

**STAKEHOLDER PERCEPTIONS OF ECOTOURISM IMPACTS AND
MANAGEMENT ISSUES IN RELATION TO PRIVATE GAME PARKS: CASE
STUDIES OF THE EZULWINI PRIVATE PARK AND TALA PRIVATE PARK IN
KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA**

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DECLARATION

Submitted in fulfilment/ partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of PhD in Geography in the Graduate Programme in the School of Environmental Sciences, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa.

I declare that this dissertation is my own unaided work. All citations, references and borrowed ideas have been duly acknowledged. I confirm that an external editor was/ was not used and that my Supervisor was informed of the identity and details of my editor. It is being submitted for the degree of PhD in Geography in the Faculty of Humanities, Development and Social Science, University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. None of the present work has been submitted previously for any degree or examination in any other university.

SA Desai

Date

DEDICATION

FOR

MY MOTHER AND MY LATE FATHER

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ABSTRACT

Ecotourism has generated great interest from governments, tourism enterprises, tourists, conservation groups, the private sector and other stakeholders in the industry. A reason for this interest is the availability of pristine natural environments, especially in Africa. The need for more rigorous data on economic, environmental and social impacts of ecotourism development from different perspectives and stakeholders is central to unpacking key issues related to sustaining ecotourism in Africa that is both responsive to environmental as well as social and economic needs. There seems to be a need for a better understanding of ecotourism's impacts, and how those impacts are affected by various developmental needs and management strategies. South Africa is a country which is closely linked with disputes resulting from land claims as a result of apartheid. Thus, this thesis attempts to unpack issues relating to the historical legacy, the proliferation of Private Game Parks in South Africa and related issues of privatised concentration of natural resources, access and affordability as well as potential social, economic and environmental impacts.

Research was undertaken in two Private Parks in KwaZulu-Natal: Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. A fundamental ingredient for stakeholder involvement is collaboration among key players. The specific stakeholders identified for this study were: visitors, local communities, tour operators, Park personnel, Park managers and the Private owner of both the private Parks. The research employed both qualitative (participatory approaches) and quantitative (questionnaires) techniques when collecting data. The study revealed that visitors to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park listed important factors regarding their own efforts to promote ecotourism such as: conserving nature, limiting the over-utilisation of resources, being environmentally conscious, reducing water consumption, being litter conscious, spreading the conservation message via word of mouth and visiting more ecotourism destinations. There is a good level of interaction between the tour operating company (that carries out tours to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park) and the community. This is attributed to visitors purchasing from cultural villages and the use of local tour guides. The local communities living near the private Parks indicated that no relationship exists between the community, management and staff of the respective private Parks. Participatory exercises (venn diagrams, mental mapping and problem ranking exercises) were conducted with focus groups. These focus group discussions established heterogeneity within the respective communities and emphasised the need for the involvement of all community members who best understand and have the greatest stake in social, economic and political issues linked to the Parks. According to the Park personnel at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park local communities were somewhat involved in the activities and decision-making of the private Parks. However, the Park owner of both the private Parks stated that the local communities were not involved in the activities and decision-making of the private Parks. To mitigate social, environmental and economic impacts it is imperative that all stakeholders are consulted as this will reduce conflict and enhance consensus.

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ABBREVIATIONS

ABET:	Adult-based Education Training
ANC:	African National Congress
ASATA:	Association of South African Travel Agents
BEE:	Black Economic Empowerment
CBT:	Community-based Tourism
CBET:	Community-based Ecotourism
CBNRM:	Community-based Natural Resource Management
CENSUS:	Central Statistical Services
CSR:	Corporate Social Responsibility
DEAAT:	Department of Economic Affairs, Agriculture and Tourism
DEAT:	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DFID:	Department for International Development
DLA:	Department of Land Affairs
DTI:	Department of Trade and Industry
EIA:	Environmental Impact Assessment
ELI:	Environment Law Institute
FTTSA	Fair Trade in Tourism South Africa
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
HIV/AIDS:	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
HSRC:	Human Science Research Council
IDP:	Integrated Development Plan
IEM:	Integrated Environmental Management

IMF:	International Monetary Fund
IUCN:	International Union for the Conservation of Nature
LDCs:	Less Developed Countries
LSDI:	Lubombo Spatial Development Initiatives
MDGs:	Millennium Development Goals
NCS:	Nature Conservation Service
NEAP:	Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Program
NEMA:	National Environmental Management Act
NGOs:	Non-Governmental Organisations
OECD:	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
PES:	Payments for Ecosystems
PPT:	Pro-poor Tourism
PRA:	Participatory Rural Appraisal
SATOUR:	South African Tourism
SATSA:	Southern African Tourism Services Association
SDI:	Spatial Development Initiative
SIA:	Social Impact Assessment
SPSS:	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
ST-EP:	Sustainable Tourism as an Effective Tool for Eliminating Poverty
WBCSD:	World Business Council for Sustainable Development
WCED:	World Commission on Environment and Development
WRI:	World Resources Institute
WTO:	World Tourism Organisation

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Motivation for the study

Kameri-Mbote (2005) states that African countries rely more on biological resources to a far greater extent for their subsistence and economic survival. The tourism economy within Africa has been developed by colonialists for colonialists (Harrison, 2000; King, 2007) and has to a large extent been based on exploitation of the natural resource base. Within post-colonial Africa, the embracing of tourism as a medium for development occurred initially in countries for example Egypt, Kenya, Morocco and Tunisia (Rogerson and Visser, 2004). Presently, it is evident that the majority of African governments are displaying increased interest in tourism as a source of growth and diversification (Christie and Crompton, 2001). Adams (2004) and Igoe (2006) observe that one of the greatest challenges facing conservationists in Africa is how to balance nature conservation and the needs of an ever-increasing human population and related activities in wildlife areas.

The shape of tourism and recreation in Africa are reflective of colonial processes and especially in South Africa, the apartheid era. During apartheid tourism catered for the White upper, middle class and international tourists (Allen and Brennan, 2004; Creemers and Sandwith, 1996). During this period caring for the environment was used as a covert means to exclude neighbouring Black communities from protected areas and to displace them from their ancestral lands to make way for wildlife conservation (Rogerson and Visser, 2004). In addition, during the apartheid period, the country witnessed the expansion of the domestic tourism sector and the accompanying growth of a strong segment of local tourism capital as embodied by such enterprises as Southern Sun, Sun International and Protea (Rogerson, 1990). Allen and Brennan (2004) stated that in South Africa, domestic tourism plays a considerable economic role than the overseas sector.

Internationally tourism promotes itself in developing countries due to its positive effect on balance of payments and foreign exchange earnings (Williams and Shaw, 1992). According to the South African Department of Trade and Industry (DTI, 2006: 6) it can be stated that South Africa has become one of the fastest-growing international tourism destinations in the world,

contributing R93.6 billion to the country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2004. Tourism is one of fastest-growing industries in South Africa since they create employment opportunities, involve various stakeholders and contribute to sustainable development (Nieman et al., 2008). Tourism businesses make an important contribution to the economy as well as to the tourism industry (Nieman et al., 2008). Worldwide, tourism is regarded as one of the fastest-growing industries (Tecele and Schroenn, 2006; Trindade, 2007). The high influx of foreign visitors to South Africa resulting from decades of international isolation has presented the tourism sector with a lucrative opportunity to promote development given the enormous inequalities inherited from the past (Chellan and Khan, 2008). A trend in South Africa is to move away from sun, sea and gambling to visiting areas of cultural and natural importance and this corresponds with a worldwide tourism trend (Kruger-Cloete, 1995).

Tourism planning involving local communities in South Africa is closely linked to apartheid (Ngubane and Diab, 2005). This is because large proportions of the population were excluded from the democratic processes (Ngubane and Diab, 2005). Several studies (Allen and Brennan, 2004; Chellan, 2005; Mufunzwaini and Hugo, 2005; Rogerson and Visser, 2004; Viljoen and Tlabela, 2006) including the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT, 1996:

11) identify many factors that limit the meaningful involvement of South African local communities within the tourism industry such as:

- lack of information and awareness;
- lack of know-how and training;
- lack of finance;
- lack of interest on the part of existing establishments to build partnerships with local communities and suppliers; and
- lack of incentives to reward private enterprise that build or develop local capacity and create job opportunities.

Although much progress has been made at policy level to effect social, political and economic restoration through nature, in reality this is challenged by a set of complex dynamics and social forces (Chellan and Khan, 2008). Tourism has been known to disrupt, disturb or damage natural habitats and local communities, especially in rural settings where it has been known to trigger a cascade of social, ecological, cultural and economic changes not easily managed by local residents (Belsky, 1999; Stronza and Gordillo, 2008).

Ecotourism is the fastest growing sector of one of the world's largest tourism industries (Kepe, 2001; Scheyvens, 1999; Weinberg et al., 2002). The concept of ecotourism has received much attention recently. It has been linked to sustainable development initiatives, protected area conservation efforts and regional and community development strategies (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1993; Nenon and Durst, 1993; Stone and Wall 2003; Stronza and Gordillo, 2008; Tsaur et al., 2006; Weaver and Lawton, 2007). Ecotourism is dependent on two fundamental components: appropriate levels of environment quality and suitable levels of consumer service (Eagles, 2002).

Ecotourism is a holistic approach encompassing environmental considerations as well as the development of communities socially and economically (Reid, 1999; Spenceley, 2005). However, Reid (1999) suggests that in South Africa the implementation of ecotourism principles into actual development is extremely difficult. In comparison to mass or old tourism, ecotourism provides better sectoral linkages, reducing leakage of benefits out of the country, creating local employment and enhancing sustainable development (Belsky, 1999; Jones, 2005; Khan, 1997). Ecotourism can be considered to be a friendly alternative to other economic uses of natural resources in nature reserves such as mining and farming (Allen and Brennan, 2004; Li, 2006).

Cater (1994) suggests that ecotourism has often been seized by opportunistic tour operators who merely relabelled their products as a marketing ploy. Additionally, ecotourism may be ecologically based but not ecologically sound since there is mass destruction to the environment and local communities surrounding conservation areas (Pleumarom, 1994). Many politicians, especially in South Africa, use the term ecotourism very loosely and not within its proper context (Allen and Brennan, 2004; Buchanan and Joubert, 1996). Reid (1999) states that there should be an understanding among host and tourists that the resource base on which tourism depends must be protected for these sites to be sustainable over a long period. Li (2004) and Stronza and

Gordillo (2008) further elaborates that ecotourism in particular may also degrade the natural resources on which it depends, particularly when management is poor. As a result, ecotourism is not only an opportunity but also a challenge for biodiversity conservation.

Ecotourists are expected to have a harmonious relationship not just with nature but also with the local communities who host them. As such, they are expected to respect the communities, their cultures and customs. According to Whelan (1991), a general criticism of ecotourism development is that local people tend to be excluded from the planning and implementation of projects. As a result of their exclusion from using protected area resources, they become disgruntled and begin to resent parks.

Ecotourism has generated great interest from governments, tourism enterprises, tourists, conservation groups, the private sector and other stakeholders in the industry (Allen and Brennan, 2004; Boo, 1990; Hvenegaard, 1994; Li, 2004; Lindberg and Huber, 1993; Weaver and Lawton, 2007). A reason for this interest is the availability of pristine natural environments, especially in Africa. In this respect, natural areas are attracting increasing number of visitors. Furthermore, ecotourism is sensitive to the fragile nature of ecosystems and cultural systems. These qualities of ecotourism call for greater attention to destination planning, management of resources in line with consumer tastes, quality and price of tourism products (Hvenegaard, 1994; Stronza and Gordillo, 2008).

Kepe (2001) notes that the South African government and various sectors such as Non-Governmental Organisations (NGOs) and the private sector have embraced the notion of tourism as a potential solution to the country's economic plight because they have the potential to derive profits from compatible activities in some reserves and apply the funds to support conservation in other less privileged reserves (Krug, 2001). The DEAT (1996: 38) discusses the roles of the NGOs, especially environmental and community-based ones which are expected to play a vital role in the development and spread of responsible tourism practices by:

- contributing to the development of policies and plans for the tourism industry;
- assisting the government in developing a standard for responsible tourism;

- assisting the government, private sector and communities in implementing, monitoring and evaluating responsible tourism;
- attracting funding from donor agencies to develop specific community-based tourism (CBT) projects;
- assisting communities and community groups in organising themselves, preparing themselves for tourism and implementing tourism projects;
- assisting the government in conducting tourism and environmental awareness programmes among communities and the tourism industry at large;
- liaising between the private sector and communities to generate more community involvement in the tourism sector and stronger private sector commitment; and
- delivering education, training and bridging courses to local communities.

The historical legacy of apartheid, the proliferation of private Game Parks in South Africa and issues relating to privatised concentration of natural resources, access and affordability as well as potential social, economic and environmental impacts need to be examined. It is pertinent for this study to evaluate the role of the private sector and whether it has successfully integrated all the other relevant stakeholders for sustainable ecotourism to take place in South Africa.

Little attention has been given to individual, private sector site providers of ecotourism opportunities, while evidence indicates to the emerging importance of this sector (Fennell, 2003; Hulme and Murphree, 2001; Kerley, 2003; Weaver et al., 1996). Increasingly, as Parks and public spaces have become regulated and privatised resulting in them becoming commodified recreation spaces and a spectacle for the affluent, much to the exclusion of the less fortunate who depend on natural resources to make a living (Chellan, 2005; Mitchell, 1995). Jafari (2000) raises a concern that political economists perceive the persistent commoditisation of all aspects of life which is fast tracking the process of globalisation. The ideology of consumerism is embedded in the privatisation of nature and the appropriation of rent from land use (Chellan and Khan, 2008).

The privatisation of protected areas is highly controversial as this entails handing back public assets to the private sector either in whole or in part (Damania and Hatch, 2005). Private

protected areas provide a highly desirable land-use option in areas where no other better options exist in relation to other land uses in such areas. Approximately, 80% of the land in most countries is privately owned (Environment Law Institute (ELI), 2003). Among the diverse types of private protected areas in existence worldwide, ecotourism-based private game reserves rank among the most common and lucrative (Langholz and Brandon, 2001; Langholz and Krug, 2004). The roles of both the private and public sectors (especially in relation to partnerships and collaboration) are stressed. The South African government's conservation departments have become increasingly aware that they lack the necessary commercial focus to generate sustainable revenues from natural and wildlife resources (Spenceley, 2003). Furthermore, the South African authorities have refocused their role to create an enabling environment within which the private sector can operate effectively and can stimulate sustainable economic growth (Spenceley, 2003). Despite ongoing expansion of private protected areas, little has been researched about them (Langholz and Kerley, 2006). Conserving land is essential but not the end goal; the question remains, how well are private conservation areas conserving biodiversity itself (Langholz and Krug, 2004; Mitchell, 2005).

Specifically, the South African White Paper on Tourism (DEAT, 1996: 27) states the following principles and policy guidelines regarding sustainable ecotourism:

- sustainable and responsible tourism development should be promoted and encouraged, inter alia by means of incentives to private enterprises and communities;
- make mandatory the conduct of Integrated Environmental Management (IEM) procedures for all new tourism projects;
- encourage ongoing social and environmental audits of tourism projects conducted in an inexpensive, rapid and participatory way;
- encourage tourism development in areas where tourism offers a competitive form of land-use and ensure that tourism is integrated into land use plans for such areas;
- explore creative means of ensuring that neighbouring communities participate in and benefit from economic activities generated in and around conservation areas;
- encourage the creation of successful pilot tourism programmes which demonstrate, in tangible ways, the benefits that ecologically sensitive tourism schemes can have over other, more damaging forms of land use;

- promote sustainable and responsible consumption of water and energy in tourism plants, using readily available technology and encouraging sustainable waste disposal, green packaging and recycling;
- support mandatory environmental management practices in ecologically sensitive areas such as the coastal zone and wetlands;
- ensure tourism plans do not deprive communities of access to coastal resources needed for their livelihoods.

In relation to the private sector specifically, the DEAT (1996: 35) states:

The private sector has and will continue to play a critically important role in the further development and promotion of tourism. The private sector bears the major risks of tourism investment as well as a large part of the responsibility for satisfying the visitor. The delivery of quality tourism services and providing the customer with value for money are largely private sector responsibilities. Furthermore, the private sector is in a position to promote the involvement of local communities in tourism ventures by, inter alia, establishing partnership tourism ventures with communities. The government is committed to providing a climate conducive to the further growth, development and profitability of the tourism private sector.

According to Spenceley (2003: 8), “tourism development programmes in South Africa have increasingly focused on encouraging the private sector to operate tourism enterprises responsibly”. Economic incentives may be essential to motivate people involved in private conservation. However, these incentives may never be sufficient without an ethical inclination or irrefutable imperative to conserve (Mitchell, 2005). According to Goodwin and Leader-Williams (2002) and Kerley et al. (2003), one of the key challenges affecting the management of private protected areas in Africa is the tremendous pressure to stock wildlife that tourists expect to see during a trip to Africa. This involves the introduction of non-native species which are either exotic or extra-limital in their distribution (Castley et al., 2001). This places significant environmental pressures and can lead to unsustainable practices and in the long term, likely to undermine the viability of nature-based tourism.

This study is particularly relevant since, as Viljoen and Naicker (2000) emphasise, nature-based tourism as a sub-set of tourism is seen as a solution to the problem of rural underdevelopment. However, Mahony and van Zyl (2002) argue that although internationally the promotion of the

tourism sector by governments and donor organisations encourages private sector investment, macro-economic growth and foreign exchange earnings; the needs of the poor are not considered. South Africa can be defined in per capita terms as an upper, middle-income country. However, the distribution of income is relatively the most unequal in the world (Mahony and van Zyl, 2002). Latest estimates of poverty show that the proportion of people living in poverty in South Africa has not changed considerably between the 1996 and 2001 Human Science Research Council figures (HSRC, 2004). According to the HSRC (2004), approximately 57% of individuals in South Africa were living below the poverty income line in 2001, unchanged from 1996. However, the South African tourism industry provides direct employment to approximately 485,060 individuals (Trade and Industry Chamber, 2006: 4) and could increase in the future by 1.2 million employment opportunities by 2014 (Altman, 2006: 637).

Tourism is a labour-intensive growth industry and is essential in providing jobs, partly for the highly skilled, but focusing more for the less skilled (Elliott, 1997; Nieman et al., 2008). The potential contribution of tourism to the development of South Africa has only recently been recognised (Ingle, 2006) as a potential form of development and a way to alleviate poverty (Tecele and Schroenn, 2006). A particular challenge in South Africa is the continuing racial and class divide between wealthy and thriving first economy, characterised by adequate resources and quality infrastructure as well as a poor and struggling second economy that has inadequate, unsatisfactory infrastructure and resources (Global Network, 2006). Transformation in the tourism sector can be achieved through developing entrepreneurs for the tourism industry in South Africa, which could lead to social equity (Roe and Urquhart, 2001).

In addition, Central Statistical Services (CENSUS, 2001) declares that Black Africans constitute more than three-quarters of the total population of South Africa and only 33.7% of the total population were employed. Many rural households have limited access to employment opportunities, education, health care, energy, sanitation and clean water (May, 1998; Global Network, 2006). The South African population is diverse in terms of its cultures and there are eleven official languages. The most common factor that prevents tourism from redistributing wealth is the leakage of profits from the host country to developed countries (Brandon, 1993). The challenges of addressing rural poverty are immense and the revitalisation of the rural economy is a fundamental initiative of the national government. In South Africa, the tourism

industry should not be seen as a magical solution to rural poverty (Koch, 1997; Nieman et al., 2008). Since, as Mahony and van Zyl (2000: 85) state:

Rural poverty is closely linked with the issue of land rights and land tenure reform. Land is often the only form of economic wealth held by rural people and it is therefore important to create the financial, institutional and regulatory framework that would enable communities to transact with their land in a transparent and equitable manner. Making normal use of communal land (for example, for tourism investment) could be a key element in wealth creation in rural areas. Legislation is in place to facilitate the redistribution of land and the restitution of land rights, and to enhance the rights of current landowners.

Thus, the private sector is reluctant to invest in rural areas as a result of the complexities and uncertainties related to land ownership which could be risky to their profit margins.

The importance of tourism for rural development is supported by the DEAT (1996: 16), “many of the prime tourism attractions are not located in the city centres but in the rural areas. Tourism allows rural people to share in the benefits of tourism development, promoting more balanced and sustainable forms of development. Tourism provides an alternative to urbanisation, permitting people to continue a rural family existence, enfranchising both women and the youth”.

However, Jenkins (1994) suggests that in Third World destinations privatisation would result in the tourism industry becoming sensitive to market trends and forces. Fennell (2003) encourages that a cautionary approach must be employed by the private sector due to the sustainable preservation of ecosystems and just social and economic practices. Nieman et al. (2008) and Mahony and van Zyl (2000) illustrate that tourism and environmental professionals have to realise the important role that rural communities need to play in the management and conservation of natural resources. This has led to the establishment of varied forms of ownership whereby rural communities are recognised as both the custodians and the principal beneficiaries of protected or wildlife areas (Roe, 2001; Wells, 1996). Rural people will have greater incentives to conserve the biological resources in their environment if the beneficial effects from tourism filter down to the individual families and households (Foucat, 2002; Jones, 2005; Scheyvens, 1999). Ecotourists are expected to have a harmonious relationship not just with nature but also with the local communities who host them. As such, they are expected to respect the

communities, their cultures and customs. A general criticism of ecotourism development is that local people tend to be excluded from the planning and implementation of projects (Stronza and Gordillo, 2008; Weaver and Lawton, 2007; Whelan, 1991). As a result of their exclusion from using protected area resources, they become disgruntled and begin to resent Parks.

The broad goals of ecotourism merge with ideas of sustainable development in the sense that natural resources are utilised for tourism according to local aspirations and local knowledge. As noted by Hvenegaard (1994), there are few examples to demonstrate that the development of ecotourism destinations, however, has not gone according to plan. The need for more rigorous data on economic, environmental and social impacts of ecotourism development from different perspectives and stakeholders is central to unpacking key issues related to sustaining ecotourism in Africa that is both responsive to environmental as well as developmental and economic needs. Obviously, we need a better understanding of ecotourism's impacts, and how those impacts are affected by various developmental needs and management strategies. There seems to be a bias in research which focuses on National Parks and reserves yet, Gallo et al. (2009) stress that private conservation areas play a key conservation role worldwide because of the general inclination for the most productive and most threatened portions of a landscape to be privately owned.

The study of ecotourism impacts and their management in different contexts offers many opportunities to reflect on the importance of sustainability, and the possibilities of successful implementation of the objectives of sustainable ecotourism. It is essential to understand that comparative research provides opportunities to identify best practices as well as highlight specific commonalities and differences. Sustainability is about the struggle for diversity in all its dimensions.

South Africa can be ranked as the third most biologically diverse country in the world due to the number and types of plants found here (Balance and King, 1999, Cowan et al., 2003). In its broadest sense, the concern for biodiversity encompasses not only threatened flora and fauna, but also the survivability of human communities, as stewards of the natural environment and as producers. The implementation of the biodiversity strategy, as Sindiga (1999) suggests, requires establishing conservation priorities, mobilising and establishing partnerships, identifying biodiversity threats and benefits, and providing incentives to conserve. Such incentives include

conflict mitigation through education, training and deterrence, as well as direct and indirect incentives for local communities to conserve.

Many problems can occur when overly simplistic discourses about community-environment relations feed through into practical policy-making (Jewitt and Kumar, 2000). Chambers (2009) reiterates the issue that favoured tourism locales will not necessarily prosper since revenues attained through tourism will be of little direct benefit to the communities in which tourism occurs unless there are concerted efforts to redistribute these benefits through practices of sustainable and CBT development. Thus, communities that use or plan to use tourism as an economic development tool to diversify their economy must develop policies for the sustainable development of the community (De Oliveira, 2003; Puczko and Ratz, 2000; Southgate and Sharpley, 2002; Yuksel et al., 1999).

According to the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2004), the effective management of protected areas is recognised as an important pillar of sustainable development and a vital mechanism for meeting the targets of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) that advance significantly reducing the rate of loss of biological resources and enhancement of rural development enterprises. Biodiversity conservation therefore remains a major tool for enhancing socio-economic development and environmental sustainability as well as developing opportunities in marginal areas where wildlife-based tourism is one of the most important export industries in Africa (Dieke, 2001). Thus, conservation areas (including private Parks) are viewed as central for socio-economic development and biodiversity protection. However, a critical examination of stakeholder views and concerns in relation to private Parks are neglected. Most studies tend to focus on one stakeholder (for example, tourists or local communities) and generally the attention is on public Parks that are expected to provide wide ranging benefits. This study therefore addresses the gap in the literature by adopting a stakeholder perspective and focusing on private Parks where limited research exists. In terms of rural development specifically, new forms of tourism types such as ecotourism and cultural tourism are presented as key opportunities to attract more visitors and investors to rural areas, thereby contributing to the diversification of rural economies (Viljoen and Tlabela, 2006). Given this, it is important to emphasise that private Parks are in a better position to leverage tourism

benefits since they are often established tourism sites and they have significantly more resources than their neighbouring rural communities.

This comparative study aims at critically examining the strategies adopted to encourage and sustain community participation in ecotourism. In a way, this study intends to assess whether Gakahu's (1992) review of grassroots involvement of local communities in tourism in Kenya 17 years ago which concluded that local community participation was minimal and mainly confined to the supply of goods and services, sale of handicrafts and traditional dance entertainment remains prevalent today in South Africa. The only difference is that this research is focusing on ecotourism in private Parks where limited research has been undertaken. Gallo et al. (2009) show that in research which was conducted in the Little Karoo Region of South Africa their results point out that in private lands conservation deserves an increased allocation of resources for both research and implementation. Using a comparative, stakeholder analysis approach in specific private ecotourism locations in South Africa (Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park) undoubtedly reveals contrasting management strategies, contesting economic and social imperatives, differing land demands and tenure systems as well as power struggles in relation to social differentiation among stakeholder groups. Emanating from the above discussion specific aim and objectives presented below are the focus of the study.

1.2 Aim of the study

The aim of this study is to investigate stakeholder perceptions and participation of sustainable ecotourism management in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park.

1.3 Objectives of the study

The specific research objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To determine the levels and extent of involvement and participation of neighbouring local communities in relation to the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park's ecotourism activities and decision-making processes.
2. To evaluate the roles of tour operators in ecotourism activities and promoting responsible tourism in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park.
3. To examine the roles of Park personnel in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park in respect of ecotourism conservation, management and sustainable development.
4. To analyse the socio-economic profile of visitors to the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park and their perceptions pertaining to ecotourism, community development and sustainability imperatives.
5. To examine the role of the Park owner of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park in terms of their interaction with the local community relative to their participation in activities and decision-making.
6. To forward possible alternative strategies and recommendations aimed at enhancing the existing conditions of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park in respect of sustainable access and use.

1.4 Scope, delimitations and limitations of the study

In order to respond to the above objectives, the research methodology of the study comprises of a multi-faceted approach made up of both primary and secondary research methods. In this study both qualitative and quantitative research methods were employed in the collection of relevant data. They aided in the provision of a comprehensive understanding of socio-economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism from the perspectives of the different stakeholders that have a vital role to play in the ecotourism industry. In terms of a quantitative approach, the researcher made use of questionnaires as a tool to gather data. The Statistical Package for Social

Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the data. In terms of a qualitative approach, the researcher made use of participatory techniques such as venn diagrams, mental mapping and problem ranking exercises.

The two study areas are Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Parks and the stakeholders consisted of rural communities residing in close proximity to the two private Parks, tour operators, visitors, Park owners and the accommodation personnel. Two hundred visitors were chosen (one hundred in each study area: Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park) using purposive sampling. Questionnaires were administered to ten different tour operators in both Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park, giving a total of twenty tour operators. The tour operators were purposively selected using a list obtained from the management of both the private Parks. Questionnaires were administered to 100 household respondents from the Nibela community residing close to Ezulwini Private Park and the Magogela community residing close to Tala Private Park. These questionnaires were administered to a total of 200 household respondents using a stratified random sampling. Purposive sampling was carried out with ten personnel (including managers) at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. Interviews were undertaken with the Park owners at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park.

Limitations of the study included the unwillingness of the tour operators to respond to the questionnaire survey, management in both the private Parks only granted permission for visitors to be interviewed at certain areas of the respective Parks and the volatile situation in the adjacent communities made research work potentially dangerous.

1.5 Chapter outline

Chapter one, is the introductory chapter which broadly outlined the context for the thesis. Chapter one also served to provide a motivation for the present study and sets out the aim and objectives as well as scope and limitations of the study. It also looked briefly at the study area which is discussed in more detail in chapters four and five. Chapter two provides a review of the literature which focuses on thematic issues pertinent to the study such as sustainability, tourism, ecotourism, social, environmental and economic impacts of ecotourism, rural development and community involvement. Chapter three uses the literature review presented in the previous chapter to develop a conceptual framework for the understanding of ecotourism development and

the private sector involvement. Chapter four provides the foundation for the research methodology and describes the methods and techniques used in the study as well as the background to the case study. Chapter five presents and analyses the research findings. This chapter focuses on the analysis of questionnaires which were administered to visitors, tour operators, local community, Park personnel and Park owner as well as the analysis of participatory exercises. Chapter six presents a synthesis of the research data, theoretical concepts, advances recommendations and draws conclusions.

1.6 Conclusion

The question of sustainability is an integral component to consider when evaluating the social, economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism in the respective private Parks. The issue of incorporating the different stakeholders and their contribution to the ecotourism venture is a difficult task in South Africa. However, ecotourism has the potential to provide many triumphs for rural local communities in the post-apartheid era supplementing their economic base with an alternate income and creating a sense of accomplishment among many local communities.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the key debates and issues relating to ecotourism. The focus of the literature review is to examine social, cultural, economic and environmental issues. However, issues are cross cutting and overlap with each other. Therefore, where appropriate interrelated aspects are integrated and discussed. The era of globalisation has made the world more ecologically interdependent (Ferreira, 2004). Bob et al. (2008) illustrate that the lives of humans throughout the ages have been inextricably linked to nature and natural forces. The economic activity has increased tenfold between 1950 and 2000 since the world's population is more closely connected than ever before by means of globalisation of economies and information flows (Steffen et al., 2004). It has become a cliché to note the emergence of tourism as a rapidly growing sector of economic importance in the process of globalisation (Ma et al., 2009). Given the above, it is important to examine key debates and concerns related to tourism generally and ecotourism specifically. In this chapter the aspects under consideration are: the key concepts (tourism, ecotourism, biodiversity and sustainability) as well as other issues such as: sustainability and tourism, pro-poor approach, certification, sustainable ecotourism, private Parks, impacts, rural development, participation and partnerships.

2.2 Key concepts

In this chapter the key concepts (tourism, ecotourism, biodiversity and sustainability) are under consideration. It is important to clarify the following key concepts (tourism, ecotourism, biodiversity and sustainability which are the focus of this study) since there is considerable literature which has contributed to an understanding of these key concepts from a range of disciplines (Wall, 1997). Wall (1997) also warns that these terms can be closely juxtaposed especially when their meanings are not clarified by their user.

2.2.1 Tourism

It is difficult to define tourism since any such phenomenon that is intricately interwoven into the fabric of life economically, socio-culturally and environmentally and relies on primary, secondary and tertiary levels of production and service, is complicated to define in simplistic terms (Fennell, 2003). Numerous studies focus on one or more of the following characteristics of the tourist (income, lifestyle, education), characteristics of the tour (duration, number of countries or places visited), mode of organisation (individual or all-inclusive package), type of facilities used (for example, visiting friends and relatives, business, holiday, conference) (Okech, 2004).

Tourism has a reputation to be the world's largest and fastest growing legitimate industry (Hill et al., 2006). Tourism is not a new phenomenon, although the serious study of the subject is relatively recent (Butler, 2009). Tourist activities have been traced back to Greek and Roman times and to the beginnings of widespread mass tourism in Victorian times (Towner, 1996). Additionally, the social legislation of the late 19th and early 20th centuries in many countries provided (i) guaranteed paid holidays, (ii) shorter working periods to employees, (iii) continued improvements in transportation and reduced travel costs, and (iv) greater availability of tourist destinations. These factors have contributed to the development and spread of tourism across the globe (Butler, 2009). This growth has tended to be evolutionary in the sense that the nature of the spread of tourism through populations and countries was gradual and predictable, building on existing social and economic infrastructures and following a consistent pattern in allowing an increasing proportion of people to participate in tourism, both internationally and domestically (Butler, 2009).

Currently, tourism is more about profit than development that addresses local issues (Cole and Razak, 2009). Structural changes related to tourism have been clearly present in the development of tourism throughout the last two decades (Saarinen, 2005). In addition, tourism consists of a high-growth sector, driven by enhanced affluence and increasing leisure time (Hill et al., 2006). Although tourism is intensely depoliticised, the character of tourism combined with basic aspects of the international system sets up distribution tendencies, patterns and paradoxes at the local, national and international levels (Cole and Razak, 2009). Craik (1995) refers to governments as

embracing tourism as the industry of the future and are eager that the benefits will overshadow the costs.

However, Holden (2005: 149) states:

The basis of the concept of tourism as a form of imperialism is that it represents an expansion of a nation's economic and political interests to other countries. Predominantly, the flow of this political and economic expansion is from western countries to less-developed ones. In the context of the political relationship of tourism between the developed and the developing worlds, this can be viewed as a relationship between the dominant and subordinate.

The economic benefits of tourism persuade governments, local areas and commercial operators to consistently invest in the industry (Youell, 1998). In addition, in many countries international tourism has served as an effective mechanism to promote local and national development in terms of employment, infrastructural improvements and the enhancement of marginal economic areas (Hill et al., 2006).

Conservationists see tourism as a tool or vehicle to expand conservation areas (Saayman and Saayman, 2006) and in developing countries such as South Africa, nature-based tourism or ecotourism has proved to be an increasingly essential source of foreign exchange and a tool that can be used to attract investment (Wunder, 2000). As such, the tourism industry can be seen as being inclusive of a number of key elements such as facilities, accommodation, transportation and attractions that tourists depend on to achieve their universal, specific goals and needs within a destination (Fennell, 2003). The industry comprises of a number of different yet interlinked service industries and other support services (Paton, 1985).

Travel for pleasure has conventionally been categorised as adventure, relaxation, recreation, ecotourism, cultural and heritage tourism, cruise ships tourism and even medical tourism (Cole and Razak, 2009). According to the DEAT (1996: 5), tourism was defined as “all travel for whatever purpose that result in one or more nights being spent away from home”. Tourism is facilitated and mediated by public and private institutions ranging from travel agents to local chambers of commerce, national tourism offices and international agencies (Chambers, 1997). Tourism covers all geographic scales from the global corporation to remote highland village to

the illegal beach vendor (Cole and Razak, 2009). Tourism seldom occurs in isolation since it competes for the use of scarce resources such as land, water, labour, energy and waste assimilation capacity with uses that require that some resources should not be consumed (Tao and Wall, 2009).

Brohman (1996) contends that tourism can be seen as a relative latecomer to post-World War two scholarly debates pertaining to issues of economic or sustainable development. Tourism knowledge has advanced by applying theories developed in other disciplines and so it is surprising that some research streams have been developed, tested and reported in leisure journals without attracting the attention of tourism researchers (Gross and Brown, 2008). However, Gross and Brown (2008) suggest that considerations of the corresponding and contrasting qualities of activities undertaken in recreation and tourism contexts have engaged the interest of the respective research communities. Much of the interest by geographers in tourism and the domain of leisure studies can be traced or dated to an interest in tourism and recreation in tourism by geographers that mirrors the pre-1945 development of the discipline and the post-war boom in many countries as a subject of study in Universities and other institutes of higher education (Hall and Page, 2006).

In many successive theories and observations, the tourist is frequently portrayed as a gullible and indiscriminating individual who can easily be led to believe that the superficial and stereotypical is representative of the real thing (Chambers, 2009). Furthermore, tourism theory lags well behind its conveyance and Chambers (2009) talks about recent trends which point to a significant increase in the numbers and kinds of people travelling, as well as a dramatic expansion of both domestic and international travel among citizens of rapidly developing, economically emergent nations. It is natural for tourism scholars to abstract tourism from the broader context in which it occurs with the aim of focusing on specialisation (Tao and Wall, 2009). Tao and Wall (2009) further argue that if the links between tourism and other sectors are not adequately appreciated and if the context in which tourism occurs is overlooked then understanding is likely to be partial. Recognising the importance of the links between tourism and other activities provides guidance that tourism should be seen as a tool for development and not as an end in itself (McCool and Moisey, 2001). According to Tao and Wall (2009: 90):

Although tourism may dominate the economies of many destinations and the incomes of many individuals, it is seldom their only source of sustenance. This is true of most communities and is particularly the case for individuals in many marginal economies. In such situations, many people may not have a conventional job but may farm, fish, hunt, do odd jobs, migrate and send back remittances, obtain unemployment benefits and, generally, support themselves through multiple means. Furthermore, these means may vary with the seasons, and may involve a mix of activities that span the subsistence, barter and cash economies. The introduction of tourism may result in conflict with such activities, displacing them or making them less viable, or it may fit into the existing situation as a contemporary activity, contributing to economic diversification and forging positive linkages with existing forms of production. Off course, it may also do both at the same time.

The tourism industry is highly seasonal and this impact of seasonal demand variation is one of the dominant policy and operational concerns of tourism interests in both the public and private sectors (Baum and Lundtorp, 2001). Many researchers have noted that the tourism industry has a significant impact on regional economic development (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2004; Deying et al., 1997; Dwyer and Forsyth, 1998; Dwyer et al., 2003), especially in developing countries and regions (Durbarry, 2004). There is considerable literature on the economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism which is replete with seemingly contradictory observations with researchers reporting both positive and negative findings in each of these categories (Wall and Mathieson, 2006). Tourism is not a panacea for economic decline yet it has the potential to create both positive and negative impacts (Byrd et al., 2009). Ill-conceived and poorly planned tourism development can wear down the very qualities of the natural and human environment that attract visitors in the first place (Inskeep, 1991).

Today, the tourism industry comprises of full scale businesses from international hotel chains and major airlines to intermediaries, for example, travel agencies to small local accommodation, restaurants, tour operators, independent guides and other informal activities (Cole and Razak, 2009). Effective tourism marketing requires an understanding of the existing market segments (Park and Yoon, 2009). Thus, destination managers and operators should periodically (such as annually) survey their tourist populations and use the information to better understand the level of interest that tourists have in the product and service provision in their particular location (Gross and Brown, 2008). New categories, market segments and corresponding tourist products are devised persistently which reflect new fads, changing technologies, the opening up of new regions and different wealth and demographic structures (Cole and Razak, 2009). Destination

marketers as discussed by Gross and Brown (2008) will benefit more by fully understanding the role of place attachment in the consumption behaviour of tourists and this will be assisted by additional testing of the model in other destinations.

As one of the world's largest industries, Fennell (2003) maintains that tourism is linked with many of the prime sectors of the world's economy. The size and number of tourists and tourist destinations has continuously grown exponentially (Cole and Razak, 2009). Thus, Scheyvens (2002) feels that outright condemnation of tourism in the Third World seems inappropriate when many communities are struggling to find means of improving their wellbeing and have identified tourism as a key strategy for development, especially at the local level. According to the DEAT (2002: 7):

One of the key challenges for business, local government and educators is to develop knowledge amongst the historically disadvantaged regarding what tourism is, and how it can benefit local communities... Communities need to be involved in the planning, decision-making and the development of tourism; and in all operational aspects of the industry as tourists, employees and entrepreneurs. Social exclusion has contributed to the historically narrow, myopic focus of the industry in South Africa. Responsible tourism is about enabling and encouraging historically disadvantaged local communities to access lucrative tourism markets.

Foreign leakage is also a key challenge. A foreign exchange leakage takes place when companies that produce and supply the tourism market are owned in a different country (Brohman, 1996; Sinclair, 1998). According to the DEAT (1996: 9), there are a number of factors that limit the effectiveness of the tourism industry in South Africa to play a more meaningful role in the national economy and some of the key constraints are identified below:

- tourism has been inadequately resourced and funded;
- myopic private sector;
- limited integration of local communities and previously neglected groups into tourism;
- inadequate tourism education, training and awareness;
- inadequate protection of the environment;
- poor service;
- lack of infrastructure, particularly in rural areas;
- a ground transportation sector not geared to service tourists; and

- lack of inclusive, effective national, provincial and local structures for the development, management and promotion of the tourism sector

Fennell (1999) and Poon (1993) suggest that a strong growth of nature-based tourism and the decrease in the relative significance of mass tourism have been emphasised in academic literature. Saarinen (2005) emphasises that this move does not indicate the end of mass tourism but the appearance of new forms of tourism and tourists in the market.

2.2.2 Ecotourism

Ecotourism was initially used in the English-language in academic literature by Romeril (1985). This sector has drawn attention within the industry and the field of tourism studies, sometimes under the same terms such as nature tourism (Boo, 1990; Ziffer, 1989) or ecological terms (Ruschmann, 1992). According to the DEAT (1996: 5), ecotourism can be defined as “environmentally and socially responsible travel to natural or near natural areas that promotes conservation, has low visitor impact and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local people”.

Recently, ecotourism has received a great deal of attention as a means for a reserve to achieve sustainable development (Li, 2004). Over the past 15 years, ecotourism has become one of the fastest growing sectors of the tourism industry actually growing three times faster than the tourism industry as a whole (Blangy and Mehta, 2006). Ecotourism has been promoted by international development NGOs during the 1960s and 1970s and it has now been adopted as one of the several key economic growth strategies by many less industrialised countries (Roe et al., 1997). In the democratic South Africa, ecotourism has become the government’s flag-ship programme to attract foreign currency and promote local economic development, especially amongst communities historically marginalised within the precincts of tourist sites (Chellan and Khan, 2008).

Ecotourism entails a combination of conservation and tourism (the economics related with it) to benefit local communities, especially focusing on sustainability (Myburgh and Saayman, 2002). Ecotourism operates for one or more of the eco-friendly alternatives for the economic use of natural resources compared with mining, hunting, farming and so on (Li, 2004). Ecotourism

promotes an enhanced appreciation of natural environments and environmental education by exposing visitors and locals to nature and conservation (Bob et al., 2008).

Honey (1999) refers to the potential that ecotourism has in relation to being a lucrative venture and also being a comparatively less destructive and sustainable form of land use in enhancing people and their economic needs while supporting resource conservation. However, Sarkar (1999) suggests that the concept of setting land aside for the protection of natural resources was popularised in the late nineteenth century with the formation of the world's first National Park, Yellowstone in the United States of America, in 1873. This Park was established to protect waterfalls, hot springs, geysers and other curiosities from private ownership and to promote tourism by railroads (Nash, 2001). However, researchers have argued that the Park was established with little consideration of the needs of indigenous peoples (Keller and Turek, 1998).

According to Okello (2005: 567), "this early philosophy of isolating tracts of land for conservation from human activities has not forestalled the over-utilisation and extinction of wild species." Similarly, MacKinnon et al. (1996) state that humans have continued to utilise animals to extinction and have damaged, destroyed or reduced their habitats. Wildlife outside protected areas is in constant danger of host threats, for example, poaching, snare for the bush meat trade or harassment (Okello, 2005). The reason could be partly due to increasing human demands for natural resources for survival and also partly because of the marginalisation of local communities in the conservation process (Beresford and Phillips, 2000; Kamugisha et al., 1997; MacKinnon et al., 1986; Sarker, 1999). Traditional approaches to biodiversity conservation in protected areas have been criticised to be ineffective and unethical due to externally imposed rules and regulations on local people which have either resulted in their relocation or have infringed traditional rights to use local resources for subsistence livelihoods (Heinen, 1996; McNeely, 2001; Wells and Brandon, 1993).

In many developed countries, for example, the United States, Canada, New Zealand and Australia, indigenous peoples' standards of living in respect of economic, educational and basic human standards are far inferior to that of the dominant groups in these societies (Bravo, 1997). Ecotourism may also degrade the natural resources upon which it depends, especially when management is poor (Mieczkowski, 1995; Stabler, 1997). The condition of growing

interdependence produces specific challenging circumstances for the achievement of particular goals including that of sustainable development (Ferreira, 2004). Thus, ecotourism is not only an opportunity but also a challenge for reserves (Li, 2004). According to Honey (1999: 175):

There is ample evidence that, in many places, ecotourism's principles and core practices are being corrupted and watered down, hijacked and perverted. Indeed, what is currently being served up as ecotourism includes a mixed grill with three rather distinct varieties: 1) ecotourism 'lite' business which adopted a few environmental practices (such as not washing sheets and towels each day or using energy saving shower heads), 2) 'green washing' scams which use green rhetoric in their marketing but follow none of the principles and practices, and 3) genuine ecotourism, or those businesses that are striving to implement environmentally and socially responsible practices.

For ecotourism development and environmental protection to be viable on the ground the perspectives of local entrepreneurs and communities including transnational businesses, NGOs and intergovernmental organisations must be considered (Medina, 2005).

Bob et al. (2008) state that ecotourism includes sustainability principles which cover the broad spectrum of diversity in all its dimensions. Furthermore, Haberl et al. (2009) refer to the conservation of biodiversity as an important goal in the sustainability context. According to Chapin et al. (2000), currently the world experiences biodiversity loss at a yearly rate that exceeds the natural rate of species loss by a factor of perhaps 100 or even 1 000. There is growing recognition that effective policies for biodiversity need to focus on the reduction of socio-economic pressures on biodiversity either directly or through alteration of underlying driving forces (Haberl et al., 2007; Spangenberg, 2007).

2.2.3 Biodiversity

Biodiversity hotspots are areas in the world with the highest species diversity and these are extremely vulnerable areas (Bob et al., 2008). Biodiversity refers to the variety and variability of life on Earth (Okech, 2004). The DEAT (1997) declares that two-thirds of the world's biodiversity is located in developing countries, collectively named 'The South', and provides an important resource for the economic development of these countries.

Biodiversity is a very vague concept which cannot be defined exclusively as maximisation of the number of species or as maintenance for some ideal pristine balance (Gillson and Lindsay, 2003). The DEAT (1997) states that Biological diversity - or 'biodiversity' can be referred to as the number and variety of living organisms on Earth, the millions of plants, animals and micro organisms as well as the genes they contain, the evolutionary history they possess and the potential they encompass, and the ecosystems, ecological processes, and landscapes of which they are integral parts. Hence, biodiversity can refer to the life-support systems and natural resources upon which society depends on.

