changing South Africa, a new policy framework is needed that will enhance effective conservation through a rationalization and consolidation of systems of protected areas. According to him such a system will serve as the focal point for conservation activities, and the continued successful management of the protected areas will act as a measurement of the country's commitment to the conservation of biodiversity. In addition he states that in South Africa, there is an inevitable need for policy to go beyond the status quo in conservation and secure the future generations a better future through enabling the effective use and protection of natural resources (Nyambe, 2005).

### 3.3 The National Environmental Management Act for Protected Areas Act (Act 57 of 2003).

The latest environmental management and conservation policy to be enacted is the National Environmental Management Act for Protected Areas Act (Act 57 of 2003). This Act is the first ever policy of its kind in South Africa. This legislation is specifically designed to address the issues of protected areas and issues like ecotourism and development. This Act outlines the value and significance of protected areas. It states that the declaration of protected areas is based on ecologically viable areas representative of South Africa's biological diversity and natural land-or sea scapes. The aim is to conserve biodiversity in those areas; generally to contribute to human, social, cultural, spiritual and economic development. The Protected Areas Act (Act 57 of 2003), states that "no development contemplated shall be implemented ... before the management authority has indicated in writing the nature and extent of the strategic or environmental impact assessment required for the development". Chapter 4 provides for co-management of protected areas. It states that the management authority managing a protected area may enter into an agreement with another organ of state or a local community for-

- the **co-management** of the area by the parties; or
- the **regulation of human activities** that affect the environment in the area,
- the delegation of powers by the management authority to the other party to the agreement
- the apportionment of **any income generated** from the management of the protected area between the parties (Part iv, point 26.2, section 50.5).

Another interesting provision in this Act is on the issue of co-management of protected areas. The provision on co-management of conservation areas is very important in contemporary South Africa and refers to community participation and development. These

principles encourage citizens to participate in matters or decision-making processes. This clause is a key foundation for people participation in the management and development of conservation areas. It supports initiatives for community involvement in conservation enterprises and practices.

The Protected Areas Act furthermore provides the basis for the establishment of an appropriate institutional and administrative framework to ensure the effective management of conservation of protected areas by provincial government. This Act states that the Member of the Executive Committee (MEC) responsible for environmental affairs in a province may make regulations for provincial and local protected areas in the province. The Protected Areas Act further provides authority to assign duties to management authorities of those protected areas. This view is crucial because the Protected Areas Act generally advocates for the use of natural resources for human, social, cultural spiritual and economic developments. It is clear that this Act seeks to achieve greater coherency, alignment and order in the implementation of environmental conservation in the country because national, provincial and local authorities are tasked to promote development alongside conservation initiatives.

## Conclusion

This chapter has given a brief overview of the South African environmental management policy framework. It has also briefly discussed how the principle of sustainable development has provided a platform or a foundation for future South African environmental management policy. Most noteworthy is that all the recent environmental management policies provide for and emphasize the integration of all values and aspects which range from ecological, economical, and social to political aspects. They further provide a more people-centred development approach to conservation in policy theory as



well as in implementation practices. More emphasis is also put into the creation of a mutual and beneficial relationship between humans and the nature environment while promoting and allowing for conservation. The next chapter will look at Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife is the overriding conservation authority in the province and responsible to give effect to national environmental policy with regards to conservation and community development.

## **CHAPTER FOUR**

### **4. THE CASE STUDY.**

This chapter is going to focus on the province of KwaZulu-Natal, its conservation authority, Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife (EKZNW) and one of its game reserves, the Ithala Game Reserve. The conservation and development policy framework of the province and its conservation authority will be explored and analyzed with special reference to community development.

#### **4.1 A SHORT PROFILE OF THE PROVINCE OF KWAZULU-NATAL.**

The province of KwaZulu-Natal is one of 9 provinces established by the democratic government in South Africa in 1994. It is an amalgamation of the former Natal province and the self-governing Zululand. The South Africa Constitution (Act 108 of 1996) renamed the province to KwaZulu-Natal (KZN). KZN is located on the Indian Ocean seaboard of South Africa. KZN is the third smallest province in the country and home to approximately 9.4 million of the country population. The largest percentage (85%) of the province's population is African (KZN Provincial Profile Analysis, 2004: 17). (See the Map of South Africa highlighting KZN in Appendix A and Municipal Boundaries in KZN in Appendix B).

Like any other province in the country, KZN has its development problems and challenges. According to the 2004 KZN Provincial Profile Analysis Report (2004: 17), poverty is the highest in rural areas and it is estimated that about 74% of the population live on incomes below the poverty line. About 54% of the total population live in rural areas. The province has a high dependency rate because of problems such as high levels of unemployment,

illiteracy and HIV/AIDS especially in rural areas. The KZN Profile Provincial Analysis Report (2004: 18), defines poverty as:

.....pronounced deprivation in well-being, to be poor is to be hungry, to lack shelter and clothing, to be sick and not cared for, to be illiterate and not schooled and the poor are vulnerable to adverse events and they are often treated badly by the institutions of the State and society. They also are denied voice and power in the institutions of the State that make decisions that affect their livelihood. Poverty is usually measured in terms of income but this definition relates poverty to economic deprivation and many other necessities are involved (KZN Provincial Profile Analysis, 2004).

The KZN 10 Year Review Report published in 2005 reveals that about 6, 5 million hectares of land is suitable for agriculture of which 82% is suitable for livestock and 18% is arable and suitable for a variety of plantations. The interior of the province is characterized by farming, agriculture and a slow growing tourism industry. Almost all big businesses in these sectors are owned by the minority of the population (predominantly white), which increases the inequality which already exists between the rich and poor. In rural KZN there is a lack of economic infrastructure such as roads and markets, where people can access opportunities. Most key government offices such as the Provincial Parliament and head office of government departments are located in the big urban cities of Pietermaritzburg and Durban, far removed from the poor who reside in rural areas. The lack of infrastructure makes access to relevant information on business support opportunities and services offered by government difficult. The rural youth find it difficult to access quality education and employment opportunities, which results in the growing number of unemployable and unskilled individuals in the province (KZN Provincial Profile Analysis, 2004).

Based on the above provincial profile document, it clear that there is a big difference between the urban and rural areas in the KZN province. Infrastructure, basic service delivery and employment opportunities are better in urban areas. For example, the urban areas such as Durban, Pietermaritzburg and Richards Bay have good infrastructure and

strong industries. The province's population varies between rich, middle class and the very poor.

However, according to the KZN 10 Year Review (2005), KZN is described as the "province of opportunities" because of its current and untapped social and economic resources. KZN is one of the few provinces in the country that is blessed with a range of natural resources and biodiversity, which include wildlife, a good climate, water, the sea and the Drakensburg Mountain range and a rich Zulu culture. In addition, "KZN's attractiveness lies in the province's unique combination of biodiversity, impressive scenery, all-year clement climate, beautiful beaches, as well as developed infrastructure, an immensely rich mosaic of exciting cultures, and a historically inherited comparative advantage in the form of a monarchy" (KZN Provincial Profile Analysis, 2004: 11). These resources offer a province a comparative advantage in accelerating social and economic developments. The tourism industry is deemed to be one of the strongest sectors in the province that can drive development. There is also a notion that the tourism sector's potential has not yet been fully exploited and that it presents an opportunity for economic growth and development.

The dominant belief in KZN is that its rich biodiversity and cultural history are the resources which will foster development throughout the province. The reliance on 'tourism' as the conduit for development has severe implications for conservation and sustainable development.

## 4.2 THE POLICY FRAMEWORK FOR DEVELOPMENT AND CONSERVATION.

Nature conservation and community development are some of the key mandates that are allocated to Provincial Administrations (Van Niekerk, De Waldt and Jonker, 1998: 68). KZN has a legislative mandate with regard to conservation and environmental management which have an impact on community development. In respect, the provincial government has established the Department of Agriculture and Environmental Affairs (DEA & A) to manage these responsibilities. It is responsible for establishing a policy framework for environment and agriculture for the province.

As it is alluded, to in the previous chapter, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996), has made provisions for environmental and conservation policies that effect sustainable development. Schedule 4 (Part A) details the functional areas of concurrent national and provincial legislative competencies mandates and compels the provincial administration to manage the cultural matters, environment, soil conservation, tourism and nature conservation, (excluding national parks, national botanic gardens and marine resources). The provincial administration is the custodian of the province's environmental and natural resources on behalf of the people of KZN.

The guiding policy framework in KZN for conservation is the KwaZulu-Natal's Nature Conservation Management Act (Act 9 of 1997). This legislation requires the establishment of Local Boards which must represent a protected area's neighbouring community. The local community must elect their representatives onto the Local Board.