According to the DEAT (1997), the government recognises that South Africa's protected area system is an asset of supreme value which, besides conserving biodiversity, produces substantial economic benefits through tourism. Biodiversity conservation comprises of not only protecting flora and fauna but also the sustainability of human communities (Bob et al., 2008). Local people would have greater incentives to conserve the biological resources in their environment if the beneficial effects from tourism filtered down to individual families and households (Dieke, 2003; Jones, 2005). Kiss (2004) contends that highly successful ecotourism can sustain biodiversity conservation by influencing national policy. Payments for ecosystems (PES) have often been implemented through local-scale projects involving private investors, NGOs, governments and resource managers with the focus on watershed, carbon and biodiversity-related services (Kosoy et al., 2008; Landell-Mills and Porras, 2002). For example in countries such as Costa Rica and Mexico, PES projects have emerged from national policy programmes where State-based public institutions perform as service buyers and reward resource managers in return for a single or a bundle of ecosystem services (Kosoy et al., 2008).

PES may possibly support the permanence of future generations in rural areas by strengthening other employment sources (Kosoy et al., 2008). Experiences marketing biodiversity have incorporated bird conservation with coffee production through certification processes (Perfecto et al., 2005) or developing ecotourism activities with wildlife conservation (Wilkie et al., 2001). Some of the income from PES can be allocated for the consolidation of alternative income generating activities rather than creating new ones or simply improving income levels through direct subsidies (Kosoy et al., 2008). Kosoy et al. (2008: 2082) further state:

Involvement in PES may not be then a matter of compensating for opportunity costs, as it is often perceived and discussed by environmental economists, but rather a question of how non-monetary individual and collective motivations, such as the need for technical capacity training, biodiversity conservation for intergenerational equity, reaffirmation of property rights among others, can be further strengthened and supported through PES programmes.

The World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD) (2004: 17) states that “biodiversity is at the core of sustainable development which impacts on the quality of human life and is a vital component of human activity”. In addition, the Council affirms that conserving biodiversity and using biological resources sensibly is good for business as it can help companies improve the triple bottom line which are good for economic, social and environmental performance (WBCSD, 2004). Damania and Hatch (2005) state that in pursuit of the maintenance of biodiversity there is a strong movement towards the protection of species by commercialisation. Little is known about the existing diversity of species (Damania and Hatch, 2005).

2.2.4 Sustainability

The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) (1987) Brundtland popularised the concept of sustainability (Mitchell, 2002). This concept of sustainable development has achieved importance and acceptance in recent years and can be applicable to all levels of economic development and tourism development from local to global in the future (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006). Mitchell (2002) stated that the Brundtland Commission explicitly mentioned that it has not developed a detailed blueprint for action, but rather a route through which people in different countries could create suitable policies and practices. The definition of sustainability as used by the WCED (1987: 8) was to engage in development in such a manner that meets the needs of the present generation without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. According to Mitchell (2002: 73), sustainable development consists of two key concepts which are:

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

Bramwell (1998) brings to light four arguments for intra-generational equity and sustainability. First, it is the local community, especially the disadvantaged social groups who experience the brunt of negative costs. Second, poverty encourages unsustainable practices in order to seek quick returns to meet immediate needs. Third, increasing charges for the use of some scarce resources results in poorer people being excluded. Finally, it is difficult to justify caring about fairness to future generations without extending this concern to people in society presently.

Weaver (2005) mentions an important issue about the impossibility of actually knowing with utmost certainty whether a certain course of action is sustainable. Hall (1997) further elaborates about the issue of a contested concept where there is no consensus as to what should be sustained. In addition, Weaver (2005) discusses attempts to evaluate sustainability inclusive of which indicators to select, what weight to apply to each and what threshold and benchmark values to assign. However, effective measuring and monitoring procedures are too complex to implement, especially over a long period of time. Each destination is unique and the indicators, weights and thresholds that are applicable to one destination will not be relevant to another (Weaver and Lawton, 1999).

Sustainable development has been criticised because the definitions and interpretations were seen as being too vague or ambiguous and other critics consider sustainable development as perpetuating the Western Capitalist system (Mitchell, 2002). Wall (1997: 485) asserts:

Sustainable development is a political slogan rather than an analytical tool. Sustainability has become a catch-phrase, which, partly because of its imprecision, has attracted widespread interest and support and also, again partly because of its imprecision, criticism from its detractors.

McCool et al. (2001) refer to the disagreement on what should be sustained and the appropriate indicators for measuring sustainability. Weaver (2005) refers to the objectives of sustainability which are global in scope and enhancement oriented within a combined environmental, socio-cultural and economic context that includes local communities. Wearing and Neil (1999) refer to sustainability being linked to conservation since it relies on the ability of the environment to renew itself without impairing or damaging its ability to do so. Farrell (1999) draws attention to the sustainability trinity which aims at the smooth and transparent integration of economy,

society and environment. Barraclough (2005) states that powerful corporations are claiming to be able to bring about sustainable development through their exercise of corporate responsibility and observation of a triple bottom line which integrates the goals of monetary profits as well as promoting social well-being and environmental protection. However, such a view is utopian since, it does not resemble capitalism (Barraclough, 2005). Liu (2003: 466) emphasises that sustainable development is determined mostly by what the stakeholders want it to be:

There are a range of actors who have the right and, to a varying extent, ability to make changes to the tourism system and influence the process and consequences of development. These actors or stakeholders include tourists (domestic and foreign); tourist businesses (investors, developers, operators, shareholders, management, employees, the public and private sectors); the host community and their governments. These groups often have conflicting interests in, and different perceptions of, tourism development.

2.3 Sustainability and tourism

Sustainable development and its derivative, sustainable tourism, can be intuitively appealing and is generally adopted by many international organisations, governments and enshrined in legislation (Wall, 2002). However, Wall (2002) states that these concepts have been much criticised due to lack of precision and the difficulties associated with their implementation. There may be significant differences of judgement between local practitioners and external experts over what practices or which livelihood combinations are sustainable (Rennie and Singh, 1995). The notions of sustainable development and sustainable tourism have conceptual deficiencies and have not proven to be good practical guides in the development of more productive and resilient societies particularly in marginal communities where the need to move towards sustainability may be particularly challenging (Tao and Wall, 2009). Mowforth and Munt (1998: 11) debate over Third World tourism impacts:

Third World tourism where it is often argued that existing forms of mass tourism development are unsustainable in terms of the negative impacts on the environment, the way in which it corrupts and bastardises local cultures and the manner in which any potential economic benefits are frittered away as a result of the First World ownership of much of the tourism industry globally.

It is from this negative view that much new tourism attempts to redress the impacts of tourism and establish alternative forms of new tourism which will be environmentally, economically and culturally sustainable (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). In other words, there is a global

consciousness emerging in the shared phenomenal worlds as elaborated by Hoogvelt (1997) and Robertson (1995). Moreover, Goeldner and Ritchie (2006) imply that tourism has long been seen as a renewable industry that which is to be greatly preferred over the traditional smokestack industries of the manufacturing age. Fennell (2003) asserts that tourism's international significance as an engine for economic growth makes it particularly relevant for sustainable development. Liu (2003) argues that sustainable tourism requires both the sustainable growth of tourism's involvement to the economy and society and the sustainable use of resources and environment. However, neither can be obtained without a sound understanding and appropriate management of tourism demand (Liu, 2003). Shaw and Williams (2002) draw attention to the discourse on sustainable tourism which is political, social and economic and has direct links to the agencies operating in tourism.

According to Saayman and Saayman (2006), sustainable tourism can be seen as flowing from the notion of sustainable development and encompasses a set of principles, business methods and policy prescriptions relevant to the tourism industry. Fennell and Dowling (2003) maintain that sustainable tourism development can be seen as the management of all resources that fulfils economic, social and aesthetic needs at the same time maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems. Laarman and Gregersen (1994) point out that sustainable tourism policy must incorporate the following three features: first, national support and planning in advance; second, appropriate pricing and revenue policies; and third, participation of locals who must also benefit. The World Tourism Organisation (WTO, 2001) has a preference for the following definition of sustainable tourism development which meets the needs of tourists and host as well as protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future in relation to managing of all resources in such a manner that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential processes, biological diversity and life support systems.

Prosser (1994) discusses four forces of social change that are effective when assessing sustainable tourism: dissatisfaction with existing products; growing environmental awareness and cultural sensitivity; realisation by the host regions of the precious resources they possess and their vulnerability; and the changing attitudes of developers and tour operators. Goeldner and Ritchie (2006) contend that the tourism industry needs to identify an action agenda and allocate

responsibility for its implementation in order to move toward the goal of sustainable tourism. Bramwell and Lane (1993) support this positive approach which intends to reduce the tension and hostility created by the complex interactions between the tourism industry, tourists, the environment and the host communities so that the long term capacity and quality of both natural and human resources can be established. One key to sustainable development of tourism in a community is the inclusion of stakeholders (Byrd et al., 2009). In addition, Byrd et al. (2009) assert that a clear understanding of the attitudes and interests of stakeholders is a crucial precursor to the planning and management of sustainable tourism.

The more local residents gain from tourism the more they will be motivated to protect the area's natural and cultural heritage and support tourism activities (Liu, 2003). Communities that use or plan to use tourism as an economic development tool to diversify their economy must develop policies for the sustainable development of the community (Byrd et al., 2009; De Oliveira, 2003; Puczko and Ratz, 2000; Southgate and Sharpley, 2002; Yuksel et al., 1999).

Sustainable tourism is not without its critics (Fennell, 2003). According to Hunter (1995), the current approach to sustainable tourism development is flawed since it condones the planning and management of tourism in a manner inconsistent with the design of sustainable development. Pigram (1990) suggests that the tourism industry should adopt a safe minimum standard approach to development which will minimise the risk that irreversible changes will exclude development opportunities for future generations. Shaw and Williams (2002: 299) state:

A final consideration must be given to the role of increasing numbers of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and other organisations that present themselves as guardians of the environment. Their rhetoric now shares a common language based on areas in Brundtland and the various Earth Summits of the 1990s. However, there is lack of clarity in the strategies of many organisations and how they interact with tourism agencies.

Cater (1993) recognises three key objectives for sustainable tourism: meeting the needs of the host population in respect of improving living standards both in the short and long term; satisfying the demands of a growing number of tourists; and safeguarding the natural environment in respect to achieving both of the previous aims. Liu (2003) maintains that to be successful and sustainable, tourism development requires the involvement of various government

departments, public and private sector companies, community groups and experts. McCool (1985: 9) points out that for sustainable tourism to be triumphant humans should consider the following:

- how tourists value and use natural environments;
- how communities are enhanced through tourism;
- identification of tourism's social and ecological impacts; and
- management of these impacts.

Sustainable tourism, according to Macbeth (1994), is more reactionary than proactive in nature. McKercher (1993: 13) lists four main reasons why tourism is vulnerable to unsustainable practices:

- tourism is not recognised as a natural resource-dependent industry;
- the tourism industry is invisible, particularly in urban areas;
- tourism is electorally weak with little support from government; and
- there is a distinct lack of leadership motivating the industry, which makes tourism susceptible to attacks from other land users.

There is an urgent need to develop policies and measures that are not only theoretically sound but also practically feasible (Liu, 2003). Moreover, researchers from varying academic and ideological backgrounds should adopt an interdisciplinary approach which will facilitate the development of a more consistent body of theory, techniques, beliefs and attitudes among scholars and proceed towards a more scientific platform (Faulkner and Ryan, 1999). However, Muller (1994) argues that many researchers and critics have to come to the realisation that we are reaching saturation point and lots of advice but too few agents with limited resources and very little time to act. Medina (2005) explains that a criterion for sustainable tourism should include indicators of social and economic sustainability adding up to indicators of environmental sustainability. In addition, Wall (1997) has argued that for tourism to contribute to sustainable development it must be economically viable, environmentally sensitive and culturally appropriate, and the forms that this might take are likely to vary with location.

2.4 The pro-poor approach to tourism-based development

Academic perspectives on the relationship between poverty and tourism have varied extensively since the 1950s (Scheyvens, 2007). In the 1950s tourism was identified as a specialisation strategy that could assist newly-independent developing countries earn foreign exchange whereas in the 1970s and 1980s many social scientists argued that poor people in non-Western countries were excluded or disadvantaged by international tourism development (Hall and Page, 2009).

The pro-poor tourism (PPT) initiative was taken at the World Summit on Sustainable Development in Gauteng in 2002 and was given the title “Sustainable Tourism as an Effective Tool for Eliminating Poverty (ST-EP)”. This added to the work that had already been initiated by the Department for International Development (DFID) in the United Kingdom under the aegis of PPT. The focus of PPT is based on tourism destinations in the South and developing tourism good practices that are pertinent to addressing poverty (Holden, 2005). PPT has its intellectual origins in concepts such as sustainability, alternative tourism and ecotourism (Saarinen, 2006).

Kakwani and Pernia (2000) define pro-poor growth as projects that allow the poor to actively participate in, and significantly benefit from, economic activity. According to Ashley et al. (2001), PPT can be defined as tourism that generates net benefits for the poor. Klasen (2003) proposes that there are two possible ways to achieve pro-poor growth. Firstly, the direct way entails that growth is pro-poor if it immediately raises the income of the poor. Secondly, an indirect way of pro-poor growth occurs if the gains from overall economic growth are redistributed to the poor by means of progressive taxation and targeted government spending, either by direct financial transfers or investment in the assets of the poor, by providing frequent basic social services.

Donor-supported tourism master plans which focus on creating infrastructure, promoting private investment and attracting international tourists (Ashley et al., 2000) are needed. The embracing of PPT by some academics and consultants has focused attention on the drawbacks of ecotourism (Butcher, 2007). In relation to the South African context Brennan and Allen (2001: 219) argue that ecotourism was “essentially an ideal, promoted by well-fed whites”. The aspect of holidays as well as the admiration for nature was seen as a luxury only enjoyed by wealthy Whites.

Spatial and socio-economic inequalities in South Africa have historically marginalised African people from the usage of tourism resources and outdoor recreation (Magi and Nzama, 2002).

According to Holden (2005), the basis of PPT deals with the empowerment of the poor sustaining their livelihoods which include environmental, economic, cultural and social benefits as well. Additionally, Hall (2007) suggests that the empowerment of individuals and communities through self help is more often a case of wishful thinking, belied at a local level by the local elites, by the knowledge, skills and resources of remote or foreign entrepreneurs seeking profit as well as the nature of political coalitions and decision-making structures. However, Johnson (2001) found little evidence that either democracy or decentralisation is essential for poverty reduction in rural or urban areas. Johnson (2001) has reported that projects were successful where three conditions have been met: an appropriate balance between autonomy and accountability; constructive support from external actors; and a commitment to deepening democracy. PPT demands a focal point on equity rather than growth of the tourism sector (Hall, 2007). In addition, Hall (2007) suggests that PPT requires the poor themselves to specify the benefits (economic, cultural, environmental, political, land rights and skills) sought from tourism projects. According to Scheyvens (2002), for host communities, participation and empowerment were essential objectives in any tourism initiative that seeks to address issues of poverty.

2.5 Certification: potential and pitfalls

The 1992 Earth Summit focused global attention on initiatives to restructure development in a much more sustainable appearance and emerging trade regimes imposed limitations on the ability of governments to set environmental and social standards for businesses (Medina, 2005). Godfrey (1996) enunciates that sustainable tourism development focuses not only on developing new environmentally-friendly products but also those aspects of the industry that ensures that all stakeholders become more resource conscious. Conroy (2002) suggests that certification initiatives emerged as non-government, market-based interventions to promote sustainability by encouraging the favoured consumption of goods and services from companies that adhere to high social and environmental standards in their production.

For example, Honey and Stewart (2002) state that within the tourism industry alone, 104 certification or ecolabelling programmes have been developed. Weaver and Lawton (2006) refer to a critical issue in the quest of sustainable tourism which is the conveyance of assurance through quality control mechanisms showing that the hotels, ski resort, tour operator or carrier is as environmentally or socially sustainable as it claims to be. Codes of practice and ecolabels are two of the main quality control mechanisms that endeavour to provide this assurance in the tourism industry (Weaver and Lawton, 2006). There has been much debate on certification schemes since some certification initiatives aim to push the industry towards more sustainable operating practices. Some critics caution that developed countries and transnational corporations based in those countries will be likely to dominate the process of creating and implementing certification programmes. This will lead to programmes that privilege the interests of the global North over the needs of the developing global South as well as advantaging the profit-oriented private sector over those of environmentalists (Sasidharan and Font, 2001; Sasidharan et al., 2002). Scholars and practitioners on both sides of this debate seem to agree that the proliferation of ecolabelling schemes in tourism has generated considerable confusion among consumers, creating difficulty for any programme to function effectively (Honey and Stewart, 2002; Sanabria, 2002; Sharpley, 2001).

Ecotourism supporters have embraced the design of certification as a means of moving beyond conceptualisation to codification and for distinguishing authentic ecotourism from ecotourism lite and green washing (Honey, 2002; Honey and Stewart, 2002). Propelled by ecotourism, the concept of certification to guarantee sustainable environmental and social practices is now a popular topic within the tourism industry (Honey, 2007). Criteria for sustainable tourism include indicators of social and economic sustainability as well as indicators of environmental sustainability (Medina, 2005). The Mohonk Agreement goes beyond the beneficiary approach to development normally taken by ecotourism ventures in the past which intended to generate employment and income for residents of communities living adjacent to protected areas without involving them in decision-making (Medina, 2005). Ecotourism looks for tangible benefits for both conservation and local communities, certification that comprises socio-economic and environmental criteria seeks to set standards and measure what are the benefits to host countries, local communities and the environment (Honey, 2007). Green certification programmes are assisting to appraise the impacts of tourism and trying to set concrete standards for

environmentally and socially responsible practices for tourism businesses, professionals and travellers (Honey, 2007).

Medina (2005) asserts that global standards for certification in ecotourism would increase the legitimacy and impact of both certification programmes and ecotourism itself and efforts to establish working agreements on a global scale may conflict with the integration of local perspectives regarding equity and participation. Epler-Wood and Halpenny (2001) adopt a cautionary approach when setting criteria for ecotourism in global arenas which inevitably lead to indistinguishable, broad prescriptions. However, national certification schemes will produce more concrete, measurable criteria that are sensitive to the issues of local people (Epler-Wood and Halpenny, 2001). Honey (1999) refers to the Quebec Declaration which endorses the use of certification as a tool for measuring sound ecotourism and sustainable tourism recognises that certification systems must reflect regional and local criteria.

Buckley (2001: 171) discusses the Nature and Ecotourism Accreditation Programme (NEAP) used in Australia:

A national programme developed through stakeholder participation from both private and public sectors, requires that enterprises seeking ecotourism certification provide local employment and purchase goods and services locally; provide interpretation for their clients relating to indigenous cultures and brief them about how to minimise the cultural impacts of tourism on local communities; consult with representatives of local and indigenous communities; and provide support or discounts for local organisations or schools.

According to Epler-Wood and Halpenny (2001), ecotourism certification programmes should be developed locally via stakeholder processes that involve local communities. However, this process must be shaped by internationally recognised guidelines on the necessary steps for successful certification thus preventing unfair practices, corruption or the profit motive from overtaking local certification initiatives.

Ecotourism needs to not just be conceptualised, rather codified as it is here that green certification programmes have a central role to play (Honey, 2007). Additionally, Honey (2007) mentions that ecotourism seeks to provide tangible benefits for both conservation and local communities, certification that includes socio-economic and environmental criteria seeks to set standards and measure what are the benefits to host countries, local communities and the

environment. Wearing (1995) insists that professionalisation and accreditation in ecotourism will continue to be at the forefront of discussions associated with regulation and control as a means by which to provide focus to an industry that is expanding. Honey (2007) states that ecotourism certification programmes monitors the impact that businesses have on the host community and the ecosystem. Furthermore, ecotourism certification programmes were more responsive to national and local stakeholder concerns (Honey, 2007).

Certification programmes and a tourism stewardship body should not be viewed as a panacea, they are rather a part of a combination of tools, both voluntary and regulatory that is required to promote both social equity and a sustainable environment within the tourism industry (Honey, 2007). However, Wearing (1995) advises that although accreditation would reduce risk, increase standards and increase status there is a danger of restricting innovation and accessibility within the ecotourism industry. Ecotourism constitutes a small sector of the market. Measuring and rating these businesses, services and products is crucial because of its effects on local communities and fragile ecosystems and sound ecotourism can assist to ratchet up performance standards for the broader tourism industry (Honey, 2007). When developing a global certification model, it seems appropriate for ecotourism certification programmes to be integrated as distinct components to sustainable tourism certification programmes that cover a diverse spectrum of the market (Honey, 2007). Furthermore, in terms of accreditation and certification, the issue of compliance is directly related to how operators feel individually and collectively (Fennell, 2003). It should not be imposed on operators but rather introduced gradually which in time will be accepted as a proper or appropriate business practice.

2.6 Sustainable ecotourism

It would seem that ecotourism is manifesting itself in two main ways as mentioned by Holden (2005: 130):

In the first model, ecotourism is being used to meet economic objectives by promoting the quality of the environment to attract international tourists. Ecotourism is incorporated into a global market, in which development is based upon foreign inward investment, with little government interference in terms of planning and environmental regulation. In environmental and social terms such a model would be unlikely to be sustainable, and as tourism development progressively destroys the quality of the resources tourists are coming to see, it would also prove to be economically unsustainable. In the second scenario, ecotourism is developed at a local level, and emphasis is placed upon resource conservation financed through the revenues from international tourism. Ecotourism is characterised by being low-scale and low-impact, with a high degree of local involvement in development decision-making, and a high level of local ownership of tourism facilities. In this scenario the influence of multinational corporations is minimised, although there would still be a reliance on international intermediaries such as foreign airlines to transport tourists and niche tour operators to promote the destination.

Goeldner and Ritchie (2006) refer to the acknowledgement and approval of the importance of attaining sustainable tourism which has influenced the emergence of the concept of ecotourism. While they are strongly linked, each contains a particular degree that many regard as momentous (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006). The principle of both concepts is to sustain or even improve the quality and attractiveness of the natural environment. Tosun (2000) contends that community involvement in tourism development is commonly difficult to implement, mainly in developing countries. Liu (2003) argues that when the needs and interests of the local communities are prominent many writers fail to realise that local communities are not homogeneous mass but do contain divisions of class, status and power. Harrison (1996) argues that it is difficult to see how the needs of the local people and communities could ever be suitably combined to offer practical guide to tourism development. Medina (2005: 293) argues that this is an important possibility to address in implementing and assessing ecotourism in terms of its stated goals and approach to sustainability:

If international experts and the diverse membership of local communities do not agree about what constitutes a benefit, then both the principled and pragmatic rationales for ecotourism's provisions of benefits to local communities are imperilled. This is so because local support for the protected areas upon which much ecotourism depends is based not on outside experts' or local elites' perceptions of whether or not local communities are benefiting from ecotourism, but on the perceptions of local communities themselves. If ecotourism's multiplier effects are not visible to them, and they do not count wage labour as a benefit, they are unlikely to support local protected areas. If they do not support protected areas, then both the conservation goals that led to their creation and the tourism that depends upon and supports such protected areas are at risk.

Liu (2003: 471) declares:

In fact ecotourism is mainly promoted not for the purposes of resource conservation but for marketing reasons. It is often an attempt by destinations to diversify their tourism products, where a mass tourism industry is already in existence, to attract more tourists or increase their length of stay. It is also promoted by destinations that lack popular sun, sea and sand attractions or have locational disadvantages that make them less attractive for conventional mass tourism. It could even be a marketing ploy or tactic to give businesses an apparent green edge on the competition.

2.7 Private Parks

The Vth IUCN World Parks Congress defines a private protected area as:

... land parcel of any size that is predominantly managed for biodiversity conservation, protected with or without formal government recognition, and is owned or otherwise secured by individuals, communities, corporations or non-governmental organisations.

(International Union for the Conservation of Nature - IUCN, 2003: 275)

Although there is not much that is known about private Parks because of their diversity and their exclusion from the International Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) classification protocol, they are increasing in numbers (Weaver, 2001). Furthermore, Weaver (2001; 2006) states those private protected areas continue to exist and grow because of the failure of government to adequately protect natural environment and depleting biodiversity. This position is supported by Langholz and Lassoie (2001) who state that most governments from developing countries fail to adequately support public Parks because of, among other reasons, department crisis which results in developing countries' governments usually reducing

funding towards public Parks. Langholz et al. (2000) state that the creation of private Parks is one of the strategies in place to protect those areas that would never be covered under public Parks/protection. Private Parks are also economically lucrative for the owners. Langholz and Lassoie (2001) indicate that when private Parks are involved in ecotourism ventures they represent a livelihood strategy that has economic and ecological viability. According to Weaver (2001), the growth of ecotourism has also contributed to the proliferation of private Parks. Langholz et al. (2000) assert that one of the important market values for private Parks is their profitability; they can be very profitable projects. Allen and Brennan (2004) specifically state that private Parks usually make more profit than public Parks when the former are involved in ecotourism related ventures.

Langholz (1996) illustrates that the existence of private Parks can be traced back to protected lands which were used for royal hunting only which catered for nobles and at the same time conserved biodiversity and halted human encroachments. Hunting, according to Fennell (2003), was a consumptive activity linked to the tourism industry which was undertaken by sport, commercial and subsistence hunters. However, as time went by, it was evident that the resources were depleting and subsistence hunters were denied the right to hunt and that created tension between those who had access and those who had no access to hunting areas (Fennell, 2003). This resulted in the creation of private land to control hunting (Fennell, 2003). Kerley (2003) and Hulme and Murphree (2001) point out that the conservation policies and the tourism market in most private game reserves in South Africa have focused on the more charismatic species exemplified by the “Big five” (lion, elephant, rhinoceros, leopard and the buffalo) which are used as the top attraction to the private game reserves.

Both public and private Parks also have strengths and weaknesses in terms of their ecological, economic and social functions (Langholz and Lassoie, 2001). Private Parks are used for, among other things, air and water purification and recreational purposes, but their key strengths are in biodiversity protection (Langholz and Lassoie, 2001). Several authors highlight the importance of private Parks which are summarised below:

- *Conserving critical sites for biodiversity in threatened ecosystems:* According to Jones *et al.* (2005), many privately conserved areas protect a variety of natural habitats that would

otherwise be converted to other forms of land use, and many are trying to restore degraded land.

- *Protecting buffer zones:* Private Parks directly protect lands outside the Park, expanding the core area of protection and helping to conserve the Park's resources, and also help protect Park boundaries by establishing a conservation presence at key access points, particularly in less developed countries (LDCs) which may lack funding for adequate protection of national Parks (ELI, 2003). Brandon (1997) states that by integrating rural development approaches relating to the park, such as ecotourism, private conservation efforts help to foster critical local support for the public protected areas through mitigating the costs to local communities of biological conservation within protected areas by providing local people with alternative and improved livelihoods.
- *Linking Parks through conservation corridors:* Public protected areas often include private lands within their boundaries. Western (1989) asserts that government reserves often form core wildlife areas of larger systems while the privately conserved lands provide inholding or migration corridors important as seasonal dispersal areas for species such as elephants that need to move between dispersed areas for survival.
- *Links for government conservation efforts:* According to the IUCN (2003) and Figgis et al. (2005), there is a fundamental recognition that private-public partnerships serve as increasingly important components of national conservation strategies, providing valuable additional funds and capacity at a time when many governments are slowing the rate at which they establish new protected areas due to over-stretched governments.
- *Promoting the sustainable use of natural resources:* Mulder and Coppolillo (2005) indicate that by creating legal methods to balance conservation with extractive uses, private lands conservation tools are used to ensure the sustainability of practices such as forestry, grazing, watershed protection, and recreation, as well as their compatibility with conservation objectives.

In terms of disadvantages, unlike public Parks which are permanently protected, most private Parks are informally protected and they are smaller in size (Langholz, 1996). Furthermore,

private Parks can place profit over environmental protection in many ways, such as exceeding the Park's carrying capacity by accommodating more tourists (Langholz and Lassoie, 2001). Langholz and Lassoie (2001) also assert that private Parks can also serve wealthy tourists only, and forget about the needs of local rural communities surrounding them. Furthermore, Gatua (2006) further contends that the enclosure of land for wildlife use infringes upon the rights of communities to use land in areas around or in close proximity to them.

Sims-Castley et al.'s. (2002) study on private game reserves in South Africa indicates that ownership of private game reserves in the country is mainly in the form of registered companies with multiple shareholders. The study points out that setting up a private game reserve in South Africa is a costly undertaking, requiring an initial outlay of anywhere from US\$ 1.3 million to as much as US\$ 7.8 million (on average US\$ 4.6 million). Capital expenditures associated with establishing a private game reserve as identified in the survey include: land acquisition, construction of buildings (for example, offices, hotels and lodges), wildlife management (for example, re-introduction of species), infrastructure development (for example, roads, water provision and fencing), acquisition of equipment (for example, vehicles and radios), landscaping (for example, rehabilitation of eroded areas and removal of alien species), and costs of the transition and marketing. They indicate that in some instances, individual landowners have formed co-operative partnerships with their neighbours. Previous land uses on the private game reserves include livestock farming (beef, dairy), small stock farming (sheep, goats) or a combination with a minimal amount of cultivation. This illustrates that land previously used for agricultural purposes has been changed for ecotourism linked to wildlife conservation.

2.8 Social, cultural, environmental and economic impacts

Many researchers have noted that the ecotourism industry has a significant impact on regional economic development (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2004; Deying et al., 1997; Dwyer and Forsyth, 1998; Dwyer et al., 2003), especially in developing countries and regions (Durberry, 2004). Ecotourism involves various complicated aspects related to environmental, social and economic factors (Li, 2004). Currently, there is growing concern about the impact that some forms of tourism development are having on the environment, economies and communities (Desai, 2005; Fennell, 2003; Honey, 2007).

2.8.1 Social and cultural impacts

Internationally, various studies have noted the trend for outsiders to capitalise on indigenous cultural resources and have questioned the extent to which marginalised communities and individuals are able to benefit from tourism on the foundation of their cultural resources (Barnett, 1997; Craik, 1994; Jansen van Veuren; 2002, van den Berghe; 1995). Meethan (2001: 169) asserts:

Tourism is perhaps not the agent of change, but rather, is indicative of other processes. Accounting for change must be able to deal with the complexity of global-local relationships, which must include internal as well as external dynamics of cultures and places... Rather than trying to assess the impacts of tourism in terms of external intrusions, the question could be better reformulated by asking what are the processes of social change within localities, how are other external factors incorporated and mediated or even resisted, and what role does tourism play in these processes?

Tourism may be a development option, yet if introduced, it will need to fit into an existing system (Tao and Wall, 2009).

According to (DEAT, 2002: 8), assessing of social impacts can be seen as a prerequisite to developing tourism and entail the following:

- Identifying and monitoring potential adverse social impacts of tourism and minimising them in the short and the long term, and ensuring that communities actively participate in the monitoring.
- Larger enterprises should appoint a member of staff to take responsibility for developing better local relationships and partnerships. Implement social audits of tourism projects. These can be conducted in an inexpensive, rapid and participatory way.
- Consider schemes to encourage local co-operation and civic pride like an adopt a school initiative or adopt a street or other local areas near the enterprise. Work with local government and the local community to identify priority sites, and make them safe and attractive for tourists.
- Enterprises should develop strategies to promote equality in terms of gender, ethnicity, age and disability, and report progress on implementation.

Doxey (1975) succinctly summed up more than three decades ago the evolving sentiment that local people express as tourism expands and occupies greater proportions of a local economy over a considerable time. Doxey (1975: 61) stated that there were four main stages in the assessment of local feelings toward the tourism industry:

- *Euphoria*: Tourists are welcomed, with little control or planning.
- *Apathy*: Tourists are taken for granted, with the relationship between both groups becoming more formal or commercialised. Planning is concerned mostly with the marketing of the tourism product.
- *Annoyance*: As saturation in the industry is experienced, local people have misgivings about the place of tourism. Planners increase infrastructure rather than limit growth.
- *Antagonism*: Irritations are openly displayed towards tourists and tourism. Planning is remedial, yet promotion is increased to offset the deteriorating reputation of the destination.

Culture can best be described as the way of life of a particular group which incorporates customs, beliefs, language, norms, values and traditions (Bob et al., 2008). Holden (2005) refers to tourism as bringing people from different cultures together, thus it is unavoidable that they should have an influence upon each other. Residents of an affected area, for instance, possess knowledge about local conditions and understand cultural values in a manner that professional planners lack (Brown and Harris, 2005). Erisman (1983) quotes Evan Hyde (a Black power leader in Belize) who during the 1970s suggested that tourism as whorism reflects claims that tourism leads to conflict between locals and hosts. Lickorish and Jenkins (1997) state that it is unfortunate that many of the writers on the social and cultural impacts have tended to respond negatively to tourism development. Tourism needs to be considered as a form of cultural policy as well as an economic or industry one (Craik, 1991; 1994). According to Pearce (1982: 144):

Culture shock may be experienced by both visitors, who are confused by the signals, symbols and style of the visited culture or by locals who have to confront the rule-breaking behaviours of outsiders. While some rule breaking by visitors is unintentional (and therefore, perhaps, forgivable by the hosts) cultural arrogance is the continued practice of following one's own cultural rules while disregarding the sensitivities and reactions of the local community. For example, behaviours which invade the privacy of hosts such as watching sacred ceremonies and taking unauthorised photographs, are actually arrogant as are behaviours which knowingly break moral, religious and social codes such as public kissing, wearing too little clothing or flirtatious behaviour.

Todaro (1997) states that development is a multi-dimensional process including major changes in social structure, popular attitudes and national institutions also inclusive of the acceleration of economic growth, the reduction of inequality and the eradication of poverty. Development is multi-faceted and culture and cultural sensitivity should be important in the development process (Tao and Wall, 2009). An important anthropological concept to assist in explaining how tourism affects cultures is acculturation (Holden, 2005), which Burns (1999) describes as the process by which a borrowing of one or some elements of culture takes place as a result of a contact at any destination among two different societies.

According to Croall (1995), the negativity of tourism has trivialised cultures, brought about uniformity and had adverse effects on traditional ways of life and on the uniqueness of local cultures. Lickorish and Jenkins (1997) emphasise that tourism is a total social event which may lead to structural changes in society. Graburn (1976) stated that most tourists are from the First World, visiting Third World destinations. Craik (1995), Fennell (2003) and Wall (1997) list how culture is fragmented on many levels within destinations by the following factors: prostitution; crime; increased risk of infectious diseases; pollution; the erosion of language in favour of more international dialects; the erosion of traditions, either forgotten or modified for tourists; changes to local music and other art forms; food in the appearance of a more international cuisine; architecture; dress; family relationships such as young children earning more than parents from toting luggage at airports; and in some instances, religion. Lickorish and Jenkins (1997) affirm that foreign visitors do not integrate into a society.

In contrast to other authors, Liu (2003) is a firm believer that socio-cultural changes brought upon by tourism development due to face to face contact between hosts and tourists leads to a demonstration effect, introducing new ideas, values and lifestyles, as well as new stimuli

beneficial for both economic and social progress. Thus tourism does have a distinctive role in promoting modern values, social progress and cultural evolution. Craik (1995: 89) similarly emphasises:

Positive impacts include: enhancing the amenity of a destination; building community pride and a sense of identity; supporting community entertainment and enterprises; providing new training and employment opportunities; maintaining community stability; and broadening horizons through inter-cultural contact.

Place (1991) provides an example of Tortuguero National Park, Costa Rica where disadvantaged local residents were used to hunting and gathering in the area that became the Park. It was hoped that the residents would benefit from the growth of tourism. However, the lack of relevant skills (such as management skills, lack of capital and the issue of language) as well as small groups of tourists made it difficult for local residents to benefit from ecotourism (Wall, 1997). Farquharson (1992) emphasises that poor people do not have the privilege to be conservationists: people who are starving are not interested in respecting environmental regulations.

Holden (2005) stresses that the concept of community is problematic; few communities are homogenous, encircling the dynamism of a wide range of groups of varying political and social views. Furthermore, Meethan (2001) affirms that people comprising of tourists and host populations are not passive but rather active agents. Mowforth and Munt (1998) state that local communities around the world make use of both formal and informal meetings to debate issues of concern. However, meetings are not always representative of women and children (Mowforth and Munt, 1998).

Moreover, Wall (1997: 489) states:

Where local people do not receive benefits, they are likely to compete with the tourism industry for the use of scarce natural resources. If ecotourism is to benefit local residents, means must be found to facilitate local participation in the industry. As a minimum, this will require the provision of appropriate training and access to capital.

Holden (2005) maintains that it would be logical to expect that those who benefit financially and economically from ecotourism are likely to be more positive about ecotourism, while marginalised groups may perceive ecotourism negatively. A vast majority of tour operators,

entrepreneurs, marketing agents, travel guides and lodge owners have come to recognise that local involvement is enjoyed by tourists and provides a prospective marketing opportunity (Boo, 1992; Hughes, 1995). Thus, Wall (1997) underscores the importance of a tourism situation where hosts of destination areas are encouraged to preserve their traditions in order that they can attract tourists to experience authentic experiences.

However, Tucker (2001) contends that tourism destinations do not have to be genuinely traditional to meet with the expectations of visitors. Van Veuren (2004) discusses how cultural village tourism in South Africa provides opportunities to explore real ways in which culture is able to create value in ecotourism and its importance in respect of establishing who might benefit from this branch of ecotourism. Holden (2005) refers to staged authenticity which is used by local communities to protect their local culture. MacCannell (1989) prefers the concept of front and back regions developed by Goffman (1959) to demonstrate how staged authenticity can be used. Holden (2005) suggests that staged authenticity takes place in the front displaying the meeting place of the tourists and community and the back is the area where local people retire and conduct their day to day social interaction. Boissevain (1996) states that staged authenticity protects the privacy of local inhabitants by maintaining tourists' interests focused upon the commercialised front regions.

Many local communities protect their culture by utilising an array of techniques (Holden, 2005: 155):

- *Covert resistance*: some examples include covert, low-key resistance such as sulking, grumbling, obstruction, gossip, ridicule and covert insults directed by the weak at the more powerful.
- *Hiding*: communities do not wish to display all aspects of their culture to tourism such as festivities and celebrations which are held at times when tourists will not focus their attention on them.
- *Fencing*: this can involve physical fencing of space from tourists or the moving of activities to a new spatial area free from tourist stare.
- *Ritual*: tourism encourages the resurgence of rituals as a way of dealing with any perception of destructive change, becoming a means of re-establishing camaraderie, identity and values.

- *Aggression*: tourists can be consciously targeted in instances of crime such as mugging and handbag theft and is an extreme end of the reaction to impacts.

Lickorish and Jenkins (1997) refer to an ongoing issue for conservation is how to make tourists aware of local customs, traditions and taboos. There is a need to empower visitors by the use of in-flight videos, public information systems in tourist centres and free phone call systems for tourist problem solving (Pearce, 1995). As Page (2008) affirms, the Digambar Kamat chief Minister of the Indian State issued a warning that foreign women should be cautious and remember to respect the host. In most communities, governments and the tourism public sector will have to pave the way in host community education and participation in tourism (Pearce, 1995).

Van Veuren (2004) suggests that partnerships between indigenous individuals, communities and reputable private sector operators will enable local people to participate in tourism ventures as well as to share knowledge, skills and expertise. Bob et al. (2008) describe indigenous knowledge as:

- Linked to a specific context in terms of place and culture;
- Dynamic in nature;
- Associated with groups of people with close links to the environment; and
- Different from modern or scientific knowledge;

Furthermore, it has been stressed that there are three forms of community participation such as information, exchange, negotiation and protest (Painter, 1992). Mowforth and Munt (1998: 246) raise important concerns about local appraisal techniques:

While the techniques of local appraisal are well-intentioned by those who lead and conduct them, the critical questions concerning the balance of power are who leads them and to what ends. In general they are led, or at least significantly advised, by First World professionals, and the idea that a group of outsiders visiting for a short period of time can appreciate, let alone solve, the problems experienced by local communities is rather pretentious and patronising, and suggestive of neo-colonialist attitudes.

2.8.2 Environmental impacts

Keyser (2002) contends that up to the early 1980s, the majority of tourism destination plans and strategies focused on the economic development issues of tourism (employment, balance of payments, foreign exchange, incomes and tax revenue). Youell (1998) maintains that tourism and the environment, whether natural or human-made, are inextricably linked. Schelhaas (2007) considers nature as being a major attraction and resource of tourism. Blangy and Mehta (2006) argue that the fast pace of tourism around the world is causing indescribable damage to some of the most endangered ecological systems.

Tourism's interaction with the environment is complex: it can assist to conserve resources, have negative impacts and can be threatened by human-induced changes in the environment (Holden, 2005; Leung et al., 2001; Shaw and Williams, 2002). Drumm (2007) states that visitation to natural protected areas is escalating rapidly in many countries around the globe. Schelhaas (2007) emphasises that if tourists are unaware of the value and fragility of nature and if tourism operators and providers are not careful about the natural environment, tourism could be a disaster for nature and biodiversity.

Keyser (2002) refers to the environment as being all encompassing since it not only consists of natural elements but is inclusive of cultural, social, economic, historical and political components. The expanding tourism tide is exceeding protected areas' capacity to keep it within sustainable levels so that tourism can be identified as a threat to biodiversity (Drumm, 2007). Tourism impacts do take a variety of negative forms such as habitat fragmentation and loss due to infrastructure development, travel related air pollution, facility-related water and land pollution and activity related soil and vegetation damage and wildlife harassment (Leung et al., 2001).

The economic rationale for nature conservation will be even stronger when tourism is calculated to have potentially greater economic value than other development options (Holden, 2005). At the same time, Schelhaas (2007) asserts that tourism can contribute to nature conservation since it gives nature an economic value, raises awareness and provides a motive for conservation, including an effective venue for environmental education. Furthermore, in less developing countries there is an enormous pressure to earn foreign currencies to service foreign debts and to

increase exports. Thus nature tourism may offer an attractive means to earn foreign exchange (Holden, 2005). The poor and the disadvantaged bear the burden of negative environmental impacts, for instance, pollution and natural resource depletion (Barrett et al., 2005; Zarsky, 2002).

De la Harpe et al. (2004) and Spenceley (2007a) state that tourism should not be perceived as a conservation panacea for all areas of increasing biodiversity, since tourism does not always generate adequate revenue to pay for conservation management. Thus the government has to step in with subsidies and public donations are also needed. Diamantis (2004) emphasises that the responsibility for conserving the natural environment in an area should not be the responsibility of the locals working on their own. All stakeholders must be involved. A key determinant of how tourism interacts with the environment is the issue of environmental ethics held by its stakeholders, inclusive of tourists, tourism businesses (private sector), local communities and the government (Gurung and De Coursey, 1994; Holden, 2005). It is also important to consider the symbiotic relationship that exists between visitors, local communities and destination areas since these three elements interact with each other creating negative and positive economic, socio-cultural and environmental impacts (Youell, 1998).

Holden (2005: 181) further emphasises that there is evidence:

... that an ethical emphasis is increasingly influencing the action of tourism stakeholders on the basis that some existing patterns of behaviour can harm the environment. For example, codes of conduct have been developed by various organisations in the private and public sectors to help guide appropriate tourist behaviour. The private sector seems to be replacing an increased emphasis upon demonstrating corporate social responsibility (CSR), and what is commonly referred to as the 'triple bottom line' to assess a company's performance, incorporating the social, environment and economic impacts of a business's operations besides purely the financial.

Drumm (2007) suggests that to avoid the loss of precious biodiversity through tourism-related pressures and to access the benefits that tourism can produce for protected areas it is imperative that they have sufficient capacity in respect of infrastructure, personnel and management systems in place. In many developing countries, Park systems have not been able to finance the investments required to establish this capacity at the areas facing pressure from visitation

(Drumm, 2007). Most ecotourism operators have acknowledged the value of sustainability and conservation and are changing their business practices to preserve their natural resources and rehabilitate the environment (Diamantis, 2004). Drumm (2007) declares that given the rising tourist demand for access to protected natural areas, it is more and more important that adequate pricing mechanisms be applied to ensure that tourism and recreation contribute to biodiversity conservation.

Loon et al. (2007) provide a case study of a community-run project, the Lillydale Environmental Education Centre which is supported by Sabi Sabi. This centre serves as a multifunctional environmental education centre promoting Shangaan knowledge and rural development tourism to the area and encouraging local environmental conservation practices through training workshops. The Lillydale Environmental Education Centre has demonstrated successful involvement of the local community nonetheless. Youell (1998) discusses practical measures that can be taken to involve host communities in their local tourism systems such as the establishment of local tourism forums where ideas can be exchanged and issues aired, concessionary admission schemes for local people to tourist attractions and facilities as well as public awareness programmes stressing the benefits of tourism to communities.

Youell (1998) suggests that there is an increase in awareness and concern for the environment which has meant that tourism organisations are becoming more involved in determining the effects they have on their environment. Oelofse and Scott (2002) discuss the principles of sustainable development as incorporated in the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA), Act 107 of 1998. Keyser (2002) and Shaw and Williams (2002) emphasises that environmental impact assessment (EIA) is a means for evaluating the possible consequences of tourism and other forms of development. The IEM is designed to ensure that the environmental consequences of development proposals are understood and adequately considered in the planning process (Preston et al., 1992). Keyser (2002) discusses that an EIA is a very useful technique used to make certain that environmental impacts of proposed projects have been evaluated and providing the foundation for making any necessary adjustments to the project. Hugo (2004) discusses that the EIA is a tool used in many developing countries as well as in South Africa to assist development, mitigate negative impact of developments and enhances positive impacts. Youell (1998: 159) refers to the EIA as a structured process which intends to:

- identify the cost and benefits of a particular development;
- establish who will lose and who will gain if the development goes ahead;
- examine alternative courses of action and their likely impacts; and
- consider ways of reducing impacts if the project is given the green light.

Fennell (2003) affirms that researchers and practitioners identify the dangers innate in accommodating an increasing number and diversity of experiences for an increasing consumer-based society. Keyser (2002) argues that overdevelopment and overuse by tourists is a major cause of environmental degradation. If carrying capacities are determined as part of the planning analysis and utilised in the formation of a plan, then environmental problems can be reduced (Keyser, 2002). Wearing and Neil (1999: 48) state that there are three main elements of tourist carrying capacity:

- Biophysical (ecological) which relates to the natural environment.
- Socio-cultural which relates primarily to the impact on the host population and its culture.
- Facility which relates to the tourist experience.

Youell (1998) contends that imposing limits on tourist use through the formation of maximum thresholds may cause resentment, both with tourists who may be denied access to facilities, and with commercial tourism operators who may object to what they see as intervention in the market. Mowforth and Munt (1998) argue that carrying capacity calculations can be influenced by tour operators, officers of conservation organisations or government officials who promote either a destinations exclusivity (a low carrying capacity) or its capability and potential to absorb more visitors (a high carrying capacity).

Fennell (2003) deals with carrying capacity from a sociological perspective and suggests that it is difficult to quantify. Diamantis (2004) considers carrying capacity from an environmental setting, community viewpoint and an economic concern. In an environmental situation the concept applies to the maximum number of people who can utilise a location without an unacceptable decline in the quality of the experience gained by tourists. From a community standpoint, carrying capacity relates to a destination's ability to absorb tourism before the

community feels the negative effects. From an economic concern, carrying capacity deals with employment and revenue earned and as long as these are positive and the host community benefits from tourism, the predetermined level is correct.

2.8.3 Economic impacts

Fennell (2003) states that tourism being a private sector activity capitalises on the market for the purpose of making a profit. Williams (1998) suggests that there are many impacts that tourism may exert upon host areas, the processes of physical and economic development are the most prominent. These effects may be apparent in the physical development of tourism infrastructure (accommodation, retailing, entertainment, attractions and transportation services); the related creation of employment within the tourism industry and a range of potential impacts upon GDP balances of trade and the capacities of national or regional economies to attract inward investment (Williams, 1998). Conservation of protected areas is costly and many governments have reduced their financial assistance to protect these areas (Bushell and McCool, 2007).

Conventionally, Fennell (2003) refers to the management of Parks as not being subject to the same market principles and philosophies as the private sector. However, Liu (1998) refers to tourism in a country as both an expression of its economic development and a medium to promote development. Bushell and McCool (2007) refers to tourism as a means to replace funding that has been misplaced via donations, entrance and user fees, concession and rental fees and licences, taxes on retail purchases by visitors, levies and increased tax revenues from economic activities relating to tourism. This creates increased pressure for visitation and the granting of more concessions and licences (Bushell and McCool, 2007). Sherman and Dixon (1991: 85) demonstrate five main ways in which to gain revenue from nature tourism which are:

- *User fees*: these are a reflection of the public's willingness to pay and in recent years have transformed into a two-tiered or multi-tiered system with a differential scale of fees, which vary according to whether the visitor is a resident or a foreigner.
- *Concession fees*: government fees are charged to private firms who provide tourists with goods and services such as guiding and food.
- *Royalties*: souvenir and t-shirt sales provide a good source of this type of revenue which can be given to the agency as a percentage of the revenue made on the items.

- *Taxation*: sales tax, hotel tax and airport tax are examples.
- *Donations*: tourists can be encouraged to contribute money to address a local problem such as lack of local resources or money for endangered species as well as aid in the management of a protected area.

Pricing holds incredible power in providing greater efficiency and sustainability in ecotourism, however, it is critically neglected in public policy (Fennell, 2003; Laarman and Gregersen, 1996; Steele, 1995). Low entry and use fees are often the consequence of a wide range of socio-political factors such as centralised budget allocation processes; issues of equity and access for all; political concern about increases in Park fees upsetting local constituencies; the continued belief that society should pay for protected areas; pressure from conservation groups to keep visitation low; lack of planning and marketing for higher levels of visitation; lack of research into appropriate techniques used to determining logical pricing policies, lack of partnerships between private operators and park agencies; and varying levels of visitor services and infrastructure (Eagles, 1999). The challenge is to derive economic benefit without unacceptable environmental degradation (Bushell and Mc Cool, 2007). Williams (1998: 84) states that tourism may:

- aid economic development through the generation of foreign exchange earnings;
- exert beneficial effects upon balance of payments accounts;
- create substantial volumes of employment;
- assist in the redistribution of wealth from richer to poorer regions;
- promote and finance infrastructural improvements; and
- diversify economies and create new patterns of economic linkage.

Furthermore, Williams (1998: 86) also acknowledges that tourism's economic effect may also create:

- increase dependence upon foreign investors and companies;
- introduce instabilities and weaknesses in labour markets; and
- divert investment from other development areas.

While it is acknowledged that ecotourism in protected areas have positive economic development such as direct employment, both on and off site, the diversification of the local economy, the earning of foreign exchange, and the improvement to transportation and communication systems; there are also related negatives such as the lack of sufficient demand for ecotourism, which could result in the loss of funds since ecotourism may not generate local employment opportunities rather supporting expatriates and the fact that it may not be socially and economically acceptable to charge fees in Parks (Fennell, 2003).

Naguran (1999) raises four questions which need to be asked when assessing the economic impact of an ecotourism venture in any community. Firstly, how do financial benefits reach the community in the form of rent, gate fees and profit sharing? Secondly, to what extent are earnings, wages or shared community income distributed across the rural community? Thirdly, how successful have these projects been in creating employment? Finally, to what extent has tourism development encouraged the creation of secondary income generating activities such as laundry services, charcoal making, butcher facilities or taxi services?

To understand how tourism impacts upon an economy it is essential to understand a key theory of Keynesian economics, the multiplier concept. Fennell (2003) declares that the impact of money on the economy has led to economists further understanding the multiplier effect and the related concept of leakage. According to Cooper et al. (1998), the underlying principle of the multiplier process is that a change in the level of demand in one section of the economy affects not only the industry that produces the final product or service but as well as other sectors of the economy that in turn supply it. In relation to tourism, as new money enters a local economy it changes hands many times resulting in a cumulative economic impact that is larger than the initial amount of tourist expenditure (Fennell, 2003).

Imports leading to leakages are referred to as import substitution and are an important issue in the context of ecotourism and sustainable tourism. There is much evidence that tourism in LDCs has been hampered because management control of the industry lies in the hands of external, multinational interests (Fennell, 2003). Tour operators are private sector businesses that operate under the system of capitalism and their primary target is to achieve optimum profits (Bastakais et al., 2004). Furthermore, tourists have a tendency to shop around for the lowest possible price,

consumer loyalty is not often seen in the tour operating industry (Miller, 2001). The tour operator serves as the sales office of individual tourism service suppliers since they have the knowledge of market trends, provides front-end and promotion budgets as well as accepts a part of the risk of primary suppliers (Van Wijk and Persoon, 2006). As an intermediary, tour operators have the authority to influence the consumer's choice of destination and accommodation (Bastakis et al., 2004). Tour operators buy tourism products in bulk, they benefit from scale economies and can offer packages at prices that are usually lower than consumers could negotiate individually (Van Wijk and Persoon, 2006). Apart from decreasing transaction costs, Van Wijk and Persoon (2006) mention that tour operators bring convenience and experience through their local presence at the destination. As powerful intermediaries, tour operators must focus on good practices which can be understood as practices leading to a more sustainable form of tourism that enables tour operators to compete on the basis of more than just price (Tepelus, 2005). Furthermore, it is the tour operator who has the means to choose the suppliers who seriously try to recycle their ecological and social impact at the same time enhancing the multiplier effect (Van Wijk and Persoon, 2006).

Tourism is advocated by operators as a major employment generator due to its labour-intensive nature (Wearing and Neil, 1999). It is common that the planning, staff and management of Parks is often done by developed country personnel or expatriates and this can have negative effects on the affected local communities as a result leading to homogenisation of cultures as well as the trivialisation of local and traditional methods of managing the natural resources (Wearing and Neil, 1999). A lack of skills and resources has expected that many ecotourism ventures are owned and operated by expatriates (Weiler and Hall, 1992). In addition, the issue of literature dealing with women's experiences of employment in the tourism industry is tremendously negative, since, women occupy the majority of low-skilled and low-waged employment (Scheyvens, 2002). Holden (2005: 200) also stresses:

Women are also often expected to fulfil domestic and social responsibilities besides carrying out employment. This can subsequently lead to domestic tension if women no longer have time to carry out their defined and expected domestic roles or dare to challenge them. The economic independence of women may also challenge the role of the male as the main wage-earner in the family and decision-maker over how money is allocated.

Laarman and Gregersen (1996) claim that pricing objectives can be multifaceted and administrators are challenged to determine a fee structure with the resource conditions of the Park staff and the needs of visitors. Fennell (2003: 87) proposes that:

In some park system fees that are generated in each of the individual parks go back into a general operational account. The positive spin-off of this is that the money that is generated for this account aids in the maintenance of parks in the entire system. The negative element is that those parks doing the best job (either because they have better administrators or because the park simply generates more visitation) do not get the opportunity to utilise directly for their own purposes the money that they generate. This type of fee philosophy may further decrease the motivation of those working in the money-generating parks, so that they become less conscientious, and may lead those in the money-losing parks chronically to rely on the money generated in other areas.

Holden (2005) states that theoretically the initial tourism investment could flow into the economy. However, it does not because in each round of expenditure money will leak out leading to economic leakages thus, removing it from circulation in the economy. Subsequently, the foreign-exchange earnings do not disclose its true economic benefit to an economy, basically revealing what remains after deducting the foreign-exchange costs of tourism (Holden, 2005). Liu (1998) talks about over-dependence on tourism for economic growth and welfare just as depending on any other single product can make some countries defenceless to economic stability. The degree of factors that will influence the tourism income will be greatly determined by a nation's or community's level of economic development (Holden, 2005).

2.9 Rural development

Viljoen and Tlabela (2006) assert that those stakeholders such as national Parks, provincial Parks and private Parks who are already involved in ecotourism ventures have started to consider the importance of involving local communities in the planning processes and distribution of costs and benefits. The significance of rural livelihoods in Africa highlights the necessity to nurture an understanding of rural development and its evolution within broader development thinking (Hill and Birch-Thomsen, 2005a). Issues such as economic restructuring, demographic change (particularly out-migration and aging) and the loss of social capital are recognised to be major problems affecting rural areas (Walmsley, 2003). According to Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs (1997), rural areas can be defined as the sparsely populated

areas in which people farm or depend on natural resources which are inclusive of villages and small towns that are isolated through these areas. It is also inclusive of the large settlements in the former homelands, produced by the apartheid removals, which depend for their survival on migratory labour and remittances (Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

Marcus (1994) refers to the southern African countryside as being in the grip of multiple crises since political and structural macro-social processes have fractured, fragmented or ruined the agricultural base that is central to rural social development. It is advocated that the protected area approach bears many controversies at the various levels of policy debate and implementation (Mulongoy and Chape, 2004). Conflicts over resources between local resource users and those involved in nature conservation, in many of the biologically diverse rural areas in developing countries, are characterised by increasing levels of poverty, insecure land tenure and landlessness, and unstable or undemocratic political systems (Wilshusen et al., 2003). Hoppers (2002) advises that African rural development has resulted in the identifying of three appraisals: firstly, to recognise that centrally-driven, top-down, dictatorial and economically biased approaches have not been a great success; secondly, the need to re-assess the potential and inherent capacity within communities to help themselves; and thirdly, the recognition of the sustainability and appropriateness of 'indigenous' skills and expertise in the form of 'appropriate technology'.

Rural areas have suffered from the effects of urbanisation and a reduction of many traditional industries thus, tourism, especially ecotourism, offers communities in rural areas an alternate avenue to sustain their livelihoods (Mafunzwaini and Hugo, 2005). Tourism has been frequently taken as an alternative option in developed nations or developing ones, to maintain the continuous development of the economy in remote or rural areas where primary traditional industries are in decline (Ying and Zhou, 2007). Tourism has been acknowledged as one of the primary industries with the potential to assist local communities in developing economic diversity (Allen et al., 1993; Davis and Morais, 2004; Hassan, 2000; Long et al., 1990; McGehee and Andereck, 2004). Internationally, there is a trend moving towards various forms of tourism which educate the visitor about history, environment and culture (Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs, 1997). Tourists will not venture into areas which are not

safe or secure and lack basic facilities (Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs, 1997). The development of tourism in South Africa will depend upon private investment, underpinned by a government framework which promotes the channelling of benefits to local people through their constructive involvement, together with their participation in sustainable environmental management and commerce (Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

Hernandez Cruz et al. (2005) refer to ecotourism as being a viable option in the search for sustainable production activities in local rural communities that confront a deterioration of their natural resources and a reduction in activities that focus on self-subsistence. Non-consumptive forms of land utilisation, for example, ecotourism ventures, can be a good option for providing wildlife-related benefits to impoverished local communities in Africa (Okello, 2005). Goodwin et al. (1998) refer to ecotourism in relatively poorer countries to be seen as a way of attracting tourists from wealthier countries. Governments see ecotourism as a promising choice in promoting economic development and conservation in protected areas of developing countries (Hernandez Cruz et al., 2005). Kepe (2001b) lists three main issues about ecotourism in rural areas of less industrialised countries. First, there is a strong relationship between ecotourism and biodiversity conservation. Second, ecotourism can be seen as the main benefit of the poor rural neighbours and third foreign tourists and ecotourism are linked.

Hernandez Cruz et al. (2005) argue that very little is known on how rural communities integrate exogenous activities with their traditional productive activities, and the implications of this integration within the community and households that participate in such projects. According to Okello (2005), negative impacts such as exceeding the visitor carrying capacity in relation to both the ecological and aesthetics of an area can threaten both wildlife conservation and tourism appeal. Koch et al. (1998: 809) state that the deliberate marginalisation of many rural areas of South Africa under the political economy of apartheid, share similar characteristics:

- There is substantial underutilisation of the natural resource potential.
- Local communities living adjacent to game reserves have, to date, derived little benefit and are unhappy with the situation.
- The ongoing maintenance and upkeep of the reserves have become prohibitively expensive for the governments concerned.

- The land tenure situation is generally very unclear, with land rights being highly contested in many instances. This will act as a major constraint on private sector investment.
- The potential tourism development areas suffer from poor infrastructure and service provision.
- The institutional capacity to manage the local development process is limited.

Tribe et al. (2000) advise that the increasing demand for tourism has required that rural communities are using tourism and recreation as an economic development tool. Rural areas were not accessible thus (DEAT, 1996: 30) identifies the importance of considering improving the accessibility and infrastructure of rural areas to allow these areas to unleash their tourism potential. However, Walmsley (2003) mentions that tourism is regularly seen as a panacea for the ills of declining rural communities. Butler et al. (1998) observe a change from the passive, low key use of rural areas for recreation to the explosion of tourism as an increasingly active and dominant agent of change and control in rural communities. Nel and Davies (1999) affirm that rural policies are out of touch and are not sympathetic to the rural masses; however, top-down policies are not suitable to the needs and aspirations of the African working class. Kiss (2004) identifies some suitable restrictions on the viability of tourism as a far from ideal entry-level business for rural communities since they have little previous experience, it is competitive as well as demanding, can take years to get off the ground and even people with extensive experience can fail to make a profit.

Keyser (2002: 268) maintains that most activities that shape rural tourism are characterised by:

- closeness to nature;
- quietness;
- absence of crowds;
- a non-mechanised environment;
- personal contact;
- a sense of stability; and
- retention of individual identity.

According to Shaw and Williams (1994), rural areas have participated in an important role in tourism and leisure within the developed world. Tourism planning in rural and isolated areas has an intense bearing on the social organisation and decision-making process in the relevant communities (Wearing and McDonald, 2002). Sharpley (2004) expresses the view that rural tourism is culturally defined by the expectations, perceptions and cultural background of tourists as it is by the activities they participate in within a rural context. However, the tourism industry is one of a number of small players using natural resources as their selling point.

Roberts and Hall (2001: 220) summarised four research themes that represent a new agenda for research that can recognise the responsibility of the demand, supply and developmental role of tourism in the rural countryside.

- *Change* - as rural areas themselves change in respect of social, economic and political structures research should be undertaken into emerging attitudes towards rurality and rural tourism from the observation of both tourists and local communities. There is a need to understand how these changes may alter the relationship between urban and rural places (between different rural places) and the consequences for the development of rural tourism.
- *Transparency* - if there is a more transparent approach to recognising the legitimacy of all forms of tourism and recreational activities in the countryside research can identify suitable policies which can provide and meet the demands of all tourists to the benefit of rural economies and societies.
- *Integration* - there was a need to focus research on the link between rural tourism, rural development policy and different household or business contexts for example farms, village shops and bed and breakfast accommodation providers.
- *Unsustainability* - adherence to the principles of sustainable tourism development may restrict the potential for economic development; in summary sustainable tourism may result in unsustainable development. However, Tribe et al. (2000) suggest that sustainable approaches to tourism development encourage multiple use of resources that do not compromise the ability to meet four purposes: environmental conservation, economic production, achievement of social goals and visitor enjoyment. As a result, future research should be directed not only towards identifying means for optimising tourism's

developmental role in the countryside within environmental parameters, but also more towards the equitable recreational use of the countryside in respect of both production and consumption.

Walmsley (2003) refers to success as not being imposed from outside and that local involvement in the commodification dynamic is necessary. However, little is known about how this process can be most suitably encouraged (Kneafsey, 2001). Tribe et al. (2000) suggest that bringing supplementary income to existing businesses is a solution to stop emigration from rural areas in the future. Walmsley (2003) states that not all locals are likely to be equally enthusiastic or equally capable to participate in the development of tourist initiatives. Tribe et al. (2000) state that tourism can provide additional income to existing rural businesses. It is a period whereby traditional sources of revenue are under pressure; land owners are looking for another method to generate extra revenue thus tourism is bringing life back into rural communities (Tribe et al., 2000). Kiss (2004) suggests that ecotourism in poor rural areas can generate support for conservation amongst communities as long as they see some benefit and it does not intimidate or hinder their key sources of livelihoods. According to the (Rural Development Task Team and the Department of Land Affairs (1997), ecotourism has the following advantages in rural areas:

- Ecotourism projects are more likely to be sustainable because the natural environment is protected.
- Ecotourism projects are on a smaller scale than other forms of tourism which makes it easier for rural communities to participate.

Keyser (2002) explains that rural tourism can offer an array of detailed benefits in rural areas since the first benefit is the general expansion of the South African tourism product. Subsequently, rural tourism supports the agricultural sector to initiate domestic and international tourists towards the agricultural heritage. Furthermore, rural tourism has an important social role in South Africa and is facing the double challenge of decreasing agricultural production and the continuous urbanisation of young people. Rural tourism can provide rural areas with an added way of strengthening their economic structure by attracting a higher number of visitors and visitor expenditure.

However, Tribe et al. (2000: 6) state:

Tourism can generate environmental impacts at a first stage of developing facilities and infrastructures, and at a second stage of usage of those facilities. Usage of facilities can cause several types of environmental impacts: pollution caused by cars driving to the site, damage to the site's, ecological environment, depletion of products and resources and waste disposal. The exploitation of tourism and recreation can cause conflicts to arise with local communities who do not wish to see their countryside change.

In relation to the diversification of the local economy, rural tourism supports local services and maintains farming in marginal areas. Agri-tourism can contribute to the income of farmers as a complementary activity. Sorensen and Epps (1996) emphasise that rural tourism is treated in the same manner as regional development with much of the focus for development being left to local entrepreneurship and initiative. However, DEAT (1996: 13) stresses that the lack of infrastructure in rural areas is rigorously hampering the participation of rural communities within the tourism industry as suppliers of the products and services and as tourists. In addition, rural development projects need to be not only environmentally and economically sound, but also as socially acceptable to those people intended to participate (Nel and Davies, 1999). Across Sub-Saharan Africa, tourism is being supported as a means to rural development (Brown, 1998; Weaver, 1998). In rural areas, the excesses of tourism present quite a contradiction to residents' modest lifestyles (Lepp, 2007). Local communities negatively perceive tourists as excessive consumers of sex, alcohol, food and natural resources (Lepp, 2007). According to (DEAT, 2002: 7), "communities must be empowered to take part in the management of areas so that they can have a say in the distribution of the benefits and the sustainable use of their environment. Efforts are not being made to enable local communities to experience wildlife in the parks".

Hulme and Murphree (2001) and Muruthi (2005) maintain that wildlife conservation imposes significant costs on these people through crop damage, livestock predation and human deaths, and restriction of access to natural resources. Ndeng'e et al. (2003) state that the exclusion of rural communities in relation to conservation areas is of concern since most people who live in these areas are generally poor and depend on natural resources for their livelihoods. Additionally, Mulholland and Eagles (2002) state that with little or no corresponding benefits this situation compromises people's livelihoods and reduces their willingness to support

conservation efforts. Sonam et al. (2006) indicate that the perception among some people still lingers that conservation initiatives are at conflict with the needs of local communities.

Chikwanha-Dzenga (1999) advises that rural poverty is to a large extent an outcome of a number of interrelated forces which hamper the success of any single action programme. Holland et al. (1998) and McKercher and Robbins (1998) claim that the increased demand for ecotourism has resulted in a large number of small, local businesses catering to ecotourists' needs, frequently run by their owners. Wall (1997) refers to these local suppliers as a means to reaching the economic and social benefits associated with ecotourism and are contributing to rural development.

2.9.1 Involving the community

The community approach to tourism has been identified as a means to empower communities and afford them opportunities to break free from the destructive influences of mass tourism which developed after the Second World War with profit as its crucial underlying principle (Timothy, 2002). Currently, there is a trend in community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) initiatives which follow a development discourse away from prescriptive top-down policies and practices towards grassroots community development and local natural resource management (Twyman, 2000). Tsing et al. (1999) refer to CBNRM initiatives involving and integrating communities in management processes within structured policy framework with the ultimate aim of achieving social justice together with environmental sustainability. Garrod (2003: 36) states:

Top-down approaches typically fail to achieve a truly sustainable end result because they do not give local community sufficient opportunity or incentive to make these changes successfully. Developing a bottom-up plan and management, on the other hand, can help to bring about the necessary changes in the attitudes and actions of local stakeholders. Proponents of this view argue that it is unlikely that presently unsustainable practices can be substantially reduced without major changes taking place in the economic and social situation facing the local community.

According to Garrod (2003), the existing literature dealing with the planning and management of ecotourism would seem rather vague on the issue of local participation and much of the literature either ignores or downplays this issue (Garrod, 2003). However, Kiss (2004) advises that Community-Based Ecotourism (CBET) has become a popular tool for biodiversity conservation,

based on the principle that biodiversity must pay for itself by generating economic benefits, especially for local people. CBET projects claim success in terms of motivating communities to reduce their exploitation of wild plants and animal species, to help control poaching or to set aside a portion of farming or grazing land as conservation areas (Kiss, 2004). Furthermore, Scheyvens (1999) argues that ecotourism ventures should only be considered a success if local communities have some measure of control and share equitably in the benefits. Brown and Harris (2005) state that bottom-up planning includes more democratic ideology than top-down planning because the public is considered instrumental to the process.

In the past local community participation in the decision-making process of tourism development has regularly been lacking (Garrod, 2003). Community involvement in tourism decision-making enables the community's views and interests to be represented seeing as some community members will feel let down if issues concerning them are not addressed (Youell, 1998). Kiss (2004) states that there are many instances of projects that produce revenues for local communities and improve local attitudes towards conservation, although the contribution of CBET to conservation and local economic development is restricted by factors such as small areas and few people involved, limited earnings, weak linkages between biodiversity gains and commercial success as well as the competitive and specialised nature of the tourism industry. Scheyvens (1999) declares that the term CBET should be reserved for those ventures based on a high degree of community control where communities command a large proportion of the benefits rather than being controlled by expatriates. Timothy (2002) advocates that CBET is a more sustainable form of development than conservative mass tourism since it allows host communities to break away from the hegemonic grasp of tour operators and the oligopoly of wealthy elites at the national level. Kiss (2004) warns that many CBET projects that are quoted as success stories actually involve little change in existing local land and resource-use practices, provide only a modest supplement to local livelihoods and remain dependent on external support for long periods, if not indefinitely.

Cater (1994) emphasises that there is a need for local community involvement in planning and managing ecotourism ventures, especially in the context of developing countries. To a great extent public support increases the chances that plans will be implemented. Thus, involving the public early in the decision-making process prevents ignorance-caused conflicts (Brown and

Harris, 2005). Timothy (2002) suggests that the biggest barrier to CBT is the powerful traditional views of power concentration that are present in many developing countries. Garrod (2003) contends that local communities have tended to be observed simply as the beneficiaries of tourism development, rather than as essential partners in the process of achieving such development. Timothy (2002) mentions that most developing nations and microstates lack substantial amounts of wealth and political power which makes them prone to decision-making that is completely beyond their control. Nevertheless, Scheyvens (2002) suggests that this does not mean that communities have no power. In fact they do, since many communities own land in advantageous locations. However, in general communities are not experienced in the business sector nor as knowledgeable about legal and financial processes as are other tourism stakeholders.

2.10 Participation in decision-making

Garrod (2003) recognises that the participatory planning approach makes certain that there is a need not only to ensure that local stakeholders become beneficiaries of tourism development as well as to integrate them fully into the relevant planning and management processes. Sproule (1996) raises the issue of participation since it empowers people to take part in the decision-making process. In many cases it is only those who are politically connected or affluent who are involved in the control and management of the tourism venture (Sproule, 1996).

Timothy (2002) suggests that stakeholder involvement should include lower-level governments since they are by and large ignored in the tourism development literature. Community development initiatives have a better chance of being accepted by locals if developers begin to acknowledge that diverse groups have different interests depending on their role in, affinity within, and utilisation of the community (Fennell, 2003). In many cases communities are not consulted before a protected area is created and are not included in key decision-making processes (Garcia-Frapolli et al., 2009). Johannson and Diamantis (2004) point out that before an ecotourism lodge is established the locals need to be made aware of what impacts are likely to be derived from having tourists coming to the area, both in positive and negative terms and how to ensure a sustainable future for the local population in respect of natural resources, culture and traditional values.

Timothy (2002) affirms that participation in decision-making leads to community members determining their own goals for development and having a significant voice in the organisation and administration of tourism. Communities often perceive external conservation initiatives as a reminiscence of a previous imperial domination era and as a concern of elites who are insensitive to rural people's livelihoods (Berkes, 2004; Wilshusen et al., 2002). In many cases communities are not consulted before a protected area is created and are not included in key decision-making processes. Garrod (2003: 37) emphasises that:

The participatory planning approach implies recognition of the need not only to ensure that local stakeholders become beneficiaries of tourism development but also to integrate them fully into the relevant planning and management processes. This is particularly important in the context of ecotourism, where genuine sustainability can only truly be aspired to with the effective participation of all the stakeholders involved. The integrity of the natural resource base is fundamental to the aspirations of sustainable ecotourism development, and this dependence needs to be recognised by all of those whose activities have impacts on these resources. The same is true of the interdependence of stakeholders because of their reliance on a common resource base. As a result, the impacts of one stakeholder group on the natural environment can have important implications for the sustainability of the activities of other stakeholder groups.

Thus, community ecotourism initiatives need to be founded on the belief of trust and transparency (Fennell, 2003). Actions and decisions need to be communicated through the use of bulletin boards and visual media for those community members who cannot read. Moreover, the relative lack of proper training among tourism officials can be seen as a barrier to allowing community input into the process (Timothy, 2002). Sproule (1996) asserts that issues dealing with finances are critical elements in dividing a community. Opportunities for local ownership are not always equally accessible to the entire population and these are some examples such as the distance of residence from key tourist sites, lack of education, social status and family connection which may contribute to this (Timothy, 2002).

In addition, Scheyvens (2002) states that a crucial issue dealing with active participation in tourism is community control. This means that communities should have the power to decide whether or not tourism is an appropriate development option and in what form it should be pursued. Drake (1991: 149) offers a model of local participation in the development of ecotourism projects:

- *Phase 1:* Determine the role of local participation in the project. This consists of an assessment of how local people can assist in setting goals through efficiency, increasing project effectiveness, building beneficiary capacity and sharing project costs.
- *Phase 2:* Choose a research team. The team should include a broad multidisciplinary approach and contain people in the social sciences and those within the media.
- *Phase 3:* Conduct preliminary studies. Political, economic and social conditions of the community should be studied in the context of the environment from existing documents as well as survey-related work. Identification and assessment of the following is essential: needs, key local leaders, media, the community's commitment to the project, intersectoral involvement, traditional uses of the land, the type of people interested in the project and why, the role of women, who will manage and finance the project, land ownership and cultural values.
- *Phase 4:* Determine the level of local involvement. Local involvement occurs along a continuum from low-intensity to high intensity involvement. This must be determined additionally to when the involvement is to occur. There may be cases where government is not helpful of local government, intermediaries such as NGOs who can be used to assist local participation.
- *Phase 5:* Determine an appropriate participation mechanism. This is affected by the level of intensity of the participation, the nature of existing institutions such as government, NGOs, citizens' group and the characteristics of the local people. This may include information sharing and consultation which usually takes the form of a citizen advisory committee with representatives from many groups within the community.
- *Phase 6:* Initiating dialogue and educational efforts. The use of the press is important in this phase as a means by which to build consensus through public awareness. Key community representatives can be used in this process. The ecotourism team should explain the goals and objectives of the project, how the project will affect the community, the values of the area, any history of threats and the benefits of the project.
- *Phase 7:* Collective decision-making. This is a critical stage that synthesises all research and information from the local population. The ecotourism project team present the findings of their research to the community, together with an action plan.

- *Phase 8:* Development of an action plan and implementation scheme. In this phase, the team and community develop an action plan for implementing solutions to identified problems. For instance, if members of the community express the need to increase the community's standard of living, the team may act in response to purchasing agricultural produce from local people at market rates or on a contractual basis.
- *Phase 9:* Monitoring and evaluation which is often neglected may occur frequently and over the long term.

2.10.1 The need for leadership

A fundamental principle underlying the process of community development is the element of leadership (Fennell, 2003; Garrod, 2003). Garrod (2003) suggests that the development of ecotourism involves a number of stakeholders who will inevitably hold different views and aspirations about how the activity could and should be developed in their local area. Prideaux (2002) suggests that to maximise leadership potential of the participatory planning, the needs of the local community leaders who are willing and able to represent the interests of their particular stakeholders. Garrod (2003) states that the more the local community leaders are involved, the more committed they are to the participatory planning process, the more likely it is that the group will recognise and address the critical issues.

2.10.2 Empowering the local community

Scheyvens (1999) refers to four dimensions of empowerment which can be categorised as economic, social, psychological and political which are used in a multidimensional nature of development. Garrod (2003) refers to economic empowerment as the local community's ability to make and take opportunities for economic development through the development of ecotourism. Timothy (2002) suggests that economic empowerment is essential because it provides opportunities for residents and entire communities to benefit financially from tourism. Empowerment of the local community should be the crucial objective of ecotourism since it will assist in the enhancing of the local community in the planning and management process, and in turn, this will eventually enhance the potential for sustainable ecotourism to be developed in the local area concerned (Garrod, 2003).

Scheyvens (2002) affirms that when taking into consideration whether or not a community has been economically empowered by a tourism venture, it is vital to consider opportunities which have arisen in respect of both formal and informal sector employment and business opportunities. Moreover, Garrod (2003) states that a community that is economically empowered is one where incomes are being improved and lasting employment is generated, where the economic benefits of ecotourism development are shared equitably among the community as a whole, and where the local community maintains access rights to the community's resource base. Frequently elites manage to secure most of the economic benefits arising from tourism development in a community and it is difficult for some groups such as women and youth to benefit from such economic opportunities (Scheyvens, 2002).

Beyond economic dynamics, psychological empowerment is significant in developing self-esteem and pride in local cultures, traditional knowledge and natural resources (Timothy, 2002). Garrod (2003) suggests that a community that is psychologically empowered is one where local people are comfortable with the role played by ecotourism in their community, and positive about its potential to continue to generate benefits in the future. Scheyvens (2002) suggests that tourism initiatives which respect and show interest in issues pertaining to traditional culture can be empowering for local people. In this regard, ecotourism is perceived as being sensitive to local norms and is respectful of local traditions, thus empowering local people to contribute to the development of ecotourism (Garrod, 2003).

Social empowerment refers to the ability of the local community to establish the social impacts of ecotourism development. Social empowerment will result in ecotourism making a contribution to the social cohesion and integrity of the local community, rather than detracting from it (Garrod, 2003). Scheyvens (2002) refers to an empowered community as a strong community group comprising of youth and women who actively participate in community meetings. Garrod (2003) contends that social empowerment is most likely to be found in those communities where part of the net returns from ecotourism are recycled back into the local community in the form of investment in local infrastructure or the funding of social projects. Social empowerment assists in maintaining a community's social stability and has the power to lead to cooperation and enhanced schemes, for example, education and health (Timothy, 2002).

Political empowerment refers to the ability of the local community to convey their apprehensions and for those concerns to have an actual impact on the direction, format and speed of ecotourism development (Garrod, 2003). Political empowerment is inclusive of representational democracy wherein residents can influence and raise concerns about development initiatives (Timothy, 2002). The local community should be involved in monitoring and evaluating tourism projects over time. Diverse interest groups within a community, including women and youth, need to be represented on community and broader decision-making bodies (Scheyvens, 2002). Political empowerment is best attained when power is decentralised from the national to local level (Garrod, 2003).

Fennell (2003) suggests that education must play a vital role in the empowerment process such as providing the necessary means to enable people to make informed choices. Fennell (1999) argues that experiential education and training are important in enabling local communities to develop ecotourism so that it is not just another commodified product where benefits and natural resources are abused. For the process of learning to be beneficial it has to include the local community (Desai, 2005). Timothy (2002) maintains that officials must try to build public awareness, especially in regions of the world where economic and social circumstances have kept locals from having experiences as travellers of tourism, for example, and through media campaigns, education courses for residents involved in tourism formally and informally.

2.10.3 Social Capital

Social capital has been viewed as a missing link in development and has become a focal point for policy, practice and research in recent years (Jones, 2005). However, social inequalities are seldom confronted in either social capital theory or policy and there is an inherent affinity to idealise communities which are treated as existing without structured power relations and conflict (Harriss and De Renzio, 1997; Murphy, 2002). According to Pretty and Ward (2001), when social capital is entrenched within rural participatory communities equitable and sustainable solutions are derived to local development problems. Fennell (2003) suggests that ecotourism may be more efficiently operationalised through the shared information, knowledge and interconnectedness between different stakeholders liable for tourism development. Trust and reciprocity lubricate cooperation through reducing transaction costs since people no longer have

to invest in monitoring the behaviour of others, resulting in the building of confidence to move ahead in collective or group activities (Jones, 2005).

2.11 Partnerships

According to Uhlik (1995: 14), a partnership can be defined as an on-going arrangement between two or more parties based upon fulfilling particularly identified mutual needs. Clements et al. (1993) suggest that since tourism is starting to be recognised as a community development tool, tourism has to be sensitive to the requirements of many stakeholder groups, inclusive of tourism providers such as hotels and public providers, for example, recreation and park providers and residents. Private-community partnerships and joint ventures are very trendy among CBET proponents (Kiss, 2004).

According to Sproule (1996), partnerships that are developed for ecotourism must fit into the systems that have been developed at regional and national levels. Local people had little capacity to impose accountability on regional officials due to top-down governing process, weak inter-societal interactions and a conditioned recognition of state authority (Caffyn and Jobbins, 2003). Scheyvens (2002) suggests that governments can play an important role in providing or coordinating suitable training to skill local people who are engaging in tourism enterprises. As Baum (2007) suggests that people are a critical dimension in relation to the successful delivery of tourism services. For tourism enterprises to be successful it has to be about people - how they are recruited, how they are managed, how they are valued and rewarded and how they are supported through a process of continuous learning and career development (Failte Ireland, 2005). However, the downward pressures on the overall cost of tourism (such as low cost airlines, aggressive tour operators, electronic distribution and deregulation) encourages the use of low cost labour and may reduce expectations of service and product quality (Baum, 2007).

A partnership agreement between the community and one or more of the other stakeholders may regularly be more suitable than a community attempting to do everything entirely with its own human, physical and financial resources (Naguran, 1999). Coordination is essential to avoid duplication of activity between various government tourism bodies and the private sector thus leading to efficient regional tourism policy (Priskin, 2003). Scheyvens (2002) warns that the state must face up to the responsibilities rather than assuming that the private sector will act in an

ethical manner or that the voluntary sector will make certain that local level participation is encouraged.

The private sector partner is aimed at bringing capital, business and marketing know-how and a client base; the community partner usually brings land, labour and local knowledge (Kiss, 2004).

Fennell (2003: 161) recommends potential partnerships with:

- organisations within the established tourism industry especially tour operators;
- the government tourism bureau and natural resource agencies, particularly the park service;
- NGOs, particularly those involved with environmental issues, small business management and traditional community development;
- universities and other research organisations;
- other communities especially those with a history of tourism and also those that are just beginning; and
- other international organisations, public and private funding institutions, national cultural committees and many others; the tourism industry literature is full with instances of stakeholder groups that have conventionally been at odds.

According to Fennell (2003), countries such as Canada, United States and Australia have experienced incompatibility between neighbouring communities and the Parks. In addition, McNeely (1993: 253) provides ten principles in order to help the co-operative efforts of these stakeholder groups:

- Build on the foundation of local culture.
- Give responsibility to local people.
- Consider returning ownership of at least some protected areas to indigenous people.
- Hire local people.
- Link government development programmes with protected areas.
- Give priority to small-scale local development.
- Involve local people in preparing management plans.
- Have the courage to enforce restrictions.
- Build conservation into the evolving new national cultures.

- Support diversity as a value.

According to Langholz (1996), one of the most important links between private Parks and adjacent communities is the contribution towards job creation. Private Parks can offer temporary or full time employment to the members of the communities living near and around the private Parks (Langholz, 1996).

2.12 Conclusion

The review of the literature demonstrates the inextricable relationship between ecotourism and its varied stakeholders. Nonetheless, an informed stakeholder who is involved from the very beginning of ecotourism initiatives will try to minimise the social, economic and environmental impacts related with ecotourism. Issues dealing with sustainability, social, environmental and economic impacts, rural development, community issues and cooperation are all essential to achieving the required outcomes of promoting sustainable and responsible ecotourism.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the theoretical foundation for examining ecotourism in relation to the political ecology and stakeholder approach in both the respective private Parks in South Africa. The political ecology perspective can be used to understand the social, economic as well as environmental dimensions of ecotourism with respect to biodiversity and sustainable development. In this chapter the aspects under consideration are: a paradigm shift which examines the possibility that the dominant scientific paradigm and its associated environmental perspectives are in the process of being modified or replaced by a more environmentally sensitive green paradigm that emphasises the concept of sustainable development, theorising tourism, restructuring space, globalisation and tourism, sustainability and global change, the political economy perspective, the political ecology perspective and the stakeholder perspective.

3.2 Paradigm shift

According to Weaver and Lawton (2000), a paradigm is the entire collection of beliefs, assumptions and values that motivate the way in which a society interprets reality at a given point of time or can also be described as a worldview or cosmology. A paradigm shift is likely to occur when the existing paradigm is met with contradictions or anomalies in the real world that it finds difficult to explain or accommodate (Kuhn, 1962). Furthermore, due to this crisis, one or more alternative paradigms may emerge (Weaver and Lawton, 2000). The new dominant paradigm includes compatible aspects of the old paradigm and may even emerge as a combination between the old paradigms and as well as opposing worldviews that may initially arise (Weaver and Lawton, 2000).

Hall and Page (2009) maintain that there is more than one paradigmatic approach towards the geography of tourism and tourism management. Geography has as its central concerns a focal point on place, space and environment (Hall and Page, 2009). A great deal of the interest by geographers in tourism and the wider field of leisure studies can be traced or dated to an interest in tourism and recreation by geographers that mirrors the pre-1945 development of the discipline

and the post-war boom in many countries as a subject of study in Universities and other institutes of higher education (Hall and Page, 2006; McMurray, 1954; Wolfe, 1964). Despite the fact that the field has some long established theoretical and applied interests a number of substantial new developments and research foci have emerged recently, leading to the notion of tourism geographies (Hall and Page, 2009).

Holden (2005) points out that the use of an alternative paradigm is centred upon people and the natural environment. The focus here is on democracy and planning from the bottom-up rather than the top-down (Holden, 2005). Hall and Page (1996) expressed concern that there is no widely accepted paradigm that serves as a guide to research in tourism. This could be due to the tourism industry being complex and fragmented, since it is linked with many sectors of the economy (Butler, 1994; Hall et al., 1997). For example, one of the growing trends for geographers with doctorates in tourism, at least in Anglo-American geography, is for them to migrate to teach and research tourism in business schools with many focusing on business issues yet the environment and place remain important themes (Hall and Page, 2009).

3.3 Theorising tourism

Mowforth and Munt (1998) recognise that tourism can be seen as a focal lens through which broader considerations must be accounted for and verifies the multidisciplinary foundation upon which tourism research is built as the only way of comprehending tourism. Thus, Tribe (1997) contends that tourism can be described as interdisciplinary, multidisciplinary and one should be conscious of its youthfulness. Attempts to develop tourism as a discipline should be abandoned because the diversity of the fields should be cherished (Tribe, 1997). In a field such as tourism geography, pressures to conduct industry related research are likely to be substantial given the interpretation of some tourism academics that their role is to undertake research for the tourism (Hall and Page, 2009).

Mitchell (2002) suggests that a multidisciplinary approach attempts to take advantage of the expertise of specialists in many disciplines. As a result, the researcher will have a well-rounded argument. Several geography organisations also have specialist groups for tourism as a focal point often in conjunction with leisure and recreation (Hall and Page, 2009). Leisure and recreation study have been historically significant in respect of the development of tourism

geography (Butler, 2004). However, as a result of increasing mobility in society the distinction between recreation and tourism is increasingly blurred (Hall, 2005). Johnston and Sidaway (2004) state that tourism geography usually only gets passing recognition in some of the disciplinary surveys of geography as well as reviews in geography journals (Gibson, 2008).

According to Hall and Page (2009: 11), “the geography of tourism is therefore at a crossroads”. A number of research areas exist within the subject of geography which depicts it at its strongest, for example, human mobility, crisis management, conservation and bio-security, destination planning and management, regional development, international business, poverty reduction and PPT, and global environmental change (Hall and Page, 2009). Mowforth and Munt (1998: 3) also state:

As a personal activity, tourism is practiced by a diverse range of the population; as an industry, it is multi-sectoral; and as a means of economic and cultural exchange, it has many facets and forms. Any comprehensive analysis of the field must therefore be multidisciplinary.

It is inappropriate to talk of tourism geography even though there are linkages of concepts of space, place and environment given that there is not a single approach to tourism (Hall and Page, 2009). As a substitute for institutional geographical collectivities there exists a range of tourism geographies marked by differences not only in subject but also in philosophy, method, scale and funding (Hall and Page, 2009).

With regard to sustainable development a multidisciplinary approach will involve an ecologist, economist and sociologist each posing the questions judged to be important in their discipline, then conducting separate analyses, drawing upon the frameworks, perspectives, concepts and methods of their respective disciplines (Mitchell, 2002). Experts would work on their own compiling separate reports; one or more individuals would use the information from the reports which would be more detailed than from any one discipline. According to White et al. (2009), multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary tools have been developed to aid decision-making in natural resource conflicts. The importance of interdisciplinary methods in permitting the integration of cultural and biophysical aspects into conflict management is becoming increasingly recognised (Clark et al., 1996).

Meethan (2001) raises some concerns about accepting diversity such as the risk of falling into a form of relativism, why some theories are diverse from others without attempting to obtain the utility they may or may not contain under what conditions they can be applied, why some theories offer better explanations than others and why some should be rejected. A cautionary approach should also be adopted to the complacent attitude of accommodating diversity rather than attempting to account for it (Meethan, 2001). Meethan (2001) argues that the uncritical adoption of different disciplinary or analytical approaches as well as methodologies could result in the weaknesses of each discipline, not the strengths forming together. In addition, Meethan (2001) stresses that diversity needs to be accounted for, to be argued about, to be the subject of enquiry and not uncritically accepted as a given or desirable state of affairs. O’Riordan (1993) supports interdisciplinary perspectives which are crucial when recognising that issues such as social and environmental change are multi-causal and demand attention from numerous disciplines. According to Hall and Page (2009: 11):

Whilst geographers will clearly not have monopoly on the way tourism develops as a subject in the next five to ten years, their continued role is vital, so that the subject embraces many of the contemporary debates and research agendas facing tourism not only at the level of the firm and its economic concerns but some of the broader social and environmental challenges. Tourism and the communities that depend on it clearly face an uncertain future given the issues of global security, environmental change and energy supply.

3.4 Restructuring space

With the downturn in industrial manufacturing across the developed economies which began in the 1970s, as well as a sectoral shift into the service economy, together with the globalisation of information technology, new forms of spatial organisation began to emerge which gave rise to new forms of tourist space (Meethan, 2001). In addition, Meethan (2001) states that a variety of disciplines were concluding that the development of spatial forms could not be separated from social aspects and an analysis of society entails consideration of the spatial component. Geographers were thinking of space in respect of concepts such as society and culture, and sociologists and anthropologists were beginning to pay heed to the importance of space in social relationships (Meethan, 2001).

South Africa has welcomed the return to democracy and in 1995 established Spatial Development Initiatives (SDI) (Sihlongonyane, 2006). The SDI concept, for example, involves targeted interventions by central government for assisting in unlocking the economic potential and facilitates' new investment and employment opportunities in a localised area or region (Jourdan, 1998). Rogerson (1998) has made an observation that the concept of SDIs is uniquely South African in origin and it is a concept that is not formally rooted in any international best-practice experience. SDIs as a concept must be contested as they have caricatured intricate and unstable relationships between capital, space and the State (Sihlongonyane, 2006). Jourdan (1998) asserts that SDIs support the prioritisation of transformation of the overprotected South African economy that suffered from the classic symptoms of import substitution worldwide into a globally competitive one. SDIs are part of the spatial planning process of creating nodes and networks in linking the rich and poor (Sihlongonyane, 2006). SDIs are a means of promoting local economic development through the concentration of public and private investment (Bourgouin, 2002). SDIs thus are a part of the broader objective of enforcing social responsibility in empowering and promoting small businesses (Sihlongonyane, 2006). Sihlongonyane (2006) states that within the post-apartheid framework of local economic development and planning, SDIs are used as a mechanism for redressing the apartheid space economy.