Chapter 5 of the KZN Nature Conservation Management Act (section 270) provides for the duties, powers and functions of Local Boards which includes the drafting of a management plan that must;

- **promote the development needs of the people living in or adjacent** to the protected area.
- **promote educational programmes relating to nature conservation;** and
- **determine local policies** within the framework of the Local Board's policies on nature conservation and heritage resources within the relevant protected areas, including but not limited to –
  - development of ecotourism;
  - scientific research; and
  - cooperation with other persons, bodies or groups involved in tourism, nature conservation and related matters.

These clauses recognise the element of community participation and community development in matters relating to the environment, tourism development and conservation. The clause that provides for the establishment of Local Boards is very crucial in democratic governance because ordinary people are thereby allowed to participate in decision-making processes on matters affecting them. In this way people are able to negotiate an appropriate development model that will respond to their needs. In addition, these clauses capture the new provincial expectations and objectives of sustainable development and the promotion of sustainable livelihoods. These expectations include the activities of promoting awareness of the functioning and importance of the biosphere, promoting sustainable and the equitable use of wildlife resources. They specifically advocate the promotion of the conservation of ecological and biodiversity processes; the facilitation of public access and opportunities in protected areas; and to ensure the integration of social, economical and environmental values. All these expectations translate into a comprehensive sustainable development approach towards conservation for the province.

A Focus Publication (2003: 8) identified that nature reserves now have a mandate not to only undertake conservation management but also economic development and community empowerment, and have to facilitate tourism development. The challenge is to create a new paradigm that ensures that the benefits of conservation activities are equally distributed among citizens. These aims and objectives should inform the ways in which parks or reserves are conceived, planned and managed. The article identifies the need for a development policy within the field of nature conservation and tourism that will respond to the contemporary social challenges of the province. All of this emphasizes the importance to adhere to the principles of sustainable development, paying particular attention to the integration of social, ecological, political and economic values or considerations at the planning, policy and implementation levels (Focus Publication, 2003).

#### **4.3 THE PROVINCIAL AND DEVELOPMENT STRATEGY (PGDS).**

The development approach of KZN is better defined and described in its Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS). The PGDS is a policy document that comprehensively captures the development priorities and strategies of the province. “The Province of KZN has determined a Provincial Growth and Development Strategy which creates the imperatives that will build a winning province” (Nyambe, 2005: 146). PGDS is meant to consolidate resources from the individuals, business and the Non-profit sector to create an economically sustainable, social and politically progressive province. “Although Government will naturally be the driving champion of the PGDS, the strategy speaks to the needs, aspirations and goals of all the key stakeholders in KwaZulu-Natal” (PGDS Summit, 2004: 1).

One of the main aims of the PGDS is to introduce the provincial development priorities to by all stakeholders. Some of these provincial priorities identified as; the strengthening of governance, service delivery, integrating investments in community infrastructure, sustainable economic development, job creation, developing human capability, developing a comprehensive response to HIV/AIDS, fighting poverty and protecting vulnerable groups in the society. These priorities capture the range of developmental challenges for the province.

Most importantly, the PGDS identifies both Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife (*provincial conservation body*) and the KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority (KZNTA) as strategically located public entities or parastatals through which the province's comparative advantage (which they believe is its tourism potential) and be exploited for maximizing development. These two agencies are believed to have the potential for promoting the province into leading tourist destination, locally, regionally and abroad. The PGDS identifies two core functions of Ezemvelo include biodiversity conservation (including land use planning to support sustainable conservation of natural resource) and the provision of ecotourism facilities in protected areas, and facilitating access to these areas. The KZNTA is expected to provide an enabling environment and support for civil society and business to invest in the development of tourism in the province. In the PGDS it is argues that it is crucial for the development in the province in that "the tourism and conservation activities translate into many business and job opportunities for different classes of people" (KZN 10 Year Review, 2005: 84). This leads to another important part of this discussion which focuses on the conservation potential and the support for tourism in KZN.



#### **4.4 KZN CONSERVATION POTENTIAL AND TOURISM SUPPORT.**

According to Nyambe (2005), the province has developed a reputation for its conservation initiatives dating back to the 19<sup>th</sup> century and early 20<sup>th</sup> century. KZN consists of some of the oldest game and nature reserves in the country, in Africa and in the world. The Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park and St Lucia Game Reserve are amongst such reserves. At the present moment, approximately 7.72% of the province's land is under the formal conservation management or agency which manages more than 100 protected areas, nearly a quarter of the total number of protected areas in South Africa (Nyambe, 2005). In addition the province has two World Heritage Sites which are the Ukhahlamba-Drakensburg Park and the Greater St Lucia Wetland Reserve.

Despite its support for community development, in reality some of the problems that have constrained local community involvement in tourism development include the lack of understanding of the tourism industry. Many business investors in tourism ventures in rural areas regard community involvement as high risk. The KZNTA has put together a number of support mechanisms such as a developer's guide for tourism development and has provided a provincial website which details information on business opportunities in the tourism sector (Delliote and Touche, 2002: 10). Whilst the KwaZulu-Natal Tourism Authority (KZNTA) has tourism expertise, and a policy framework of community development it does not have the capacity to implement a comprehensive tourism project, which incorporates local community development. It also has had little power to enforce community development requirements onto private enterprises. Tourism in the community has therefore relied largely on the private sector developers' voluntary contribution and approaches to incorporate local communities into the mainstream tourism development projects (Deloitte and Touché Consortium, 2002: 5).

KZN's Department of Traditional Affairs and Local Government (DTLGA), has identified the development capacity of tourism in its Integrated Development Plan (IDP). The DTLGA advocates tourism development through its programme of Local Economic Development (LED), which puts emphasis on people-centred tourism development. Traditionally, conservation practices and authorities were highly opposed to tourism development especially within the preserved areas. But this view has now changed and is evident in the KZN Province's Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS). The PGDS recognizes the conservation sector as a key asset in the province's tourism development agenda (PGDS, 2004). In response to this challenge and mandate, Ezemvelo has had to integrate the provincial IDP objectives into its own mandate (EKZNW Corporate Strategy, 2002-05).

The KZNTA argues that tourism has contributed to the economy and local people have increased access to business opportunities and employment. The KZNTA also stated that tourism generates approximately 10% of KwaZulu-Natal Gross Domestic Geographic Product. In addition, the tourism industry employs 2000 000 local individuals. It claims that, the conservation sector and the tourism industry have achieved remarkable success (KZNTA, 1998-2005: 2).

Based on the various reviews, reports and development strategies of KZN, the general consensus in KZN is that the provincial conservation and tourism authorities and agencies have made a significant contribution to political, economical, ecological and social aspects of the lives of its people of the province (as highlighted by the KZN 10 Review, 2005).

Here are some of the successes of tourism and conservation sectors in the recent years.

- The conservation sector has introduced a successful benefit-sharing project with communities adjacent to the parks. Such projects include the community levies on gate entries and overnight accommodation tariffs on visitors entering the Provincial

agencies' parks. This project generated R14 million during the review period which was used to fund many other community projects. As at April 2004, some 28-community projects, ranging from building and renovation of classrooms to block making had been funded from proceeds obtained from the levy project, (KZN10-Year Review, 2005: 84).

- The conservation and commercial operations of the conservation agency has provided direct employment to many local communities and created income-generating opportunities such as tour guiding, craft and curio trading. Through ecotourism 80, 000 jobs in 2002 were created (KZN 10-Year Review, 2005: 84).
- The conservation sector has initiated and facilitated the establishment of Local Boards, in terms of KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Act (Act 9 of 1997). This practice seeks to promote local decision making in respect of the management of nature conservation and heritage resources in the protected areas as well as promoting integration of activities of the protected areas into that of the surrounding areas. (KZN 10-Year Review, 2005: 85).

As said earlier, Ezemvelo KZN wildlife is the key conservation authority in KZN and it is therefore important to take a closer look at this agency and their policy on conservation and community development.

#### **4.5 EZEMVELO KZN WILDLIFE.**

This section focuses on the KZN's conservation authority, Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife and its broader institutional nature conservation policy provisions with reference to community development. The discussion is going to look at how their policy framework and organizational structure create an enabling environment for the initiation and implementation of community development in the province. (See the Map of Nature Reserves in KZN, Appendix C).

The national transformation process that started with the 1994 democratic elections had an impact on this conservation authority too. This sector had to adjust and adapt into the new democratic era. In a democratic South Africa, conservation would need to meet the new reality of poverty alleviation and development. At this stage it was identified that there was

a need to find a holistic approach to conservation with a need to create policy and institutional arrangements that seek to implement conservation practices that address ecological, social and political values and needs (Joubert, 1995). The amalgamation of various conservation bodies was identified as a prerequisite for the desired coordinated system of conservation (Nyambe, 2005: 81). This new system was deemed necessary to help streamline governance and planning processes as well as to mitigate inappropriate legacies. It was also thought that a single co-ordinated system and authority would provide opportunities for increased community and private stakeholders' participation in decision-making (Nyambe, 2005).