When looking at community involvement in the cases studies of the Maputo Corridor and the Wild Coast SDIs, Mitchell (1998) and Kepe (2001a) observed inconsistencies in respect of many local communities who were directly affected by the development having very little information about the projects. As a result, the undertaking of these projects may risk corralling investment in nodes and roads that do not have much to do with the surrounding communities (Sihlongonyane, 2006).

Cousins and Kepe (2004) state that in South Africa the distinction between decentralisation and privatisation is presently blurred given the dominance of neoliberal approaches to economic policy making. Rogerson (2006) advises that South Africa is a laboratory for the testing and development of new approaches towards tourism and the planning of local economic development.

3.5 Globalisation and tourism

Meethan (2001) states that globalisation can be characterised as the interconnectivity among economic, social and cultural aspects that now exists across national boundaries and is impinging upon the daily lives of people around the world. Globalisation has played and continues to play a key role in shaping macro-economic policies and decision-making (Bob et al., 2008). Globalisation in tourism is not a new concern and the tourism industry has been undergoing an internalisation process for decades (Hjalager, 2007). Globalisation as a concept can be used to analyse tourism since tourism is growing at an exponential rate (Meethan, 2001). Amin and Thrift (1994) assert that there is no one theory of globalisation rather concerns which incorporates the withering away of the nation State, the rise of transnational corporations, and the distribution of new technologies and electronic media. The increased awareness of the relationship between tourism and migration within the context of contemporary globalisation, transnationalism and mobility is one of the strongest theoretical and empirical contributions of tourism geographers since the late 1990s (Hall and Page, 2009). Hall (1992: 299) states that globalisation:

... is a concept that seeks to encapsulate processes operating on a global scale. It refers to the ever-tightening network of connections which cut across national boundaries, integrating communities in new space-time combinations.

Globalisation is not the aggregate of international or transnational connections between places but implies a different order of relationships structured across space and time (Meethan, 2001). The concept of globalisation as not ignoring the State but rather incorporates the State as an essential component in terms of political economy and investment on an international setting (Gordon, 1999; Scholte, 1996; Sklair, 1994).

Meethan (2001) suggest that people are conceptualising economic and social relations on a global level in respect to issues such as social justice, human rights and environmental issues which encroach on the current patterns of tourism supply and demand. Katerere (2000) stresses that globalisation is transforming traditional institutions and communities faster than they can adapt and modernise. If not managed, globalisation threatens to marginalise millions, dismantle and degrade the commons, denigrate cultures and their worth (Katerere, 2000). Bob et al. (2008) state that the problems of access to natural resources, lack of protection of property rights, bias in

decision-making and socio-economic relations of production are key issues impacted by globalisation and centralisation of natural resources. The extraction and concentration of natural resources negatively impacts on the choices of diverse stakeholders within communities (Bob et al., 2008).

Mowforth and Munt (1998) refer to globalisation as being uneven since most accounts of globalisation are by Westerners, especially about Western globalisation due to the expansion of Western capitalism. This aspect deals with the issues of power at a global level. The new economic environment has created a new condition with which Third World countries must comply (Sihlongonyane, 2006). Sihlongonyane (2006) states that globalisation in many developing countries is observed with apprehension, generating high uncertainties to its impact on future growth and development prospects.

Meethan (2001) further elaborates that in terms of tourism it is important to understand that these global flows of information, capital, people and cultures are realised especially in relation to socio-spatial forms for the development of new networks of places and the materialisation of new spaces of consumption. With an acceptance of the inevitability of globalisation has come the realisation of the importance of localisation, tourism is place-specific and should be considered at the destination whether resort or island level to a certain extent than at national level (Cole and Razak, 2009). Tourism is also concerned with the local, the specific nature of places, people and cultures (Meethan, 2001). Meethan (2001: 35) is of the view that globalisation engages “increasing interconnectivity, increasing economic depth and the extension of commodity relations which may show that the local is therefore being subsumed into a broader economic framework”.

Meethan (2001) refers to influences which are not only the result of outside changes, but also internal pressure for change which may not have anything to do with tourism rather involving an interplay of factors, for example, ethnicity, gender, and socio-economic status as well as modernisers and traditionalists. New forms of political, economic, social and cultural organisations are emerging, especially in the context of a globalised political economy (Meethan, 2001). Oakes (1993) argues that people do not simply respond to the logic of the global political economy, they engage with it and act upon it.

According to Cook et al. (1997), for developing countries, especially in sub-Saharan Africa, the differing perspectives undoubtedly shows that globalisation leads to a widening of existing neo-colonial international disparities and an additional marginalisation of the majority of developing countries' role in the world economy. Thus, fostering an unregulated capitalist model of spatial development on South Africa in the phase of immense economic inequalities may put the country at risk (Sihlongonyane, 2006). The severity of spatial development is prone to benefit the colonial mainline White institutions and leave the Black majority destitute seeing as the nature of austerity policies are such that inequality increases as growth takes off (Streak, 2004). Sihlongonyane (2006) raises the question that developing countries such as South Africa might lose even more for its poor section of society and maintain them in a permanent position of dependency. This dependency syndrome as a result has little to do with space and more with issues dealing with human development (Sihlongonyane, 2006).

3.6 Sustainability and tourism

The concepts of sustainability and tourism were discussed in the literature review. This section underscores some of the issues raised and included discussions relevant to the conceptual framework proposed for this study. The concept of sustainable development originated from the series of reports and conferences that have dealt with the issues of global inequalities and future environmental disaster over the last three decades (Johnston, 1996). Weaver and Lawton (2000) refer to the term sustainability being introduced in the 1980s. It was the release of the Brundtland Report (Our Common Future) in 1987 that launched this idea into the forefront of environmental debate. The WECD (1987: 8), Our Common Future (the Brundtland Report) was submitted to the United Nations in 1987 and the following definition of sustainable development as development that “meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs” was proposed.

Important to the concept of sustainable development is the fundamental view that no generation should deplete the Earth's resources thus restricting the life chances of future generations (Johnston, 1996). This implies that the environment should not be allowed to deteriorate. Competition for finite resources, divergent beliefs and institutional factors can trigger and exacerbate conflicts over natural resources (Germain and Floyd, 1999; Hellstrom, 2001; Homer-Dixon, 1994). Environmental conflicts can escalate into violence, for instance over water or

forest resources (Alston et al., 2000). However, they emerge as non-violent, yet destructive, issues that impede development, social equality and conservation (Treves and Karanth, 2003; Woodroffe et al., 2005). Bob and Moodley (2003) maintain that the impact of global forces and processes on the natural resource base in developing countries has a profound impact on those households whose livelihoods are dependent on access to natural resources.

According to Bennett et al. (2001), conflicts in terms of biodiversity arise when the interests of two or more parties towards some aspect of biodiversity compete and whereby at least one of the parties is perceived to claim its interests at the expense of another party's interests. In reality biodiversity conflict management has benefited from borrowing approaches from other fields such as models of social conflict and public participation (Emerson et al., 2003). However, the science of biodiversity conflict management has struggled to develop a conceptual debate of its own (White et al., 2009). In developing countries, conflicts around the management of renewable natural resources are often concentrated on through case-specific approaches embedded within international sustainable development models (Nepal and Weber, 1995; Warner, 2000). However, these approaches differ substantially, each has arisen in response to local drivers and none of these approaches provides a theoretical underpinning that allows transfers across contexts (White et al., 2009).

Mowforth and Munt (1998) refer to protagonists of the report which point out that the essential principles of intra-generational and inter-generational equity has encouraged governments to endorse the concept of sustainability. However, critics argue that this definition contains inbuilt assumptions about the need for sustained expansion of the world economy and that it failed to emphasise the radical changes in lifestyles and society that would be required to overcome the problems inherent in the western model of development (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). Holden (2005) refers to a major issue of sustainable development that relies on what are the ultimate goals, can they be agreed among stakeholders and how can they be achieved? This will lead to ultimately a range of political opinions inclusive of those who anticipate it and can be achieved within the paradigm of neoliberalism to a further radical perspective which will demand a complete restructuring of society such as addressing the root causes of non-sustainability including the distribution of power and wealth, the roles of transnational corporations, class-based politics and gender inequalities (Holden, 2005).

Mullins (2004) elaborates on the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development which was held in 1992 in Rio de Janeiro. Mullins (2004) asserts that the conference reflects on the world's increasing attention to issues of sustainability of the environment and this event signified that the understanding of human-environment interactions could not be constrained by nation State borders. Additionally, the conference recognised that the politics of the environment is highly influenced by local social and cultural structures.

Mowforth and Munt (1998) describe an important point about the word sustainability since it can be defined, interpreted and imagined differently among individuals, organisations and social groups. For instance, transnational corporations may interpret sustainability by enticing customers to purchase their products on the basis of their concern for the environment whereas communities and activists claim to resist the destruction of the countryside (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). Mowforth and Munt (1998: 24) argue that "sustainability is a contested concept, a concept that is socially constructed and reflects the interest of those involved". Thus, sustainability is a concept embedded in a range of power dynamics. The majority of the proposals for sustainable development are geared towards market forces and are likely to benefit the residents of the world's core and not the masses who live in the periphery (Johnston, 1996).

Johnston (1996) suggests that sustainable development is linked to the global agenda and challenges the status quo. As a result, Mowforth and Munt (1998: 25) state that the critical questions must remain:

Who defines what sustainability is? How is it to be achieved? Who has ownership of its representation and meaning? It will be argued that, for the greater part, the answers to these questions are found in the First World: in business, governments, transnational institutions, scholars, environmentalists and new socio-environmental organisations.

Moreover, Mowforth and Munt (1998) and Weaver and Lawton (2000) assert that the term sustainability can be used for greenwashing purposes which is used to convey an impression of environmental responsibility for a product or business that does not deserve the reputation. Johnston (1996) asserts that the concept of sustainable development is not a feasible strategy since the creation of environmental problems is a necessary outcome of the dominant mode of

production and only institutions which promote sustainable development are often in existence to promote the interests of those who benefit most from the status quo.

Lanfant and Graburn (1992) mention that many Third World governments respond positively to tourism development since it has brought access to foreign currency, investment potential, planning, technology, infrastructure and prestige in exchange for resources such as sun, sea, sand, exotic cultures, beautiful environments and wildlife. From the 1960s the World Bank has encouraged Third World countries, especially those with large foreign debts, to attract foreign investment in tourism by providing fiscal concessions and privileges (Pleurmarom, 1994). When looking at alternative and sustainable development during the planning process emphasis is placed upon indigenous theories of development as they incorporate local conditions and knowledge systems rather than western models of development (Holden, 2005).

When sustainability is applied to tourism it is regarded as tourism managed in such a manner that it does not exceed the environmental, social, cultural or economic carrying capacity of a given destination (Weaver and Lawton, 2000). The definition of sustainable tourism should incorporate the need for operators to be financially sustainable, since tourism that is not financially viable will not survive for long, no matter how feasible it may be from an environmental or socio-cultural perspective (Weaver and Lawton, 2000).

Holden (2005) refers to a major issue of sustainable development that relies on what are the ultimate goals, can they be agreed among stakeholders and how can they be achieved? This will lead to ultimately a range of political opinions inclusive of those who anticipate it and can be achieved within the paradigm of neoliberalism to a further radical perspective which will demand a complete restructuring of society such as addressing the root causes of non-sustainability including the distribution of power and wealth, the roles of transnational corporations, class-based politics and gender inequalities (Holden, 2005). The concept of sustainability has been applied in the tourism sector in various ways such as at both national and domestic levels as well as in the public, private and voluntary sectors (Holden, 2005). The massive growth potential of tourism globally offers opportunities to many remote places but also poses tremendous challenges (Cole and Razak, 2009). Poon (1989) argued that the tourism industry is in a crisis, a crisis of change and uncertainty; a crisis brought on by the fast changing

nature of the tourism industry itself. Attempts were made in the last decade of the twentieth century to increase efforts by some private-sector tourism organisations to follow more sustainable practices (Holden, 2005). However, the extent to which there is a genuine concern for the environment or a ploy to attract more customers and an attempt to keep within the regulation of the industry is uncertain. Fennell (1999: 8) identified five main goals of sustainable tourism which are:

- to develop greater awareness and understanding of the significant contributions that tourism can make to the environment and economy;
- to promote equity and development;
- to improve the quality of life of the host community;
- to provide a high quality of experience for the visitor; and
- to maintain the quality of the environment on which the foregoing objectives depend.

Holden (2005) refers to the above goals as being all-encompassing and having the potential to be conflicting. Furthermore, little guidance is provided on how tourism should be developed in relation to sustainability (Holden, 2005).

A more radical alternate approach to sustainable tourism supports development decision-making at the local level whereby democratic principles are used in relation to local people who are knowledgeable about their environment rather than external parties. Cater (1993) identifies the differences between alternative tourism and mass tourism whereby within alternative tourism activities are small-scale, locally owned with low impact, leakages and an increasing proportion of profits are retained locally rather than with mass tourism whereby large-scale multinational companies typically have high leakages. Reducing negative impacts through the implementation of appropriate policies, planning and management strategies is necessary to develop sustainable tourism (Higginbottom, 2004; Newsome et al., 2004; Rodger et al., 2007). Holden (2005: 127) lists the following characteristics of alternative tourism:

- pace of development is directed and controlled by local people rather than external influences;
- small-scale development with high rates of local ownership;

- environmental conservation and the minimisation of negative social and cultural impacts;
- maximised linkages to other sectors of the local economy, such as agriculture, reducing a reliance upon imports;
- maximisation and an equitable distribution of the economic benefits of tourism for local people;
- empowerment of women and other marginalised groups in democratic decision-making; and
- attracting a market segment that is willing to accept local standards of accommodation and food and that is interested in education in the local culture and environment.

Despite the ambiguity inherent to the meaning of sustainable tourism and ecotourism, they do represent important ideals for international policy on tourism as is described by the declaration of the United Nations. The United Nations (2002) Report of the World Summit on Sustainable Development promotes sustainable tourism development including non-consumptive ecotourism particularly taking into account the spirit of the International Year of Ecotourism 2002, the United Nations Year for Cultural Heritage in 2002, the World Ecotourism Summit 2002 and its Quebec Declaration, and the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism as adopted by the WTO. This report dealt with increasing the benefits from tourism resources for the population in host communities while maintaining the cultural and environmental integrity and enhancing the protection of ecologically sensitive areas and natural heritages.

Yet, Pleumarom (2002) argues that there is little evidence that “bottom-up” development alternatives such as the “People’s Agenda” which focus on principles of economic equity, social justice, cultural integrity and ecological sustainability are integrated in tourism planning issues. However, grassroots-oriented proposals are the solution used to root out the causes of problems (Pleumarom, 2002). What is required is more informed debate and public pressure to steer the tourism “powers-that be” towards a more holistic and people-centred approach requiring persuasion to reorient their policies and practices (Pleumarom, 2002: 156). McElroy and de Albuquerque (2002) state that achieving sustainability such as improved quality of life hosts (residents, natives, locals), unique and stable experiences for guests (tourists, travellers),

continued profitability for commercial interests, and sustained assets and cultural diversity for destinations remains an overwhelming challenge.

3.7 Political economy of Third World tourism

Greenberg and Park (1994) refer to the origins of political economy which may be found in the works of seventeenth to nineteenth century thinkers like Hobbes, Smith, Malthus, Ricardo and Marx. Scheyvens (2002) suggests that political economy is a branch of social science which determines the association between political and economic institutions and processes. Furthermore, the relationship between economics and political power is vital for aiding our understanding of the role tourism plays in development (Holden, 2005). Tourism's ability to act as a catalyst will be fundamental not only for economic theories but also for the existing power structure between and within countries (Holden, 2005).

Robinson (1998) mentions that the political and economic spheres are inextricably linked. Thus, the analysis of the economy and society requires acknowledging the role of the State in all spheres. Political economy can be thought of as a body of suggested practices for solving the basic economic problems of a society (Eyestone, 1972). Generally political economy is the management of the economy by the State, illustrating the role of the State at various parameters whereby both economic and social changes occur (Robinson, 1998). Eyestone (1972) suggests that the advice of the political economist will differ from one society to another, the reason being that political goals may differ or economic problems may take different forms in different societies. Common economic problems faced by all societies relate to what is to be produced, by what means it is to be produced and how the products are going to be distributed (Eyestone, 1972). These economic goals in every society must be met in a manner that is consistent with society's beliefs concerning appropriate ways to organise production and rewards (Eyestone, 1972).

It is argued by Eyestone (1972) that if a society is to be stable and its people content then there should be some consistency between the beliefs of the people and the actual operation of the economic system otherwise in the long-term it is likely to cause either social instability, economic disruption or modification of the economic system towards agreement with the beliefs

of the people. Modern political economy is conditioned by a liberal, individualistic view prevalent in Western philosophy (Eyestone, 1972). Eyestone (1972) and Mowforth and Munt (1998) assert that democracy is the political theory relating to individualistic worldview and relating to free enterprise is its economic theory. As a result modern political economy has developed out of the economics of free individual business enterprise and associated with the philosophy of a *laissez faire* (free market economics) approach to economic development.

Bianchi (2002) and Holden (2005) mention that a radical alternative view to modernisation theory is whereby dependency theorists argue that developing countries have external and internal political, institutional and economic structures that keep them in a dependent position in relation to developed countries. Within the political economy approach it is also essential to include the dependency theory which clearly illustrates that those western capitalist countries have grown as a result of the expropriation of surpluses from the Third World, due to reliance of Third World countries on export-oriented industries such as coffee, bananas, bauxite and so on (Mowforth and Munt, 1998). Meethan (2001) suggests that attention should be focused on foreign investment capital, loans and the issue of leakages referring to the expropriation of profits from the underdeveloped world to the developed world which will result in a relationship of subordination and dependency. Subsequently, development theorists attempted to formulate an explanation of the causes of underdevelopment in a holistic framework focusing on the interaction of economic and social structures within an international system (Holden, 2005).

Kay (1989) mentions that a renowned dependency theorist, Andre Gunder Frank stresses that it is the underdevelopment of the structures in Third World countries which are created by First World capitalist development that creates dependency. Moreover, Andre Gunder Frank saw development and underdevelopment as part of the same world capitalist system which means that the lack of progress in developing countries was due to western nations deliberately underdeveloping them, not due to their own inadequacies or a failure to develop an enterprising culture (Holden, 2005). Mowforth and Munt (1998) further elaborate that theories of dependency are in agreement that the interdependence as a result of global economic expansion and the inability for autonomous growth results in unequal and uneven development. Bianchi (2002) and Holden (2005) state that dependency theory is based upon a neo-Marxist perspective of the international political and economic system and can also be referred to as world systems theory

and underdevelopment theory. Holden (2005) and Lea (1998) indicate that the continuity of this unequal relationship is due to the interaction of multinationals and governments with elite counterparts in LDCs and the maintenance of special trade relations.

Modernisation views, as referred to by Greenberg and Park (1994) and Holden (2005), explain socio-economic development as an evolutionary and linear path from a traditional society to a modern society thus going through a regular series of stages in their economic development. Meethan (2001) further elaborates that modernisation assumes that development will occur in a linear or evolutionary basis since less developed societies will catch up with the developed world given the right conditions which can be encouraged through strategic development organised at a State level. It can be traced back to a variety of perspectives applied by non-Marxists to developing countries in the 1950s and 1960s, however, it is based on the work of Walt Rostow (Holden, 2005). Contrary to the theme of modernisation is westernisation whereby the structures of LDCs emulate developed countries like those of the West in terms of development patterns (Harrison, 1992; Holden, 2005).

In terms of tourism the building of large hotels or resort areas will act as a means to promote the trickle-down effect, this will then benefit the overall economy (Meethan, 2001). Mowforth and Munt (1998) and Pleumarom (1994) state that many of the Third World economies are drawn to tourism as a way of earning foreign exchange, however, leakages has taken place where money has not circulated into the national economies. Thus economic relationships will be exploitative and the indigenous economy will suffer as a consequence of catering for the needs of the developed world (Meethan, 2001).

Unlike other forms of development, tourism is seen as being attractive to LDCs since it is an industry requiring low capital investment (Harrison, 1994). Meethan (2001) suggests that the earning potential makes tourism attractive for many LDCs. Archer and Cooper (1998) and Harrison (1997) see tourism as a means of earning foreign currency, serving as an invisible export earner and it can be seen as a low-cost means of balancing payments. For example the focus on the fate of the small island economies in the Carribean emphasises the unequal economic and social impacts that are linked to tourism (Bryden, 1973; Hills and Lundgren, 1977; Mowforth and Munt, 1998; Perez, 1974). However, there are problems with this scenario since

profits accrued will leak from the national economy overseas and economic developments may only benefit existing national or local elites.

For instance, Prosser (1992) argues that as much as two-thirds of the money spent by tourists goes to airlines, foreign-owned tour operators, hotels and imported beverages. Mowforth and Munt (1998) further emphasise that leakages are primarily as a result of the First World ownership and control of the tourism industry in the Third World from hotels to tour operators and airlines. Britton (1982) adopts a neo-Marxist approach to the political economy of tourism arguing that Third World countries suffer from structural distortions to their economies as the indigenous economy is destabilised and redistributed to deal with the interests of the external markets. However, Kontogeorgopoulos (2005) suggests that ecotourism focusing on community involvement offers hope that the environmental sensitivity and responsibility will simultaneously serve the political, economic, social and environmental interests of host communities.

3.7.1 Economic neoliberalism

Holden (2005) suggests that the ideas of economic neoliberalism arose as a reaction to the threats arising from the restriction imposed on oil supplies from the Middle East to the West, the international debt crises in the 1970s and 1980s as well as a lack of confidence in government planning to restrict underdevelopment and poverty. The concept of trickle-down growth stems from heavy capital investment in major construction projects such as dams, bridges, roads or large tourism complexes. The economic rationale for this policy is that different multiplier effects should work through the economy, generating an increase in income, employment and sales. Holden (2005) further elaborates that the economic benefits should trickle-down to all classes and segments of society from the initial investment. This trickle-down effect can be viewed as an integral aspect of modernisation theory (Holden, 2005).

Access to loans and sources of finance provided by the International Monetary Fund (IMF) is conditional on the adoption of policy reforms designed to reduce State economic intervention and the generation of market-orientated growth. A reduction in State economic intervention is inclusive of the removal of any kind of protective measures to fledgling industries including tourism. International tourism is being grouped with other new growth sectors such as non-traditional agricultural exports to Western countries, demonstrating much promise for

stimulating rapid growth on the comparative advantages of developing countries (Holden, 2005). Scheyvens (2002) suggests that the role of tourism as an export industry and as a way of earning foreign exchange is powerfully supported by multinationals as they continue to try to secure new markets for their products.

3.8 Political ecology approach

Linked to political economy is the political ecology approach. Muldavin (2008: 687) asserts that political ecology is experiencing a renaissance similar to the rediscovering of the importance of place in Geography and he states: "...this critical approach to the human-environment dialectic provides unique theoretical, methodological, and practical insights for unravelling the complexities of this contentious nexus". Stott and Sullivan (2000) suggest that contemporary political ecology reflects on the extent to which the science of environment is socially and politically positioned rather than being definite from the subjective location of human perception. Thus, political ecology is the study of how economic, political and social factors affect environmental issues. The influence that society, State, corporate and transnational powers have on creating or increasing environmental problems thus influences environmental policy. Perramond (2005) suggests that the approach of political ecology elucidates the hybridity of local knowledge and collection practices that strive to change the distribution, depletion and ecology of the species. Specifically, Rocheleau (2008: 716) indicates that "political ecology is rooted in a combination of critical perspectives and the hard won insights distilled from fieldwork". This study draws heavily on primary fieldwork as a critical component of adding knowledge in relation to stakeholder perceptions and concerns of private Parks.

Plog (1991) indicates that development of a viable tourism industry requires planning as well as coordinated and co-operative management to overcome problems. Rural development consists of community resource management projects. However, resource-related conflict, signs of environmental degradation and poor tenure rules are seen as proof for the failure of local institutions to govern natural resources (Ostrom, 1990; Simpson and Sullivan, 1984; Sinclair and Frywell, 1985; Turner, 1999). Kontogeorgopoulos (2005) states that ecotourism can be seen as an elegant idea to improve rural livelihoods. However, ecotourism in theory stands apart from mass, conventional tourism by its small-scale, sustainable activities and increasing local involvement. Yet, ecotourism in reality has some shortcomings in promoting the interests of host

communities in the developing world (Kontogeorgopoulos, 2005). Zimmerer and Bassett (2003) refer to how protected areas become arenas of conflict that result in contested patterns of resource management which is a classical theme in political ecology. Some political ecologists refer to capitalist forces or oppressive State policies and their impact on local people and resources (Blaikie, 1985; Blaikie and Brookfield, 1987; Stonich, 1993). Forsyth (2008: 758) states that the political ecology approach focuses on two key questions: “How do we understand environmental crisis? And how do we identify social vulnerability?” It is for this reason that this study focuses on both environmental management challenges as well as concerns relating to rural communities.

Gossling (2003) proposes that political ecology can be used as a powerful tool to investigate the role and interests of different actors in the process of environmental change. Some political ecologists refer to capitalist forces or oppressive State policies and their impact on local people and resources (Blaikie, 1985; Blaikie and Brookfield, 1987; Stonich, 1993). There is a belief that environmental problems cannot properly be understood without considering their economic and political context (Gossling, 2003). Logan and Moseley (2002) refer to political ecology as broadly referring to the political economy of human-environment interactions. Belsky (2002) refers to political ecology as building essential bridges across human ecology and political economy, place- and non-place-based analyses, social construction and realism (materialism), Western science and local knowledge, and theory and practice among others. Greenberg and Park (1994) express that political ecology does not amount to a new programme for intellectual criticism, rather it is a historical outgrowth of the central questions referred to by the social sciences concerning relations between human societies, analysed in its bio-cultural-political complexity and in a significantly humanised nature where various disciplines intersect.

Bryant and Bailey (1997) note that political ecology assists in situating the findings of local level empirical research in theoretical and comparative perspectives. Neumann (1998) describes political ecology research as having illustrated that historical and geographical specificity are fundamental starting points for new conservation initiatives. Democratizing expertise and relying on local knowledge is a messy enterprise as well as institutionalising democratic conservation in the current political climate of many African countries in the 1990s undermines local community cohesiveness (Bryant and Bailey, 1997).

Logan and Moseley (2002) identify unequal relations between actors as a key factor in understanding patterns of human-environment interaction and related environmental problems. Lohman (1998) describes that political ecology focuses on individual meaning in the context of political processes and unequal interests. Furthermore, Lohman (1998) states that political ecology is very attentive to the hazard of an uncritical pluralism that constructs all actors and their meanings and stakes as equal from ancestral claims, cultural survival and local livelihood to aesthetic and landscape concerns. Some political ecologists use the politics of environmental change, by adopting structuralist explanations of land degradation and environmental change, and others use poststructuralist approaches, thereby focusing more on environmental change and degradation as linguistic and political forces in their own right (Escobar, 1996; Leach and Mearns, 1996; Zingerli, 2005). For example, Neumann (1998) refers to donor-driven, externally financed programmes of community-based environmental management which have been a success in mainland Tanzania. Moore (1993: 381) states that a political ecological approach allows us to appreciate “the nuances of social actors’ livelihood struggles and their uses of cultural idioms in the charged context of local politics”.

Political ecology has a broad interdisciplinary emphasis. It is possible to demarcate two major theoretical thrusts that have most influenced its formation: political economy with its insistence on the need to link the distribution of power with productive activity; and ecological analysis with its broader vision of bio-environmental relationships (Greenberg and Park, 1994). Berkes (1999) proposes that political ecology discusses the residents’ viewpoints, experiential knowledge as well as stressing the significance of political struggles between a hegemonic Western science and alternative knowledge systems. Martinez-Alder (2002) mentions that political ecology applied methods of political economy in ecological contexts can be best understood as the study of the ecological distribution of conflicts.

Blaikie and Brookfield (1987) refer to a vital text introducing regional political ecology which was co-authored by geographers with a political economy and human ecology orientation, respectively. Political ecology builds on ecological concepts to respond to this inclusion of cultural and political activity within an analysis of ecosystems that are not always entirely socially constructed (Greenberg and Park, 1994). Mullins (2004) suggests that by looking at unequal power relations between actors, this theoretical framework attempts to assess uneven

distribution of access to environmental resources since power is an important focus. However, the accumulation of power by different actors presently is mostly through the possession of knowledge, technology and assets such as land (Mullins, 2004). Sterk et al. (2009) discuss that the basis for decision-makers whether farmers, policy-makers or other stakeholders struggle with the complexity and uncertainty inherent in land use systems and welcome access to technologies which lessen this burden. Western scientific knowledge has been heavily utilised to justify and legitimate actions to address land degradation (Marcussen, 2002) yet, it is only recently that the politicised nature of the use of science has been acknowledged as well as other interpretations, for example, local and indigenous of what constitutes degradation have received wider recognition (Forsyth, 2003). Land use policy needs to be firmly grounded in the latest empirical assessments of the state of environment and understandings of how and why that state came about (Stringer, 2009).

Belsky (2002) mentions that while recognising the limited value of a solely place or non-place-based analysis they tried to connect the two through a nested, multiple-scales approach, using a bottom-up research methodology. Linkages are sought across time and spatial scales. Similarly, they also recognised the limitations of a strongly actor-oriented/ behaviourist or a structuralist approach (Belsky, 2002). Blaikie and Brookfield (1987) state that as an alternative their goal was to direct analytical attention to the usual concerns of political economy, that is to say that State dynamics, colonial history, class formation, market transactions and processes of capitalist incorporation and marginalisation as well as simultaneously maintaining a social actor-focused orientation set within local or regional ecologies. A classical theme in political ecology is how protected areas become arenas of conflict which will result in contested patterns of resource management (Zimmerer and Bassett, 2003). Land tenure plays a critical mediating role in the inter-relationship between humans and the environment (Barnes, 2009). Sterk et al. (2009) state that in a multi-stakeholder context it becomes essential to mediate different perceptions of the problem and possible solutions that can integrate multiple knowledge sources.

Bryant and Bailey's (1997) analysis of political ecology added the usefulness of concepts such as marginality, vulnerability, risk, resistance, protest and popular distrust of experts as well as the roles that States, grassroots actors, businesses, corporations, multilateral institutions and environmental NGOs play at different scales during their engagement with the environment and

each other. The personal interest of stakeholders determines human-environment relations (Mullins, 2004). The process of examining different stakeholders (detailed in the next section) provides the mechanisms of resource access that lies behind the scene. By gaining access to the media NGOs are also able to express their environmental agendas and interests to the public (Mullins, 2004). Rocheleau et al. (1996) suggests that feminist political ecology has been mainly useful in helping to situate material and discursive struggles over resource distribution, power, knowledge and ideology in the context of gendered knowledge, gendered patterns of resource control, access and utilisation and gendered forms of grassroots activism.

Mullins (2004) points out that politics is about the interaction of actors over environmental resources and even weak actors possess some power to act in pursuit of their interests. Besides politics, political ecologists focus on the economic, social and cultural aspects of life and the global system of production owing to the incorporation of Third World economies into the First World dominated global economy (Mullins, 2004). However, Zingerli (2005) suggests that a commonality of many political ecology studies is that they are premised on a sense of social justice for environmental explanation and development. In addition, many scholars recognise that political ecology lacks coherence particularly in that it has become all things to all people as well as a modality for uninformed academic hitchhiking (Blaikie, 1999; Brosius, 1999; Peet and Watts, 1996).

Attempts are made to contextualise ecotourism within a socio-political context. Where Bauer et al. (2007) provide an outlook on the social relations of power and the production of ecologies and landscapes, Blaikie (1995), Bryant (1997) and Gossling (2003) mention that central to this approach is the insight that economic and political contexts need to be understood to encompass the complexity of human-environment interactions linked to alteration of the environment. Greenberg and Park (1994) suggest that nature and society are both socially constructed to certain degrees. However, both are determined to some extent by what may be glossed over as system-like constraints that are neither the deliberate nor inadvertent products of human purposive activity. Belsky (2002) suggests that political ecology provides a useful framework for understanding how language and values are connected to interests. Furthermore, Belsky (2002) states that one can discuss values and multiple meanings alongside material interests and physical nature and how one must make interconnections across these factors.

Anthropological attempts to integrate humans with environmental processes led to an introduction of human-environment interactions in the social sciences which recognised that humans are producers of environmental phenomena (Butzer, 1982; Rappaport, 1968). Bauer et al. (2007) and Greenberg and Park (1994) mention that advocates for a political ecology approach argue that human-environment relationships are socially mediated and analyses of such interaction must consider material constraints and possibilities within the social and political fields in which they are constituted. Belsky (2002) states that in spite of its heuristic appeal as a synthetic framework, it is important to understand that political ecology as currently theorised and practiced has yet to recognise its integrative potential. Blaikie (1999) suggests that political ecology is able to emphasise new contradictions and paradoxes that are brought together from different networks of scholars, activists and other actors. Belsky (2002) affirms that political ecology stems from its hybridity and its capacity to disintegrate boundaries among multiple paradigms and disciplines. Practically, political ecological studies require incorporating a dynamic, non-equilibrium-based ecology, a criticism directed to all of the ecological social sciences (Scoones, 1999). Other criticism of using the political ecology approach includes:

As with environmental sociology, political ecology has been criticised as long on critique, and short on establishing goals (even plural and/ or provisional ones), and especially the technical and political means of achieving them. Consistent with environmental sociology, early works in political ecology portrayed the environment monolithically and, though no longer examined through theories emphasising adaptation and homeostasis, viewed change and disruption as largely attributed to market intrusion, commercialisation, and the dislocation of customary forms of resource management. While avoiding the pitfalls of adaptation-based and systems approaches, much of political ecology still accepts that balanced, harmonious and traditional ecosystems existed until they were disrupted by the forces of modernity.

(Belsky, 2002: 275)

Forsyth (2008: 758) states that “much research within political ecology since the 1980s has focused on how and why institutionalised beliefs about environmental change came into place, and on finding alternative, more inclusive ways of addressing environmental problems”. Furthermore, adopting a political ecology approach implies ensuring that differing interests and concerns are integrated into attempts to conserve the environment and protect economic and social development. Jones (2006: 51) shows that there has been “a historical progression from ‘conservation or development’ (fortress conservation) to ‘conservation and development’ (integrated conservation and development) to ‘conservation through development’

(community based strategies)". The earlier exclusionary approaches to conservation (fortress conservation) were embedded in the assumption that conservation was a threat to human well-being and humans were a threat to biodiversity conservation. This approach alienated local people from protected areas and denied their rights to resources thereby undermining local livelihoods through "locked-in" patterns of resource use (Adger et al., 2005: 9). Brown (2002: 7) underscores that "this assumes a conflict between livelihood activities and biodiversity strategy". Adams and Hutton (2007) argue that the changes in the relationship between people and nature over the years are highly political, embracing issues of rights and access to land and resources, the centrality of the role of the State, the emergence of non-State actors (NGOs and the private sector), and the power of scientific and other understandings of nature.

Bryant and Bailey (1997: 6 cited in Foryth, 2008: 760) warn that the focus on social, economic and political aspects in relation to ecological/ environmental problems may result in a neglect of understanding environmental change in relation to natural and physical processes: "political ecologists tend to favour consideration of the political over the ecological... Yet greater attention by political ecologists to ecological processes does not alter the need for a basic focus on politics as part of the attempt to understand Third World environmental problems". This position supports the adoption of an integrated, multidisciplinary approach discussed earlier and links, in part, to the stakeholder perspective discussed next which highlight the importance of focusing on differences.

3.9 Stakeholder perspective

The World Resources Institute (WRI, 2005) asserts that every protected area impacts on people, either as direct users of its resources, or as beneficiaries of the goods and services it provides. A stakeholder perception was also utilised in this study as a participatory tool for identifying effective management of conflict and developing a common understanding among stakeholders. From a social scientific perspective, biodiversity conflict management is linked to the field of participation and stakeholder engagement (Rauschmayer and Wittmer, 2004). For example, Rockloff and Lockie (2004) refer to worldwide conflict among stakeholders in natural resource decision-making over competing interests and goals which continue to impede sustainability efforts.

According to Renard et al. (2001: 7):

Stakeholder approaches must be sensitive to the cultural context in which they are developed and applied. While the principles of participation are universal, the practice of participatory planning and management must take into account the values, communication patterns, knowledge and skills of all stakeholders.

There are many definitions of the word stakeholder. Freeman (1984) defines stakeholders as those with a vested interest in an organisational issue who can influence the manner in which it is formulated and resolved. However, the term stakeholder as referred to by Mitchell (2002) is broadly categorised as a person or group directly affected by or with an interest in a decision or having the legal responsibility and authority pertaining to a decision. On the subject of people or groups who might be affected by a decision, a distinction should be made between active and the inactive publics (Mitchell, 2002). Moreover, Mitchell (2002) contends that the active public is inclusive of those people who are organised into interest groups whereas the inactive public are those people who do not usually become actively involved in social or environmental issues. Caffyn and Jobbins (2003) refer to the term stakeholder to include any individual or organisation with an interest in a particular area including government authorities, private businesses, local people and NGOs.

For the purpose of this study, a stakeholder is any party with an actual or potential interest in economic, social, cultural, political and environmental interest in the use of a resource. This also incorporates any individual, community, organisation or institution who can affect or be affected by changes in the status and usefulness of resources (Krishnarayan, 1998; Renard et al., 2001). Allen and Kilvington (2001) refer to primary stakeholders as the immediate communities of interests and secondary stakeholders are the intermediaries in the process and are inclusive of government agencies and other institutional bodies who generally do not think of themselves as stakeholders due to them feeling that they own the process.

Friedman and Mason (2005) refer to stakeholder theory as being developed within organisational studies and focuses on strategic management within constituent-centred analysis. Stakeholder involvement creates many benefits such as environmental protection, a social license to operate, and opportunities for local community involvement, increased information and knowledge flows

and conflict mitigation (Parker and Khare, nd). According to Allen and Kilvington (2001), an important rule that must be adhered to when including key stakeholders is to question whose support will radically influence the success of the project. Zorn et al. (2001) mention that stakeholders will only feel a great sense of inclusion when they are involved in decision-making processes from the initial stages. A key component of the stakeholder theory is that people will protect what they perceive to be valuable (Honey, 1999). Therefore, Honey (1999) states that the local community is a key stakeholder who should be involved in decision-making process as this will enable them to uplift themselves from poverty-stricken conditions. Parker and Khare (nd) suggest that identifying and engaging stakeholders are two important issues crucial to sustainability. Renard et al. (2001) suggest that stakeholder approaches can be tailored to suite a variety of conditions and situations inclusive of conflict management, project and programme planning, strategic planning, institutional development process, communication and marketing. Furthermore, the scale of the issue or initiative to which they are applied can vary greatly from global to local (Renard et al., 2001).

Freeman (1984) identified seven broad stakeholder categories: owners, employees, suppliers, customers, the financial community, activist groups and the government. For the purpose of this study the stakeholders are identified as: the local community, tour operator, visitors, Park personnel and Park owner. By rating stakeholders in relation to frequency as well as type and amount of attributes, managers will be able to prioritise stakeholders and efficiently distribute resources (Friedman and Mason, 2005). Simmons and Eades (2004) mention that the stakeholder perspective on organisations has increased in popularity and currently represents mainstream system of organisational complexity which is stakeholder management. Renard et al. (2001) assert that within the wider participatory process, stakeholder approaches have their particular function and they should not be expected to deliver more than what they are intended.

Simmons and Eades (2004) suggest that the stakeholder approach identifies the political dimension of appraisal by recognising potential conflicts of interest, together with the need to achieve adequate compromise between different stakeholder constituencies. An important assumption prevalent in the development literature is related to the concept of community in that interests, experiences, needs and expectations are often simplified as homogenous among a given group of people (Renard et al., 2001). Furthermore, Agrawal and Gibson (1999) and Brosius et

al. (1998) suggest that many authors have cautioned that communities are rarely consistent and homogeneous units. In practice this is far more complex and the methods used in stakeholder identification and analysis must accept and reveal this complexity by identifying and analysing the many differences which exist among social groups and sectors (Borrini-Feyerabend et al., 2000; Leach et al., 1999). Renard et al. (2001: 7) declare:

Stakeholder approaches can be tailored to a wide range of conditions and situations, including conflict management, project and programme planning, strategic planning, institutional development processes, and communication and marketing... Participatory processes are by their very nature transforming: they address issues of power, decision-making, access to resources and legitimacy. This means that throughout the life of a participatory management intervention, the relations and dynamics among and between the various interest groups or stakeholders are likely to change, and this will in turn affect the social and institutional context of the intervention. These approaches provide a baseline that can help managers understand the changes that are taking place and how these changes are influencing and affecting the management process.

In the mid-1980s, the concept of ecotourism began to take hold in eastern and southern Africa, thus the stakeholder theory was extended to include environmentally sensitive, low-impact, culturally sensitive tourism that also assisted in educating visitors and local community members (Honey, 1999).

3.9.1 Stakeholder analysis

Simmon and Eades (2004) refer to the versatility of stakeholder analysis as a method of organisational enquiry that is applied in disciplines of economics, ethics, marketing and management systems. Conducting a stakeholder analysis is a useful manner of discovering the roles of different stakeholders involved in an institution or programme (Sousa and Quarter, 2004). Furthermore, Rockloff and Lockie (2004) describe stakeholder analysis as making issues much more visible and provide clarity in the ways in which the multiple values and objectives of stakeholders converge. Haberberg and Rieple (2001) declare that organisations have a number of stakeholder groups that influence and are influenced by them; the process and outcome of these relations impact on specific stakeholders and the organisations; and stakeholder perspectives have value for organisational strategy and effectiveness.

Grimble and Chan (1995) refer to a key strength of a stakeholder analysis is that it provides a systematic approach for assessing the relative importance of particular stakeholders to the survival of an institution. Stakeholder analysis is used to inform the design and implementation of management as a process to facilitate the inclusion and cooperation of stakeholders (Bouton and Frederick, 2003; Brugha and Varvasovszky, 2000). Zorn et al. (2001) refer to a stakeholder analysis which is initially conducted to identify the relevant groups in a Park's area of co-operation, their interests and the nature of resources. Allen and Kilvington (2001) refer to stakeholder analysis as the process of identifying key stakeholders, an assessment of their interests and the ways in which those key stakeholders are affected by riskiness and viability. It also contributes to identifying the goals and roles of stakeholders, and by assisting to formulate appropriate forms of engagement with these stakeholders (Allen and Kilvington, 2001).

Zorn et al. (2001) state that those designing a stakeholder analysis should consider human factors including demographics, geographic location, "sense of place", values and interests of the stakeholders generally associated with the area of co-operation. Friedman and Mason (2005) and Mitchell et al. (1997) discuss the issue of power which represents the stakeholder's ability to resolve issues or influence decision-makers. Power can also manifest itself through physical force; financial and material resources such as money, goods or services; and symbolic resources through prestige or status. Additionally, Renard et al. (2001) also state that power relations in these societies (the occasional users, the illegal harvesters and migrant workers) will give prominence to some stakeholders and their needs, frequently at the expense of women, poor people and marginal social and economic sectors. Bouton and Frederick (2003: 298) state:

Categorising stakeholders by their level of interest and power to influence helps determine their relevance to a management policy or plan. Analysis of their level of understanding about the issue and what they stand to gain or lose upon implementation of the project also helps identify and focus educational efforts. Overall, stakeholder analysis facilitates implementation of resource-related projects in a culturally informed context, and increases the potential for equitable and efficient conservation and management of the resource.

A stakeholder analysis is generally the first step in developing relationships necessary for the success of a participatory project or policy (Allen and Kilvington, 2001). Furthermore, Renard et al. (2001) suggest that when identifying stakeholders specific methods must therefore be geared

towards the identification of the less apparent among the relevant stakeholders and these methods include observations, interviews with key informants, and informal discussions as well as the use of local and popular knowledge. When there are issues dealing with conflict over resource access and rights stakeholder analysis can be used to assist to find common ground for negotiating and recognising the value of cooperation (Rockloff and Lockie, 2004). Stakeholder analysis assists project initiators to determine their social environment in which they can operate (Allen and Kilvington, 2001).

3.9.2 Tourism stakeholders

Getz (1986) proposes that there are several approaches which exist for tourism planning research. However, most recommend involvement of stakeholders in the process (Hall, 2000; Priskin, 2003; Murphy, 1985). There are many benefits from stakeholder involvement as well as an enhanced understanding of tourism, implementation of plans and desirable outcomes for the tourism destination (Backman et al., 2001; Haywood, 1988; Sautter and Leison, 1999). Grey (1989) emphasises that collaboration is a process where a group of stakeholders connect in an interactive process to explore, discuss and solve a problem. This process encourages face-to-face discussions from which partnerships and mutually acceptable plans can develop (de Araujo and Bramwell, 2002; Selin, 1999).

Processes of community participation and the unequal relationships between stakeholders have been discussed in the tourism literature (Jamal and Getz, 1995; Marien and Pizam, 1997; Richards and Hall, 2000). Backman et al. (2001) affirm that planning for nature-based tourism is complicated since stakeholder groups may have overlapping and conflicting interests. For example, Priskin (2003) refers to some stakeholder groups who are more interested in environmental protection than profit maximisation. Jamal (2004) declares that nature is often viewed differently by the many stakeholders and the issue of conflict amongst various groups can be traceable to such differences. Protected area managers and policy-makers have been turning towards more participatory and all-encompassing forms of management to replace conventional top-down governance (Innes and Booher, 1999; Westley, 1995). A substantial body of inter-organisational research refers to collaboration strategies as being effective in environments which are characterised by interdependence, complexity and uncertainty (Jamal, 2004). In addition, Jamal (2004) states that destination planning in protected areas with gateway

communities and other communities bordering the Park are complex domains where planning can be characterised as a political activity subjected to diverse and possible divergent interests and values. Jamal (2004) identifies Park planners and administrators at the Parks Canada Agency that are responsible for managing the ecological needs of the Parks, the political issues connected with these attractive tax revenue generators, the needs of tourists, recreationalists and the tourism industry. Caffyn and Jobbins (2003) affirm that stakeholder interactions need to be more transparent, meaningful and set within more balanced power relations and better communication systems.

3.10 Conclusion

The stakeholder approach is a powerful tool which can be used to examine the role and interest of different stakeholders in the context of a private Parks in South Africa. Additionally, this chapter clarified and simplified the political ecology conceptual framework which is used to understand ecotourism within the context of private Parks so it may be more easily translated into a practical and widely acceptable model for managing stakeholder relations. Such facilitation provides legitimacy to a process and its outputs and provides quality and professional expertise to the various steps and actions involved. It is necessary for facilitators to be vigilant and to avoid creating or re-creating patterns of dependency. In the context of South Africa, protected areas as well as private Parks are arenas of conflict since they are White dominated in terms of ownership. Stakeholder involvement will try to remedy injustices of the past and deal with conflict situations amicably.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methodology used for the study. This chapter can be categorised into the following sections: research questions, research instruments, description of case studies, methodological approaches, procedures used to analyse data and fieldwork experiences. The case studies that were researched were that of the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park which are located in South Africa, in the province of KwaZulu Natal. The study was conducted in various phases over a three year period during 2006 to 2008. This study used a combination of quantitative survey questionnaires and qualitative participatory exercises which can be referred to as the process of triangulation (Decrop, 1999). Decrop (1999) states that triangulation looks at the same phenomenon or research questions from more than one source of data. Triangulation has received attention in qualitative research as a way to understand and accept qualitative approaches (Rossman and Wilson, 1985). By combining data sources, methods, investigators and theories, triangulation opens the way for a more valid interpretation (Decrop, 1999). With specific reference to tourism based research, Decrop (1999: 160) states:

Qualitative research is often qualified as ‘bricolage’ or ‘art’, in contrast with quantitative research, which is honoured as being rigorous and scientific. ...If we accept the principle that science is not a question of numbers but of reasoning, a qualitative study can be as sound as a quantitative one. The tourist researcher must not only be conscious of the criteria which make a qualitative study trustworthy, but s/he has to implement them. Triangulation can help this. Refining the earlier concepts of corroboration and validation, triangulation consists of confirming qualitative findings by showing that independent sources converge on them, or at least, do not oppose them.

4.2 Research questions

This study investigates social, economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism as well as their management in relation to biodiversity conservation and sustainable development at the Ezulwini and Tala Private Parks in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa from various stakeholder

perspectives. The research questions address the objectives as outlined in chapter one. The following broad research questions guided the study:

- What are the visitors' perceptions, needs and the levels of awareness regarding ecotourism imperatives in private ecotourism enterprises?
- Are there any differences in ecotourism experiences regarding the visitors' knowledge, attitudes and behaviours?
- In what ways do tour operators support local ecotourism as well as encourage conservation and environmental protection?
- Do the existing management practices and policies impact on ecotourism initiatives as well as address issues sufficiently?
- What is the nature and extent of neighbouring community participation in ecotourism activities and decision-making?
- What are the ecotourism perceptions, needs and concerns of Park personnel?
- How has ecotourism activities affected biodiversity conservation and sustainable development in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park?
- What is the relationship between the Park owner and the local community in the respective private Parks?

4.3 Research instruments

Veal (2006) states that when planning a research project it is advantageous to judge whether it is necessary to go to the expense of collecting new information (primary data where the researcher is the first user) or whether existing data (secondary data, where the researcher is the secondary user) will do the job. According to Goeldner and Ritchie (2006: 502):

Primary data are original data gathered for the specific purpose of solving the travel research problem that confronts you. In contrast, secondary data have already been collected for some other purpose and are available for use by simply visiting the library or other such repositories of secondary data.

This study used primary data sources and secondary data sources.

4.3.1 Primary data sources

Primary data are original first hand sources of information (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006). The primary data sources incorporated in this study were questionnaire surveys, interviews and participatory techniques.

4.3.2 Secondary data sources

If information is already available which will answer the research questions posed, then it would be wasteful use of resources to collect new information for the same purpose. Clark (1997) refers to secondary data as information which has already been collected by someone else but is available for you. In this study secondary data included a desktop study of a variety of ecotourism and tourism literature obtained from academic journals, government documents, magazines, newsletters, brochures, newspapers, policies, conferences, pamphlets, internet, academic books and dissertations.

4.4 Background to study areas

KwaZulu-Natal forms South Africa's east coast province and stretches from Port Edward in the south, to the Mozambique boundary in the north. Davey and Davey (2007) state that tourism is an important economic sector in the province of KwaZulu-Natal which provides economic opportunities which are of significance in rural areas. They further assert that the KwaZulu-Natal Nature Conservation Service (NCS) and tourism provides economic opportunities which are important in rural areas. The NCS has prepared numerous policy directives aimed at enhancing linkages with local communities adjacent to the protected areas (Foggin and Munster, 2004).

KwaZulu-Natal is the third smallest province in South Africa spatially, however, it has the largest population of over nine million which comprises one-fifth of the country's total population (Davey and Davey, 2007; Foggin and Munster, 2004). The map of South Africa (Figure 4.1) illustrates the nine provinces. The population of KwaZulu-Natal is amongst the poorest in the country, with a per capita income which stands at 25% below the national average, and the majority of the population live in rural areas (CENSUS, 1996). According to the CENSUS (2001), the unemployment rate for KwaZulu-Natal among the aged 15-65 years in the Province of KwaZulu-Natal was 48.7%. The majority of the people living here are African (84.9%), 1.5% are Coloured, 8.5% are Indian or Asian and 5.1% are White. The main language

that is spoken is isiZulu (80.9%), followed by English (13.6%) and Afrikaans (1.5%) (CENSUS, 2001).

Foggin and Munster (2004) affirm that in comparison to other regions, KwaZulu-Natal has a medium Human Development Index (the Human Development Index is a composite indicator measuring the quality of life and comprises per capita income, life expectancy and adult literacy) characterised by a poorly skilled labour force and high unemployment levels in the rural areas which are dependent on subsistence agriculture. According to Creemers (1997), in the post-1994 era the Province's tourism sector has shown major growth, capturing 30% of the domestic tourism market and approximately 25% of the foreign market. There are numerous holiday resorts along its 600 kilometre coastline (Davey and Davey, 2007).

Figure 4.1 The nine provinces of South Africa

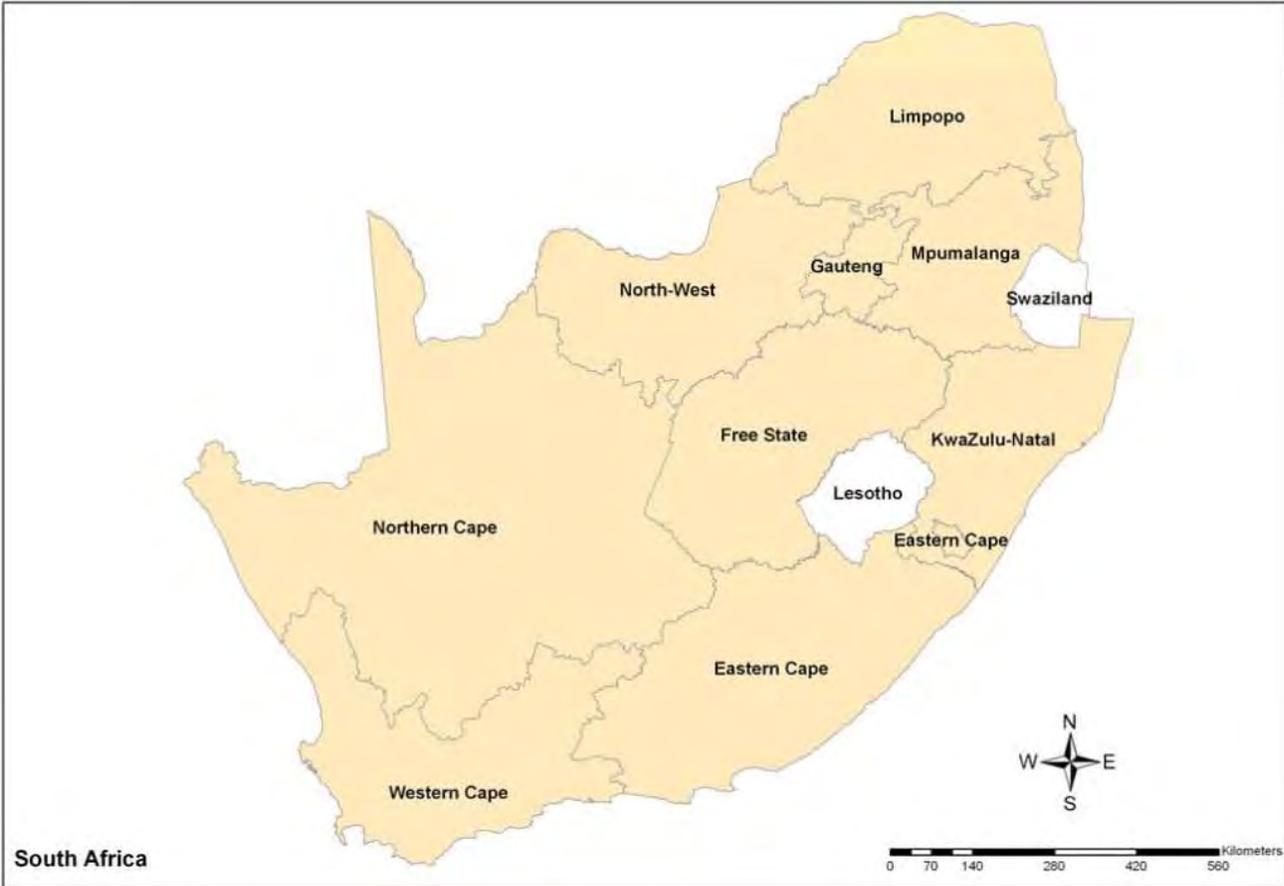
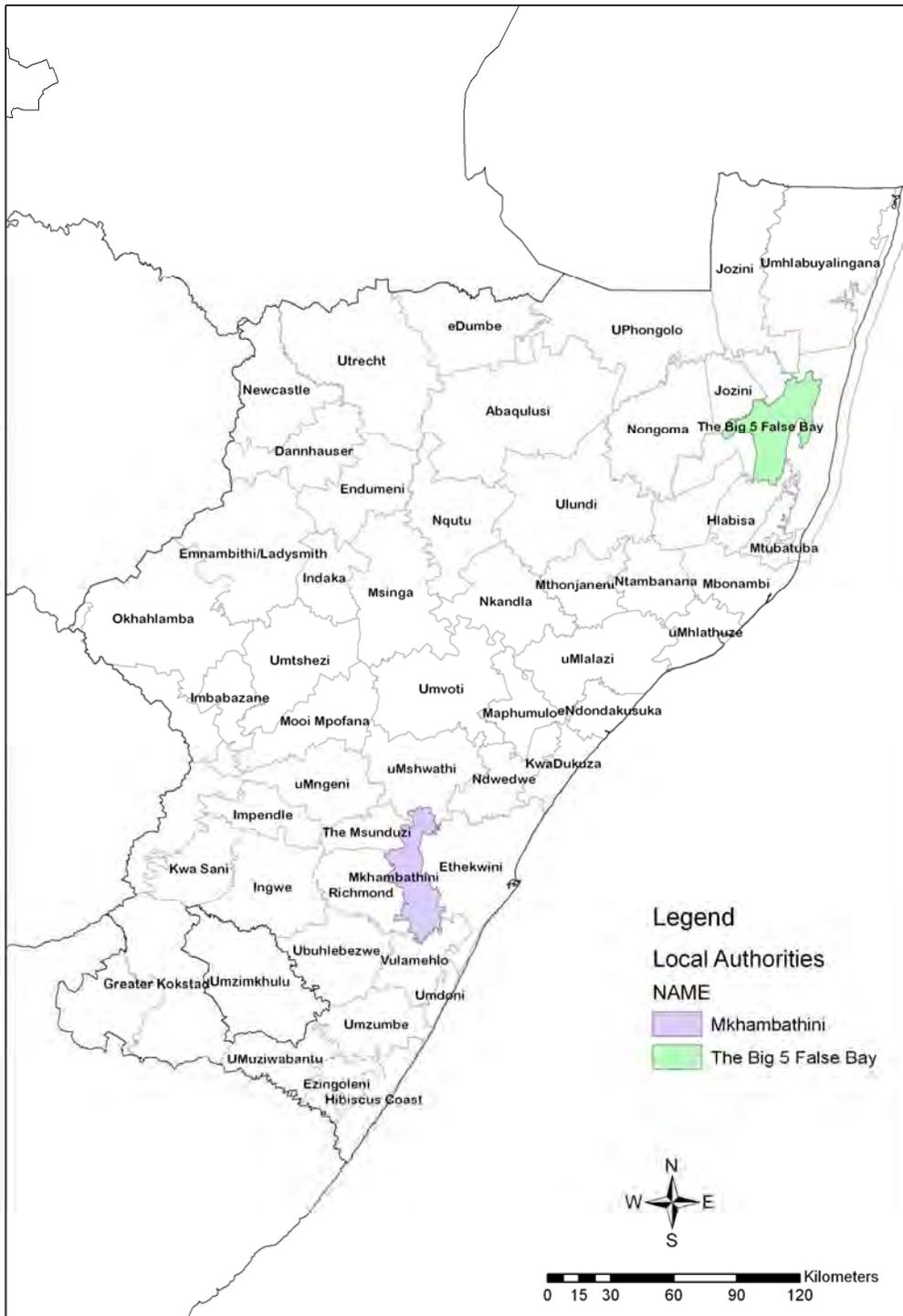


Figure 4.2 The location of the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park within the province of KwaZulu-Natal



Figure 4.3 The municipalities of KwaZulu-Natal highlighting where Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Parks are located



4.4.1 Ezulwini Private Park

The Ezulwini Private Game Park is situated within the Big 5 False Bay Municipality. According to the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) (2007/2008), Big 5 False Bay Municipality is situated within the Umkhanyakude District in northern KwaZulu Natal as illustrated in Figure 4.3. The IDP (2007/2008) refers to the Big 5 False Bay Municipality as being easily accessible off the N2 national route, lying adjacent to the False Bay (western) side of the iSimangaliso Wetlands Park and is the initial starting point of the Lubombo Spatial Development Initiatives (LSDI Corridor) which links the town of Hluhluwe to Mozambique. Approximately 88% of the households in the LSDI Corridor are within the Big 5 False Bay Municipality (Future Plans, 2002).

The town of Hluhluwe contains major shopping and light service facilities as well as the municipal offices services of the LSDI Corridor. A key infrastructural project involves the upgrading of a new road from Hluhluwe in KwaZulu- Natal to Maputo in Mozambique which would allow tourists easy access into these areas by road, sea and air. This will allow them the opportunity to travel between countries to various accommodation outlets and other destinations with as much ease as possible without compromising safety standards and security controls (IDP, 2007/2008). A large proportion of the land is used for agriculture and game lodge activities (IDP, 2007/2008).

The IDP (2007/2008) states that the north-eastern parts of the municipality are occupied by rural traditional communities such as Makasa, Mngqobokasi and Nibela. The area of Nibela is difficult to access, however, many people are living there (IDP, 2007/2008). The IDP (2007/2008) has classified Nibela as a social and tourism node. The IDP (2007/2008) states that the Big 5 False Bay Municipality's Mission is as follows:

As a rural and urban municipality we commit ourselves to improve the quality of life of local communities through service delivery by providing equitable socio-economic development through the provision of infrastructure and municipal services in a democratic manner while maintaining a strong environmental ethos so that by year 2015 all backlogs will be eliminated.

The Nibela rural community reside in the Big 5 False Bay Municipality (Figure 4.4).The Ezulwini Game Lodge is a privately owned game farm adjacent to the iSimangaliso Wetland Park. The Ezulwini Game Lodge is situated in the Hluhluwe area and their accommodation

facility consists of two self catering tree huts, log cabins and cottages. Within the Ezulwini Game Lodge tourists can partake in game viewing and bird watching in an open four by four vehicle (Wild Web, n/d). Most of the visitors usually used Ezulwini Private Park (Figure 4.4) as a stop-over after travelling via Kosi Bay Nature Reserve and Sodwana Bay towards the iSimangaliso Wetland Park, Hluhluwe-Imfolozi Game Park, Richards Bay, Ballito, Umhlanga Rocks and Durban. Harrison (2004) states that Sodwana Bay is known for its scuba diving among the offshore reefs and leatherback and loggerhead turtles that bury their eggs in Maputaland's beaches. Kosi Bay near the border to Mozambique has a remarkable system of lakes, estuaries, marshes, mudflats and mangrove swamps (Harrison, 2004). According to Harrison (2004), the Tembe community practice various forms of fishing and agriculture in the region unknown elsewhere in South Africa. Kockott (2006) states that the eNkuvukeni residents in Kosi Bay have poor infrastructure and are threatening to get the United Nations involved in order to highlight their plight. This area attracts foreign tourists yet its local community have aspirations of deriving benefits in terms of basic services, free access into reserves, business and employment opportunities which are not currently available.

The iSimangaliso Wetland Park consists of a large and beautiful estuarine and lake system on the sub-tropical coastline of Maputaland, 250 kilometres north of Durban. Within the boundaries of the Park lie the St Lucia Game and Marine Reserves, Mkuzi Game Reserve, False Bay Park, Sodwana Bay, Cape Vidal, Maputaland Marine Reserve and several smaller interconnecting protected areas (Allen and Brennan, 2004). Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife (2002) states that the iSimangaliso Wetland Park has five ecosystems located contiguously. This area was declared by the Ramsar Convention as a wetland site of international significance, and the Park was declared a United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) World Heritage Site in December 1999.

Harrison (2004) asserts that Hluhluwe-Imfolozi is the oldest game sanctuary in Africa. In terms of historical significance Imfolozi can be seen as the site where Zulu war victories were celebrated as well as the royal hunting ground of King Shaka (Brooks, 2000). According to Harrison (2004), Hluhluwe-Imfolozi is Big 5 country thus, attracting international tourists who stay at Ezulwini Private Park and then visit the Big 5. The Big 5 comprise of the following animals: Leopard, Rhinoceros, Lion, Elephant and Buffalo. Horner (2005) suggests that

Hluhluwe-Imfolozi is synonymous with the annual game auction whereby excess animals are sold to buyers around the world.

Figure 4.4 The Nibela community in relation to the Ezulwini Private Park



4.4.2 The Tala Private Game Park

The Tala Private Game Park is situated within the Mkhambathini Municipality as illustrated in Figure 4.5. According to ISIBUKO SE AFRICA Development Planners (2006), the Mkhambathini Local Municipality's is located between eThekweni Metro and the Msunduzi Local Municipality where two major urban centres (Durban and Pietermaritzburg) are located. Economic development and advancement of Mkhambathini does not only depend on the N3 route, but a combination of factors including further development and diversification of the key economic sectors such as agriculture, tourism, commerce and industry (ISIBUKO SE AFRICA Development Planners, 2006). ISIBUKO SE AFRICA Development Planners (2006) state that Mkhambathini is located within the Midlands Mistbelt which is famous for its high agricultural potential. Vast sugar cane fields are located to the east of the N3 and poultry farming is another critical agricultural activity.

The population is slightly imbalanced with females outnumbering the males since it is a rural area (ISIBUKO SE AFRICA Development Planners, 2006). Historically, males tend to migrate to urban areas in search of employment (Fox, 2000). ISIBUKO SE AFRICA Development Planners (2006) suggest that approximately 17% of the total workforce is skilled and the income is approximately below R6 000 per annum (approximately R500 a month). Thus, the communities are living below the poverty line and the local government has to mobilise stakeholders to promote Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) and develop economic infrastructure. ISIBUKO SE AFRICA Development Planners (2006) state that Mkhambathini Local Municipality has a high rate of people who have no formal schooling. Mkhambathini Local Municipality is currently serviced by mobile clinics within the municipality. Furthermore 29.5% of the women who visited the antenatal clinics were Human Immunodeficiency Virus/ Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (HIV/AIDS) infected (ISIBUKO SE AFRICA Development Planners, 2006).

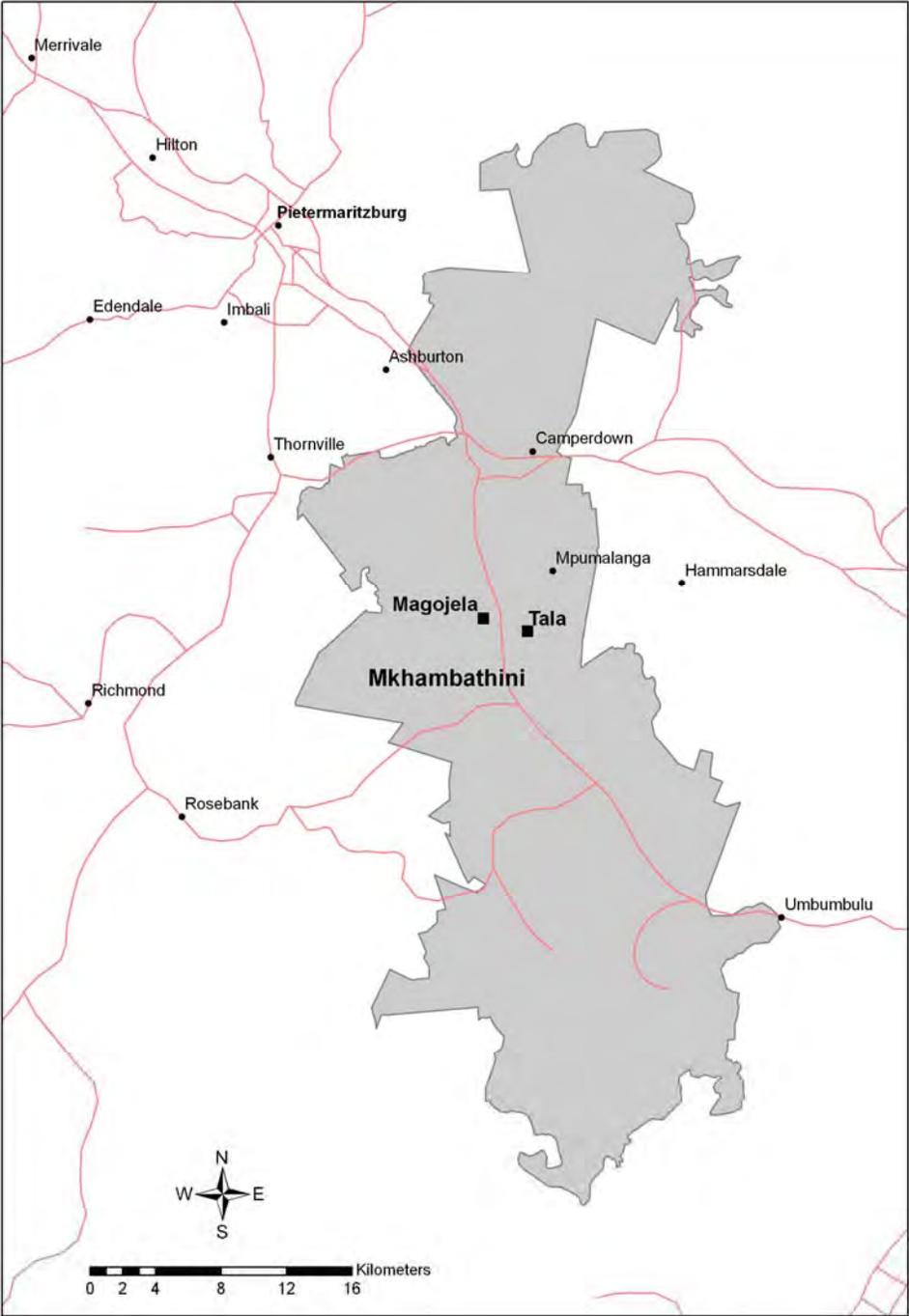
The name Tala originates from a Zulu word meaning 'Land of Plenty' (Harrison, 2004). Harrison (2004) states that this Private Game Park comprises of 3 000 hectares (Figure 4.5) and incorporates three distinct habitats. It comprises of three hundred species of birds and big game that include rhino, buffalo, wildebeest, hippopotamus, giraffe, zebra and twenty species of

antelope including the rare sable (Harrison, 2004). The Tala Private Park comprises of remarkable plant species such as fiery aloe, imposing euphorbia and wild sage (Harrison, 2004). This Private Game Park is located 45 minutes from Durban and 20 minutes from Pietermaritzburg in the province of KwaZulu-Natal.

There are many scenic locations for tourists to visit around Pietermaritzburg which is closer to the Tala Private Park such as Howick Falls, Alan Paton Museum, Albert Falls Resource Reserve, Butterflies for Africa, Lion Park and the Zoo, National Botanical Gardens, Alexandra Park, Queen Elizabeth Park and Midmar Dam. Davey and Davey (2007) state that Pietermaritzburg is well known for its preserved Victorian buildings and many of the historic sites in the country which include the place where Mohandas Gandhi was forcibly removed from a First Class carriage in June 1893 and Nelson Mandela made his last speech prior to being incarcerated on Robben Island for 27 years (Pietermaritzburg Tourism, 2005/2006). Pietermaritzburg hosts the annual Midmar Mile, the Dusi Canoe Marathon as well as the Comrades Marathon, a 90 kilometres race which has taken place between this city and Durban since 1921 (Davey and Davey, 2007).

The area surrounding the Tala Private Park was proclaimed to be malaria free and incorporates facilities such as horse-riding, game drives and hiking trails. The Morula Education Centre at Tala Private Game Park specialises in overnight school excursions whereby learners carry out bush walks, game drives, river tubing, abseiling and participate in the ringing, weighing and measurement of Tala's birds. Learners are taught how to hold and release a wild bird. Tala Private Park caters for weddings, private functions and banqueting. Tala Private Park provides the service of a coordinator and an executive chef. The private Park owner has a farm that supplies La Tala Restaurant with produce as well as other stores such as Fruit and Veg City and Spar. Tala Private Park provides employment to the local community of Magojela in the Park as well as in the farm, Vitahfresh. There is a rock pool as well as braai facilities for day visitors. The Tala Private Game Park comprises of Leadwood Lodge, Figtree Lodge, Paperbark Lodge, Aloe Lodge, Rustic Lodge and Rondavels.

Figure 4.5 The Magojela community in relation to the Tala Private Park



4.5 Methodological approaches

This section attempts to describe the various processes used to carry out the comparative study between Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. The manner in which the research was conducted will be explained in detail.

4.5.1 Quantitative and qualitative methods

The major split in research approaches is sometimes presented as a distinction between quantitative and qualitative research (Laws et al., 2003). In this study both qualitative and quantitative approaches were used. Goodson and Phillimore (2004) define qualitative research as a mode of research that does not place its emphasis on statistics or statistical analysis which is focused on the objective measurement and analysis of the data collected. The qualitative approach is likely to collect an immense amount of valued information about relatively few cases rather than the more limited information about each of a large number of cases which is typical of quantitative research (Veal, 2006).

Ragin (1994) suggests that qualitative research methods are at times referred to as data enhancers thus allowing crucial elements of a problem or phenomenon to be seen much more clearly and that yield a relatively small amount of information about a large number of respondents or observations. Attempts to incorporate qualitative social scientific information into interdisciplinary models exist such as in agent-based modelling (Dray et al., 2006). However, White et al. (2009) state that there are relatively few studies that actually integrate social, ecological and economic information.

Quantitative research focuses on the collection of statistics that are then analysed through a selection of statistical techniques (Weaver and Lawton, 2000). The advantage of a quantitative statement is its accuracy which enables less room for subjective bias to enter into the collection and interpretation of data (Matthews, 1981). Veal (2006) asserts that quantitative research necessarily tends to impose the researcher's view on a situation; the researcher will decide which are the important issues, which questions are to be asked and determine the whole framework within which the discourse of the research is conducted.

4.5.2 Quantitative methods

Veal (2006: 40) asserts:

The quantitative approach to research involves statistical analysis. It relies on numerical evidence to draw conclusions or to test hypotheses. To be sure of the reliability of the results it is often necessary to study relatively large numbers of people and to use computers to analyse data. The data may be derived from questionnaire surveys, from observation involving counts or from secondary sources.

Ryan (1995) affirms that quantitative research is increasing in sophistication of analysis given the increasing power and reduced cost of computerisation. Questionnaires were used in this study to collect quantitative data.

4.5.2.1 Questionnaire survey

Parfitt (1997) states that in the context of human geography, the questionnaire survey is an indispensable tool when primary data is necessary about people, their behaviour, attitudes and opinions as well as their awareness of particular issues. Veal (2006) states that the questionnaire survey entails the gathering of information from individuals using a formally designed schedule of questions or interview schedules. Monette et al. (1990) indicate that questionnaires should be designed so that they can be answered without assistance. Questionnaires answered without assistance should be self-explanatory and contain no ambiguities (Robinson, 1998). Veal (2006) contends that a questionnaire survey relies on information from respondents, thus the accuracy of what respondents say depends on their own power of recall, on their own honesty, and especially the format of the questions included in the questionnaire.

Robinson (1998) emphasises that questionnaires provide a quick and often inexpensive manner of discovering the characteristics and beliefs of the population at large. In this study questionnaires were administered to five stakeholders (visitors, tour operators, local community, Park personnel and Park owner). Face-to face interviews were carried out with the visitors, tour operators, local communities and Park personnel. These personal interviews allowed the researcher to assist the respondents if required to explain questions and gave the researcher an opportunity to probe for clarification when necessary. Telephonic interviews were carried out with tour operators since tour operators did not respond to e-mailed questionnaires. Telephonic

interviews are cost-efficient and supervision of the interviews is easier (Goeldner and Ritchie, 2006; Monette et al., 1990).

There are basically two types of questions that can be used in questionnaires: closed-ended or open-ended. Monette et al. (1990) refer to closed-ended questions as being those that provide respondents with a fixed set of alternatives from which they are to choose. Parfitt (1997) suggests that closed questions are far easier to ask, answer and process. Robinson (1998: 386) states that there are six different types of closed format questions:

- *Single answer:* It is necessary for the respondents to choose a single reply from a preselected list of options, consisting of mutually exclusive categories.
- *Multiple answers:* The respondents can tick none, one or more than one box in response to a question.
- *Rank order:* These expand the multiple choice question by adding information on relative preferences.
- *Numeric:* The researcher can anticipate the range of possible answers except the respondent has to specify a particular value within the anticipated range.
- *Likert-style formats:* A likert scale is a form of ranking scale in which a series of statements are provided indicating attitudes towards a chosen topic.
- *Semantic differential:* Respondents are presented with a set of opposing adjectives as answers to questions and are invited to indicate their response either numerically or graphically.

Monette et al. (1990) refer to open-ended questions as questions to which the respondents write their own responses. The main advantage of open-ended questions is that they allow for spontaneous responses, unencumbered by the sorts of answers which the researcher considers as being valid (Parfitt, 1997). Robinson (1998) states that open-ended questions are sometimes referred to as forced choice questions but they have the advantage of greater specificity. Veal (2006) states that there are disadvantages associated with open-ended questions such as a certain amount of judgement would be required in grouping individual answers which could lead to errors. In the case of respondent completed questions, response rates to such questions can be very low. People are often too lazy or too busy to write out free-form answers (Veal, 2006).

4.5.2.2 Selection of sample

Robinson (1998) states that different sampling plans are adopted according to different requirements since the chief aim is frequently for the sample to act as a reliable substitute for the whole statistical population from which the sample is being drawn. The sampling methodology is concerned with theory and practice of obtaining as efficiently as possible accurate sample estimates of population parameters (Matthews, 1981).

Robinson (1998) asserts that as the sample is a substitute for the population it should represent the characteristics of that population as closely as possible. This sample should be a reliable substitute as it should represent the variability in the population as closely as possible (Hammond and McCullagh, 1982). Veal (2006) emphasises that a sample which is not representative of the population can only be described as biased and the whole process of sample selection must be aimed at minimising bias in the sample.

Robinson (1998) asserts that if a study of an entire population is not possible or is not desirable perhaps on aspects such as time and cost then there are both non-probability and probability sampling schemes. Probability sampling consists of random sampling, systematic sampling, stratified random sampling and cluster sampling, whereas non-probability sampling involves convenience sampling, quota sampling, dimensional sampling, purposive sampling and snowball sampling (Bailey, 1994).

For the purpose of this study samples were chosen in relation to the various stakeholders (visitors, tour operator, local communities, Park personnel and Park owner) at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. These are discussed below.

4.5.3 Visitors (Appendix 1)

Two hundred visitors (one hundred in each study area: Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park) were chosen using the purposive sampling approach. A purposive sample represents the selection of “typical individuals” and usually known as the case study approach whereby a typical example is selected for study because it is considered to possess particular characteristics (Robinson, 1998). The visitors were approached while in the Park. However, in Tala Private Park respondents were interviewed in certain designated areas of the private Park since

accommodation outlets were out of bounds for the researcher. Visitors pay increasing amounts for accommodation and expect privacy. Some visitors indicated that they did not have time to fill out the questionnaire immediately, but would leave completed questionnaires at the reception desk at their leisure.

4.5.4 Tour operators (Appendix 2)

A questionnaire was administered to ten different tour operators in both Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park, giving a total of twenty tour operators. The tour operators were purposively selected using lists obtained from the management of both the private Parks. Initially, the researcher administered the questionnaire electronically. However, none of the respondents completed the questionnaire. Whilst administering the questionnaires to the visitor respondents at Ezulwini Private Park the Park personnel introduced the researcher to a tour operator who was willing to answer a questionnaire. Nine of the tour operator respondents that tour Ezulwini Private Park were interviewed telephonically. All the tour operator respondents that tour Tala Private Park were interviewed telephonically.

4.5.5 Local community (Appendix 3)

The questionnaires were administered to one hundred household respondents from a community residing near to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. A total of two hundred household respondents (one hundred households from each of the communities identified in each of the private Parks) were interviewed using a systematic sampling approach. This means that every fifth household was interviewed in the respective communities since in both communities there were approximately 500 households. The community that was bordering Ezulwini Private Park that was surveyed was Nibela (Figure 4.4) and the community that was bordering Tala Private Park that was surveyed were Magojela (Figure 4.5). The community household responses were captured through the use of questionnaires. Fieldworkers who were fluent in isiZulu were trained in a workshop session since the researcher's first language is English. This enabled the fieldworkers to understand and clarify any misunderstandings and misconceptions. The fieldworkers also assisted in identifying potential participants for the focus groups (discussed later) whilst networking with the community respondents during the questionnaire survey.

4.5.6 Park personnel (Appendix 4)

Ten personnel each (including managers) were interviewed at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. Purposive sampling approaches were adopted to ensure that different types of Park personnel were interviewed at each of the sites. A questionnaire survey was administered to the Park personnel after an appointment was made.

4.5.7 Park owner (Appendix 5)

The Park owners were interviewed at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. The Park owner of Ezulwini Private Park and the Park owner of Tala Private Park were consulted and an appointment was scheduled to conduct an interview session. A questionnaire survey was administered to the Park owner after an appointment was made.

4.5.8 Qualitative methods

This style of investigation concentrated on unquantifiable concepts such as life experiences and perceptions. The strength of adopting a qualitative, participatory approach lies in the ability of the researcher to capture people's experiences in their own terms and to begin to tease out underlying meanings and processes. Veal (2006) states that the qualitative approach to research is not concerned with numbers, it entails gathering a great deal of information about a small number of people rather than a limited amount of information about a large number of people.

Ryan (1995: 28) argues:

Qualitative research can be a source of ideas, insights and new perspectives upon a problem. Hence, in spite of all the doubts that are expressed as to the ability to generalise from its findings, the problems inherent in interpretation of the meanings and comparative importance of respondents' comments, and the possible invalidation of responses because of the social dynamics that can occur within small groups, techniques such as focus groups, role play and projection techniques are all commonly used within the commercial sector of the tourism industry. Tour operators have intensively used focus groups to assess the reaction to their brochures, to the nature of destinations, and to help in the formulation of television advertising.

According to Weaver and Lawton (2000), in terms of subject matter qualitative methods usually involves a small number of respondents or observations, but is considered in depth and is

suitable for situations where little is known about the subject matter. The focus was on participatory methods.

4.5.8.1 Participatory methods

Jobbins (2004) states that Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) was developed as a deliberate reaction to “flying visit” research which was supported by specialists who were on brief missions. This PRA approach which was used by outside experts was thought to result in biased conclusions owing to a lack of understanding of local knowledge and perspectives (Jobbins, 2004). The core process is to enable participants to share their perceptions of problems, to find common ground and then to engage a range of people in identifying and testing out some possible solutions (Laws et al., 2003). Mitchell (2002) contends that PRA requires local people to undertake their own investigations, to develop solutions and to implement action. PRA has a better chance of developing solutions to problems, for the reason that it actively involves those community members who best understand and have the greatest stake in the issues at hand (Laws et al., 2003). There is a need to be transparent about what the participation process can actually achieve and why it should not unnecessarily raise stakeholders’ expectations of control over the outcome (Milligan et al., 2009).

Participants’ local knowledge such as common sense, wisdom and expertise that is inherent in their traditional, indigenous or popular knowledge is valued and respected (Hill and Birch-Thomsen, 2005). Jobbins (2004) states that by integrating with communities over long periods of time researchers can better deal with problems such as trust, understanding local perspectives on issues, negotiating local micro-politics and power relations.

Mikkelsen (1995) contends that the overruling principle of PRA is to use your own best judgement at all times. Laws et al. (2003) brings up an important point that researchers need to be conscious of the impact of their own attitudes, behaviour and feelings and to have a commitment to hand over power and initiative to others. Chambers (1994: 1254) provided a set of principles that were specific to PRA and these are:

- They do it. The intention is to facilitate investigation, analysis, presentation and overall learning by local people so that they generate and own the results and learn from them.

- Self-critical analysis. Facilitators continuously assess their own behaviour, acknowledging and accepting that they will make mistakes and seek to learn from failures.
- Personal responsibility. Practitioners take personal responsibility for decisions and actions and do not look to the authority of manuals or rules for PRA.
- Sharing. Information and ideas are shared openly among local people, among them and external facilitators and among different PRA practitioners.

Laws et al. (2003) state that the main aim in PRA is empowerment and the key to participatory research is to make links between local communities and the larger policy framework. Milligan et al. (2009) assert that PRA is a tool requiring careful preparation and thoughtful evaluation. Some consideration needs to be given to the potential costs involved, for example, the time the participatory process may take to function effectively and the costs of allocating staff to the process (Milligan et al., 2009). Mikkelsen (1995) asserts that each PRA situation is unique given that people who participate have unique problems, cultural contexts, ideas and understanding of issues. The personnel at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park guided the researcher about where to find diverse groups of individuals from within the local community. Various respondents were chosen from diverse social and economic profiles to ensure representativeness of the local communities near to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. Kreuger (1988: 18) defines a focus group as a "carefully planned discussion designed to obtain perceptions in a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment". Furthermore, Knodel (1993 cited in Borghi et al., 2007: 531) states that focus groups are a more straight forward approach to explore a broad spectrum of individual views. The focus groups (2 in total one in each rural community under study) followed a schedule of key issues to discuss and specific participatory exercises or activities. Participatory exercises carried out in this study were ranking exercises, mental mapping and venn diagrams. The focus groups were conducted with eight people per group in each community. The focus groups comprised of respondents of diverse gender, age, education levels and disabilities.

4.5.8.1.1 Venn diagrams

Mitchell (2002) suggests that venn diagrams assist in identifying individuals and organisations that are important to the community and their relationships can be depicted diagrammatically. Bob (1999) refers to venn diagrams as visual models used to represent the role of individuals, institutions and the degree of importance in decision-making. They can also be referred to as 'chapatti' diagrams which are visual representations of the diverse power structures that the community perceives to be influencing decisions at the community level. The circles represent each structure and the overlapping of circles displays the relationship between the structures. The larger the circle, the greater the perceived influence. The overlapping of circles is indicative that they overlap in respect of membership and/ or decision-making (Mikkelsen, 1995). This technique assisted the researcher to comprehend the roles of the local and outside organisations and the perceptions that people have about them. Venn diagrams were used by the researcher as an instrument to demonstrate which institutions are the most important and who participates in what and is represented by whom. In terms of ecotourism, venn diagrams visually illustrate the power and decision-making structures.

4.5.8.1.2 Ranking exercise

According to Bob (1999), pair-wise ranking and scoring are tools for recognising issues of concern, their causes and prioritising these problems. Mikkelsen (1995) points out that ranking and scoring have long been used to assess people's expectations, beliefs, judgements, attitudes, preferences and opinions. Theis and Grady (1991) state that ranking exercises can be used to ensure that the problems of less powerful groups are at least thrashed out and acted upon. Ranking and scoring is effective in obtaining sensitive information (Mikkelsen, 1995).

In this research context, groups from the local community adjacent to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park contributed in the problem-ranking exercises using pair-wise ranking and scoring. The focus group in each community compiled a list of all the problems experienced by them. A matrix was used within each of the communities and each problem was weighted against another. The first step entailed identifying and extracting the issues that are facing the communities. Prior to the actual ranking, the problems experienced were discussed fully. Respondents were aware that different groups within the communities experienced various problems and some are better off than others. The problems were listed and then scored and

ranked in order of their importance to the communities. This exercise made the researcher aware of the problems faced by communities living near private Parks.

4.5.8.1.3 Mental mapping

According to Kong (1998), mapping is commonly conducted among people who belong to the same community and know each other, not simply for convenience of organisation or to enable triangulation of responses, but to facilitate post-exercise action among group members. Participants work in focus or peer groups, for example, a group of unemployed males, one for female household heads, another for divorced men. These exclusive groupings enable the participants to share experiences and develop ideas independently of those with different competing personalities (Ashby, 1996). Essentially, the respondents are able to see the results of the research immediately provided the researcher or facilitator affords them an opportunity to analyse and discuss the map themselves. Bob (1999) indicates that mental maps are crucial to geography and participatory methodologies since they can focus on different aspects of rural life for example social issues, health, wealth, social stratification, livestock and economic activities. Khanyile (2002) states that resource mapping, which can illustrate different natural resources, assists the communities and experts to understand how different segments see the communities' resources and how they differ from outsiders' perceptions.

Mental mapping exercises were carried out within each of the focus groups in this study to develop an understanding of how the local communities perceive their relationship with Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. The maps were drawn on the floor using large posters and coloured pens. Spatial methods such as mental mapping aids in team building and can form the basis for conflict resolution and addressing differences of opinions (Khanyile, 2002). An important advantage of mental maps is that it can be made with great ease anywhere, and focus groups within communities can carry on with their tasks. Maps can be drawn on the ground and translated onto paper or photographed. Thus, respondents are able to see the mental map and are able to picture the researcher's interpretation of the discussions.

4.9 Procedure for the analysis of the data

Flowerdew and Martin (1997) state that data analysis methods require careful thought as they can play an important role in moving a research project from a simply descriptive exercise to one that produces new insight and information. Monette et al. (1990: 395) indicate:

All research involves some form of data analysis, which refers to deriving some meaning from the observations that have been made as a part of the research project. Data analysis can take many forms. In some cases, it is qualitative in nature, such as a summary description of an investigator's field notes from a participant observation study.

One of the more confusing aspects of data analysis is deciding on what technique to use in a given situation (Fotheringham, 1997). Data evaluation must consider the nature of information available since judgements are being made continuously as to what is an appropriate test (Ryan, 1995). Different procedures were used to analyse quantitative and qualitative data in this research. The computer software Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows was used to analyse the quantitative data. Tables and graphs were generated using Microsoft Excel. The Crosstabulation analysis was carried out from the data obtained from the tables. The Crosstabulation procedure forms two-way and multi-way tables and provides a variety of tests and measures of association for two-way tables (Matthews, 1981). The structure of the table and whether categories are ordered determine what test or measure to use (Hammond and McCullagh, 1982). Crosstabulation statistics and measures of association are computed for two-way tables only. Crosstabulation tables show combined frequency distribution for two or more variables (SAS Institute Inc, 1989). If you specify a row, a column, and a layer factor (control variable), the Crosstabulation procedure forms one panel of associated statistics and measures for each value of the layer factor (or a combination of values for two or more control variables).

Numerous studies often collect data on categorical variables that can be summarised as a series of counts (Pagano and Gauvreau, 2000). These counts are arranged in a tabular format commonly known as a contingency table (Pagano and Gauvreau, 2000). This study used the chi-square test also known as chi-squared or χ^2 which is any statistical hypothesis test in which the sampling distribution of the test statistic is a chi-square distribution when the null hypothesis is true or any in which this is asymptotically true, implying that the sample distribution (if the null

hypothesis is true) can be made to approximate a chi-square distribution as closely as possible by making the sample size large enough (Greenwood and Nikulin, 1996).

The value of the chi-square statistic cannot be negative and can assume values from zero to infinity (Pagano and Gauvreau, 2000). The p-value for this test statistic is based on the chi-square probability distribution and this p-value represents the probability that the chi-square test statistic is as extreme as or more extreme than observed if the null hypothesis were true (Rosner, 2000). If $p < 0.01$ then there is a significant difference whereas if $p > 0.01$ then there is no significant difference.

Various participatory methods were used to analyse the qualitative data. The participatory tools that were employed were ranking exercises, chappati or venn diagrams and mental mapping. Participatory approaches were used in this research to gain an insight into the communities' problems. Thus, the focus groups became an interactive process as opposed to a question and answer technique that is usually susceptible to an unequal power relation between the researcher and the respondent. Ranking and scoring exercises assisted the researcher to make an assessment of the community's expectations, beliefs, judgements, attitudes, preferences and opinions. The scoring and ranking exercises assisted in prioritising these issues that were raised by the community respondents. Mental mapping required the representatives of the community to map geographical features such as roads, houses and rivers of the area. The use of venn diagrams provided a graphical understanding of the social capital that was present within the Nibela and Magojela communities.

In terms of the data analysis, given the focus on stakeholders, the data was examined in relation to each stakeholder group. Additionally, the issues were discussed thematically within each stakeholder group. Where relevant, comparisons are undertaken in terms of responses among the stakeholder groups.