In KZN, this meant the amalgamation of the Natal Parks Board (NPB) and the Zululand Directorate for Nature Conservation (DNC) into one conservation authority. The resultant body was the KwaZulu-Natal Conservation Service (KZNCS). This process of transformation was initiated in 1998 and entailed a lot of internal restructuring and transformation of institutional and organizations arrangements. This new provincial conservation agency became also known as Ezemvelo or KZN Wildlife. It had a new vision, strategy and a new leadership.

Ezemvelo's main responsibility and aim is the conservation and protection of the province's unique natural resources the promotion of ecotourism and the nurturing of partnerships with people. Nyambe (2005: 185), says that "the restructured Ezemvelo has identified its core business as that of conservation which is an objective that is seeks to achieve in partnership with communities and other stakeholders and the tapping into the province's ecotourism potential to the fullest extent possible". The inclusion of business principles into Ezemvelo's strategic planning was hoped to achieve financial sustainability for Ezemvelo without compromising its biodiversity conservation mission. This culminated

into the strategic focus being placed on conservation, partnerships with the private sector and ecotourism.

In the special supplement of the Sunday Tribute Newspaper, of March 2002, the new Chief Executive Officer (CEO), (Mr Khulani Mkhize) of Ezemvelo was quoted saying “Ezemvelo is now firmly on the track to tackle the challenges of the future”. This confidence of the CEO is repeated in Ezemvelo’s Corporate Strategic Plan for 2002-2005 (EKZNW Strategy). This EKZNW Strategy (2002-05: 3), outlines Ezemvelo’s policy goals and orientations, which reflect a strong commitment to the strategic imperatives dictated by its immediate environment. Ezemvelo’s vision is said to have developed through the contribution of various stakeholders (both from the private sector and civil society) within and outside the organization.

The EKZNW Strategy (2002-05: 11), is Ezemvelo’s policy document which identifies strategic issues that are informed by the nature of the socio-economic, political and the regulatory environment as Ezemvelo operates. One key challenge for Ezemvelo is identified as how it can position itself within the province the ultimate authority for conservation in the province. To do this, Ezemvelo has adopted a powerful vision that embraces conservation, partnerships and ecotourism (Sunday Tribune, 02 March 2004: 1). Through this vision and policy, Ezemvelo seeks to introduce more private sector involvement as well as the public into the activities of protected areas. Their mission is “to ensure sustainable biodiversity conservation and ecotourism management in KwaZulu-Natal in partnership with people” (EKZNW Strategy 2002-05: 5).

The EKZNW Strategy (2002-05: 6), identifies the need to improve their relationship with the public and mostly the community that reside adjacent to the protected areas under its

jurisdiction. This translates into the responsibilities of Ezemvelo to get involved in providing support for community conservation programmes and socio-economic development, sharing resources, improving their local knowledge and establishing or improving community channels and participation (EKZNW Strategy, 2000-05). Ezemvelo identifies that this responsibility includes the provision of guidance on sustainable resources use; conservation; and management of wildlife resources. Another responsibility identified in its strategy is to provide biodiversity Status Reports, to update key conservation programmes and issues; to biodiversity information is incorporated into land-use decision-making; and to ensure the implementation of their nature conservation policy and strategy (EKZNW Strategy, 2000). With regards to policy implementation, it was decided to consider Ezemvelo's relationship with their neighboring communities as well as business. This discussion is based on an analysis of the various policies which Ezemvelo has adopted to guide their interaction with the community as well as business.

#### EZEMVELO'S RELATIONSHIP WITH NEIGHBOURING COMMUNITIES

According to Child (2004: 247), accountability is a fundamental problem facing protected areas in their contemporary practice. This relates to their sharing of values that govern their planning and management of protected areas. There is a need to link the protected area agencies to the existing provincial political oversight structures as well as and social processes.

Child (2004: 225), says that "accountability improves legitimacy". Legitimacy here means a consensual, common understanding and cooperation between the social groups affected by conservation policy. The notion of legitimacy and accountability translates into a connected management system and approach to the conservation reserve, which could result into co-management arrangements between the authority and civil societies. Public

accountability and transparency is crucial to Ezemvelo especially because it is a public entity and provincial legislation requires it to incorporate community development and partnership.

Ezemvelo has drafted specific policies that address their relationship with local communities. One of its policies is called the Neighbour Relations Policy (Policy File No: 4. 8; of 25 June 1999). The essence of this policy is that Ezemvelo recognises that all people in the province have the right to benefit from protected areas. The benefits of protected areas are identified as its opportunity to generate revenue, employment, markets, natural resources, education, recreation, stimuli for tourism, and that these are not yet fully developed nor utilised by all communities<sup>5</sup>. Their policy on neighbouring relations identifies the need to create trust between Ezemvelo and civil society through;

- improving communications,
- negotiating **solutions to common problems**, and
- **encouraging participation** in conservation activities
- developing **environmental awareness through education** and interpretation programmes
- **facilitating access** to the material and spiritual benefits of protected areas through **understanding neighbours needs** and encouraging access,
- fostering the **economic and social development** of neighbouring communities and thus contributing to an improved quality of life (Neighbour Relations Policy, 1999).

Another policy that Ezemvelo has put in place is called the Community Relations Policy (1998), which entails a strategy that is called Community Conservation Programmes. Ezemvelo seeks to increase nature conservation and sustainable use of natural resources through community programmes and awareness programmes especially in rural areas and in disadvantaged urban areas. This is done through facilitating the formation of effective partnerships with communities who live adjacent

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<sup>5</sup> [www.kznwildlife.com](http://www.kznwildlife.com)

to conservation areas (EKZNW Strategy, 2002-05: 23). Some of the specific aims of Ezemvelo's Community Conservation Programme is to:

- establish and maintain **participatory structures** (with staff, neighbours) and user groups (for example with Local Boards, Liaison Forums and special interests groups), and to participate in other community structures when requested and where this relates to biodiversity conservation.
- Engage in biodiversity education and awareness enhancing processes which foster nature conservation value amongst protected area visitors, neighbours, schools, local communities and other interest groups.
- Develop, **foster and enable access to nature conservation-based** entrepreneurial opportunities,
- **Integrate community conservation programmes** within protected areas, community areas and conservation districts.

Since 1994, local community forums for protected areas have been an important point of contact between the nature conservation officials and the people living in and around conservation areas. Ezemvelo states that over the past few years, community conservation projects have expanded, with both conservation officials and local communities initiating and implementing those programmes. Programmes that have been initiated and implemented include projects on biodiversity education, (for example on sustainable resource use), community development projects, and tourism ventures. Ezemvelo are proud to have been pro-active in engaging society and creating community partnerships.

## EZEMVELO'S RELATIONSHIP WITH BUSINESS

Like any other public entity in the country, Ezemvelo receives a subsidy from the government. However, they argue that it is insufficient if they are to implement all their responsibilities (Nyambe, 2005: 143). Ezemvelo has had to find creative ways towards effective budgeting, planning, design and programs implementation especially for tourism and community development within protected areas. It further signified the need for provincial policy and strategies to create a more enabling environment for conservation



agencies to attract relevant partners in maintaining both the ecological and financial sustainability of natural resource management.

Ezemvelo acknowledges that their key mission is to conserve or maintain biodiversity in KwaZulu-Natal but to do this it needs support (predominantly financial and human) in their implementation. This requires a creative three-way partnering between conservation, people and ecotourism.<sup>6</sup> Their lack of capacity has meant a need to partner with business and the private sector for their much needed financial support. Ezemvelo has an internal policy that seeks to guide and enable a more beneficial business-conservation relationship. This policy is called The Partnership for Ecotourism Development within or adjacent Protected Areas (Policy File No: 7 (d) of 30 November 1996). This policy is a result of Ezemvelo recognizing the need to sustain and maintain conservation operations and programmes if they are to expand community access and involvement into the protected areas. Ezemvelo had realized that it cannot achieve satisfactory results especially in ventures such as that of ecotourism development without partners.

Some of the main aims of this policy are to;

- support the **development of accommodation facilities** on privately owned or community land adjacent to protected areas,
- **support the development of partnerships** between the nature conservation agency, neighbouring communities and private enterprises, where communities are able to play a meaningful role as share-holders,
- **seek private investment in the provision of visitor facilities**, provided that these are compatible with the management plan for protected area, and
- **consider requests by private sector and community groups** for the Board to manage nature conservation and ecotourism development.