4.10 Fieldwork experiences

A preliminary visit took place to inform the private Park about the research process. Permission was sort to interview all the stakeholders. The owners at both the respective private Parks were willing to answer the questionnaire. They also allowed the researcher to interview visitors at

appropriate times and in certain designated areas. The researcher lived in close proximity to the Tala Private Park and interviewed the visitor respondents during the weekends. The Park personnel were interviewed during their lunch breaks or when not attending to visitors.

At Ezulwini Private Park the researcher had to telephonically obtain information about the visitors from the Park personnel. This was because the visitor respondents selected package tours to Ezulwini Private Park which consisted of an overnight stay. Furthermore, prior accommodation arrangements had to be made for the researcher and the fieldworkers as accommodation was not always available at Ezulwini Private Park.

Some visitors at Ezulwini Private Park felt the questionnaires were very lengthy. They agreed to answer at their leisure and leave the questionnaire with the Park personnel. Thus, the researcher either collected the questionnaire in the morning or evening from the reception desk. The Park personnel at the reception desk at Ezulwini Private Park were very co-operative. Every morning and evening a list of those visitors who checked-in and checked-out was recorded as well as the accommodation that they occupied.

Some of the community respondents felt that numerous studies had been undertaken and they had not received any feedback from other researchers. Numerous community respondents at Ezulwini Private Park were afraid that the researcher would divulge the information to the owner and it could be used against them and jeopardise their jobs. Thus, research assistants from the community had to be trained to interact with the community respondents adjacent to Ezulwini Private Park. The majority of the community respondents are fluent in isiZulu with limited understanding of English. Therefore, the researcher had to get assistance from fieldworkers residing in the area which enabled them to translate the questionnaire into isiZulu, and the community respondents felt more at ease when responding.

There was difficulty in locating the tour operators that visit the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. The Park personnel provided a list of tour operators who could be contacted telephonically or via e-mail. The Park personnel notified the researcher that there were two tour operators who could be interviewed at Ezulwini Private Park. However, only one tour operator responded to the questionnaire. The other tour operator felt that questionnaires were answered

previously and the researcher received no feedback. The rest of the tour operators were contacted by means of the e-mail. However, the questionnaires were not completed. The tour operator respondents were eventually interviewed telephonically.

The focus group exercises were challenging yet informative in both the communities. At Ezulwini Private Park the accommodation personnel assisted the researcher in establishing contact with the local community. At Tala Private Park two of the security guards at the main entrance gate to the private Park assisted the researcher in locating local community respondents. The participatory exercises were carried out in isiZulu and then translated by the research assistants into English for clarification purposes.

4.11 Conclusion

This chapter explained the methodology that was used in this study. The researcher attempted to address the research objectives with broad research questions that were driving the research study. The techniques chosen provided the opportunity to investigate and explore the themes under investigation in a flexible manner. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in this study. Discussions of the case studies that were chosen and sample selection were addressed. Fieldwork experiences were discussed in detail thus, assisting other researchers in their research endeavours.

CHAPTER FIVE

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

5.1 Introduction

Using SPSS, this chapter quantitatively analyses the data captured from the survey questionnaires and presents the results with the aid of tables and graphs. Additionally, qualitative techniques in the form of participatory exercises were employed to provide information, as Robinson (1998) states, enhance the quantitative analysis. The participatory exercises used in this study consisted of venn diagrams, problem ranking matrix and mental mapping exercises undertaken with the local community.

To present the findings of the survey questionnaire and the qualitative participatory exercises in a consistent manner this chapter is divided into five sections. Each section represents individual stakeholders who were identified in the comparative study between Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. The data is examined thematically and relevant comparisons were made, where applicable. The stakeholders consisted of the following respondents:

1. visitors;
2. tour operators;
3. local communities residing alongside Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park;
4. Park personnel; and
5. Park owners.

5.2 Visitors

Lindberg (1991) stresses the importance of dedication and time as a function of defining varied types of ecotourists (including day-visitors), including what they wish to experience from ecotourism, where they wish to travel and how they wish to travel. The globalisation of capital has resulted in an expansion of wealth within many economically emerging countries, providing an increasing number of people with the means and leisure to regularly participate in recreational tourism (Chambers, 2009). This section examined the visitor (both tourists and day-trippers) responses in relation to the following thematic aspects:

- demographic profiles;

- general understanding of key ecotourism concepts;
- visitation and travel patterns;
- Park experience;
- impacts of tourism (specifically ecotourism in relation to social, economic and environmental impacts); and
- suggestions to promote ecotourism.

5.2.1 Demographic profiles

Table 5.1 Nationality of visitors (in %)

Nationality	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
USA	11	2	6.5
Australian	-	3	1.5
British	4	3	3.5
Canadian	18	-	9
French	15	-	7.5
Indian	-	3	1.5
Japanese	-	4	2
Kenyan	-	1	0.5
Nigerian	-	1	0.5
Philippine	-	3	1.5
South African	48	69	58.5
Sri Lankan	-	8	4
Swedish	4	-	2
Taiwanese	-	3	1.5

Table 5.1 illustrates that 48% of the respondents to the Ezulwini Private Park and 69% of the respondents to the Tala Private Park were South African. Similarly, Luxner (2005) reported that the majority (60%) of the guests visiting the Kwantu Private Game Reserve, located in South Africa were domestic tourists.

The first democratic elections took place during 1994 and only 3.9 million foreign visitors arrived in the country (Brand South Africa, 2008). According to Allen and Brennan (2004), the number of European visitors visiting South Africa in 1999 rose by 4% to 334 226 compared to

250 000 visitors in 1995. This indicates the positive impact that the demise of apartheid has had on international tourism. The international visitors (52%) visiting Ezulwini Private Park consisted mainly of American (55.77%) and European visitors (44.23%). American visitors were defined as respondents that resided either in America or in Canada. European visitors were defined as respondents that resided either in Britain, France and Sweden. Van Eeden (2004) similarly revealed that approximately 18 000 bed-nights were sold each year at the Shamwari Game Reserve located in the Eastern Cape, with the vast majority of international visitors residing either in Europe or North America. The majority of these foreign visitors purchased packages in the home country through selected tour operators who market Shamwari as part of a Garden Route trip (Van Eeden, 2004).

Similarly, in this study, the international visitors visiting Ezulwini Private Park also purchased packages in their home country through selected tour operators. Ezulwini Private Park is used as a stop-over for visitors who were travelling to destinations such as Kosi Bay Nature Reserve and Sodwana Bay towards the iSimangaliso Wetland Park, Hluhluwe-Imfolozi Game Park, Richards Bay, Ballito, Umhlanga Rocks and Durban. In contrast, the international visitors (31%) visiting the Tala Private Park consisted mainly of Asian visitors (67.74%). Asian visitors were categorised as respondents that resided either in India, Japan, Sri Lanka, Philippines or Taiwan. It would seem that Tala Private Park as a destination within South Africa has been effectively targeting Asian countries.

Table 5.2 South African visitors from different provinces (in %)

Province	Ezulwini (n=48)	Tala (n=69)	Total (n=117)
Free State	-	2.90	1.45
Gauteng	10.42	5.80	8.11
KwaZulu-Natal	66.67	89.86	78.26
North West Province	-	1.45	0.72
Western Cape	22.92	-	11.46

Allen and Brennan (2004) stated that domestic tourism plays a considerable economic role than the overseas sector in South Africa. They further asserted that KwaZulu-Natal is the most popular destination for domestic visitors. KwaZulu-Natal, Gauteng and Mpumalanga are three key provinces which account for 64% of total trips in respect of source travel and

correspondingly receive 60% of the domestic tourism trade (South African Tourism, 2004). In most countries the vast majority of tourists were domestic tourists (Shaw and Williams, 2002). Nationally, DEAT (1996) and the KwaZulu-Natal provincial Department of Economic Affairs, Agriculture and Tourism (DEAAT) (2001) affirm that domestic tourism serves as an essential role in the country's tourism industry and economy. These government departments envisage that the domestic tourism market will continue to grow as previously disadvantaged people become tourists and travellers.

Table 5.2 shows that the majority of domestic visitors that visit Ezulwini Private Park (66.67%) and Tala Private Park (89.86%) resided in KwaZulu-Natal. Domestic visitors seem to favour Tala Private Park which is in close proximity to the two major cities (Durban and Pietermaritzburg) in KwaZulu-Natal. Tala Private Park is located 45 minutes away from Durban and 20 minutes away from Pietermaritzburg, whereas Ezulwini Private Park is located about 3 hours away from both cities. Similarly, in the study carried out by Chellan (2005), 37% of the domestic visitors visiting the iSimangaliso Wetland Park which is located in KwaZulu-Natal resided in the province of KwaZulu-Natal.

Other domestic visitors that visited the Ezulwini Private Park were from the Western Cape (22.92 %) and Gauteng (10.42%). Among those domestic respondents visiting the Tala Private Park, 5.80% were from Gauteng, 2.90% were from the Free State and 1.45% were from the North West Province. In an effort to bolster tourism in KwaZulu-Natal, the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park are marketed extensively as upmarket wedding and conference venues that were accessible and available to ordinary South Africans (Wedding and Function, 2009). According to Van Rooyen (2009: 11), "a new breed of tourists are flocking to South Africa - not for a safari or a round of golf, but to say I do. About half of the 8 000 couples who tie the knot during the wedding season which runs from September to March are foreigners taking advantage of the exchange rate".

By promoting domestic tourism, foreign exchange outflows are reduced as less locals travel to foreign countries (Saayman et al., 2001). Consequently, in order to maximise foreign exchange earnings from tourism, countries try to promote domestic tourism or place restrictions on the amount of money taken out of the country within a certain time-frame (Graham, 1999; Mill and

Morrison, 1985). However, research has shown that a rise in domestic tourism in emerging nations such as China and India is becoming one of the major changes in the tourism potential of these countries and will result in significant new opportunities for regional economic development as well as various problems associated with tourism (Chambers, 2009). For example, in China, 80% of the domestic tourist trips are to National Parks and these National Parks hosted more than one billion domestic tourists in 2006 (Ma et al., 2009). However, in instances where environmental controls remain weak and where distribution of the cost and benefits of economic development can be uneven, the potentially negative effects of such rapid development should be of concern to the residents of that country (Tisdell and Wen, 2001).

Table 5.3 Domestic day-trippers at Tala Private Park (in %)

Province	Tala (n=66)
Free State	1.52%
Gauteng	4.55%
KwaZulu- Natal	92.42%
North West Province	1.52%

To determine how many domestic visitors were day-trippers to the Tala Private Park, the researcher carried out a crosstab analysis (Table 5.3). Results indicate that the majority (95.65%) of domestic visitors (n = 66) visiting the Tala Private Park were day-trippers. The majority of these day-trippers were from KwaZulu-Natal (92.42 %) followed by visitors that reside in Gauteng (4.55 %), Free State (1.52 %) and North West (1.52 %) provinces. In contrast, all the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park stayed at the Park lodge. A significant amount of day-trippers from KwaZulu-Natal could be attributed to Tala's proximity to Durban and Pietermaritzburg. This enables visitors to spend the day and then return home. Additionally, the Tala Private Park is a 5 star resort and the accommodation is very exclusive and expensive. It is possible that locals are unable to afford to stay as overnight guests. The lodges at Tala Private Park were approximately R1 200 per person per night and are inclusive of a three course meal. The exclusivity of Tala Private Park makes it only affordable to the wealthy and this study supports the concerns that private Parks tend to be elite, only to be enjoyed by the wealthy.

Figure 5.1 Gender of respondents (n =100 in each Park)

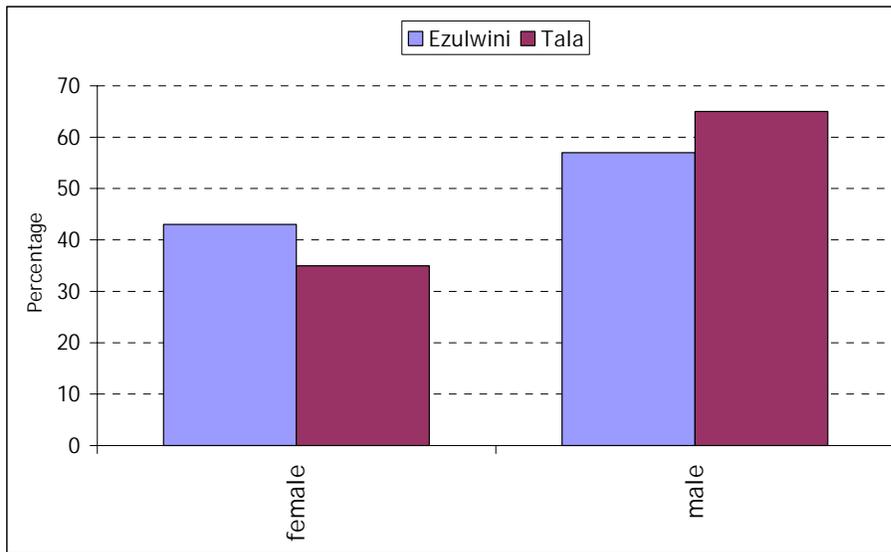


Figure 5.1 shows that 43% of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park were female and 57% were male. Thirty five percent of the respondents that visited Tala Private Park were female and 65% were male. Similarly, Desai (2005) observed that there were more males (63%) than females (37%) in the Karoo National Park, South Africa. Likewise, Higham and Carr (2002) reported that the visitor respondents to Aotearoa, New Zealand comprised of more males (56%) than females (44%). However, this result shown in Figure 5.1 does not necessarily imply that there were more male visitors in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park than female visitors. Interestingly, the researcher noted that visitors travelled in family groups and questionnaires were answered predominately by the male respondents while the female respondents tended to the children.

Table 5.4 Marital status of respondents (in %)

Marital	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Divorced	15	2	8.5
Married	50	73	61.5
Separated	-	3	1.5
Single	35	21	28
Widowed	-	1	0.5

Fifty percent of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park were married while 35% were single and 15% were divorced. In contrast, results show that the majority of the respondents (73%) visiting the Tala Private Park were married, 21% were single, 3% were separated and 2% were divorced (Table 5.4). Similarly, Okech (2004) indicated that 45% of the respondents in the Amboseli National Park and 73% of the respondents in Masai Mara National Reserve were married. Likewise, the majority of the tourists to the Ocala National Park in the United States were married with children (Stein et al., 2003). There seems to be a trend for families and individuals who were not married to visit Parks as a means of relaxation.

Table 5.5 Age of respondents (in %)

Age (in years)	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
18-21	4	6	5
22-30	42	18	30
31-40	23	34	28.5
41-50	5	21	13
51-60	26	15	20.5
60-65	-	6	3
	x=36.6	x=39.6	x=38.1

Table 5.5 shows that the majority (58.5%) of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park were between the ages of 22 and 40 years old. However, the majority of the respondents (42%) visiting the Ezulwini Private Park belonged to a younger age category (22-30 years), whereas in the Tala Private Park the majority of the respondents belonged to an older age category (31-40 years). The average age for the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park was 36.6 years (ranging from 18 to 60 years) whereas the average age of the respondents at the Tala Private Park was 39.6 years (ranging from 18 to 65 years). Okech (2004) observed a

similar trend (the average age of respondents were in their thirties) relating to respondents visiting the Amboseli National Park and Masai Mara National Reserve in Kenya. According to Okech (2004), the younger age groups have a greater economic independence, are highly motivated and are keen to discover their natural environment.

Table 5.6 Education level of respondents (in %)

Education	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Secondary	8	19	13.5
Tertiary	92	81	86.5

Researchers have confirmed that ecotourists are well educated (Diamantis, 1999; Eagles and Cascagnette, 1995; Hvenegaard and Dearden, 1998). In South Africa, Boshoff et al. (2007) observed that the majority of the respondents (81%) at the Addo Elephant National Park comprised of individuals who possessed a high educational qualification. Similar trends were observed in this study, with all the respondents obtaining at least a secondary qualification. More specifically, 92% of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park and 81% of the respondents visiting the Tala Private Park obtained a tertiary qualification (Table 5.6).

Table 5.7 Occupation of respondents (in %)

Occupation	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Administrator	-	8	4
Artisan/technician	-	13	6.5
Businessperson	32	18	25
Community worker	-	2	1
Farmer	-	1	0.5
Home executive	-	2	1
Labourer	-	1	0.5
Private driver	-	1	0.5
Professional	59	36	47.5
Psychic	-	1	0.5
Retired	4	6	5
Self-employed	-	4	2
Student	-	7	3.5
Unemployed	5	-	2.5

Table 5.7 indicates that the majority of the respondents from the Ezulwini Private Park (59%) and Tala Private Park (36%) were professionals. The remaining respondents from the Ezulwini Private Park comprised of businesspersons (32%), unemployed (5%) and retired persons (4%). Of the respondents visiting the Tala Private Park, 18% were businesspersons, 13% were artisans or technicians, 8% were administrators, 7% were students, 6% were retired and 4% were self-employed (Table 5.7). The results obtained are consistent with Stein et al. (2003) and Wearing and Neil (1999) who observed that most of their tourist respondents had a tertiary qualification and had higher income levels.

Table 5.8 Income in South African currency (Rands) per month (in %)

Income	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
R1,000-R10,000	24	31	27.5
R11,000-R20,000	36	33	34.5
R21,000-R30,000	5	16	10.5
R31,000-R40,000	-	4	2
R41,000-R50,000	35	2	18.5
R51,000-R60,000	-	4	2
R61,000-R70,000	-	7	3.5
R71,000-R80,000	-	3	1.5
	x=R24,100	x=R22,300	x=R23,200

Results from this study confirm that ecotourists have a higher than average income (Wearing and Neil, 1999). From Table 5.8 it is evident that the majority of the respondents (36%) from the Ezulwini Private Park earn between R11,000 - R20,000. Similarly, majority (33%) of the respondents visiting the Tala Private Park had an income of between R11,000 - R20,000. However, the average monthly income of respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park was R24,100 ranging from (R1,000 to R50,000) whereas the average monthly income of respondents at Tala Private Park was R22,300 ranging from R1,000 to R80,000). Furthermore, a chi squared analysis confirmed that the income distribution between the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park and the Tala Private Park are statistically different ($\chi^2 = 54.21, p < 0.05$). That is, in terms of this study, Ezulwini Private Park visitors earn significantly more than Tala Private Park visitors. This could be due to the larger number of day-trippers who do not spend as much as visitors.

Table 5.9 Description of visitor group (in %)

Group	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Alone	5	1	3
Business colleagues	-	10	5
Church group	-	2	1
Co-workers	-	7	3.5
Family	23	61	42
Friends	9	16	12.5
Research group	-	2	1
Tour group	63	1	32

Table 5.9 illustrates that amongst the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park, 63% were part of a tour group, 23% described their group as being family, 9% were with friends and 5% of the respondents were alone. Of the respondents from the Tala Private Park, 61% of the respondents were with family, 16% of the respondents were friends, 10% of the respondents were with business colleagues, 7% of the respondents were co-workers, 2% of the respondents belonged to church or to research groups, and the remaining respondents were either alone (1%) or belonged to a tour group (1%). From the results obtained it is evident that the vast majority of visitors travelled in a group. Likewise, Stein et al. (2003) described that most of their respondents in Ocala National Park, in the United States were similar to respondents of Tala Private Park who had travelled with their families to nature-based recreation sites. As indicated earlier, groups of friends and/or family seem to be prominent.

Table 5.10 Reasons for visiting South Africa (in %)

Reason	Ezulwini (n=52)	Tala (n=31)	Total (n=83)
Business	-	48.39	24.19
Holiday	88.46	22.58	55.52
Ship anchored at port	-	6.45	3.23
Training	-	3.23	1.61
Visit family and friends	11.5	19.35	15.45

Table 5.10 shows that foreign respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park were either on holiday (88.46%) or were visiting family and friends (11.5%). At the Ezulwini Private Park respondents had travelled via tour operators. Thus, many of the international visitors were in South Africa as part of a packaged holiday and therefore their motivations and expectations were

essentially linked to the natural environment, family and relaxation (Eagles, 1992). The majority of the foreign respondents visiting the Tala Private Park were on business (48.39%). Tala Private Park is popular amongst business persons due to the availability of conference facilities and the close proximity of the Park to the major economic hubs (that is, Durban and Pietermaritzburg) in KwaZulu-Natal. The results reveal that they are a range of reasons why people visit private Parks or ecotourism sites generally. These reflect the multiple marketing strategies as well as the different motivations that influence people to travel.

5.2.2 General understanding of key ecotourism concepts

This sub-section examines visitor respondents understanding of ecotourism in relation to level of environmental studies, understanding of key environmental concepts and self-rating as environmentalists. The key environmental concepts chosen were wetland ecology, conservation of natural areas, biodiversity, ecotourism, sustainability and world heritage principles which were considered to be important.

Table 5.11 Main source of knowledge about the environment (in %)

Environmental studies	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
None	5	20	12.5
School	-	18	9
Self taught	42	34	38
Short courses	-	1	0.5
Technical	-	2	1
University	53	24	38.5
Work	-	1	0.5

In order to profile the visitors that were interviewed in this study, it was necessary to gain an understanding of where they mainly get their knowledge of environmental issues from. Of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park, 53% studied environmental issues at university level, 42% indicated that their knowledge of the environment was attained through self learning and 5% had not undertaken any environmental studies. Of the respondents visiting Tala Private Park, 34% indicated that their knowledge of the environment was attained through self learning, 24% of the respondents had a university qualification, 20% of the respondents had not undertaken any environmental studies, 18% of the respondents had undertaken environmental

studies in school, 2% of the respondents had a technical qualification, and one respondent each had undertaken short courses and obtained environmental knowledge through employment. Wearing and Neil (1999) describe ecotourists as being more concerned with their development and fulfilment as well as including self-teaching in comparison to mainstream tourists. This study reveals the importance of self learning since 38% of the respondents identified this as the main source through which they gain knowledge or information about the environment.

Table 5.12 Key environmental concepts and level of understanding (in %)

Concepts	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Wetlands ecology			
None	5	19	12
Vague	26	22	24
General	29	41	35
Good	22	14	18
Detailed	18	4	11
Conservation of natural areas			
None	5	3	4
Vague	-	12	6
General	24	47	35.5
Good	46	29	37.5
Detailed	25	9	17
Biodiversity			
None	5	17	11
Vague	-	16	8
General	22	39	30.5
Good	35	22	28.5
Detailed	38	6	22
Ecotourism			
None	5	7	6
Vague	-	27	13.5
General	22	36	29
Good	42	25	33.5
Detailed	31	5	18
Sustainability			
None	5	4	4.5
Vague	-	24	12
General	35	32	33.5
Good	35	31	33
Detailed	25	9	17
World heritage principles			
None	-	27	13.5
Vague	20	30	25
General	28	21	24.5
Good	28	14	21
Detailed	24	8	16

There is a close relationship between tourism and the environment as discussed by Lickorish and Jenkins (1997). Interpretive messages and experiences need to be designed not only to meet the needs at the tourist destination but also to contribute to enhanced wildlife conservation awareness which tourists can take with them when they return to their normal lives or visit some other natural area in the future (Newsome et al., 2004). A self-rating scale in relation to six broad environmental concepts (which were wetland ecology, conservation of natural areas, biodiversity, ecotourism, sustainability and world heritage) were used to determine the level of environmental understanding and conservation awareness amongst the visitors visiting both Parks.

Fifty five percent of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park and 63% of the respondents from Tala Private Park had a vague or general understanding on the concept on wetlands ecology. Forty eight percent of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park and 51% of the respondents from Tala Private Park had a vague or general understanding on world heritage principles. Seventy percent of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park and 76% of the respondents from Tala Private Park had a general or good understanding on issues relating to the conservation of natural areas. Fifty seven percent of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park and 61% of the respondents from Tala Private Park had a general or good understanding on biodiversity. Sixty four percent of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park and 61% of the respondents from Tala Private Park had a general or good understanding on the concept of ecotourism. Seventy percent of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park and 63% of the respondents from Tala Private Park had a general or good understanding of sustainability (Table 5.12). It is important for visitors to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park to develop a better understanding on the concepts such as wetlands ecology and world heritage principles as this will create a level of environmental consciousness and social awareness.

Figure 5.2 Self-rating as environmentalists (n=100 in each Park)

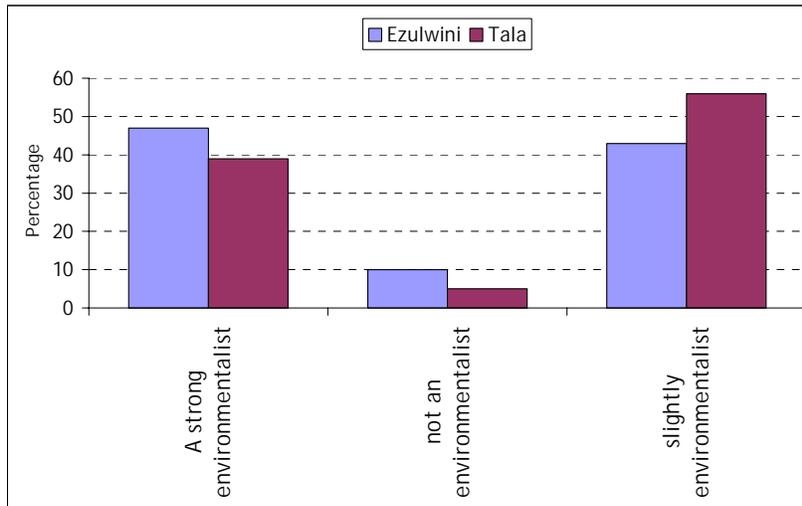


Figure 5.2 indicates that the majority of the respondents (47%) at the Ezulwini Private Park rated themselves as strong environmentalists and the majority of the respondents (56%) to Tala Private Park were slight environmentalists. In Ezulwini Private Park, 43% of the respondents rated themselves as slight environmentalists and 10% of the respondents rated themselves as non-environmentalist. In the Tala Private Park, 39% of the respondents rated themselves as strong environmentalists and 5% of the respondents rated themselves as non-environmentalists. From (Figure 5.2) it can be deduced that visitors to private Parks (Ezulwini and Tala) perceived themselves as environmentally conscious with the majority indicating some understanding of key concepts and very few respondents stating that they were not environmentalists.

5.2.3 Visitation and travel patterns

This sub-section examines visitation, travel patterns and issues in relation to main reasons for visiting the private Parks; number of times visitors visited natural areas, private Parks and South Africa; means of travel; frequency of travel to other destinations; and sources of information about the private Parks.

Table 5.13 Main reason for visiting the Parks (in %)

Main reason for visiting	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Adventure	5	9	7
Business	26	2	14
Experiencing game	15	14	14.5
Relaxation	42	66	54
Study/research purposes	-	4	2
To obtain environmental knowledge	7	-	3.5
To visit natural areas	5	5	5

From Table 5.13 it is clear that the majority of the respondents (42% and 66%, respectively) at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park declared that relaxation was the most important reason for visiting the respective Parks. This was similar to the reasons for travelling to South Africa identified by the respondents in Table 5.10 where holidays emerged as the main reason why respondents visited South Africa. Comparable results were obtained by Boshoff et al. (2007) who reported that 78% of the respondents considered peace and quiet as an important reason for visitors touring the Addo Elephant National Park in South Africa. Other reasons for visiting Ezulwini Private Park were business purposes (26%), experiencing game (15%), gaining environmental knowledge (7%), adventure (5%) and visiting of natural areas (5%). Other reasons for visiting Tala Private Park were experiencing game (14%), adventure (9%), visiting of natural areas (5%), studying or research purposes (4%) and business purposes (2%). It would seem that visitors visiting Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park also had a preference for adventure, as indicated by Tran and Ralston (2006) whereby they would like to visit unusual and exotic destinations to gain new experiences, enjoy the unique environment or challenge their skills.

Table 5.14 Number of times that respondents visit natural areas (in %)

Times	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Once	9	21	15
2 to 5 times	60	79	69.5
6 to 10 times	11	-	5.5
10 to 15 times	15	-	7.5
15 to 20 times	5	-	2.5
	x=5.8	x=2.9	x=4.4

The level of visitor participation in issues relating to the environment were analysed with respect to the number of visits made to natural areas. Table 5.14 indicates that the majority of the respondents to Ezulwini Private Park (60%) and Tala Private Park (79%) visited natural areas between two to five times. In contrast, only one-third of both cabin visitors and on-site tourists at the Ocala National Park, in the United States visited natural areas between one and three times over the past year (Stein et al., 2003). The average number of times that respondents from the Ezulwini Private Park visit natural areas was 5.8 (ranging from 1 to 20) whereas the average number of times that respondents from the Tala Private Park visit natural areas was 2.9 (ranging from 1 to 5).

Table 5.15 Means of travel to Parks (in %)

Travel	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Airplane	-	6	3
Bus	-	2	1
Company vehicle	-	5	2.5
Packaged tours	52	1	26.5
Hired vehicle	14	7	10.5
Own vehicle	34	79	56.5

From Table 5.15 it is evident that 52% of the respondents to Ezulwini Private Park arrived by packaged tours, 34% used their own vehicles and 14% used a hired vehicle. Seventy nine percent of the respondents who visited Tala Private Park used their own vehicle, 7% hired a vehicle, 6% of the tourist respondents arrived by airplane, 5% used a company vehicle, 2% arrived by bus and one respondent conducted a tour with a tour operating company. In Tala Private Park, 89% of the visitors comprised of day-trippers (Table 5.26) who use their own

motor vehicles to visit the Park. This is due to Tala Private Park being in close proximity to Durban and Pietermaritzburg. Increase in motor vehicles to Tala Private Park could result in an increase in air pollution as well as environmental degradation in the Park. In Tala Private Park, for example, it was observed that most of the day visitors use their private vehicles to travel in the Park to view the wildlife. While there are rules to where to drive, it was observed that some vehicles, especially the off-road vehicles, go off the designated roads closer to the animals.

Table 5.16 Domestic respondent's means of travel to Parks (in %)

Travel	Ezulwini	Tala
	(n=48)	(n=69)
Airplane	-	2.90
Bus	-	1.45
Conducted tour	-	1.45
Hired vehicle	29.17	-
Own vehicle	70.83	94.20

To determine the mode of transport of day-trippers that travelled to the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park, the researcher carried out a crosstab analysis (Table 5.16). Results indicated that the majority of the domestic respondents used their own vehicles to travel to Ezulwini Private Park (70.83%) and Tala Private Park (94.20%).

Table 5.17 Frequency of travel to other destinations (in %)

Frequency of Travel	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Always	16	41	28.5
Frequently	64	46	55
Rarely	20	13	16.5

The globalisation of capital has resulted in an expansion of wealth within many economically emerging countries, providing an increasing number of people with the means and leisure to regularly participate in recreational tourism (Chambers, 2009). Similarly, results from this study shows that 64% of the respondents to the Ezulwini Private Park frequently travel to other destinations, 20% of the respondents rarely travel to other destinations and 16% of the respondents always travel to other destinations. Comparatively, 46% of the respondents to the Tala Private Park frequently travel to other destinations, 41% of the respondents always travel to

other destinations and 13% of the respondents rarely travel to other destinations. Similarly, Boshoff et al. (2007) noted that the majority of the respondents at Addo Elephant National Park in South Africa frequently visited other South Africa's Private Reserves. Therefore, it is clear that visitors to ecotourism sites travel frequently.

Table 5.18 Domestic respondent's frequency of travel to other destinations (in %)

Frequency of Travel	Ezulwini (n=48)	Tala (n=69)
Always	10.42	42.03
Frequently	60.42	46.38
Rarely	29.17	11.59

In order to determine the proportion of domestic visitors that visited other destinations, the researcher carried out a crosstab analysis. Table 5.18 indicates that the majority of the respondents at both Parks frequently visit other tourist destinations. According to Rogerson and Lisa (2005), three domestic tourism surveys conducted during the 1990s revealed that South Africa's domestic tourism economy showed a surge in the levels of activity and a change in its structure and nature. Furthermore, Koch and Massyn (2001) stated that this could be attributable to the demise of apartheid and an increase in prosperity among previously disadvantaged race groups. Historical racial categories of the visitors were not considered in this study to assess whether more Blacks are travelling to private Parks. Saayman et al. (2001) analysed the issue of leakages and suggested that the greater the leakage to other provinces, the smaller the total output effect of tourist spending within the province. These leakages are as a result of the importation of goods and services as a result of the inability of developing economies to provide the tourist goods and services the tourists expect (Van Harssel, 1994; Niedermeier and Smith, 1995).

Table 5.19 Sources of information about Parks (in %): Multiple responses

Sources	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Television	5	2	3.5
Travel brochures	10	19	14.5
Word of mouth	9	77	43
Internet	46	15	30.5
Printed media	15	14	14.5
Tour operators	41	1	21
Hotels/motels/lodges	-	2	1
Environmental organisations	26	8	17
Wedding	-	1	0.5
Drive-by	-	3	1.5

To identify the important sources of tourism information, the respondents were asked about where they obtained information about the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Parks. Three distinct capabilities made the internet a very powerful tool comprising of interactivity, connectivity and convergence (Sigala, 2002). Respondents to Ezulwini Private Park used the internet (46%) to research areas and to interact with tour operators (41%). Respondents to Tala Private Park felt that word of mouth (77%) was a powerful tool to promote the Park while other sources of information relating to the Park included travel brochures (19%), internet (15%) and printed media (14%). Similarly, when investigating ecotourism ventures in the Western Cape, South Africa, Mannix (2004) found that word of mouth attracts more customers than do promotional pamphlets or printed media.

Table 5.20 Number of times visited South Africa (in %)

Many Times	Ezulwini (n=52)	Tala (n=31)	Total (n=83)
Once	75	45.16	60.08
Twice	15.38	12.90	14.14
4 times	9.62	22.59	16.10
5 times	-	19.35	9.68

x=0.7**x=1.5****x=1.1**

The majority of the foreign visitors (75%) visiting Ezulwini Private Park and 45.16% of the respondents of the Tala Private Park had previously visited South Africa. Mannix (2004: 196)

emphasises that foreign tourists venture to South Africa in part because they know that our currency is weak compared to other currencies and that a similar tourism service offered in the United States of America would be three times as expensive. More importantly, it was noted that 52% and 29% of the foreign respondents to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park, respectively, indicated that they would visit South Africa again thus contributing to the growing economy of the country. The average number of times that respondents from Ezulwini Private Park visited South Africa was 0.7 (ranging from 1 to 4). The average number of times that respondents from Tala Private Park visited South Africa was 1.5 (ranging from 1 to 5). It is important to note that although for the majority of the foreign respondents (60.08%) this is their first visit to South Africa, a significant proportion (39.92%) of the visitors were repeat visitors. Specifically, the majority of the foreign visitors to Tala Private Park (54.84%) were repeat visitors to South Africa. Repeat visitation is an important indicator of the attractiveness of a destination and also alludes to the long term sustainability of a tourism site.

Table 5.21 Number of times the private Parks were visited (in %)

Many	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Once	61	59	60
Twice	15	12	13.5
Thrice	-	13	6.5
4 times	11	6	8.5
7 times	-	10	5
12 times	13	-	6.5
	x=1.5	x=1.1	x=1.3

The majority of the respondents visited Ezulwini Private Park (61%) and Tala Private Park (59%) only once (Table 5.21). The remaining respondents visited Ezulwini Private Park twice (15%), 4 times (11%) and 12 times (13%) whereas, the remaining respondents visited Tala Private Park twice (12%), thrice (15%), 4 times (6%) and 7 times (10%). The average number of times that respondents from Ezulwini Private Park visited this Private Park was 1.5 (ranging from 1 to 12) whereas the average number of times that respondents from Tala Private Park visited this private Park was 1.1 (ranging from 1 to 7). The Ezulwini private Park has a higher number of repeat visitors when compared to Tala Private Park. This could be attributed to visitors purchasing tour packages which include Ezulwini Private Park as a stop-over destination to Kosi Bay Nature Reserve, Sodwana Bay, iSimangaliso Wetland Park and Hluhluwe-Imfolozi

Game Park. Again, a significant proportion of the respondents (40%) were repeat visitors to the private Parks indicating the attractiveness and sustainability of the Parks.

5.2.4 Park experience

This sub-section examines different aspects of respondents' experiences in relation to ecotourism sites generally and their visits to Tala Private Park and Ezulwini Private Park specifically. Rating of experiences, duration of stay, activities involved or participated in, choice of accommodation and attitudes towards the parks are considered.

Table 5.22 Rating of the private Parks under study with Parks in other parts of the world (in %)

Rate	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Best	19	10	14.5
Second best	71	31	51
Third best	5	33	19
Not applicable	5	26	15.5

It is evident from Table 5.22 that majority of the respondents (71% and 31%, respectively) rated both the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park as being second best in relation to Parks in other parts of the world. The positive ratings of the Parks are congruent to the repeat visitation to natural areas reflected in Table 5.17. The excellent ratings obtained by Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park in comparison to other Parks in the world could be attributed to the abundant viewing of wildlife at these Parks. Empirical research shows that not only do tourists see wildlife viewings as a primary travel motivation, their visits are generally revolved around few charismatic wildlife species (Akama and Keiti, 2003; Kerley et al., 2003). This is especially applicable to South African tourism because guide books and tour packages illustrate and extensively market the big five (elephants, rhinos, lions, leopards and buffalo) as must-see attractions in the country (Beh and Bruyere, 2007).

Table 5.23 Duration of stay at the Parks (in %)

Staying	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
1 night	31	4	17.5
2 nights	69	1	35
3 nights	-	2	1
4 nights	-	2	1
Day visitor	-	91	45.5

It is clear that the majority of the respondents (69%) visiting Ezulwini Private Park spend two nights in the Park and the remaining respondents spent at least one night at the Park. In contrast, the majority of the respondents (91%) visiting Tala Private Park were day visitors. In addition to viewing the wildlife at Tala Private Park, there are excellent facilities for day-trippers that include (i) braai facilities, (ii) a rock pool for the children (Plate 5.1), and (iii) restaurant facilities. Additionally, Tala Private Park is situated within close proximity to the densely populated cities of Durban and Pietermaritzburg. Ezulwini Private Park had a designated area where a camp fire is lit during winter and tour groups get to socialise or enjoy a catered braai. The pool facilities were also available to those visitors who want to relax and sunbathe. For those visitors who prefer indoor entertainment there were meals provided in an enclosed area with a cosy fire place to keep one warm during winter and lots of games to keep one entertained.

Plate 5.1 Rock pool at Tala Private Park



Table 5.24 Independent activities undertaken at the Parks (in %)

Independent activities	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Nature study			
Yes	30	31	30.5
No	70	69	69.5
Taking photos			
Yes	64	85	74.5
No	36	15	25.5
Meeting locals			
Yes	20	14	17
No	80	86	83
Bird watching			
Yes	31	42	36.5
No	69	58	63.5
Hiking			
Yes	9	12	10.5
No	91	88	89.5
Fishing			
Yes	-	4	2
No	100	96	98
Purchasing of arts and crafts			
Yes	10	22	16
No	90	78	84
Camping			
Yes	-	6	3
No	100	94	97

By understanding tourist motivations for visiting parks and recreational areas, an interpretive program can be designed to assist visitors to achieve desired benefits (Beh and Bruyere, 2007). Consequently, the independent activities undertaken by respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park were examined (Table 5.24). Results presented in Table 5.24 show that the majority of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park (64%) and Tala Private Park (85%) had independently taken photographs. Independent nature study was undertaken by 30% of the respondents of the Ezulwini Private Park and by 31% of the respondents of the Tala Private Park.

Furthermore, 31% of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and 42% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park experienced bird watching in the Park. Nine percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 12% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park participated in independent hiking activities. Wearing and Neil (1999) advise that independent activities such as hiking, picnicking, camping and nature photography are considered acceptable within National Parks and reserve areas. With respect to dealing with management problems resulting from these activities, Frost and McCool (1988) state that regulating tourist behaviour is a widespread approach. Such regulations often go beyond prohibitions such as on litter, alcohol and noise, and may adopt an overt management approach that directly restricts what tourists can do at a site, where they may go and how many people may be in an area at a certain time (Fennell, 2003)

Twenty percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 14% at Tala Private Park made an attempt to meet locals. Only 10% of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 22% of the respondents at Tala Private Park purchased arts and crafts from local community members. Despite some of the respondents enthusiasm to interact and educate themselves about the local communities cultures, there are dilemmas and potential problems for indigenous peoples (Altman and Finlayson, 1992) and it can be a complicated task to balance cultural integrity with concepts of commercialisation (Fuller et al., 2005). As will be indicated later, this research is similar to other studies (for example, Brown and Harris, 2005; Croall, 1995; Fennell, 2003; Holden, 2005; Lickorish and Jenkins, 1997) that reveal that some of the main social impacts of tourism on local communities are the erosion of indigenous cultures and the superficial staging of cultural aspects linked to the commodification of culture.

Table 5.25 Guided activities undertaken at the Parks (in %)

Guided activities	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Nature study			
Yes	31	13	22
No	69	87	78
Taking photos			
Yes	43	17	30
No	57	83	70
Meeting locals			
Yes	5	7	6
No	95	93	94
Bird watching			
Yes	39	14	26.5
No	61	86	73.5
Hiking			
Yes	19	5	12
No	81	95	88
Fishing			
Yes	-	2	1
No	100	98	99
Purchasing of arts and crafts			
Yes	19	7	13
No	81	93	87
Camping			
Yes	6	2	4
No	94	98	96

The table above illustrates the guided activities undertaken by the respondents. Wearing and Neil (1999) suggest that face-to-face interpretation is a dominant and valuable interpretive technique that can be tuned to the type of tourists that are participating in the guided tour. If the guided tour is carefully designed, managed and delivered, managers and guides can emphasise their role in protecting wildlife and have the potential to influence the conservation knowledge, attitudes and behaviour of tourists (Ballantyne and Parker, 2005; Packer et al., 2007). Results presented in Table 5.25 show that most of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park (43%) and in Tala Private Park some of the respondents (17%) had undertaken guided photograph tours. Guided nature study was undertaken by 31% of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private

Park and by 13% of the respondents visiting the Tala Private Park. Additionally, 39% of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park and 14% visiting the Tala Private Park experienced guided bird watching tours in the Parks. Nineteen percent of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park and 5% of the respondents visiting the Tala Private Park participated in guided hiking activities.

Only 5% of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park and 7% of the respondents visiting the Tala Private Park participated in guided tours to meet the local community. Additionally, 19% of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park and 7% of the respondents visiting the Tala Private Park purchased arts and craft as part of a guided tour. Due to the poor responses to guided tours at both Parks, it would seem that these activities need to be proactively marketed using brochures that could advertise the educational knowledge that tourists could gain from these guided endeavours. Additionally, at the reception desk, personnel need to inform tourists about what types of guided activities are available.

Table 5.26 Choice of accommodation (in %)

Accommodation	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Day-trip	-	89	44.5
Staying with family and friends	-	3	1.5
Hotel	-	-	-
Lodge	100	8	54

From Table 5.26 it is evident that all the respondents that visited Ezulwini Private Park stayed in the lodges. With regards to Tala Private Park, 89% of the respondents comprised of day-trippers, with 8% of the respondents staying in lodges and 3% of the respondents staying with family and friends. Chin et al. (2000) indicate that 40% of the tourists who visit Malaysia's Bako Park are local people and are recognised as being day-trippers. Also, Ryan and Sterling (2001) observed that Litchfield National Park in Australia attracts high levels of local day users because of the swimming facilities. Likewise at Tala Private Park the day-trippers were attracted to the range of entertainment facilities available. Additionally, respondents at Tala Private Park mentioned the following reasons for not staying at the Park:

- close proximity to their homes (33%);

- time constraints (32%);
- financial constraints (17%); and
- first time visitors (10%).

Table 5.27 Feelings towards the Parks (in %)

Feelings	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Very satisfied	66	39	52.5
Quite satisfied	5	36	20.5
Satisfied	29	22	25.5
Not satisfied	-	3	1.5

The majority of the visitors to Ezulwini Private Park (71%) and Tala Private Park (75%) responded positively (very satisfied and quite satisfied) towards their respective Parks. However, 3% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park were not satisfied with the Park. Again, the results reveal the generally positive visitor experiences.

5.2.5 Impacts of tourism

This sub-section examines the social, economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism in relation to visitor perceptions.

5.2.5.1 Social impacts

Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with specific statements related to limiting visits to households and sacred sites, local visitor activities, time of visits and limits to cultural information. Forty two percent of the respondents in the Ezulwini Private Park and 3% of the respondents in the Tala Private Park agreed that they have met the local community whilst staying at the private Parks. Ninety six percent of the respondents to Ezulwini Private Park and 70% of the respondents to Tala Private Park would be keen to meet and learn about the local people and their cultures.