Nyambe (2005: 185), states that working with different partners can enable Ezemvelo to achieve their twin objectives of conservation and financial sustainability. Based on the nature of its activities, Ezemvelo is supportive to promote ecotourism, and sees it as a

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<sup>6</sup> [www.kznwildlife.com](http://www.kznwildlife.com)

vehicle for community development. An Ecotourism and Marketing Division within Ezemvelo has been set-up and is tasked with the responsibility of managing this function. This approach, they claim will create job opportunities, and will contribute towards the eradication of poverty, which will result in the improvement of social conditions of people.<sup>7</sup>

In addition to the above policies, Ezemvelo also drafted a policy focussing, specifically on ecotourism, namely “Ecotourism and Protected Areas”, Policy File No: 7-X of 25 June 1999). This policy framework was established to manage ecotourism ventures in the province. It comes as a result of the rapid growth in the ecotourism industry and its potential to provide economic opportunities, especially in rural areas where few other income generating opportunities exist. Through this policy, Ezemvelo seeks to pursue ecotourism, thereby creating jobs and generating entrepreneurial opportunities for people from a variety of backgrounds, skills and experience, including rural communities and especially women. One main aim of this policy, they claim, is to expand the provision of visitor access and facilities to protected areas as it generates revenue that is crucial for complementing Ezemvelo conservation operations.

Child (2004: 18), stresses that to ensure ecological sustainability, nature reserves need to embrace the principles of sustainable management. Child further argues that such an approach demands the practice of effective management to ensure that processes are beneficial to all stakeholders. However, it is not really stressed in Ezemvelo’s policies that ecotourism development and operations could have serious negative impacts on the environment. Although tourism development activities have to comply and undergo Environmental Impact Assessment (EIAs) and provide Integrated Environment Management (IEM) policies, very little is detailed. One of the problems is that EIAs and

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<sup>7</sup> [www.kznwildlife.com](http://www.kznwildlife.com)

IEMs are managed by the provincial Department of Environmental Affairs and Agriculture (DEA & A) and not Ezemvelo. For example, the visitors' facilities are expected to be environmentally friendly in design and construction. So emphasis is paid to equitable access, nature-based facilities and community opportunity.<sup>8</sup>

This discussion has managed to identify key policy areas of Ezemvelo in their attempt to manage nature conservation with both communities and business. Very little is said on policy implementation strategies, and this shortcoming will become evident in the case study on Ithala Game Reserve. It was decided to take a closer look at Ithala Game Reserve in an attempt to gain a better insight into the implementation of Ezemvelo's community development policy.

#### **4.6 THE ITHALA GAME RESERVE.**

The Ithala Game Reserve was established through a collaboration by the then Zululand Directorate of Nature Conservation (DNC), the Natal Parks Board (NPB) and private business interests in 1972. A partnership and agreement was established that included the incorporation or conversion of a certain portion of State land into a game reserve. The three partners negotiated the incorporation of farms and a large of Simdlangetsha Tribal Authority land into the reserve. The main aim of the establishment of this reserve was to conserve the biodiversity and ecosystems in the area but it was also identified as a project which had a strong ecotourism potential (Ithala's Integrated Development Plan, IDP, 2003: 4).

The Ithala Game Reserve covers about 29 653ha of land and it is geographically situated next to Louwsburg, bordering on the southern bank of the Pongolo River in northern

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<sup>8</sup> [www.kznwildlife.com](http://www.kznwildlife.com)

KwaZulu-Natal (see Appendix D). However, during the process of the establishment of the nature reserve, people had to make way for wildlife and the protected area. As a result many people were forcefully removed from this area. This showed that ecotourism was interpreted as preserving or conserving the area purely for aesthetic and recreational reasons with little consideration for its social and political impact.

Some of Ithala Game Reserve's original objectives were identified as to:

- reserve and restore the integrity and wild character of the environment,
- re-establish viable populations of species believed to be indigenous to the area,
- re-instate or stimulate the ecological processes which are considered the main determinants of biodiversity and ecosystem structure and function, and
- minimize the extinction that results from direct activities of man (Ithala IDP, 2003, part c pg 4).

The dominant conservation paradigm here was to sustain ecological processes, the conservation of natural biodiversity and ecosystems and not about considering the value cultural and social existence of people.

Ithala is geographically located in the rural part of KZN, and is surrounded by poor communities characterized by high unemployment, poverty HIV/AIDS and illiteracy.

Ithala is one of the many reserves in the province that is managed by Ezemvelo. It has been required to present an Integrated Development Plan (IDP) which is their key operational policy that is suppose to detail its management procedures, planning and implementation for conservation and community development, partnerships and ecotourism. Ithala's main duty is to comply with provincial nature conservation policy as well as Ezemvelo's policies. Ithala's Integrated Development Plan of 2003, identifies their main responsibility as:

...to conserve and ensure the survival of indigenous fauna, flora and natural ecosystems and to promote public environmental awareness especially within the province of KwaZulu-Natal.

Ithala's IDP commits itself to ensure the sustainable use of either consumptive or non-consumptive use and strict protection, which will maintain biological diversity and ensure its long term survival for the equitable benefit of current and future generations.

What is evident from Ithala's objectives and policy provisions is a strong emphasis on the sustainable use, community participation and public access. These provisions provide the key foundation values and orientation for Ithala's policy and operational activities with regard to community development.

Child (2004: 236) argues that, the fundamental institutional and economic relationships between protected areas, civil society and management objectives must be clear so that it can address critical issues such as that of poverty and underdevelopment. The Ithala's business/commercial relationship is based on a "Joint Venture or Partnership". Ezemvelo and their private partner have committed themselves to work cooperatively in realizing the objectives of ecotourism, conservation and development. One of Ithala's strength is its partnership with the private sector. This has injected valuable commercial expertise and funds into the reserve. It also provides a better chance for survival as it is not purely dependent on Ezemvelo's resources, increasing the sustainability of the enterprise. The partnership between Ezemvelo and the private sector has succeeded in improving ecological and financial sustainability.

According to the Ithala's IDP, the commercial unit of Ithala offers a variety of services to tourists and business. These services includes accommodation, weddings, conference services, camping sites, catering, food, viewing or appreciation of the scenery and wildlife. In addition the reserve offers socially rich history and employment opportunities to local people (Ithala's IDP, 2003). The headquarters for hospitality or commercial operations in Ithala is at the Ntshondwe Camp. This joint Venture employs staff independent of

Ezemvelo and it also trains its staff in hospitality services (Ithala's IDP, 2003).

In addition, staff is encouraged to participate in the internal decisions making processes at Ithala so that they stay informed and educated about entire operations within the reserve. Ithala's law enforcement unit ensures that all staff are kept up-to-date with relevant law and musketry training, and staff responsible for outdoor activities are also trained (Ithala's IDP, 2003).

Both the hospitality manager which is the (private partner of the Joint Venture) and the conservator officer (employed by Ezemvelo) at Ithala work very closely together. However, there does not seem to be a strong commitment to community development. Community development seems to be limited to staff training and awareness programmes internally with no reach into broader local community neighbouring Ithala (Ithala's IDP, Ch F. pg1: 2003).

True community development means that communities and the reserve management must communicate consistently. Some of such activities include community relations projects, nature conservation extension and environmental awareness (Gunn, 2004). An institutional framework or relationships must be established to enable the reserve management to manage their relationship with the communities' adjacent the park and also provide those communities with access to reserve management (Child, 2004: 119). In this way, support can be channelled to these communities living adjacent the reserve. According to the Ithala's IDP (2003), the overall objectives or purpose of their Community Relations Policy is "to create a context through which, environmental awareness and nature conservation extension for the protected area within its particular socio-economic can take place or be implemented". In particular, reference should be made to stating objectives, which seek

public support for the protected area (Ithala's IDP, 2003). However, the study will show that this does not really exist.

According to their IDP policy, Ithala is aiming at fostering the nature conservation value within a framework of co-managed sustainable natural resource use by engaging in partnership with stakeholder communities. These engagement guidelines are crucial because they will determine standards and performance measures to evaluate community conservation projects (IDP, 2003). Child (2004: 183), argues strongly that “by channeling wildlife benefits through (preferred), villages structures, they can encourage communities to organize themselves in situations where the lack of organization is the key factor limiting development”.

Gunn (1994: 208) argues that there is a strong or close relationship between resource management, community development of tourism facilities and services. He further explains that there needs to be a strong emphasis on effective planning, management and support, so that community development benefits can be shared with the community. Ithala's IDP further provides principles and policies for building community relations with protected area neighbours and that reserve managers should be involved in neighbour relations. It specifically states that reserve managers should not be responsible for the implementation and maintenance of projects. (Ithala's IDP, 2003). Reserve managers may assist communities to identify their needs and supports their projects but communities themselves must implement the projects. This provision further prohibits the use of reserve management resources in the implementation of projects on neighbouring properties and make provision for assistance to be given in minor incidents. To a greater degree, this provision constraint reserve management to initiate and execute community development projects

Ithala's IDP provides for the arrangements and agreements with neighbouring community and other interest private individuals. This provision makes it possible for both the community and Ithala's management to co-operate in small and bigger projects within and around the reserve. This cooperative process is said to be an avenue for the establishment of initial relations that can be translated into stronger cordial links with neighbouring local communities through frequent visits and informal meetings with local chiefs sharing their boundary. In addition, their IDP claims that Ithala's will hold a Open Day gathering at least once a year so that neighbouring communities and private individuals get the opportunity to enjoy the activities Ithala provides to other visitors. This to some degree, reflects the inability or lack of commitment by management to give effect to all the 'claims' and promises made in their IDP policy.

In addition, Ithala's IDP policy provides for environmental education and awareness for protected areas neighbouring communities and others. The key objectives, it claims, to implement an environmental education programme that is aimed at creating an awareness of the value of protected areas in conserving biodiversity and fostering a sustainable quality lifestyle. During this process possibilities of nature conservation extension programmes for a protected area and neighbours communities can be negotiated and initiated (Ithala's IDP, 2003). Educational awareness programmes are not limited to the neighbouring community but are also supposed to be implemented with the visitors to the reserve. The ultimate goal of this provision and practice is to contribute to the broader creation of environmentally literate society at local, national, regional, and global level and to comply to the essence of ecotourism. Ithala has done extremely well in this regard because their internal former environmental educators and now tour guides have being doing this work for many years now. It has done little to educate or increase environmental awareness in its neighbouring community (Ithala's IDP, 2003).



Ithala's IDP reflects that the policy framework also extends Ithala's mandate to provide or to facilitate community development projects among the protected area neighbouring communities. The key objective of this provision is to compel Ithala to actively contribute to sustainable community development and quality of life of neighbours using nature conservation opportunities. This can be done through community development projects which could include capacity building and supporting entrepreneurship among people of the adjacent communities. Ithala has done very little in this regard but it could be because of the fact this is a new strategic mandate in a new era of the conservation practice in the province. Many changes are being made to the organisational structures and communities also trying to understand what kinds of opportunities are made possible by the Ithala management (Ithala's IDP, 2003).

A key shortcoming however, is that, at the moment, Ithala does not have a Local Board, so there is no formal relationship and medium of engagement between the local community and Ithala. Ithala has to date, only held one 'Open Day' in December 1995.

## Conclusion

This chapter has provided a broad scope of the conservation and community development policy framework in the province, in Ezemvelo as well as the Ithala game reserve. The provincial administration and development policies have identified conservation and tourism as being the best contributor to community development. However, as the Ithala game reserve illustrated the implementation of community development programmes has not been very successful. Some communities have benefited from the conservation operations in the province through employment opportunities. The amalgamation of the conservation bodies in the province as well as their outreach to private sector investments

have provided more resources and potential to sustain conservation and ecotourism and still has the potential for community development.

Based on the existing experiences of community development adjacent to the nature reserve, very little has been done. The policy framework in both the government environment, Ezemvelo and even Ithala are quite thorough, but when it comes to implementation little evidence is present. The next chapter will offer some concluding remarks on public policy implementation and the challenges experienced with conservation and community development.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **5. CONCLUSION.**

This conclusion gives an overview and summary of the key findings of this study. The conceptual context of the analysis is based on the nature conservation policy provisions of Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife's and the implementation thereof at Ithala Game Reserve (hereafter referred to as Ithala). The production of a 'tentative theory' of this study is based on the status of policy implementation of community development (Cloete and Wissink, 2000). The final policy analysis reveals and highlights some of the shortcomings of Ezemvelo and Ithala's existing policy on community development and its implementation.

The study shows that implementation is a multi-facet process and it involves a variety of stakeholders. In addition, policy implementation is never perfect and depends on the mobilization of adequate resources of material, financial and human resources (Cloete and Wissink, 2000). This study found that there are a number of serious shortcomings in the implementation of policy. The reasons for this are varied. Some of these can be organized into broad themes.

### **POLICY VALUES.**

The policy orientations for community development are provided for in provincial policies and strategies. The KwaZulu-Natal's Provincial Growth and Development Strategy (PGDS, 2004) offers the development framework for organizations and institutions. This strategy also applies to Ezemvelo, as one of the key players in protection of natural resources. Ezemvelo's policies indicate their commitment to supporting the province in combating problems such as poverty, illiteracy, HIV/AIDS, job creation, and skills development.

From a policy-making perspective, Ezemvelo has complied with national legislation by putting in place various policies that look at sustainable development, community development, ecotourism and natural resource management. All the protected areas under the jurisdiction of Ezemvelo are required to develop Integrated Development Plans (IDPs), which is the key and strategic tool for policy planning and implementation. The IDP's have to integrate conservation, partnerships and ecotourism that will enhance biodiversity conservation while maximizing community benefits.

The study determined that there are many participants at the implementation level that need to work together in the implementation of community development projects. The case study showed that currently little collaboration is taking place between the nature conservation authority, Ithala and the local community. As a result, there are divisions in focus and efforts towards implementation. In the absence of collaboration the provincial principles and priorities of development remain merely a documented vision. This is a serious shortcoming because there is no government agency that can single-handedly implement policy goals that relate to community development.

Besides the lack of cooperation, operational failures and minimal successes with outside partners. Ezemvelo's conceptual understanding of the principles of development and community development is admirable and reflects a good understanding of community development. However, the implementation of this remains weak. Ezemvelo provides no clear guidelines and support for nature reserve managers on how they are supposed to provide skills, training, capacity building, education and the establishment of partnerships.

## **5.1 LIMITATIONS EXPERIENCED IN POLICY IMPLEMENTATION.**

### **INSTITUTIONAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE.**

Child (2004: 119), says that an institutional framework and relationships must be established to empower the community, and also to enable outside organizations to channel support to these communities. The study has found that it is important to locate people or human resources in both the management of policy and implementation (operational) processes because the organizational structure of a development project guides the implementation process. The lack of an appropriate and representative organizational structure has shown that policy statements and objectives were not actively implemented.

It is evident from its institutional structure that Ezemvelo has reorganized itself to respond to the contemporary challenge between conservation and development. For example, the creation and capacitating of the Ecotourism and Marketing, Conservation Partnerships and Projects divisions are a clear indication of Ezemvelo's redirection towards more development-orientated conservation. These divisions are tasked to establish and maintain partnerships with a wide range of private and public stakeholders. The partnerships in the development of tourism facilities within the protected areas have been deemed to be a catalyst in the creation of sustainable job and business opportunities (Sunday Tribune, 2002: 4). Despite good policies, Ezemvelo's institutional and administrative capacity does not seem to extend to the implementation sites (such as Ithala). Some institutional and operational practices of Ezemvelo are central in nature, which limits the management of nature reserves such as Ithala to implement some policy objectives within its reserves.

Hanekom and Thornhill (1994:65) say that "relatively few policies stipulate how and by whom they should be implemented". Ithala's operational policies are no exception to the

notion of policy as being vague (as Hanekom and Thornhill claim). The Ithala IDP states that park managers should be established and maintain neighbour relations but that they should not be responsible for the implementation and management of the community projects. This is rather a broad policy provision and does not encourage management to get involved in community related development projects. This is crippling their potential to implement community outreach projects.

This absence means that nature reserves do not necessarily enable local empowerment. In a way this clause removes their need to be really engaged and to interact with the public at implementation level which is very crucial for community development and empowerment. Ezemvelo has fully resourced the main administration and regional offices with capable staff and other resources. However, one concern is the regionalization of some of the key services, practices or programmes of conservation. For example, specialists' expertise such as Social Ecologist, Heritage Resources specialists, Resource Use specialists and other development experts are based in the regional offices. Ithala is allocated an ecologist. However a social ecologist could make a big difference in terms of supporting community development.

Ezemvelo, as the authority for nature conservation in the province, does not seem to offer much support with regards to community development in their management of all their nature reserves. This has negatively impacted on the standard of planning and implementation of community development across different reserves, such as at Ithala. Ezemvelo's recent structural reorganization, change in leadership and redeployment of staff has affected both the community structures and management in that management. New staff and management may not yet understand the real needs of the local community. In most instances, locals have not been able to establish relationships with management.

## **DECISION-MAKING AND EMPOWERMENT.**

A serious weakness in Ithala's relationship with its local community is the absence of a Local Board which it is legally required to have established. This board is the forum for community involvement in areas of policy, implementation, monitoring and evaluation. This deprived the local community of participation in the policy-making process or the opportunity to voice their interests. In turn, this deprived Ithala management access to valuable knowledge, expertise and policy inputs of their local community.