Table 5.28 Perceptions regarding local community tourism (in %)

	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Hosts should set limits on entry to households and sacred sites			
Strongly agree	50	49	49.5
Agree	50	41	45.5
Strongly disagree	-	2	1
Disagree	-	7	3.5
Not applicable	-	1	0.5
Hosts establish preferred or permitted visitor activities			
Strongly agree	48	49	48.5
Agree	52	40	46
Strongly disagree	-	8	4
Disagree	-	2	1
Not applicable	-	1	0.5
Hosts indicate appropriate times for visitor access and use			
Strongly agree	46	50	48
Agree	54	43	48.5
Strongly disagree	-	4	2
Disagree	-	2	1
Not applicable	-	1	0.5
Hosts set limits on access to cultural knowledge and rituals			
Strongly agree	46	46	46
Agree	32	38	35
Strongly disagree	5	4	4.5
Disagree	17	11	14
Not applicable	-	1	0.5

Table 5.28 examines the perceptions that visitors had regarding local community tourism. Fuller et al. (2005) emphasised that tourism has the potential to allow for the destructive intrusions into indigenous community life. Worldwide there has been a widespread belief that the development of ecotourism has not brought the promised nirvana to either tourists or host populations (Inglis, 2000). According to the WTO (1999), there were countless examples demonstrating that tourism development has created more costs than benefits for local community stakeholders and there is

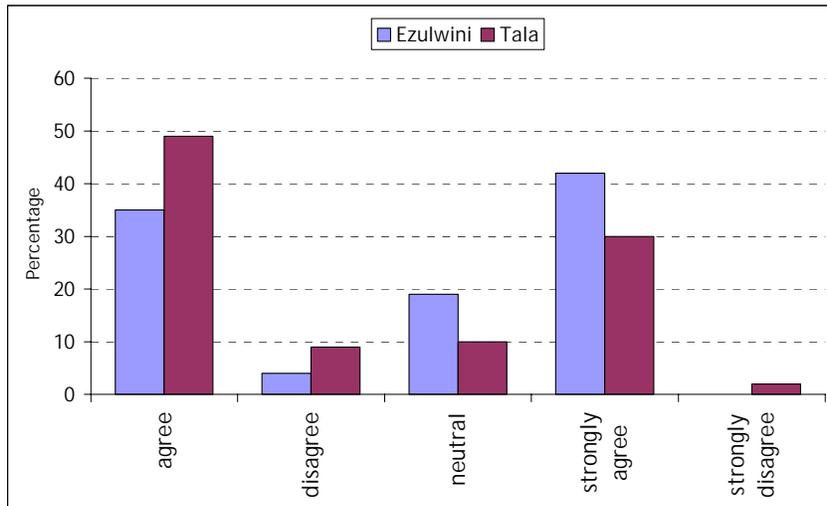
probably a silent majority who could shout about the negative impact that tourism has had on their lives. Additionally, there is potential for cultural clashes relating to differences in attitudes and value systems. Many indigenous people, for example, find many questions asked by foreign tourists about cultural aspects as being offensive. By regulating access and entry to cultural tourism sites and activities, the local community can protect themselves from over-exploitation and intrusion.

An overwhelming majority of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park strongly agreed or agreed that (i) hosts should set limits on entry to households and sacred sites (100% and 90%, respectively), (ii) hosts should establish preferred or permitted tourist activities (100% and 89%, respectively), (iii) hosts should indicate appropriate times for tourist access and use (100% and 93%, respectively), and (iv) hosts should set limits on access to cultural knowledge and rituals (78% and 84%, respectively). The results reveal that the respondents generally supported responsible interaction with local communities and felt that respecting local cultures and people were important. This is in keeping with the literature that reveals that ecotourists tend to respect local cultures

5.2.5.2 Economic impacts

The economic impacts are discussed in relation to whether respondents perceive tourism as an economic activity and what are the key benefits that local communities should derive from the private Parks.

Figure 5.3 Perception of tourism as an economic activity (n=100 in each Park)



Saayman and Saayman (2006) indicated that tourism has been labelled as the economic driver of the twenty-first century due to the multiplier effect of tourist spending and the linkage of the industry to almost all other industries. For example, based on the reputation of the Kruger National Park a large number of industries in close proximity to the Park have started focusing on offering more tourism related products thus contributing to income and employment in the province (de Villiers, 2008). Figure 5.3 shows that 77% of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 79% of the respondents at Tala Private Park strongly agreed or agreed that tourism is an economic activity and therefore by its very nature provides maximum profits. However, 4% of the respondents to Ezulwini Private Park and 11% of the respondents to Tala Private Park strongly disagreed or disagreed that tourism is an economic activity. Nineteen percent of the respondents to Ezulwini Private Park and 10% of the respondents to Tala Private Park provided a neutral response to the question. It is interesting to note that within the Ezulwini Private Park the owner also cultivates pineapples thus creating employment to supplement the operational expenses of the Park. The owner of Tala Private Park cultivates fresh produce which is supplied to major food chains and the restaurant La Tala situated within the Private Park. The results support key findings in the literature (for example, Bushell and McCool, 2007; Fennell 2003; Naguran, 1999) that reveal that the economic aspect remains a key driver of ecotourism. Profit-making, as Allen and Brennan (2004) illustrate, is a particularly important consideration in relation to private Parks.

Table 5.29 Views on the benefits that local communities should receive from tourism (in %): Multiple Responses

Benefits that the local communities should receive from tourism	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Access to the area anytime	25	-	12.5
First preference for employment	43	-	21.5
Build schools	26	-	13
Assist existing schools	26	-	13
Economic benefits	18	41	29.5
Employment	-	41	20.
Environmental awareness	5	-	2.5
Percentage of profits can be used for schools and clinics	15	-	7.5
Profits	-	14	7
Funding for projects	11	-	5.5
Cultural promotion	11	-	5.5
Skills development	-	19	9.5
Social upliftment	-	26	13

Respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park identified that first preference for employment (43%), building of new schools (26%), assisting existing schools (26%) and access to the Park (25%) as key benefits that the local community should receive from tourism. The majority of the respondents at the Tala Private Park listed economic benefits (41%), employment (41%) and social upliftment (26%) as key benefits that the local communities should receive from tourism. Clearly, the main community benefits are linked to economic impacts linked either to job creation or investing in community infrastructure and services. It is interesting to note that only 5% of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park (none in Tala Private Park) identified environmentally-related benefits.

5.2.5.3 Environmental impacts

The environmental impacts are discussed in relation to whether respondents engage in environmentally-friendly behaviour. Furthermore, respondents' perceptions of various forms of environmental impacts and what should be done to make their visits more enjoyable are examined.

Table 5.30 How often do respondents perform specific activities (in %)

Care of the environment	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Save bottles, cans and newspapers for recycling			
Never	5	19	12
Seldom	11	13	12
Sometimes	5	17	11
Frequently	15	24	19.5
Always	64	27	45.5
Buy environmentally-friendly or recycled products			
Never	5	4	4.5
Seldom	22	17	19.5
Sometimes	19	21	20
Frequently	33	38	35.5
Always	21	20	20.5
Make donations to environmental organisations			
Never	25	17	21
Seldom	31	41	36
Sometimes	24	17	20.5
Frequently	-	13	6.5
Always	20	12	16
Conserve water			
Never	5	2	3.5
Seldom	11	14	12.5
Sometimes	10	32	21
Frequently	20	24	22
Always	54	28	41
Take public transport whenever possible			
Never	52	43	47.5
Seldom	-	12	6
Sometimes	20	24	22
Frequently	15	10	12.5
Always	13	11	12
Engage in minimal impact practices in natural areas			
Never	14	11	12.5
Seldom	15	26	20.5
Sometimes	22	12	17

Frequently	24	19	21.5
Always	25	32	28.5
Participate in local environmental group			
Never	45	42	43.5
Seldom	5	21	13
Sometimes	20	5	12.5
Frequently	10	21	15.5
Always	20	11	15.5
Write to politicians or attend meetings about environmental issues			
Never	39	55	47
Seldom	37	24	30.5
Sometimes	37	24	30.5
Frequently	-	7	3.5
Always	5	8	6.5

Results from a study on tourist perceptions at the Mon Repos Conservation Park in Queensland, Australia reported that tourists are frequently engaged in conservation actions that require a low level of commitment (recycling, conserving water and conserving energy); sometimes engaged in conservation actions that require a moderate level of commitment (purchasing environmentally-friendly products talking to others about the environment and picking up other people's litter) and never or rarely engage in conservation actions that require a high level of commitment (participating in a public land/water clean-up doing volunteer work for a group that helps the environment and donating money to a nature or conservation organisation (Ballantyne et al., 2007). Results from this study show a similar trend. Table 5.30 illustrates that the majority of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and at Tala Private Park (i) always save bottles, cans and newspapers for recycling (64% and 27%, respectively), (ii) frequently buy environmentally-friendly or recycled products (33% and 38%, respectively), (iii) seldom make donations to environmental organisations (31% and 41%, respectively), (iv) always or seldom conserve water (54% and 32%, respectively), (v) never take public transport whenever possible (52% and 43%, respectively), (vi) always engage in minimal impact practices in natural areas (25% and 32%, respectively), (vii) never participate in local environmental group (45% and 42%, respectively), and (viii) never write to politicians or attend meetings about environmental issues (39% and 55%, respectively). These tourists visiting Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park could fall into the category of hard-core nature tourists (Lindberg, 1991). According

to Lindberg (1991: 3), hard-core nature tourists are “scientific researchers or members of tours specifically designed for education, removal of litter or similar purposes”.

Table 5.31 Perceptions of various forms of impacts that they experienced in the Parks (in %)

Impacts	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Overcrowding			
Yes	-	8	4
No	100	92	96
Overdevelopment			
Yes	-	2	1
No	100	98	99
Unregulated recreation			
Yes	6	6	6
No	94	94	94
Pollution			
Yes	6	10	8
No	94	90	92
Wildlife disturbances			
Yes	-	13	6.5
No	100	87	93.5
Vehicle use			
Yes	9	18	13.5
No	91	82	86.5
Lack of signs			
Yes	-	1	0.5
No	100	99	99.5
Noxious weeds			
Yes	-	1	0.5
No	100	99	99.5

Marion and Reid (2007) show that there is evidence whereby visitation causes negative impacts and affects wildlife and their habitats. Furthermore, the greater the popularity of a site, the more likely it may become degraded due to heavy visitation which will diminish the tourists quality of experience (Hillery et al., 2001). Researchers note that reducing these negative impacts through the implementation of appropriate policies, planning and management strategies is crucial to the development of a sustainable wildlife tourism industry (Ballantyne et al., 2007; Higginbottom,

2004; Newsome et al., 2004; Rodger et al., 2007). However, results from this study (Table 5.31) indicate that an overwhelming majority of the visitors to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park did not experience negative impacts such as overcrowding (100% and 92%, respectively), overdevelopment (100% and 98%, respectively), unregulated recreation (94% in both Parks), pollution (94% and 90%, respectively), wildlife disturbances (100% and 87%, respectively), vehicle use (91% and 82%, respectively), lack of signs (100% and 99%, respectively), and noxious weeds (100% and 99%, respectively) while they were visiting the respective Parks. The results reveal that according to the visitors, the Parks are being well managed from their perspective. However, Hillery et al. (2001) indicate that previous studies on perceptions of the environmental impacts have concluded that tourists are not very perceptive of their own effects on the visited natural areas, although they do notice the direct impacts such as rubbish and vandalism of other tourists.

Table 5.32 Rating of aspects to make their visit more enjoyable (in %)

	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Educate visitors more about conservation			
Strongly agree	33	58	45.5
Agree	39	25	32
Neutral	11	10	10.5
Disagree	17	1	9
Strongly disagree	-	5	2.5
Not applicable	-	1	0.5
Limit the overall number of visitors			
Strongly agree	23	25	24
Agree	29	27	28
Neutral	31	34	32.5
Disagree	-	4	2
Strongly disagree	17	9	13
Not applicable	-	1	0.5
Limit the use of forest area			
Strongly agree	28	22	25
Agree	24	30	27
Neutral	31	36	33.5
Disagree	-	2	1
Strongly disagree	17	9	13
Not applicable	-	1	0.5
Limit the length of stay during peak periods			
Strongly agree	10	17	13.5
Agree	24	26	25
Neutral	40	27	33.5
Disagree	9	19	14
Strongly disagree	17	11	14
Not applicable	-	-	-
Provide more visitor facilities			
Strongly agree	35	33	34
Agree	24	38	31
Neutral	15	15	15
Disagree	26	8	17
Strongly disagree	-	6	3
Not applicable	-	-	-

Provide more staff			
Strongly agree	25	33	29
Agree	30	32	30.5
Neutral	28	25	27
Disagree	-	6	3
Strongly disagree	17	4	10.5
Not applicable	-	-	-
Limit the number of vehicles to the Park			
Strongly agree	40	23	31.5
Agree	24	41	32.5
Neutral	31	14	22.5
Disagree	5	9	7
Strongly disagree	-	13	6.5
Not applicable	-	-	-

It is essential for Park management to understand not only the numbers but also the activities for visitors with reference to modes of transport, seasonal behaviour patterns, types and locations of behaviours, and the toleration of visitors to various forms of management control (Ryan and Sterling, 2001). However, little is known about the interests, needs and preference of tourists (Ballantyne et al., 2007). Results from this study illustrate that the majority of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park (69%) and at Tala Private Park (83%) strongly agree or agree that their stay would be more enjoyable if visitors to the Parks were educated on conservation issues. Research has shown that many visitors to nature-based recreation areas want to learn more about the environment. Instead interpretation facilities and services continue to be lacking at these sites due to restrictions on budgets and the lack of environmental education specialists (Roggenbuck et al., 1990). In order to make their stay more enjoyable, the majority of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and at Tala Private Park strongly agreed or agreed that (i) the overall number of visitors to the Park should be limited (52% in both Parks), (ii) limit the use of forest area (52% in both Parks), (iii) the length of stay of visitors at the Park during peak periods should be limited (34% and 43%, respectively), (iv) there should be more visitor facilities (59% and 71%, respectively), (v) there should be more staff attending to visitors (55% and 65%, respectively), and (v) the number of vehicles entering the Park should be limited (64% in both Parks). Very few respondents disagreed with these statements while significant proportions were neutral. The results generally show that most respondents supported activities to promote

environmental education, restrictions to minimise environmental impacts and the provision of more visitor facilities.

5.2.6 Suggestions to promote ecotourism

Table 5.33 Suggestions to promote ecotourism (in %): Multiple Responses

Suggestions	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Abiding by the laws	-	18	9
Be respectful to local communities cultures	19	3	11
Adhere to rules	19	3	11
Conserve nature	49	11	30
Over utilisation of resources	49	11	30
Environmentally conscious	49	11	30
Reduce water consumption	49	11	30
Do not litter	49	11	30
Respect surroundings	24	17	20.5
Continuous learning through reading	24	17	20.5
Word of mouth	23	32	27.5
Spread the conservation message to other visitors by visiting more ecotourists sites	23	32	27.5
Providing foreign currency	-	3	1.5
Public awareness	-	4	2
Purchase arts and crafts	-	11	5.5
Support initiatives offered by private Parks	-	3	1.5
Supporting sustainable and responsible ecotourism	-	1	0.5

The respondents from Ezulwini Private Park and the Tala Private Park advanced various suggestions to promote ecotourism (Table 5.33). Responses from visitors visiting the Ezulwini Private Park aggregated on conservation practices such as conserving nature (49%), limiting the over-utilisation of resources (49%), being environmentally conscious (49%), reducing water consumption (49%) and being litter conscious (49%). In contrast, respondents from Tala Private Park perceived word of mouth (32%) and visiting more ecotourism destinations (32%) as important factors in their own efforts to promoting ecotourism. The results show that all the respondents identified at least one way that they can promote ecotourism. While some focused on contributing economically (providing foreign currency and purchasing arts and crafts) and

promoting ecotourism sites, most of the respondents highlighted the importance of environmentally responsible behaviours.

5.3 Tour operators

Travel agents, guides and tour operators are key stakeholders in the relationship that exists between the destination and the tourist (Fennell, 2003). Tour operators should be viewed as facilitators in ecotourism planning (Wearing and McDonald, 2002) and therefore have a number of responsibilities in order to meet the needs of visitors, employers and host communities (Weiler and Ham, 2002). The tour guide is expected to provide first-class service to visitors while efficiently managing the group, the itinerary and other logistical aspects of the experience to maximise not only visitor satisfaction but also profit margins (Cohen, 1985; Pond, 1993). Hence, the tour guide and the tour operator have an important role in meeting the tourist's expectation and the delivery of interpretation which is critically important (Cohen, 1985; Geva and Goldman 1991; Holloway, 1981; Kim et al., 2007; Orams, 1999). Tour operators may also be accountable to protected area managers through licensing or accreditation systems which require them to monitor visitor impacts, model appropriate on-site environmental and cultural practices, deliver minimal impacts and conservation messages (Weiler and Davis, 1993). Additionally, particular destinations, communities and sites may have statutory requirements as well as expectations that guides conduct themselves and their tours responsibly and ethically (Weiler and Ham, 2002). As such, tour operators have an essential and important role to promote and develop these destinations, communities and sites (Lickorish and Jenkins, 1997). In addition, Cousins (2007) states that with demand for this industry increasing (both as a tool for conservation and a gateway for members of the general public to engage with nature), the direction which this industry takes will be important and largely dependent upon the operators' commitment to conservation, their commitment to the quality of the experience and their financial aspirations.

Given the importance of tour operators discussed above, this study included tour operators as a key stakeholder. In order to understand issues relating to tour operating companies the following aspects were addressed in the questionnaire survey:

- company profile;

- profile of respondent and tour operator company;
- social impacts;
- economic impacts;
- environmental impacts; and
- suggestions.

Questions were posed to individuals employed by tour operating companies.

5.3.1 Company profile

This sub-section examines the company profiles in relation to the historical racial category and the gender of the owners of the company. Furthermore, the type of enterprise, number of years in existence and number of people employed by the company are discussed,

Table 5.34 Historical racial category of owners of tour companies (in %)

Race of owners	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Black	10	-	5
White	60	90	75
Indian	30	10	20

The South African tourism industry is highly concentrated and dominated by a small elite group of large, locally owned, tourism organisations (Rogerson and Visser, 2004; Milner, 2004; Ramchander, 2004). Results of the study (Table 5.34) confirm that the tour operating companies interviewed were still dominated by White ownership (combined average of 75%), with Indian and Black owners only having a minority ownership in tour companies (combined average of 25%). According to Cassim and Jackson (2003), the monopoly of White ownership could be attributed to the apartheid financing schemes that focused on White investors who had sufficient collateral at their disposal. Furthermore, results obtained from both Parks show that Blacks still need to gain entry into the tour operating business and only constitute 10% of the ownership (one respondent) in Ezulwini Private Park with none in Tala Private Park. There is little research on the tour operating sector particularly in the developing world (Nemasetoni and Rogerson, 2005). In South Africa the only material that exists on Black tour operators is rather descriptive business case studies which tend to focus on aspects of their history and expansion (Milner, 2004; Nemasetoni and Rogerson, 2005; Ramchander, 2004).

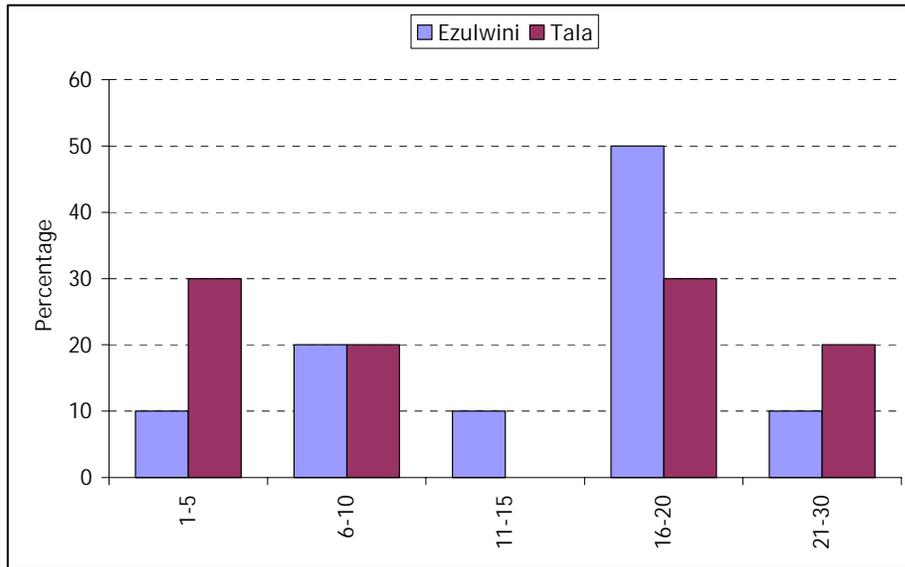
Table 5.35 Type of license that the company possesses (in %)

Type of license	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Association of South African Travel Agents (ASATA)	20	20	20
South African Tourism (SATOUR)	40	-	20
Southern African Tourism Services Association (SATSA)	40	80	60

Accreditation presents the opportunity to improve the tourism industry standards and to provide a degree of quality assurance in a highly competitive marketplace (Wearing, 1995). In South Africa, SATSA is a national body, an association of private sector businesses that provides tourism products and services (Nemasetoni and Rogerson, 2005) whereas SATOUR is a state-owned tourism organisation. In addition, in South Africa ASATA is an association whereby members are engaged in travel business as either a retail travel agent or as a tour operator or wholesaler. Table 5.35 illustrates that amongst the respondents who conducted tours to the Ezulwini Private Park, 40% have a SATOUR license, 40% have a SATSA license and 20% have an ASATA license. Amongst respondents who conducted tours to the Tala Private Park, 80% have a SATSA licence and 20% have a SATOUR licence. All tour operators in this study were certified and were operating legally. This is important as tourism has evolved into a demand-driven industry sector with tour operators playing a key role (Van Wijk and Persoon, 2006)

All of the respondents believe that tour companies should be accredited or certified and listed the following associated benefits: (i) an understanding of local conditions, (ii) providing professional client service, (iii) quality control, and (iv) reliability. However, researchers have noted that SATSA, ASATA and SATOUR membership costs and regulations are quite burdensome for enterprising Black tour operators who seek to operate outside of associations' regulations (Nemasetoni and Rogerson, 2005). Additionally, SATOUR has minimal control over managerial decisions of those large travel and tourism companies who supply South Africa with the bulk of international tourists (Allen and Brennan, 2004). Allen and Bennan (2004) also stated that SATOUR does not have the authority to sustain, introduce or close down business.

Figure 5.4 Duration of establishment of the tour operating company (n=10 in each Park)

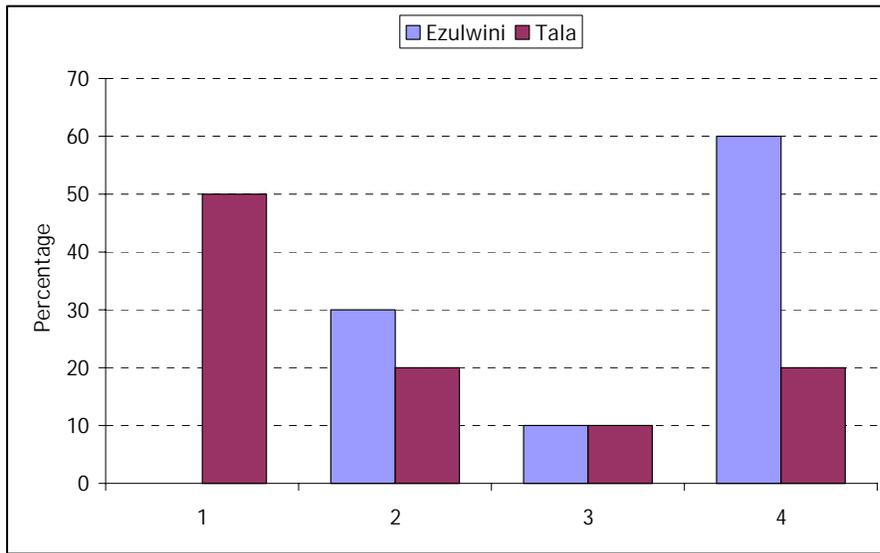


Ezulwini - x=15

Tala - x=13

Half of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and 30% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park indicated that their companies were established between 16 and 20 years ago. Additionally, 10% of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and 20% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park indicated that their companies were established between 21-30 years ago (Figure 5.4). On average, tour operating companies at Ezulwini Private Park were established for 15 years (with values ranging from 1 to 30 years) whereas on average, tour operating companies at Tala Private Park were established for 13 years (with values ranging from 1 to 30 years). The results from this study are dissimilar to the study carried out by Yee (1992) who observed that only 17% of the tour operators (n = 24) in America have been operating for approximately 15 to 20 years. In this study most of the tour operators are well established (more than 16 years in the business).

Figure 5.5 Number of people that are owners of the company (n=10 in each Park)

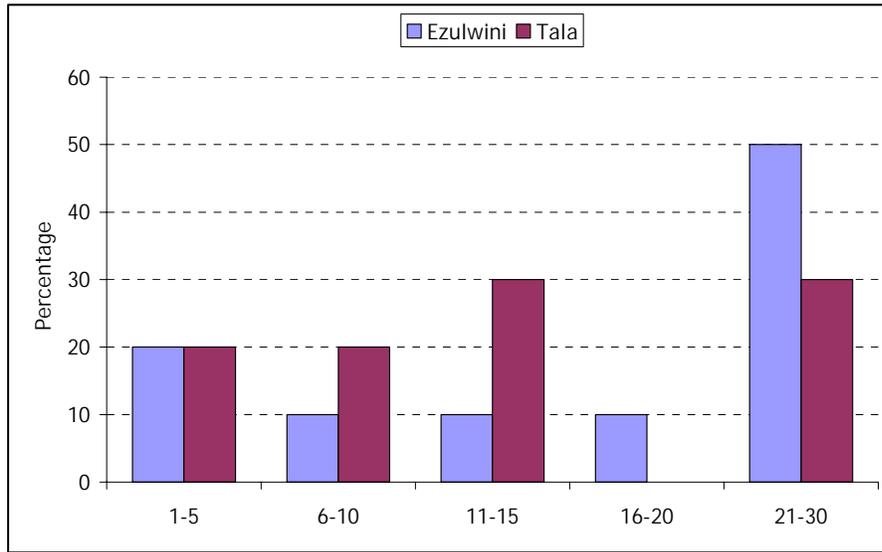


Ezulwini - x=2

Tala - x=1

Figure 5.5 illustrates that in Ezulwini Private Park, 60% of the respondents indicated that 4 people owned the tour company, 30% of the respondents indicated that two people owned the company and 10% of the respondents indicated that three people owned the company. In Tala Private Park, half of the respondents indicated that one person owned the tour company, 20% of the respondents indicated that two people and four people owned the company operating and 10% the respondents indicated that three people owned the company. The average number of people that own the tour operating company that conducts tours to Ezulwini Private Park was 2 (ranging from 2 to 4) whereas the average number of people that own the tour operating company that conducts tours to Tala Private Park was 1 (ranging from 1 to 4).

Figure 5.6 Number of workers employed by tour companies (n=10 in each Park)



Ezulwini - x=17

Tala - x=14

From Figure 5.6 it is evident that at Ezulwini Private Park half of the tour operating companies employed 21 to 30 workers, 20% of the tour operating companies employed 1 to 5 workers and the remaining 10% each of the tour operating companies employed 6 to 10 workers, 11 to 15 workers and 16 to 20 workers. At the Tala Private Park, 30% of the tour operating companies employed 21 to 30 workers, 30% of the tour operating companies employed 11 to 15 workers and the remaining 20% employed 1-5 workers and 6-10 workers each. The average number of workers employed by the tour operating company that conducts tours to Ezulwini Private Park was 17 (ranging from 1 to 30) whereas the average number of workers employed by the tour operating company that conducts tours to Tala Private Park was 14 (ranging from 1 to 30). None of the workers employed by the tour operating companies that tour Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park belonged to the local community. Thus job creation linked to tour operators was lacking for the local communities living near the private Parks.

5.3.2 Profile of respondent

The profile of the respondents as representatives of the tour operator companies interviewed is discussed in relation to environmental and tourism studies undertaken; perceptions of the tour operating company in relation to types of tours offered, age category of clients, marketing

strategies employed and number of trips taken per month; problems experienced in relation to the tour business and ways to promote more business.

Table 5.37 Type of environmental and tourism studies undertaken (in %)

Environmental and tourism studies	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Accredited tour guide courses	30	-	15
Self-learning	40	60	50
Technical	30	20	25
University	-	20	10

Whinney (1996) emphasise that the tourism industry relies heavily on personnel who can deliver a high standard of service, have good communication and interpersonal skills and as such Black et al. (2001: 151) recommend:

At a personal level, training may improve an individual guide's employment prospects and career opportunities and enhance their levels of pay and conditions of work. At an industry-wide level, training helps to lift standards and improve the quality of the tourism product and thus the competitive advantage of regions and destinations.

Results from this study indicate that at the Ezulwini Private Park, 40% of the respondents engaged in self learning and 30% each of the respondents registered for accredited tour guide courses and obtained technical qualifications. In Tala Private Park 60% of the respondents were self taught and 20% of the respondents obtained either a technical or university qualification in environmental and tourism studies (Table 5.37). In contrast to the investigations carried out in this study, Nemasetoni (2005: 203) observed in her study:

On the whole, respondents were well educated and over 70% of the sample had completed post-secondary school qualifications, including a number with University degrees. Moreover, nearly 80% of the sample had undertaken accredited training courses in tourism as tour guides, which is one of the formal requirements for a tour operator.

The tour operating companies had to create opportunities such as bursary schemes or an increase in salary for those employees who try to either obtain university, technical or accredited tour guide courses rather than relying more towards being self-taught. This is an important aspect to

consider in terms of training tour operators in South Africa. Clearly, their training needs to be supported, especially in terms of funding.

Table 5.38 Type of the tour operating company (in %)

Type of tour operating company	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Operators that sell nature	80	80	80
Sensitive tour operators	20	10	15
Initiate conservation projects or research	-	10	5

Table 5.38 shows that at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park, the majority of the respondents (80%) described their tour company as operators that sell nature. The remaining 20% of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park described their tour operating company as being sensitive tour operators. In Tala Private Park one of the respondents each stated that their tour companies were either sensitive tour operators or tour operators that make an effort to initiate conservation projects. In this study, the majority of the tour operators are market-driven (that is operators that sell nature) and it is therefore imperative that they realise the potential negative impacts that may occur as a result of over-exploitation. Research by Buckley (2003) alluded to the potential benefits of sensitive tour operators as compared to tour operators who sell nature. Their case study conducted in New Zealand focused on the Adrift tour company that required the burning or removing of all non-biodegradable waste, the use of gas stoves rather than local firewood, hiring of local transport and locally purchasing supplies. The results from this study show that the commodification of nature remains the key driving force for tour operators which are of concern.

Table 5.39 Types of tours offered by tour operating company (in %)

Package tours	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Nature tours			
Yes	100	80	90
No	-	20	10
Culture tours			
Yes	100	60	80
No	-	40	20
Adventure tours			
Yes	100	70	85
No	-	30	15
Honeymoon tours			
Yes	-	10	5
No	100	90	95
Sport tours			
Yes	-	20	10
No	100	80	90

Packaged tours are frequently offered by tour companies (Wearing and McDonald, 2002). Respondents from Ezulwini Private Park stated that all the tour operating companies offered nature tours, cultural tours and adventure tours (Table 5.39). Similarly, the majority of the respondents from Tala Private Park stated that nature tours (80%), adventure tours (70%) and cultural tours (60%) were available. Additionally, at Tala Private Park some tour companies offered sport tours (20%) and honeymoon tours (10%). The results show that a range of different types of tours are offered by the same company, demonstrating attempts by the tour operators to diversify their products and market themselves more widely.

Table 5.40 Age category of clients and profession (in %)

Age category of clients	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
11-20 years	-	10	5
41-50 years	40	40	40
51-60 years	60	50	55
Professional			
Student	10	10	10
Professional	60	70	65
Retired	30	20	25

Ezulwini Private Park respondents stated that 60% of their clients fall within the age category of 51 to 60 years and the balance of the respondents stated that their clients fall within the age category of 41 to 50 years (40%). Similarly, at the Tala Private Park, respondents stated that half of their clients fall within the age category of 51-60 years, 40% of their clients fall within the age category of 41-50 years and 10% of their clients fall within the age category of 11-20 years (Table 5.40). With respect to the professional status of their clients respondents at both Parks stated that the majority of their clients were professionals. Additionally, respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park stated that 30% of their clientele were retired while at the Tala Private Park the respondents stated that 20% of their clientele were retired. The results reveal that those visitors who were touring can afford the privilege of travelling. However, this is in contradiction to visitor respondents of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park (Table 5.5). From Table 5.5 it is clear that the majority of the visitor respondents (42%) of Ezulwini Private Park belonged to the age category of 22-30 years and the majority of the visitor respondents (34%) of Tala Private Park belonged to the age category of 31-40 years. The differences could be attributed to the fact that while the visitor survey included day-trippers, the tour operators almost exclusively deal with tourists and especially those that are from the higher income categories that can afford to use the tour operators and who tend to be older.

Table 5.41 Means of marketing (in %)

International	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Travel brochures	10	10	10
Word of mouth	50	40	45
Internet	20	20	20
Printed media	10	20	15
Trade shows	10	10	10
National			
Television	-	10	5
Travel brochures	10	10	10
Word of mouth	40	30	35
Internet	30	30	30
Printed media	10	10	10
Tourism Indaba	10	10	10

Based on the tour companies surveyed at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park, international and national marketing efforts follow a similar trend. More specifically, companies at both Parks depended predominantly on word of mouth and the internet for local and international marketing. It is interesting to note that only 10% of the tour companies were involved in marketing campaigns at international trade shows and local tourism indabas. These findings were similar to Chellan's (2005) who found that tour operating companies visiting the iSimangaliso Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park reported that their main means of marketing were word of mouth, both internationally and nationally. Tour operators identified similar types of marketing strategies as those used by the visitors interviewed (Table 5.19). Word of mouth and the internet were deemed to be important by both stakeholders.

Table 5.42 Number of years respondents were conducting tours (in %)

Operate tours	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
1-5 years	60	70	65
6-10 years	20	10	15
11-15 years	-	20	10
16-20 years	20	-	10
	x=7	x=5.5	x=6.3

The majority of the tour operators were conducting tours for less than five years at the Ezulwini Private Park (60%) and the Tala Private Park (70%). Additionally, 20% of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 10% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park stated that they were conducting tours between 5 to 10 years. Only, 20% of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park were conducting tours for more than 15 years (Table 5.42). The average number of years that the respondents conduct tours to Ezulwini Private Park was 7 years (ranging from 1 to 20 years) whereas the average number of years that the respondents conduct tours to Tala Private Park was 5.5 years (ranging from 1 to 15 years).

Table 5.43 Number of trips per month conducted by tour operators (in %)

Number of tour trips	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
1-5	70	50	60
6-10	30	30	30
11-15	-	20	10
	x= 4.5	x=6.5	x=5.2

It is evident from Table 5.43 that the majority of tour operators at Ezulwini Private Park (70%) and half of the tour operators at Tala Private Park conducted less than 5 trips per month. The average number of trips conducted by the tour operating company to Ezulwini Private Park was 4.5 (ranging from 1 to 10), whereas the average number of trips conducted by the tour operating company to Tala Private Park was 6.5 (ranging from 1 to 15). The results show that there is certainly a market for tour operating companies in South Africa.

Table 5.44 Number of nights spent at the Private Park (in %)

Number of nights	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
1 Night	30	50	40
2 Nights	70	30	50
3 Nights	-	10	5
Day-trippers	-	10	5
	x=0.9	x=0.7	x=0.8

In Ezulwini Private Park the majority of the respondents (70%) indicated that their tour groups spend two nights at the Park, whereas at the Tala Private Park only 30% of the tour operators indicated that their groups spend two nights at the Park. Half of the tour operators (50%) at Tala Private Park and 30% at Ezulwini Private Park indicated that their groups spend a single night at the Park. One respondent at Tala Private Park stated that they spent 3 nights while another state that they undertook daily tours and did not stay overnight. The average number of nights spent at Ezulwini Private Park was 0.9 ranging from 1 to 2 nights and the average number of nights spent at Tala Private Park was 0.8 ranging from 0 to 3 nights.

Table 5.45 Problems experienced in relation to the tour business (in %)

Problems	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Crime	10	50	30
Social and environmental issues	20	-	10
Local broker overseas	10	-	5
Rate of exchange	10	-	5
Safety information	30	50	40
Tour operator has to negotiate with suppliers	10	-	5
Weather	10	-	5

At the Ezulwini Private Park, respondents listed the lack of information as the key problem experienced by the tour company, especially in relation to issues pertaining to safety (30%) and the lack of information about social and environmental issues (20%). Other problems identified by one respondent each were crime (10% which is also linked to safety), rate of exchange, local broker were overseas, tour operator has to negotiate with suppliers and the weather. In contrast, respondents at Tala Private Park only listed increasing crime levels (50%) and the lack of safety information (50%) as major problems experienced by the tour company. Thus, for the tour operators visiting Tala Private Park and most of the respondents visiting Ezulwini Private Park the major problem experienced can be linked to crime and safety issues. Crime has emerged as one of the most important challenges facing South Africa (Perry et al., 2008). In addition, tourism is seen as a discretionary activity and is immensely vulnerable to crime, violence and political instability (George, 1998). A fundamental issue among many for the future development of the South African tourism industry is the relationship between the perception of crime, the perception of risk, the personal need for safety and the influence of these three interrelated elements on the tourism industry (Allen and Brennan, 2004). In addition, Allen and Brennan (2004) stated that many international tour operators and agencies in Britain and South Africa were informing their British tourist to stay alert, careful, be streetwise, respect others as moral agents or as human beings and above all take precautions. According to Spenceley (2007b) who presented survey results from tour operators at the 2006 Tourism Indaba, all the respondents mentioned barriers which were inclusive of safety and crime concerns, access and problems relating to capacity such as skills, language, lack of experience and understanding, lack of product and inconsistent quality. This study also identified crime and safety as the key problem experienced by tour operators.

Table 5.46 Changes identified that had to be made to the tours to make more business (in %)

Reasons	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Change of slogan	10	10	10
Expand tourism marketing	40	50	45.5
Affordability	20	-	10
Not applicable	30	40	35

At the Ezulwini Private Park, respondents listed the expansion of the tourist market (40%) and tour affordability (20%) as some of the key changes that need to be implemented to increase business. At the Tala Private Park, half of the respondents listed the expansion of the tourist market as the main driver to increase business. Thirty five percent of the respondents (30% in Ezulwini Private Park and 40% in Tala Private Park) did not feel that any changes needed to be made. This indicates that a third of the respondents were satisfied with their current business strategies.

5.3.3 Social impacts

Social impacts were discussed in relation to main attractions, level of interaction between the tour company and community and opportunities for visitors to interact with local communities. An overwhelming majority of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park (80%) and Tala Private Park (90%) indicated that they carried out tours to the surrounding communities.

Table 5.47 Perceptions of main community attractions (in %)

Main attractions	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Social/ cultural	50	60	55
Economical	10	10	10
Political	10	10	10
Environmental	10	10	10
Not applicable	20	10	15

Respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park (50%) and the Tala Private Park (60%) indicated that the main attractions of the surrounding communities were of a social or cultural nature (Table 5.47). It seems that tour companies have matured to aggressively market a socially responsible tourism product (Wheeler, 1990). Each of the respondents (10%) in Ezulwini Private Park and

Tala Private Park mentioned other economic, political and environmental attractions. The findings differ from those of the visitors whereby very few respondents indicated that they interacted with or visited the local communities. Thus, the results suggest that community interactions with visitors are enhanced if the tour operators promote visits to local communities. Clearly, when visitors travel to Parks on their own they are unlikely to interact with local communities because they may not be interested, may not know how to do so or may be fearful given concerns over crime and safety in South Africa. It is essential that the guides act as cultural brokers or mediators who are sensitive to the economic, environmental and cultural environment of the surrounding communities (Gurung et al., 1996).

Table 5.48 Perceptions regarding level of interaction between the tour company and the community (in %)

Interaction	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Excellent	10	30	20
Very good	20	10	15
Good	50	50	50
Not applicable	20	10	15

Overall, results show that at least half of the respondents surveyed at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park perceived a good interaction level between their tour operating company and the surrounding community (Table 5.48). Additionally, at the Ezulwini Private Park, 20% of the respondents perceived that there were very good levels of interaction, while 10% of the respondents perceived that there were an excellent level of interaction between their tour operating company and the community. At the Tala Private Park, 30% of the respondents perceived that there were excellent levels of interaction, while 10% of the respondents perceived that there was a very good level of interaction between their tour operating company and the community. While a few respondents (15%) did not respond, none indicated that they were not in a positive relationship. This again reinforces earlier findings that the tour operators have a positive attitude towards the local communities.

Table 5.49 List of reasons (in %)

Reasons	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Building schools or building houses	10	-	5
Visitors purchase from cultural villages	70	20	45
Use of local tour guides	-	70	35
Not applicable	20	10	15

Respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park suggest that there is a good relationship with the surrounding community due to the tour operating company encouraging visitors to purchase goods from cultural villages (70%) and building schools and houses (10%). In contrast the majority of the respondents (70%) at the Tala Private Park indicated that there is a good relationship with the surrounding community because the tour operating company employs local tour guides. Additionally, 20% of the Tala Private Park respondents stated that the visitors purchase from cultural villages. Wearing and McDonald (2002) warn that when people from the surrounding community are used as guides, they are paid minimal salaries in comparison to the profits made by the investors and owners of tour companies. This study did not assess the salary levels of those employed and in any event, Whinney (1996) suggests that from an ecotourism perspective, employing locally trained guides has the commercial advantage with respect to marketing, repeated trips, superior service and in the long term, increased profits. Thus, tour companies operating at the Ezulwini Private Park need to follow the example of tour companies operating at the Tala Private Park and use local guides.

Eighty percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 90% of the respondents at Tala Private Park felt that there were opportunities for visitors and hosts to meet on equal terms and learn about each other. The specific opportunities identified by the respondents are presented in Table 5.50.

Table 5.50 List of reasons to meet the local community (in %)

Reasons	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Use of local guides	20	70	45
Visiting of Sangomas	10	20	15
Visiting of local cultural villages	50	-	25
Not applicable	20	10	15

At Ezulwini Private Park respondents indicated that visiting the local cultural villages (50%), the use of local guides (20%) and visiting sangomas known to the western world as medicine men (10%) are opportunities for visitors and hosts to meet on equal terms and learn about each other (Table 5.50). At the Tala Private Park, respondents indicated that using local guides (70%) and visiting the sangomas (20%) are opportunities for visitors and hosts to meet on equal terms and learn about each other.

5.3.4 Economic impacts

The economic impacts are discussed in relation to peak seasons and investments in local communities.

Table 5.51 Peak season of tours (in %)

Season	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Aug-Oct	50	50	50
Nov-Dec	50	50	50

Table 5.51 shows that in both the private Parks half the respondents stated that their peak season was between August to October and the other half of the respondents stated that their peak season was between November to December. Furthermore, the respondents in both the private Parks indicated that they cannot provide an average tour cost since tour packages included other destinations as well.

Table 5.52 Types of community initiatives companies support (in %)

Community initiatives	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Educational	20	50	35
Health	20	50	35
Infrastructure	20	-	10
Housing	20	-	10
Not applicable	20	-	10

Fennell (2003) and Kiss (2004) argue that it is imperative that tour operators make provisions to support local development initiatives as this will encourage visitors to give back to the communities. It is evident that the majority of the tour operators at Ezulwini Private Park (80%) and Tala Private Park (100%) support local development initiatives. Table 5.52 indicates that in Ezulwini Private Park respondents stated that their tour operating companies support local development initiatives such as education (20%), health (20%), infrastructure (20%) and housing (20%). At Tala Private Park tour operating companies predominately support education (50%) and health (50%) related initiatives. Spenceley (2007b) discussed survey results from the respondents at the 2006 Tourism Indaba where all the respondents accounted for delivering positive interventions in local communities. These included economic benefits, for example, employment, use of local services and products as well as providing benefits to local education, health and conservation initiatives (Spenceley, 2007b).

Table 5.53 Employment of local people (in %)

Local people	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
None	100	80	90
1-3	-	10	5
15-20	-	10	5

In the Ezulwini Private Park all the respondents stated that none of the locals were employed by their tour operating company and in Tala Private Park 80% of the respondents indicated that none of the local people were employed by their tour operating company. Only 20% of the respondents in Tala Private Park employed local people. It is important for local guides to be employed by tour operators, to communicate and interpret the significance of the environment, promote minimal impact practices, ensure the sustainability of the natural and cultural

environment as well as motivate tourists to consider their lives in relation to the larger ecological or cultural concerns (Black et al., 2001). At the Madikwe Game Reserve the fourth largest State-owned reserve in South Africa, the primary objective is not biodiversity conservation (Relly, 2004). This Game Reserve's main aim is the generation of economic benefits for the people of the region and the province (Relly, 2004).

Table 5.54 Willingness of visitors to donate money (in %)

Willingness	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Somewhat willing	30	30	30
Very willing	70	70	70

From Table 5.54 it is evident that in both Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park 70% of the respondents perceive that visitors were very willing to donate money to local environmental and social causes. Donations to local environmental and social causes will depend on how the tour guide has interpreted and carried the message across to the visitors.

Table 5.55 Perceptions of how the tour operating company ensures that the money goes directly into the local economy (in %)

Local economy	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Through the guide who informs them to purchase local craft	50	100	75
Visiting local arts and crafts centre	50	-	25

Fifty percent of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and all the respondents at the Tala Private Park indicated that the guides will ensure that the visitors purchase local crafts (Table 5.55). Additionally, half of the respondents at the Tala Private Park indicated that visitors visiting local arts and crafts centres will contribute towards the local economy. Furthermore, a study carried out with twenty tour operators attending Indaba 2006 in South Africa stated that all the respondents provided donations to charity such as providing a proportion of tour fees, materials, supplying volunteers or organising events and a couple indicated that they would rather assist people through trade rather than aid (Spenceley, 2007b). This study shows that tour operators believed that the most important way for local communities to derive economic benefits from tourism was the sale of arts and crafts.

Table 5.56 The types of development initiatives at the Private Parks (in %)

Nature of development	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Including a rock pool	-	50	25
Lodges are improved	100	-	50
Upgrading of conference facilities	-	50	25

The respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park stated that development initiatives at the Parks have taken place over the last 5 to 10 years. The respondents stated that development in Ezulwini Private Park included the improvement of the lodge facilities (Table 5.56). At the Tala Private Park, respondents stated that development initiatives at the Park included building a rock pool (50%) and the upgrading of conference facilities (50%).

5.3.5 Environmental impacts

Table 5.57 Restrictions on visitor numbers (in %)

Minimum number of people	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
1-5	30	100	65
6-10	70	-	35
	x=7	x=3	x=5

Manning et al. (2002) emphasised that as more people visit a park or related area, not only can the environmental resources of the area be affected, but the quality of the visitor experiences as well. The majority of the tour operators at the Ezulwini Private Park (70%) and all the tour operators at the Tala Private Park indicated that between 6 and 10 people are required for a tour to take place (Table 5.57). Tour operators at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park consciously limited the size of tour groups due to environmental concerns and to improve interaction with the visitors. The average minimum number of people required by the tour operating company to conduct tours to Ezulwini Private Park was 7 (ranging from 1 to 10) whereas the average minimum number of people required by the tour operating company to conduct tours to Tala Private Park was 3 (ranging from 1 to 5).