The absence of a participatory management approach that underlines the management practices at Ithala is a serious shortcoming for community empowerment and development. The local community is not invited to engage with management on development initiatives and does not allow the community an opportunity to have a say in the agenda setting of both policy and management practices of Ithala. The communications and marketing material of Ithala (such as brochures) say nothing about the community as if Ithala operates in a vacuum. The legitimacy of Ithala's policies that claim to support community development become questionable. There is a feeling that Ithala is operating as a closed system. There is strong emphasis on the management of economic and ecological sustainability values but less consideration of the social and cultural values at both policy and operational levels. Local people still feel that attention is given to the conservation of wildlife and now ecotourism or business operations alone, and not to any of their development needs. One positive development is that in September 2005, Ezemvelo has called for submissions of the names of people who will make the first ever Local Board of Ithala.

## **FINANCIAL RESOURCES.**

It is legally required that protected areas must enable community development. However, some on-site managers argue that they lack financial resources and flexibility to initiate and implement projects, because all community levies are administered by the Head Office at Ezemvelo. In this way some of Ezemvelo's policies could be referred to as a 'one size fits all' kind of policies because they do not always accommodate specific contextual needs of the conservation areas. The communities that lack skills and capacity to put together sound community development projects proposals usually do not stand a good chance of getting financial assistance. Issues of sustainability and management of projects becomes the biggest obstacles for them as they fail to prove that they can effectively implement community development projects.

According to Child (2004: 119), "more detailed analysis of park budgets can reveal the levels of investment in various park management activities such protection, capacity building, development of tourist facilities and amenities, research, interpretation services and public education". The IDP for Ithala offers little detail in the area of budgeting or financial commitment for community development projects. It does not give estimations of how much is approximately going to be spent on community development projects. In addition, there is no list of current and prospective community development projects. In this way, it is difficult to determine whether Ithala is committing itself to any specific community development projects or not. Somehow the involvement of business in the operation of the reserve is instilling a culture and practice of cost-consciousness and this approach views the community as dependents for financial resources and not as potential partners. The notion of partnerships or empowerment is not coming through in practice.



## **JOB CREATION.**

Gunn (1994: 122), says that developments would vary depending on whether the anticipated rewards to owners would be toward social goals or profits. He further argues that communities adjacent to the reserve usually have adequate potential to work and benefit from the conservation activities in that they can render a variety of services to tourists, visitors and residents of the reserve. Local people are more knowledgeable about the context and they can be used as a source of information. They can also maintain basic infrastructure like trails, fence repair, roads restoration and security, especially in the remote areas of the parks (Gunn, 1994: 97). They can also be part of Ithala's research division and complete historical profiling. Ithala has not really considered what type of resources and skills that the local community can offer and contribute to a partnership.

Ithala's is a beneficiary of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism's (DEAT) national programme, 'Poverty Relief Projects' that allocates funds to protected areas to implement community development projects. The Poverty Relief Projects are solely to address local poverty and provide the local communities with employment opportunity. Ithala Game Reserve management was granted funds for their upgrading of ecotourism and conservation facilities (which included the replacing of damaged picnic tables, improving roads signage, upgrading ablution facilities, fencing, buildings more camp sites and camp furniture). Although these projects were short (taking between 12 to 22 months), community people were able to benefit from participating in these. A requirement of this partnership was that Local Contractors were to be utilized, thereby empowering them to establish Small Medium Enterprises (Projects Contractors Brochures, 2005). Ithala employed four local contractors who were each able to employ between 20 and 40 people (depending on the type and size of the projects).

There is a weak link between local education, development, social and ecological research at Ithala. The Ithala Research Centre has not been fully utilized, and has no benefit to the local community. As a result, the historical, social and archeological wealth is slowly degrading without been conserved and not effectively utilized. Ithala's strong focus is on ecological and biodiversity research. It is crucial that the communities adjacent to the conservation areas are included in the field of research. People need to be engaged with discussions on the need for conservation and on the contemporary methods of conservation so that they can be complementary partners to conservation activities. Seemingly, Ithala is not able to identify or engage with the potential resources and expertise of its local community.

The partnership or the Joint Venture at Ithala is managed mainly on business principles which means that there is strong 'cost-consciousness' on the side of management. The supporting or investing only in projects that bring financial returns means that the partnership is not keen to get involved in what they may regard as unprofitable community development projects. They do invest in their staff by continuous training. Ithala management strongly makes use of casual employment as part of their cost-cutting strategies.

A number of staff have been dismissed and replaced by casual staff, which means management does not have to provide benefits such as a pension or health care, but this leads to fluctuating employment opportunities for the local community. Ithala has failed to integrated local business into the service industry of its hospitality services such as catering, gardening, cleaning, or lodging. There are very limited business opportunities that have been given to the locals, and these are limited to the sale of curios or crafts. Ithala has not adequately contributed to the growth of social capital, community knowledge, or

empowerment. The failure of Ithala to address the above issues implies that it has not contributed to the creation of sustainable livelihoods, instead, it continues to perpetuate dependent communities.

The point is that community development must not be focused on job creation or community involvement alone. Ithala has created employment opportunities for local community but has not facilitated community development projects that lead to community empowerment or capacity-building. Related to this, education and awareness programmes are targeted at staff, tourists and scholars. There are not skills development or training programmes run in the interest of community development.

## **5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS.**

As the theory states that policy implementation is a continuous process, the comments and recommendations are mindful of the fact Ezemvelo and Ithala are at different stages of implementing some of its key programmes that relate community development.

- There is a need for Ithala to address the issue of casual employment because it is negatively impacting on the community. Sustainable job creation is not achieved by casual employment. Thus more staff need to be employed on a full-time basis so that there can be sustainability in their social development and planning.
- In order for the local community not to be affected by any change in management there need to be programmes of skills transfer and mentoring of local human resource (local talent) so that there can be continuity in whatever projects already in operation.
- Ithala lacks a local communication strategy. The community does not have the platform for accessing, interpreting or contributing to the nature conservation policies. Therefore, local people do not know how they can engage management on

community development related projects. Although policy documents are available on the intranet and website of Ezemvelo, these are mostly made available for local public servants who have access to such information. The neighbouring communities are mostly poor and illiterate which makes it very difficult for them to access policy documents.

Ithala should embark on an 'Oral History' project that could enable these people to share their historical stories of their former land, and cultural practices which could be documented to form part of the identity of Ithala. Such a project can assist both Ithala and the communities to open up and start working together, and would meet Ithala management requirements for cost-consciousness.

Considering the history of forced removals it is very important that future programmes at Ithala are negotiated with the local communities. Communities, who were forcefully removed when Ithala was established, remain excluded from Ithala's conservation activities. Ezemvelo's policy stipulates that reserves such as Ithala need a strategy of conservation, partnerships and ecotourism, which necessitates them to be more innovative and creative in their inclusion of local people in their conservation and ecotourism activities.

Based on the fact that there is a lack of community participation in decision-making for projects such as the poverty relief projects, it may not even be appropriate or what the local community want. There needs to be a tailoring of these Poverty Relief Projects so that they suit local people of all ages and gender if it is truly to enable community development and alleviate poverty.

At present, there are good relations between the partners of the Joint Venture. However, Ezemvelo should take on a larger responsibility in assisting its nature conservation area managers with the necessary skills and support for community development and assist the nature reserve managers to establish local community participation forums (such as the legally required Local Boards).

Finally, if the question is to be asked if community development is happening or taking place at Ithala or not?. The answer will be contrary to what the objectives of the policies that Ezemvelo as well as Ithala have put in place. This view of community is that on community development is not taking place. For example, Fitzgerald *et al* (1997: 289), argue:

..that community development can only be sustained if people concerned have the capacity and the will to use that capacity to manage development themselves. Capacity-building in this context refers to the state of ability to prioritize people's needs and the level of ownership by the affected people, which will double the chances of sustainability of their endeavors to better their lives. Ultimately, this could translate into sustainable development practices at local level, which will mean that people are empowered to the level where they can sustain their own development in their own community (Fitzgerald, McLennan and Munslow, 1997).

Based on this above quote, there is little evidence to suggest that the above has been achieved.

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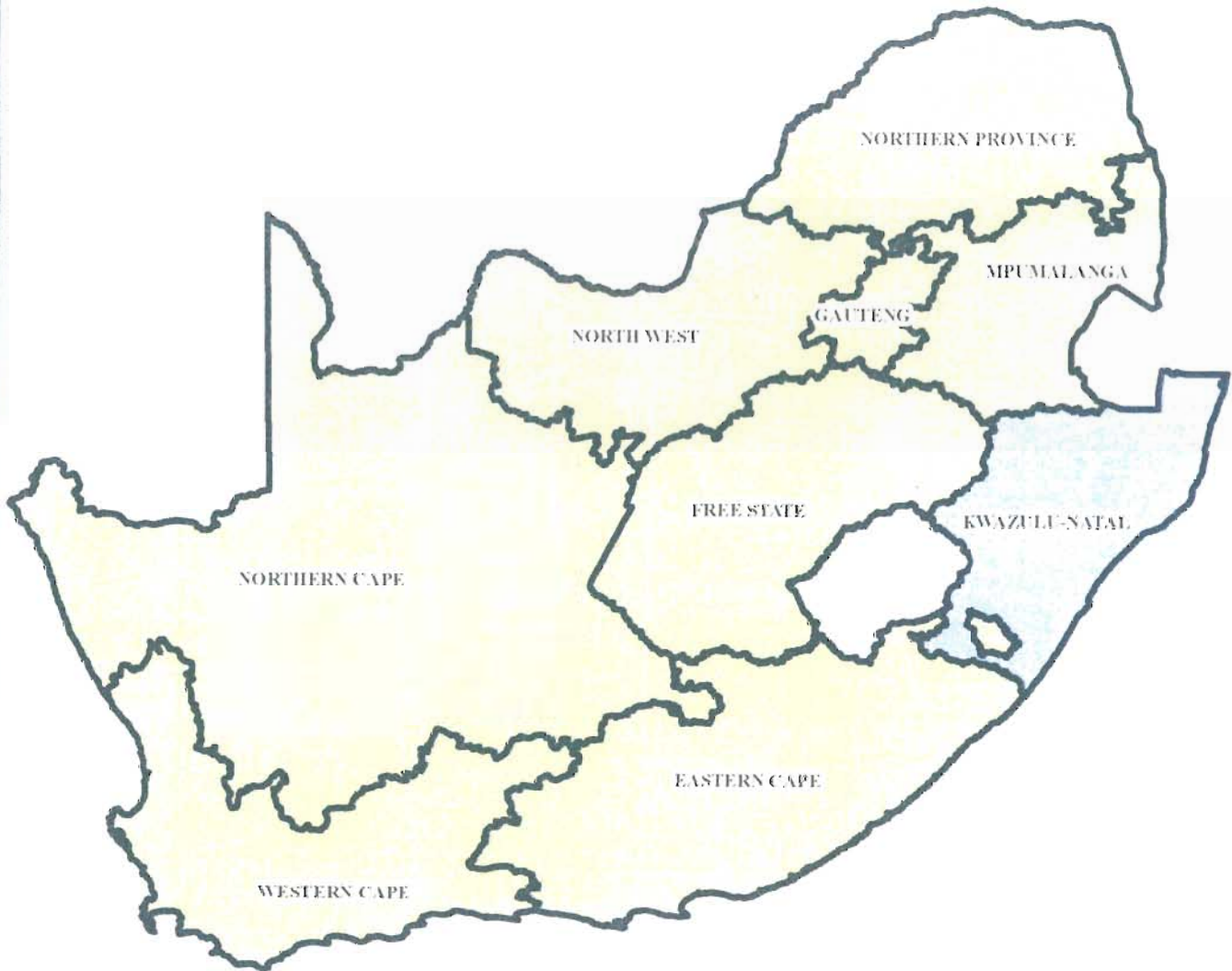
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Map of Ithala Game Reserve in Zululand District Municipality, pg 88.

**Source:** Geographical Information Systems (GIS) Unit, Provincial Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs (DLGTA, 2005).

## APPENDIX A

Map of South Africa showing KwaZulu-Natal, pg 68.



Date: 08/12/05

Reference: Reserves in KZN



Dir. Development Planning  
Policy & Co-ordination  
KwaZulu-Natal

Tel. (033) 355 6508  
Fax. (033) 355 6173  
Email: gisho@tlga.kznl.gov.za



LEGEND  
Provinces of South Africa

- EASTERN CAPE
- FREE STATE
- GAUTENG
- KWAZULU-NATAL
- NORTHERN CAPE
- NORTHERN PROVINCE
- NORTH WEST
- WESTERN CAPE

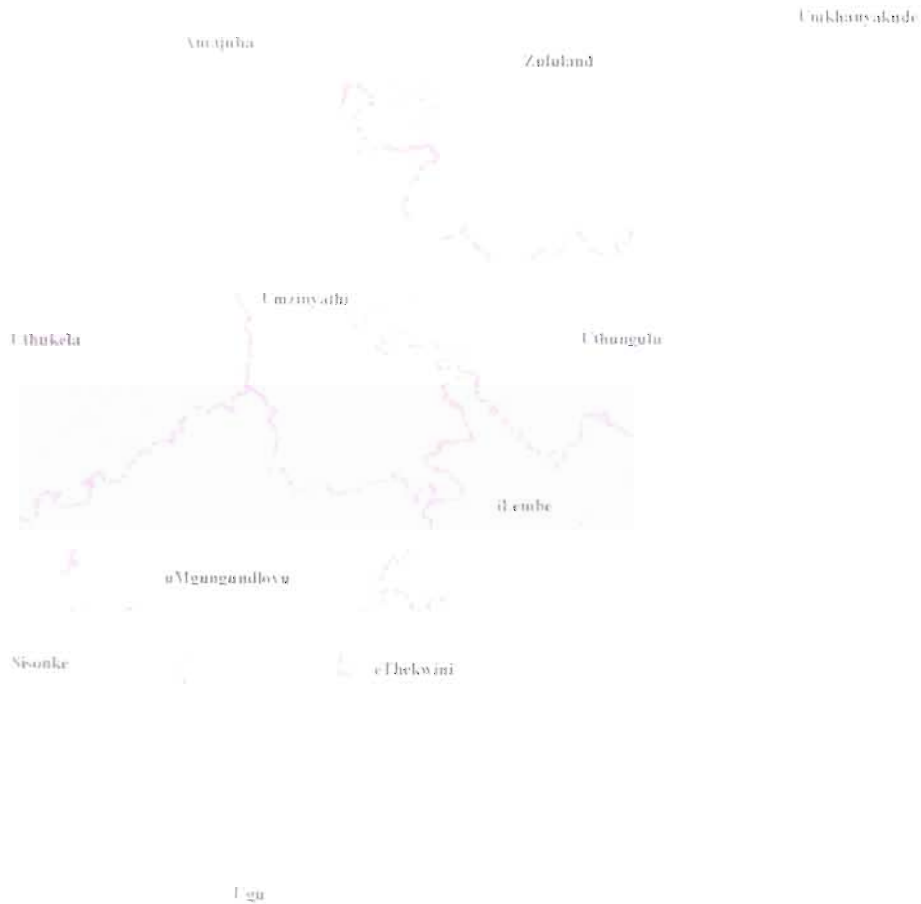
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## **APPENDIX B**

Map of KwaZulu-Natal showing Municipalities Boundaries including the Zululand, where Ithala Game Reserve is located, pg 68.

**DEPARTMENT OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND TRADITIONAL AFFAIRS**  
**MUNICIPAL BOUNDARIES IN KZN**



Date: 08/12/05

Reference: District Municipalities



Dir: Development Planning  
 Policy & Co-ordination  
 KwaZulu-Natal

Tel: (033) 355 6506  
 Fax: (033) 355 6173  
 Email: gnshe@tga.kzntf.gov.za

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**LEGEND**

- District Municipalities
- Amajuba
  - Zululand
  - Dqa
  - Umkhanyakude
  - Uthukela
  - Umzinyathi
  - Uthungulu
  - Ilembe
  - eThekweni
  - Lamontso
  - uMgungundlovu

## APPENDIX C

Map of Reserves in KwaZulu-Natal, showing the area that is under the jurisdiction of

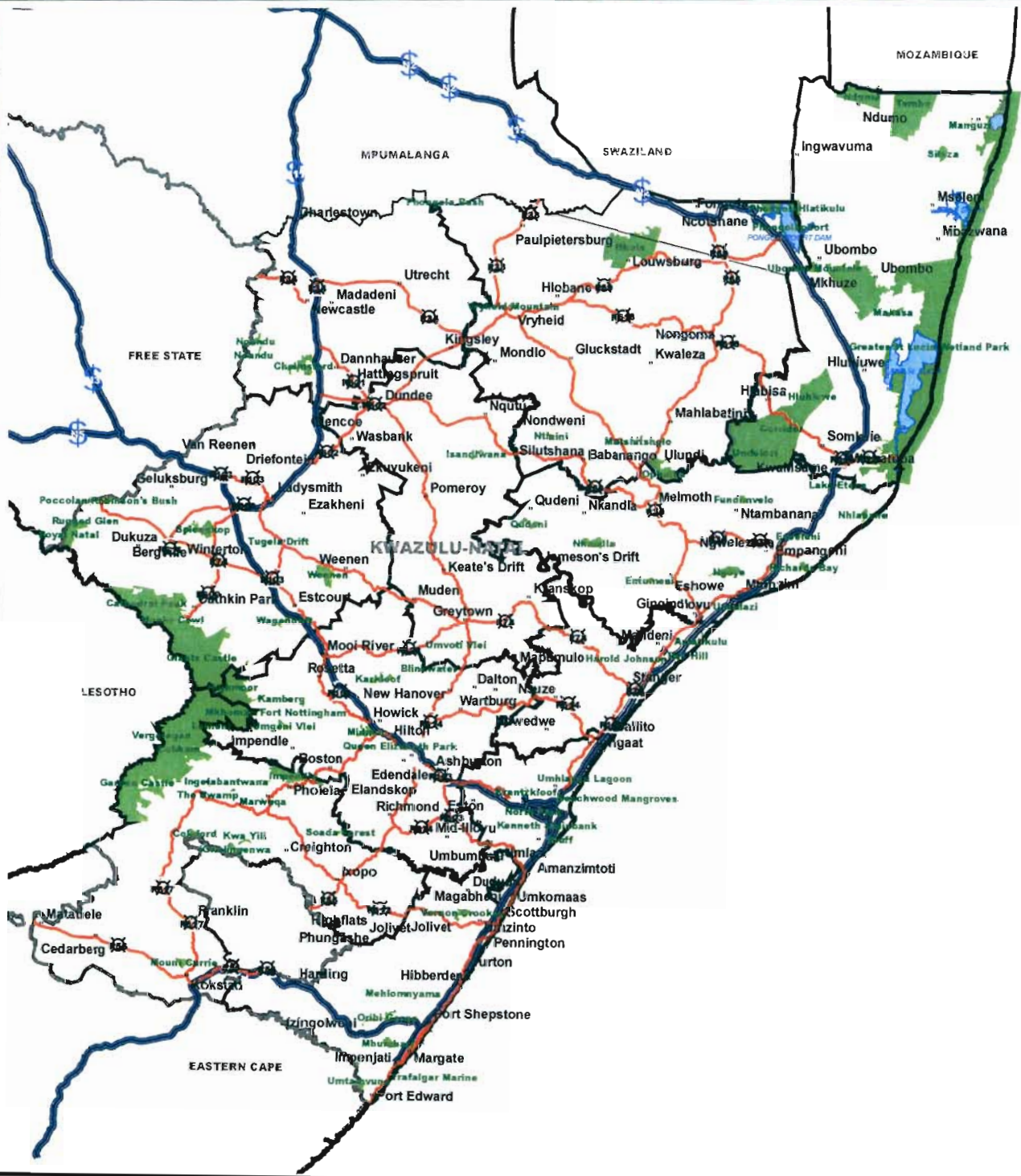
Ezemvelo, pg 78.



# DEPARTMENT OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND TRADITIONAL AFFAIRS



## RESERVES IN KWAZULU-NATAL

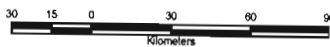


Date: 01/12/05  
 Reference: Reserves in KZN



Dir: Development Planning      Tel: (033) 355 6508  
 Policy & Co-ordination      Fax: (033) 355 6173  
 KwaZulu-Natal      Email: glsho@tlge.kznt.gov.za

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### LEGEND

- Towns
- Routes
- National Road
- Reserves
- Dams
- District Municipalities

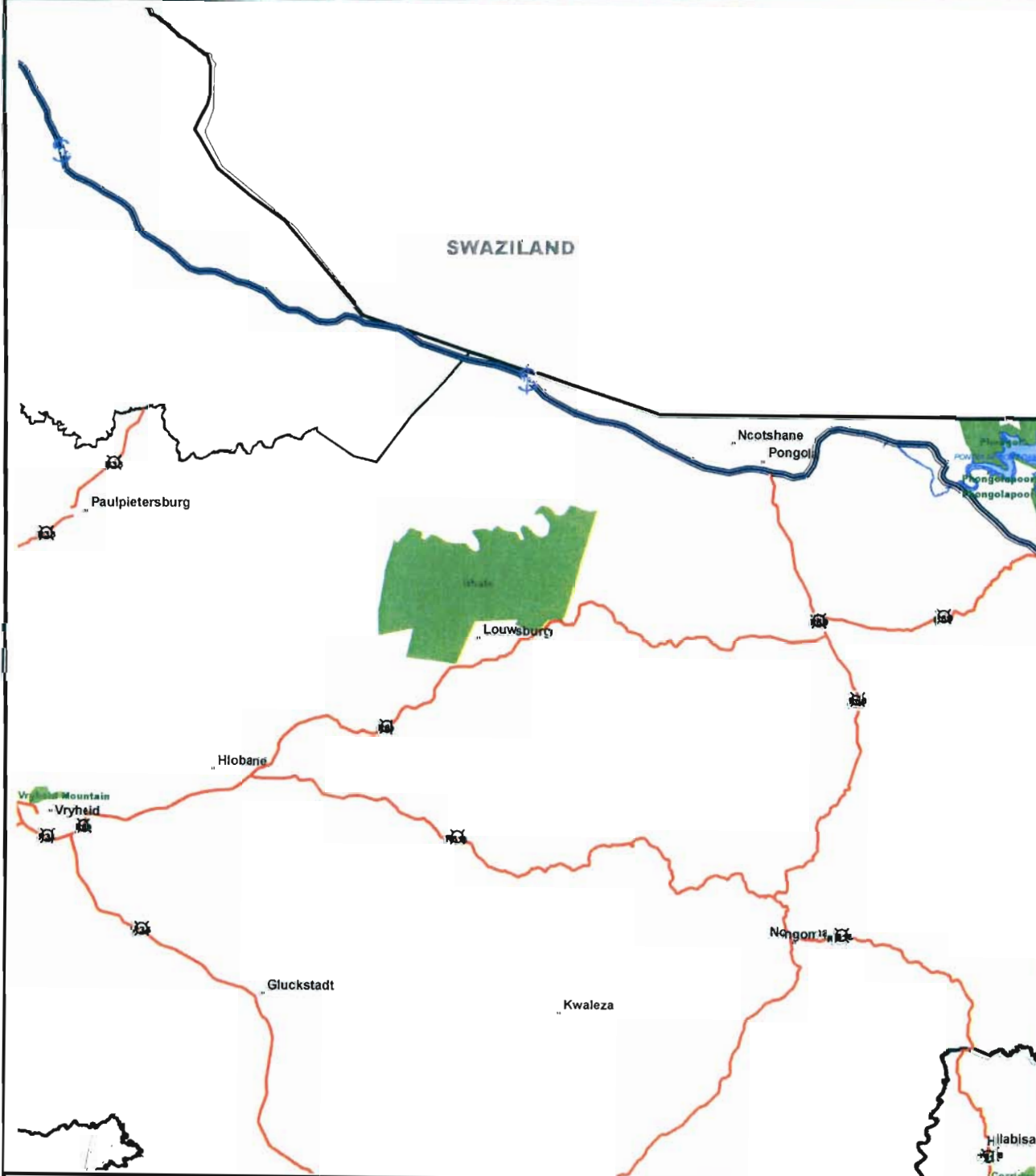
## **APPENDIX D**

Map of Ithala Game Reserve in Zululand District Municipality, pg 88.



# DEPARTMENT OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT AND TRADITIONAL AFFAIRS

## ITHALA GAME RESERVE IN KWAZULU-NATAL



Date: 01/12/05  
 Reference: Reserves in KZN



Dir. Development Planning Tel: (033) 355 6508  
 Policy & Co-ordination Fax: (033) 355 6173  
 KwaZulu-Natal Email: gisho@tga.kzntl.gov.za

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### LEGEND

- Towns
- Routes
- National Road
- Reserves
- Dams
- District Municipalities

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ACRONYMS	FULL TITLE
<b>DEA &amp; A</b>	Department of Environmental Affairs and Agriculture
<b>DEAT</b>	Department of Environment and Tourism
<b>DEDT</b>	KwaZulu-Natal Department of Economic Development and Tourism
<b>DLGTA</b>	Department of Local Government and Traditional Affairs
<b>DPSA</b>	Development Bank of Southern Africa
<b>EKZNW</b>	Ezemvelo KwaZulu-Natal Wildlife
<b>EIA</b>	Environmental Impact Assessment
<b>GIEM</b>	Global Integrated Environmental Management
<b>ICDP</b>	Integrated Conservation Development Project
<b>IDP</b>	Integrated Development Plan
<b>IEM</b>	Integrated Environment Management
<b>JPOI</b>	Johannesburg Plan of Implementation
<b>KNP</b>	Kruger National Park
<b>KZN</b>	KwaZulu-Natal
<b>KZNTA</b>	Tourism Authority of KwaZulu-Natal
<b>LED</b>	Local Economic Development
<b>MEC</b>	Member of Executive Committee
<b>NEMA</b>	National Environment Management Act
<b>NGO</b>	Non-Governmental Organization
<b>UN</b>	United Nations
<b>PGDS</b>	Provincial Growth and Development Strategy
<b>SANParks</b>	South African National Parks
<b>WSSD</b>	World Summit on Sustainable Development
<b>WCS</b>	World Conservation Strategy
<b>WWF</b>	World Wildlife Fund