Table 5.58 Activities undertaken aimed at taking care of the environment (in %)

Practices	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Save bottles, cans and newspapers for recycling			
Never	-	10	5
Sometimes	10	10	10
Frequently	80	60	70
Always	10	20	15
Buy environmentally-friendly or recycled products			
Seldom	80	20	50
Sometimes	-	30	15
Frequently	10	40	25
Always	10	10	10
Make donations to environmental organisations			
Never	10	10	10
Seldom	70	10	40
Sometimes	10	50	30
Frequently	-	-	-
Always	10	30	20
Conserve water			
Sometimes	-	20	10
Always	100	80	90
Take public transport whenever possible			
Never	80	90	85
Seldom	10	10	10
Always	10	-	5
Engage in minimal impact practices in natural areas			
Never	10	30	20
Sometimes	-	10	5
Always	90	60	75
Participate in local environmental group			
Never	80	40	60
Seldom	-	10	5
Sometimes	-	50	25
Always	20	-	10
Write to politicians or attend meetings about environmental issues			
Never	100	60	80
Seldom	-	10	5
Always	-	30	15

Results show that the majority of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park (80%) and Tala Private Park (60%) frequently recycle bottles, cans and newspapers. However, 80% of the

respondents at Ezulwini Private Park seldom buy environmentally-friendly or recycled products whereas 40% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park frequently buy environmentally-friendly or recycled products. The majority of the respondents (70%) at the Ezulwini Private Park seldom contribute donations to environmental organisations, whereas half the respondents in Tala Private Park sometimes made contributions to environmental organisations. Respondents from both the private Parks mentioned that they always conserved water (Table 5.58).

The majority of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park (80%) and in Tala Private Park (90%) never use public transport. In both the private Parks, the majority of the respondents always adhere to minimal impact practices. However, 80% of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park never participate in local environmental groups while in Tala Private Park half of the respondents sometimes participate in local environmental groups. All the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and 60% of the respondents in Tala Private Park never write to politicians or attend meetings about environmental issues. The respondents' habits in relation to environmental behaviour will enable one to understand how environmentally conscious they are. McArthur (1994) contends that the interpretation which is incorporated within the tour is often influenced by the guide's personal interest, familiarity with the area and the passivity of activity. The tour guide as a role model and information giver is in an influential position in modifying and correcting visitor behaviour to ensure that it is environmentally responsible and contributes to environmentally sensitive attitudes (Forestell, 1993; Kim et al., 2007; Kimmel, 1999). The results in this study show that respondents generally were environmentally aware and engage in many environmentally-friendly activities.

5.3.6 Suggestions on how the tour operating company can promote sustainable and responsible tourism

The respondents identified a range of ways in which the tour operating company can promote sustainable and responsible tourism. Most of the respondents related to supporting local communities and taking care of the natural environment.

Table 5.59 List ways to promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism (in %)

Tour operating company	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Adhere to Park rules	-	50	25
Be eco-friendly	-	20	10
Be professional	30	-	15
Book with establishments that support local development initiatives	-	20	10
Expose clients to different experience	20	-	10
Support local schools	10	-	5
Sustainable practices	20	-	10
Use well trained Black guides to promote South Africa	20	10	15

Respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park identified being professional (30%), exposing clients to different visitor experiences (20%), sustainable practices (20%), the use of Black guides (20%) and supporting local schools (10%) as ways in which their companies can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism (Table 5.59). At the Tala Private Park respondents stated adhering to Park rules (50%), being eco-friendly (20%), booking with establishments that support local development initiatives (20%) and using well trained Black guides to promote South Africa as ways in which their tour operating company can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism. According to Spenceley (2007b) who carried-out a study at the 2006 Tourism Indaba, only a few tour operators were using energy saving, recycling or water conservation interventions. These respondents indicated that they needed projects to support them and additional information about options that could improve the environment. They also identified a list of barriers such as access, lack of government assistance, skills and training and low levels of awareness.

5.4 Local communities residing alongside Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park

This section deals with the level of community participation and their involvement in ecotourism initiatives within the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. Local community perceptions relating to key environmental, social and economical issues are examined at both private Parks. The questionnaire was administered to the Nibela community which is located near the Ezulwini Private Park and the Magojela community which is located near the Tala Private Park.

There has been a slow but gradual change in the mind set on how to manage protected areas (Phillips, 2003). This change, as discussed by Phillips (2003) and Rao et al. (2003), involves

becoming more focused, less centralised and searching for a better balance between conservation and social, economic and cultural objectives. As such, there are important dynamics involved within protected areas, especially those pertaining to local indigenous communities (Rao et al., 2003). Local and indigenous communities have customary rights relating to the area, its natural resources and a strong relationship with the area in one or many dimensions (for example, cultural, social, economic and spiritual) as well as a strong dependency on the area for their survival and identity (Scherl, 2005).

Ecotourism can be seen as a tool used to empower indigenous communities and issues dealing with conflict and the lack of capacity to participate in ecotourism development can be addressed by empowering the community (Scheyvens, 1999; Sofield, 2003). Wearing and McDonald (2002: 204) state:

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

In other words, a community-based approach to tourism development is a process whereby individuals, their families and the community can holistically initiate and generate their own solutions to developing a tourism venture building long-term community capacity by fostering the integration of economic, social, cultural and environmental objectives (Vodden, 2002).

Therefore, in order to examine the level of community participation and their involvement in ecotourism initiatives within the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park, the following issues were addressed in the local community survey:

- respondents' personal details;
- background information of household;

- the community and the social impacts of ecotourism;
- the community and the economic impacts of ecotourism;
- the community and the natural environment;
- suggestions; and
- focus group findings.

5.4.1 Respondents' personal details

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

Table 5.60 Gender of respondents (in %)

Gender	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Male	59	51	55
Female	41	49	45

Fifty nine percent of the local community respondents residing near the Ezulwini Private Park were male and 41% were female (Table 5.60). Fifty one percent of the respondents residing near Tala Private Park were male and 49% were female. The researcher observed that due to the patriarchal nature of society, more males answered the questionnaire. Furthermore, the questionnaires were administered late in the afternoon and women were busy preparing meals and carrying-out household chores. According to Tosun (2006), the gender distribution reflects the socio-cultural structure, where there is a tendency for males to dominate the socio-economic and political life of the local community. This study reflects this situation. In many Third World Countries, women have a triple role (Mitchell, 2002). Consequently, little time is available for self-improvement because women are rarely represented in public decision-making bodies nor do they participate in the decision-making processes and have limited control over factors that are vital for their economic survival. It is likely that women in the communities under study will have limited opportunities linked to ecotourism and minimal involvement in environmental management decisions given the persistence of patriarchy.

Table 5.61 Age of community respondents (in %)

Age	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
18-25 years	29	18	23.5
26-35 years	50	36	43
36-45 years	18	24	21
46-55 years	2	16	9
56-65 years	1	6	3.5
	x=30.4	x=36.3	x=33.3

From Table 5.61 it can be observed that the majority of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park (79%) and Tala Private Park (54%) were younger than 35 years. Furthermore, half of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and 36% of the respondents at Tala Private Park were between 36-45 years. However, there seems to be a decline in respondents older than 45 years at both Parks. A possible explanation could be that the majority of the older respondents were employed outside the community. Tala Private Park is located within close proximity to the two major cities (Durban and Pietermaritzburg) and Ezulwini Private Park is located closer to the towns of Hluhluwe and Richards Bay. A similar trend was observed by Ndlovu and Rogerson (2004) when they examined rural CBT in the Eastern Cape. Their results showed that the majority of the men in the study were migrant workers who were employed in mines, farms and cities and the community consisted of mostly young labourers (Ndlovu and Rogerson, 2004). The average age of respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park was 30.4 years (ranging from 18 to 65 years) whereas the average age of respondents at Tala Private Park was 36.3 years (ranging from 18 to 65 years).

Table 5.62 Race, nationality and language of respondents (in %)

Race	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
African	92	100	96
Coloured	1	-	0.5
Indian	2	-	1
White	5	-	2.5
Nationality			
Nigerian	3	-	1.5
South African	97	100	98.5
Language			
Afrikaans	1	2	1.5
English	14	2	8
Xhosa	1	27	14
Zulu	84	69	76.5

At Ezulwini Private Park the majority of the respondents were Africans (92%) while the remaining respondents consisted of Whites (5%), Indians (2%) and a Coloured (Table 5.62). In Tala Private Park, all the community respondents were African. In terms of nationality, 97% of the respondents near Ezulwini Private Park were South African and 3% were Nigerian, while all the respondents near Tala Private Park were South African. The respondents near Ezulwini Private Park indicated that their home languages were Zulu (84%), English (14%) and one respondent each spoke Afrikaans and Xhosa. The respondents near Tala Private Park indicated that their home languages were Zulu (69%), Xhosa (27%) and 2% each of the respondents spoke Afrikaans and English. According to CENSUS (2001), the majority of the people living in the province of KwaZulu-Natal are African (84.9%), 1.5% are Coloured, 8.5% are Indian or Asian and 5.1% are White and the main language that is spoken is isiZulu (80.9%), followed by English (13.6%) and Afrikaans (1.5%). The results from this study are similar to the provincial statistics.

Table 5.63 Education level, marital status and disabilities of respondents (in %)

Education	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
No education	9	22	15.5
Level 1 (preschool)	6	14	10
Level 2 (std 6)	13	18	15.5
Level 3 (std 8)	14	17	15.5
Level 4 (std 10)	37	28	32.5
Level 5 (diploma/degree)	21	1	11
Marital			
Currently married	25	6	15.5
Single	52	55	53.5
Widowed	2	1	1.5
Separated	3	5	4
Living with partner	18	33	25.5
Disabilities			
Yes	36	41	38.5
No	64	59	61.5

Thirty seven percent of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and 28% of the respondents in Tala Private Park had matriculated. Additionally, 21% of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park had a diploma or degree (Table 5.63). However, 28% of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 54% of the respondents at Tala Private Park had less than a level three education (standard eight). The respondents at both Parks could pursue some form of training related to ecotourism. Loon et al. (2007) describe “Teach the Teachers” and “Reach and Teach Education” initiatives which are implemented at the Sabi Sabi Private Game Reserve, South Africa. These coordinated educational programmes involve workshops at the Reserve and expose rural teachers to the relationship between ecotourism, conservation and communities (Loon et al., 2007).

The majority of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park (52%) and Tala Private Park were single (55%). Additionally, at the Ezulwini Private Park, 25% of the respondents were currently married and 18% of the respondents were living with a partner. In contrast, 33% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park were living with a partner and only 6% of the respondents were currently married.

Thirty six of the local community respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and 41% of the respondents living near Tala Private Park were disabled. This is a very large percentage but

could include people with eye problems since the type of disability was not identified. Kotze and Dippenaar (2004) emphasise that people with disabilities find it difficult to come into their own in a world that focuses on the needs of able-bodied individuals. It seems that greater care should be taken to familiarise the built environment for the benefit of this disadvantaged group of society. In terms of recreational issues, stigmatisation and inadequate opportunities are one of the greatest sources of stress for people with challenges.

Table 5.64 Occupation of community respondent (in %)

Occupation	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Unemployed	40	49	44.5
Domestic	13	10	11.5
Labourer	3	39	21
Business owner	17	2	9.5
Technician	5	-	2.5
Manager	7	-	3.5
Artisan	2	-	1
Professional	12	-	6
Pensioner	1	-	0.5

Table 5.64 demonstrates that the unemployment levels of both local communities are high. Forty percent of respondents that lived near the Ezulwini Private Park and 49% of respondents that lived near Tala Private Park were unemployed. According to Allen and Brennan (2004: 258), “millions of workers live in awful poverty. There is a chronic housing shortage and millions of families, in spite of the pledges made by the African National Congress (ANC) in 1994, still lack basic facilities such as fresh water supply and adequate sanitation. Unemployment runs at 40%, and over half a million jobs have been lost since the ANC came into power”. The households in this study in part reflect this situation described by Allen and Brennan (2004), especially in relation to high unemployment rates and lack of basic infrastructure and services as will be discussed later.

The employed respondents that lived near the Ezulwini Private Park consisted mainly of business owners (17%), domestic workers (13%) and professionals (12%). In contrast, respondents that lived near Tala Private Park consisted mainly of business labourers (39%), domestic workers (10%) and professionals (2%). In order to remedy the high levels of unemployment, management

at both private Parks should consider adopting the employment model that was implemented at the Sabi Sabi Private Game Reserve. Loon et al. (2007: 264) explain:

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

5.4.2 Background information of household

Table 5.65 Main source of community households' monthly incomes (in %)

Income	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Pension	15	10	12.5
Remittances	3	4	3.5
Wages	46	42	44
Informal income	12	19	15.5
Farm-harvest	4	8	6
Disability grants	14	5	9.5
Child support grant	6	12	9

From Table 5.65 it is evident that a formal wage income was the main source of income for most of the households situated near Ezulwini Private Park (46%) and Tala Private Park (42%). Furthermore, the remaining households situated near Ezulwini Private Park received an informal income (12%), pensions from the State (15%), disability grants (14%) and child support grants (6%). Similarly, the monthly sources of incomes for the remaining households situated near Tala Private Park consisted mostly of an informal income (19%), child support grants (12%) and pension from the State (10%). Child support grants now cater for children until the age of 17 years. This enables children to complete their schooling and assists parents to cater for their education and other necessities.

One of the concerns of this study was to assess whether there were any improvements in the living conditions of the local community in terms of type of dwelling, sanitation, water and electricity. During apartheid it was common practice to take families from areas of prime cultivable land to locations where there was overcrowding and soil conditions were not conducive to sustainable farming (Allen and Brennan, 2004). Furthermore, Levin and Weiner (1997: 5) state:

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

In the province of KwaZulu-Natal there was increasing violence and the fear of it, the resurgence of chieftainship, political venality, the slow development of an appropriate institutional framework to support communal empowerment and a shared memory of apartheid's injustices which impacted on the rural population from progressing (Allen and Brennan, 2004). The living conditions of these communities were assessed before 1994 and after 1994. A chi square analysis was carried out to statistically to determine if there were any differences in living conditions before 1994 and after 1994.

Table 5.66 Type of dwelling before 1994 (in %)

Dwelling-before 1994	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Own formal house	20	35	27.5
Own traditional hut	43	28	35.5
Shack/informal shelter	4	30	17
Formal farmhouse	28	5	16.5
Employer provided house	3	2	2.5
Not applicable	2	-	1

Table 5.66 shows that most of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park indicated that prior to 1994 they owned a traditional hut (43%) or a farmhouse (28%). In contrast, most of the respondents living near Tala Private Park indicated that prior to 1994 they owned a formal house (35%) or lived in informal shelters (30%).

Table 5.67 Type of dwelling post-1994 (in %)

Dwelling- Post 1994	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Own formal house	48	36	42
Own traditional hut	12	13	12.5
Shack or informal shelter	-	3	1.5
Formal farmhouse	19	18	18.5
Employer provided house	19	30	24.5
Not applicable	2	-	1

A chi square analysis showed that there was a statistical difference between the type of dwellings available to the residents before 1994 and after 1994 ($\chi^2 = 291.10, p < 0.05$). This implies that the type of dwelling post-1994 has improved. After South Africa's first democratic elections in 1994, most of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park indicated that they owned a formal house (48%). Similarly, most of the respondents living near Tala Private Park indicated that they also owned a formal house (36%). Plate 5.2 shows an example of an employer provided housing scheme at the Tala Private Park.

Plate 5.2 Employer provided housing at Tala Private Park



Table 5.68 Type of sanitation pre-1994 (in %)

Sanitation-pre 1994	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Flush toilet	5	5	5
Chemical toilet	31	54	42.5
Pit latrine	12	1	6.5
Bucket toilet	3	15	9
None	47	25	36
Not applicable	2	-	1

Most of the respondents (47%) living near Ezulwini Private Park indicated that prior to 1994 they had no form of sanitation, while 31% of the respondents indicated that they used a chemical toilet and 12% of the respondents indicated that used a pit latrine. In contrast, the majority of the respondents (54%) living near Tala Private Park indicated that prior to 1994 they used a chemical toilet, 25% of the respondents indicated that they had no sanitation facilities and 15% of the respondents had a bucket toilet.

Table 5.69 Type of sanitation post 1994 (in %)

Sanitation-post 1994	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Flush toilet	30	44	37
Chemical toilet	58	24	41
Pit latrine	10	1	5.5
Bucket toilet	-	13	6.5
None	-	18	9
Not applicable	2	-	1

A chi square analysis showed that there was statistical difference in the type of sanitation available to the residents before 1994 and after 1994 ($\chi^2 = 224.74, p < 0.05$). After 1994, the majority of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park indicated that they used chemical toilets (58%). In contrast, most of the respondents living near Tala Private Park stated that after 1994 they used flush toilets (44%). Plate 5.3 shows the communal sanitation facilities provided by Ezulwini Private Park for their workers living in the private Park.

Plate 5.3 Communal sanitation facilities provided by Ezulwini Private Park for their workers living at the private Park



Table 5.70 Main sources of domestic water pre-1994 (in %)

Water-pre 1994	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Tap water in dwelling	2	10	6
Tap water on site	6	9	7.5
Public tap	22	36	29
Communal borehole	6	4	5
Rainwater tank on site	11	11	11
Flowing stream	31	3	17
Dam or pool	17	26	21.5
Communal spring	2	1	1.5
Not applicable	3	-	1.5

Prior to 1994, 31% of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park sourced their water supply from a flowing stream. However, some respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park also listed public taps (22%) and dams or pools (17%) as their sources of domestic water. Other primary sources of water identified were rainwater tank on site (11%), tap water on site (6%), communal borehole (6%), communal spring (2%) and tap water in dwelling (2%). Three respondents did not respond. In contrast, 36% of the respondents living near Tala Private Park sourced their primary supply of water from a public tap (Table 5.70). In addition, some respondents living near to Tala Private Park also listed dams or pools (26%), rainwater tank on site (11%) and tap water in dwelling (10%). Other primary sources of water identified were tap water on site (9%), communal borehole (4%), flowing stream (3%) and communal spring (1%).

Table 5.71 Main sources of domestic water post 1994 (in %)

Water-post 1994	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Tap water in dwelling	1	8	4.5
Tap water on site	78	42	60
Public tap	14	14	14
Communal borehole	3	3	3
Rainwater tank on site	-	10	5
Flowing stream	-	1	0.5
Communal pool	-	-	-
Dam or pool	1	21	11
Communal spring	1	1	1
Not applicable	2	-	1

A chi square analysis showed that there was statistical differences in the main sources of water available to the communities before 1994 and after 1994 ($\chi^2 = 173.10, p < 0.05$). After 1994, 78% of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and 42% of the respondents living near Tala Private Park obtained water from a reticulated tap located on the household sites. In addition, 14% of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park obtained water from a public tap whereas in Tala Private Park 21% of the respondents obtained water from a dam or pool and 14% of the respondents obtained water from a dam or pool.

Table 5.72 Main sources of energy or fuel pre-1994 (in %)

Energy-pre 1994	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Electricity from public supply	5	5	5
Gas	9	1	5
Paraffin	7	61	34
Wood	17	16	16.5
Coal	3	4	3.5
Candles	56	13	34.5
Not applicable	3	-	1.5

Table 5.72 shows that that the main source of energy or fuel prior to 1994 for the majority of the respondents residing near Ezulwini Private Park (56%) was candles. In contrast, the majority of the respondents living near Tala Private Park (61%) used paraffin as their main source of energy or fuel. Other sources of energy or fuel that was used by respondents living near Ezulwini

Private Park were wood (17%), gas (9%), paraffin (7%), electricity from public supply (5%) and coal (3%). Other sources of energy or fuel that was used by respondents living near Tala Private Park were wood (16%), candles (13%), electricity from public supply (5%), coal (4%) and gas (1%).

Table 5.73 Main sources of energy or fuel post-1994 (in %)

Energy-post 1994	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Electricity from public supply	79	53	66
Gas	7	3	5
Paraffin	2	14	8
Wood	2	14	8
Coal	-	3	1.5
Candles	8	13	10.5
Not applicable	2	-	1

A chi square analysis showed that there was statistical differences in the main sources of energy or fuel available to the communities before 1994 and after 1994 ($\chi^2 = 112.18, p < 0.05$). From Table 5.73 it is evident that after 1994, 79% of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and 53% of the respondents living near Tala Private Park used electricity as their main source of energy or fuel. Despite the increase in the number of households that access electricity, electricity from public supply seems to be a major problem in many rural areas (post-apartheid). The reason being service delivery by the post-apartheid government is quite gradual and the poverty-stricken cannot afford the services. After 1994, respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park listed their main sources of energy as candles (8%), gas (7%), paraffin (2%) and wood (2%). In addition, after 1994, respondents living near Tala Private Park listed their main sources of energy as paraffin (14%), wood (14%), candles (13%), coal (3%) and gas (3%). These sources of energy or fuel are highly flammable and pose several health risks.

The results reveal that there has been significant changes in terms of the conditions experienced post-1994 with improvements in relation to housing and access to water, sanitation and electricity. This study's findings are therefore in contrast to Allen and Brennan's (2004) assertion that development in rural areas is slow. However, given widespread poverty and continued high levels of unemployment, it is important to note that much still needs to be done in terms of rural

development. While the conditions of some households have improved when compared to pre-1994 situations, a significant proportion of households still lack basic services.

Respondents were questioned whether their household owns any land. The majority of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park (71%) and Tala Private Park (98%) do not own land. According to Makhanya and Ngidi (1999), the imposition of the tax system on the indigenous people of South Africa compelled most Black males to offer their labour to the mining and other sectors that were beginning to develop. In addition, this tax system contributed to the migratory system which created a life of poverty, revolving around the insecurities of informal jobs, squatters or slum housing as well as minimal access to basic services (Lemon, 2000). In rural Africa, studies have illustrated that access to land resources is critical for food production as well as household stability and continuity (Bob, 2008). However, land security remains problematic with significant areas where Blacks reside under traditional tenure systems.

Table 5.74 Households' duration of stay in the area (in %)

Duration of stay	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
1-5 years	5	32	18.5
6-10 years	14	18	16
11-15 years	10	5	7.5
16-25 years	16	24	20
26-30 years	55	21	38
	x=21.3	x=13.9	x=17.6

Fifty five percent of the households near Ezulwini Private Park have been living in the area for more than twenty five years. In contrast, most of the households near Tala Private Park (32%) have been living in the area for less than five years (Table 5.74). The locals living near Ezulwini Private Park have definitely become attached to the area. The average households' duration of stay for the respondents near Ezulwini Private Park was 21.3 years (ranging from 1-30 years) in the area and the average households' duration of stay for the respondents near Tala Private Park was 13.9 years (ranging from 1-30 years).

Respondents were questioned whether they or their families lived elsewhere previously. Thirty six percent of the households near Ezulwini Private Park and 41% of the households near Tala Private Park previously lived elsewhere. The results are indicative of Africans being forced to

move during the apartheid era. According to Khosa (1994), between 1960 and 1983 approximately 750,000 Africans were removed from their land in KwaZulu-Natal and during this period over 619,000 Africans were still under threat of enforced eviction. Contrary to the often protestation of the White landholding community, research (Khosa, 1994) has shown that most of the land area of the province was occupied by Africans prior to White settlement during the nineteenth century (Allen and Brennan, 2004).

Table 5.75 Respondent's reason for moving into area (in %)

Reason	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Better prospects	27	13	20
Forced removal	9	28	18.5
Not applicable	64	59	61.5

At the Ezulwini Private Park the reasons for the community households locating to the current area of residence was attributed to better prospects (27%) and forced removals (9%) (Table 5.75). Similarly, at the Tala Private Park reasons for the community households locating to current area of residence was attributed to forced removals (28%) and better prospects (13%). Forced removals can be attributed to the past conservation strategies in African States which have seldom been based upon the participation or consent of communities whose lives they affect (Anderson and Grove, 1987). The creation of Parks have led to forcibly removing communities without receiving adequate compensation for the land they had lost (Ferreira, 2004). Figgis and Bushell (2007) affirm that local communities have suffered resource loss through the declaration of the protected area, profited modestly from its development for tourism and then been left to try to extract some value from the influx of visitors. During apartheid approximately 3.5 million people lost their rights to property through forced removals (DLA, 1995). The Land Acts of the early twentieth century took away the land rights of the African occupiers and placed legal obstacles in the way of Black farmers who had sufficient capital to buy land in their own name (Allen and Brennan, 2004). The South African scenario has in place the Restitution of Land Rights Act 22 of 1994 which has permitted indigenous people to recover lands from which they were forcibly removed during the apartheid era (Bushell and McCool, 2007). There were (and are) innumerable problems hindering the progress of land redistribution and restitution (Allen and Brennan, 2004). According to Allen and Brennan (2004), there is the

political and economic strength of the land classes in South Africa, constitutional constraints surrounding property, land reform has been hampered by the same funding constraints affecting other governmental activities, rural communities were inexperienced in representing their own interests and their lack of political voice impairs their ability to make forceful claims. Furthermore, the lack of experience by government delays land reform and the actual amount of cultivated land available would be insufficient to satisfy all claims, force planners to make difficult and unpopular decisions (DLA, 1995). Land reform has given rise to an intense debate over the future use of the conservation estates under claim since many estates of South Africa has been impacted on by land claims (de Villiers, 2008). According to de Villiers (2008), the South African government is striving to settle all or most land claims by March 2008. To date, claims have yet to be resolved. In addition, there were four options available for the settlement of claims on conservation land: restoration of title to the land, provision of alternative land, cash compensation, or a combination of the three options (de Villiers, 2008: 6).

Table 5.76 Perceptions of quality of land currently available for grazing and cultivation (in %)

Land grazing	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Poor	19	71	45
Satisfactory	21	16	18.5
Good	25	13	19
Excellent	35	-	17.5
Land cultivation			
Poor	15	81	48
Satisfactory	25	15	20
Good	16	4	10
Excellent	44	-	22

Respondents were asked to rate the suitability of their land for grazing and cultivation purposes on a four-point scale. From Table 5.76 it is evident that 35% of the respondents near Ezulwini Private Park felt that the land is excellent for grazing and 44% felt that the land is excellent for cultivation. A further 25% and 16% of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park felt that their land was good for grazing and cultivation, respectively. In contrast, respondents living near Tala Private Park felt that the land was poor for grazing (71%) and cultivation (81%). Plate 5.4 depicts the poor quality of land used for grazing and cultivation by the local community near

Tala Private Park. Allen and Brennan (2004) carried-out a study in Phinda Resource Reserve situated in KwaZulu-Natal region of southern Maputaland close to Ezulwini Private Park. They felt that there is some commercial farming in the area such as livestock, pineapples, sugar and cotton on smallholdings, however, much of the land is of poor quality and is cultivable (Allen and Brennan, 2004). Their findings are different from the community respondents' perceptions.

Plate 5.4 Poor quality of land for grazing and cultivation used by the local community adjacent to Tala Private Park



Table 5.77 Location of community households located in relation to the Parks (in %)

Reside	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Within the Park	2	8	5
1-5 km radius from the Park boundary	2	83	42.5
6-10 km radius from the Park boundary	11	8	9.5
11-15 km radius from the Park boundary	11	1	6
16-20 km radius from the Park boundary	5	-	2.5
21-30 km from the Park boundary	69	-	34.5
	x=20.9	x=3.3	x=12.1

The majority of the respondents (69%) reside further than 20 km from the Ezulwini Private Park boundary. In contrast, 83% of the respondents reside within 1-5 km from the boundary of the Tala Private Park. At the Ezulwini Private Park, only 2% of the local community reside within the Park boundary. Similarly, at the Tala Private Park only 8% of the local community reside

within the Park boundary. The average distance of community of community households from the Ezulwini Private Park boundary was 20.9 km (ranging from 1-30 km) and the average distance of community households from the Tala Private Park boundary was 3.3 km (ranging from 1-15 km) in the area. Thus, the respondents from the Tala Private Park resided significantly closer to the Park than the Ezulwini Private Park respondents.

Respondents were questioned on whether they were asked or forced to relocate from the private Park areas. An overwhelming majority (99%) of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and 66% of the respondents living near Tala Private Park indicated that they were not asked or forced to move out from the respective private Parks. The larger number of households was affected at Tala Private Park when compared to Ezulwini Private Park. This may be attributed to them living in closer proximity to (or within) the Park boundaries.

Table 5.78 Distance relocated from Private Parks boundary (in %)

Relocated	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
6-10 km radius from the Park boundary	1	2	1.5
11-15 km radius from the Park boundary	-	3	1.5
16-20 km radius from the Park boundary	-	6	3
21-30 km radius from the Park boundary	-	23	11.5
Not applicable	99	66	82.5
	x=0.1	x=7.5	x=3.8

At the Ezulwini Private Park, only a single respondent indicated that they were relocated 6-10 km from the Park boundary and another piece of land was allocated to them as compensation. In contrast, at the Tala Private Park, 23% of the respondents indicated that they were relocated 21-30 km from the Park boundary, 6% of the respondents indicated that they were relocated 16-20 km from the Park boundary, 3% of the respondents indicated that they were relocated 11-15 km from the Park boundary and 2% of the respondents indicated that they were relocated 6-10 km from the Park boundary. The average distance that households were relocated away from Tala Private Park was 7.5 km (ranging from 6-30 km). At the Tala Private Park respondents were compensated by being given another piece of land or by being paid money for their land. The Tala Private Park results show that local communities are often impacted by the creation of

private Parks and are often forced to relocate. Clearly, a significant proportion of the households interviewed in this study experienced dislocation.

In South Africa, the government has embarked on a programme for the restitution of land rights lost through racially discriminatory laws of the past (Sandwith and Pfothenhauer, 2002). According to De Villiers (2008), the land reform process incorporates the involvement of disadvantaged communities in the management and control of protected areas and the establishment of economic benefits for such communities from protected areas. At the Tala Private Park the respondents have lodged a land claim against the private Park and the respondents further indicated that thus far none of the land claims have been settled.

Table 5.79 Problems experienced in relation to tourism (in %)

Problems	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Animals come out and threatens people's lives	-	8	4
Criminals hide stolen vehicles inside the Park at night since gate is not always closed	1	-	0.5
Increase in HIV/AIDS	6	-	3
Noise coming from the Park	-	2	1
Not allowed to hunt animals or plants for food and medicine	5	2	3.5
Park owner looks at them as if they will steal or kill animals	2	-	1
Poverty	-	5	2.5
Lack of basic services	-	1	0.5
Racism	1	-	0.5
Not applicable	85	82	83.5

Eighty five percent of the respondents near Ezulwini Private Park and 82% of the respondents near Tala Private Park did not experience problems related to tourism (Table 5.79). However, 6% of the respondents near Ezulwini Private Park perceived that an increase in visitors has caused an increase in HIV/AIDS. During the focus group discussions participants stated that the locals were encouraged into prostitution as a result of tourism since employment opportunities are limited. This position is supported by Hall (1997) whose study revealed that visitors were prepared to pay exorbitant prices for sexual favours resulting in people being seen as commodities. It is recommended that private Parks develop a code of ethics for visitors that

focus on issues of morality and respect including sex education. Additionally, direct employment of locals in the tourism industry will discourage them from prostitution. Eight percent of the respondents indicated that wild animals do escape the Tala Private Park and threaten the communities' lives. Differing from this study, Okech's (2004) study in Kenya mentions that wild animals were seen to be a key problem. The difference could be attributed to conditions in South Africa whereby most, if not all, private Parks and National Parks are fenced. However, in Kenya indigenous communities often reside in the Parks or reserves and these are not fenced, specifically to allow wild animals to move freely. In Ezulwini Private Park respondents indicated that they were not allowed to hunt animals or plants for food and medicine (5%). In Tala Private Park respondents indicated that they were experiencing increasing levels of poverty (5%). This could also be attributed to the high unemployment levels (49%) experienced near Tala Private Park.

5.4.3 The community and the social impacts of ecotourism

From Table 5.80 it is apparent that 72% of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and 73% of the respondents living near Tala Private Park indicated that no relationship exists between the community, management and staff of the respective private Parks. Brown and Harris (2005) discuss examples in India, Nepal, Africa and Brazil where contributors to this anthology advocate an integration of concern for biodiversity with sustainable living by indigenous people. There is a need to build relationships between staff, community and management since, no Parks or reserves can exist without viable and constructive community participation. This sub-section examines community perceptions of social impacts in relation to relationships with Park management, views on social impacts of ecotourism as well as positive and negative impacts.

Table 5.80 Community relationship with management and staff of the private Park (in %)

Description	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Excellent	5	2	3.5
Very good	4	9	6.5
Good	9	5	7
Average	2	3	2.5
Bad	-	5	2.5
Very bad	8	3	5.5
Not applicable	72	73	72.5

Seventy two percent of the respondents residing near Ezulwini Private Park and 73% residing near Tala Private Park indicated that no relationship exists between the community, management and staff of the respective private Parks. This is indeed disconcerting, especially in Tala Private Park where households are located in close proximity to the Parks boundaries. It is essential to understand that protected areas cannot co-exist in abstraction from surrounding communities (Alpert, 1996; Durbin and Ralambo, 1994; Kiss, 1990) and they can achieve significant social and economic objectives when they have positive relationships with neighbouring communities (Buch-Hansen, 1997; Durbin and Ralambo, 1994). Some respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park (18%) and Tala Private Park (16%) indicated that they had a positive relationship (excellent, very good and good) with the management and staff of the Park. However, 8% of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park perceived a negative (bad or very bad) relationship with the staff and management of the Park. It is essential that the management of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park should plan programmes to encourage active community participation and improve relationships with all members of the community rather than a few.

Table 5.81 Reasons for rating of relationship (in %)

Reason	Ezulwini	Tala	Total
	(n=100)	(n=100)	(n=200)
Positive reasons			
Community can visit the Park	3	-	1.5
Community members asked to do Zulu dance	2	-	1
Employing people from the community	6	-	3
Enjoying meeting visitors from different countries	4	-	2
Good consultation	2	-	1
The community and the management as well as staff share some issues	-	4	2
The management and staff were friendly to the community	-	12	6
Negative reasons			
Only the employer and employee relationship is applicable	-	1	0.5
Cannot visit relative working within the Park	2	-	1
The management and staff treat local people unfairly	-	10	5
Paid minimal wage dismissed if unhappy with salary	2	-	1
Park owner has the conception that Black people are thieves and the partnership has conditions	7	-	3.5
Not applicable	72	73	72.5

Some of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park provided positive as well as negative responses to describe why they perceived their relationship with the management and staff of the Park as they do (Table 5.81). The respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park provided positive responses such as locals from the community were employed (6%), community enjoys meeting visitors from other destinations (4%), community can visit the Park (3%), there is good consultation (2%) and community members were asked to perform Zulu dance (2%). The respondents living near Tala Private Park provided positive responses such as the management and staff have a friendly relationship with the community (12%) and the community and the management as well as staff share some issues (4%). The positive responses relate primarily to positive interactions with Park personnel, access to the Park and opportunities derived meeting visitors.

The respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park provided negative responses such as the Park owner was perceived to have a racist attitude (7%), they were dismissed if unhappy with salary

(2%) and unable to visit relatives employed in the Park (2%). The respondents living near Tala Private Park provided negative responses such as the management and staff, treat local people unfairly (10%) and the relationship is one related to the work situation only (1%). The perceptions regarding the private Park owners' attitudes towards the communities residing near the Ezulwini and Tala Private Park stems from South Africa's past legacy. During the apartheid years, Parks were concerned primarily with conservation issues, thus neglecting the social welfare of surrounding communities (Rogerson and Visser, 2004).

Table 5.82 If tourism has contributed to social impacts in the community (in %)

Social impacts	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Meet visitors that travel to the private Parks			
Yes	50	18	34
No	50	82	66
Enjoy visitors coming to the private Park			
Yes	49	52	50.5
No	51	48	49.5
More sex workers in the area			
Yes	14	11	12.5
No	86	89	87.5
More casinos in the area			
Yes	43	2	22.5
No	57	98	77.5
Lowering of traditional values			
Yes	1	10	5.5
No	99	90	94.5
Feeling negative about culture			
Yes	-	15	7.5
No	100	85	92.5

Half of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and 18% of the respondents in Tala Private Park do interact with visitors that visit the respective private Parks (Table 5.82). In addition, 49% of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and 52% of the respondents in Tala Private Park do enjoy visitors visiting the respective private Parks. The differences between the two Parks may be due to respondents at Tala Private Park residing closer to the Park boundaries than respondents at Ezulwini Private Park. According to Allen and Brennan (2004: 182), "it is difficult to avoid tourism as a social activity in a world where tourism is a very popular pastime, a major employer and is media sexy". However, it would be necessary for visitors to know how

to behave in their holiday destination especially if they were internationals. This would encourage locals to interact more with visitors. The results reveal that some community respondents would like to interact with visitors. Different stakeholders (including Park managers and tour operators) need to work together to ensure that opportunities materialise and are sustainable.

The majority of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park (86%) and Tala Private Park (89%) do not perceive that tourism results in an increase in sex workers (Table 5.82). In Australia, there is an increase in tourism-oriented prostitution and Asian females are brought into the country to cater for both Australian and Japanese tourists (Hall, 1997). However, the local community at both Parks do not perceive sex workers as a problem. Fifty seven percent of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and 98% of the community respondents living near Tala Private Park indicated that casinos did not increase in the area as a result of tourism (Table 5.82). The large proportion of respondents in Tala Private Park (43%) who felt that there are more casinos in the area can be linked to the communities' proximity to Pietermaritzburg and Durban where there has been an increase in casinos. An overwhelming majority of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park (99% and 90%, respectively) indicated that traditional values were not being lowered due to an increase in tourism (Table 5.82). Additionally, all of the respondents near Ezulwini Private Park and 85% of the respondents near Tala Private Park indicated that tourism has not resulted in the community feeling negative about their culture. The findings show that most respondents' attitudes towards the social impacts of tourism were positive.

The majority of respondents indicated that the establishment of the Ezulwini Private Park (54%) and Tala Private Park (84%) had not impacted their lives. Again, the higher level of responses from Tala Private Park can be attributed to the residents living closer to the Park boundary.

Table 5.83 Perceived negative and positive impacts of ecotourism (in %): Multiple responses

	Ezulwini	Tala	Total
	(n=100)	(n=100)	(n=200)
Negative impacts			
Animals are hunted by visitors	2	-	1
Exploitation and underpaid for labour	4	-	2
Forced removals	4	7	5.5
Increase in casinos in the area	9	-	4.5
Less land for grazing and cultivation	-	5	2.5
Lowering of traditional values	11	-	5.5
No local development initiatives has been provided by the Park owner	-	4	2
Not allowed to use plants for natural medicines	2	-	1
Increase in theft	3	-	1.5
Increase in HIV/AIDS	11	-	5.5
Positive impacts			
Increase in economic development	34	14	24
Increase in casino's can create more employment	1	-	0.5
Increase in small business ventures	3	-	1.5
Purchasing of arts and crafts by visitors	-	2	1
Learn and understand what is happening in other countries and obtain development of a high standard	8	-	4
Not applicable	54	84	69

The respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park described the negative impacts of ecotourism as lowering of traditional values (11%), increase in HIV/AIDS (11%), increase in casinos in the area (9%), exploitation of labour (4%), forced removals (4%), increase in theft since visitors have money and lots of valuable possessions (3%), not allowed to use plants for natural medicines (2%) and animals were hunted by visitors (2%). The respondents in Tala Private Park describe the negative impacts of ecotourism as forced removals (7%), less land for grazing and cultivation (5%) and no local development initiatives were provided by the Park owner (4%). Most of the negative impacts relate to social disruption and restricted access to resources.

From Table 5.83 it is evident that 34% of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and 14% of the respondents living near Tala Private Park agreed that an increase in ecotourism will

lead to development which in turn will provide employment opportunities for the local communities. At the Ezulwini Private Park respondents listed the following positive changes due to ecotourism: increases in economic development (34%), the ability to learn and understand what is happening in other countries and apply it locally (8%), increase in small business ventures (3%) and an increase in casinos in the area which can create more employment (1%). At the Tala Private Park, respondents stated that the positive changes due to tourism will increase economic development (14%) and the sale of local arts and crafts (2%). Thus, most of the positive impacts are linked to development and specifically economic opportunities.

5.4.4 The community and the economic impacts of ecotourism

Respondents were questioned whether they knew of any Black-owned tourism businesses. The majority of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park (66%) and from Tala Private Park (72%) indicated that they did not know of any Black-owned ecotourism businesses. This is similar to earlier findings that illustrate that most of the tourism tour operators and Park owners are Whites and reflects the South African economic landscape.

Table 5.84 Availability of visitor facilities and services within the community (in %)

Type of business	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Tour operator	-	3	1.5
Arts and crafts	20	3	11.5
Community accommodation	46	-	23
Not applicable	34	94	64

Respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park indicated that community accommodation (46%) and arts and crafts facilities (20%) were available to visitors. Respondents living near Tala Private Park indicated that tour operators (3%) and arts and crafts (3%) facilities were available to tourists. Thirty four percent of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and an overwhelming majority of respondents living near Tala Private Park (94%) were not aware of any tourist facilities in the community (Table 5.84). However, it is interesting to note that 66% of the respondents near Ezulwini Private Park and 6% of respondents near Tala Private Park indicated that they would like to have more visitor facilities built in their community. The results reveal that there are some attempts in the communities under study to derive benefits from

tourism in the area. This is mainly linked to providing accommodation and the sale of arts and crafts.

There are many cases whereby local communities could benefit from selling services or products to tourists such as food, craft or guiding services although they may lack market access (Scheyvens, 2002). Fuller et al. (2005) stated that the indigenous community Ngukurr of Northern Australia attempted to initiate micro-enterprises. The indigenous owner and operator indicated that the primary objective to expand the enterprise was to derive economic benefits for himself and employment and income opportunities, especially for the youth (Fuller et al., 2005). The youth were experiencing social problems such as alcohol, tobacco and other substances abuse which could be ameliorated with meaningful employment opportunities linked to tourism (Fuller et al., 2005).

Table 5.85 List of future visitor facilities and tourism opportunities (in %)

Visitor facilities	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Arts and crafts market	8	6	7
Building of casinos and night clubs	2	-	1
Establishing small business ventures	7	-	3.5
Establishment of training centre	7	-	3.5
Community garden	10	-	5
Accommodation facilities	6	5	5.5
Sport facilities	8	4	6
Zulu cultural display	38	2	20
Tourism bursaries	2	-	1
Educational trust for drama and other activities	-	-	-
Building of shopping mall	-	8	4
Building of community hall	8	-	4
Not applicable	4	75	39.5

Table 5.85 provides a description of the visitor facilities and tourism opportunities that the respondents would like to have in their community. Zulu cultural displays (38%), community gardens (10%), arts and crafts markets (8%) and community halls (8%) were popular responses from the community living near Ezulwini Private Park. Respondents living near Tala Private Park indicated that a shopping mall (8%), arts and crafts markets (6%) and accommodation such as bed and breakfast (6%) should be built in the Mkhambathini Area. It is interesting to note that the most of the respondents near Tala Private Park (75%) indicated that they did not require any

additional visitor facilities in the area. Perhaps this is because they are close enough to the private Park to benefit from and access existing facilities or the respondents of Tala Private Park have not yet been educated about the potential of ecotourism and how they could be involved.

De Villiers (2008) states that in Madikwe National Park management of entry gates have been outsourced to the local community, curios that were made by the local community were sold at the lodge and the erection and maintenance of the fences have been outsourced to local contractors. The Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park should follow the example of Madikwe National Park and include locals as much as possible.

Table 5.86 Ways to develop tourism facilities (in %)

	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Ask councillor to speak to private Parks owner	35	10	22.5
Asking for assistance in terms of donations	38	15	26.5
Communicating with tourists	2	-	1
Councillors can make a deal to sell plants and animals at a reduced price	7	-	
Interest free loans to start community tourism projects	5	-	2.5
Marketing and promoting of arts and crafts	9	-	4.5
Not applicable	4	75	39.5

With regards to developing tourism facilities in their community, most of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park stated that they would ask for donations (38%) or that the councillors should speak to the private Park's owner for assistance (35%). Similarly, respondents from Ezulwini Private Park stated that they will ask for donations (15%) or that councillors should speak to the private Park's owner (10%). Other ways identified by respondents in Ezulwini Private Park were marketing and promoting arts and crafts (9%), councillors can make a deal to sell plants and animals at a reduced price (7%) and trying to access interest free loans to start community tourism projects (5%). Almost all of the responses entail seeking assistance and funding from outside source or leveraging economic opportunities. In terms of the former, it is important to note that many community projects often rely on outside resources and this creates dependency relationships. Communities are often unable to sustain community projects when funding ceases.

5.4.5 The community and the natural environment

According to Smardon and Faust (2006), government and some NGOs as well as some academics perceive that local people in developing countries are unaware of environmental degradation or the loss of biodiversity. This has led to a feeling of alienation among local community members towards government policies which has resulted in a lack of commitment on their part to external conservation strategies (Garcia-Frapolli et al., 2008). In this sub-section the relationship between the local community and the natural environment is examined.

Table 5.87 Respondent's dependence on natural resources from the Parks and whether access is granted (in %)

	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Depend on natural resources from the private Park			
Yes	72	7	39.5
No	28	93	60.5
Water			
Yes	5	1	3
No	95	99	97
Wood (building and fuel)			
Yes	60	3	31.5
No	40	97	68.5
Plants (food and medicine)			
Yes	66	5	35.5
No	34	95	64.5
Animals (food, muti)			
Yes	67	1	34
No	33	99	66
Ancestral worship at specific site			
Yes	29	-	14.5
No	71	100	85.5

Seventy two percent of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park depend on natural resources from the Park. In contrast, 93% of the respondents from Tala Private Park do not depend on natural resources (Table 5.87). An overwhelming majority of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park (95%) and Tala Private Park (99%) indicated that they do not depend on water from the private Parks. Sixty percent of the respondents depend on wood from the Ezulwini Private Park. In contrast, 97% of the respondents living near Tala Private Park do not depend on wood from the private Parks.

The majority of the respondents depend on plants from the Ezulwini Private Park (66%). In contrast, an overwhelming majority (95%) of the respondents from Tala Private Park do not depend on plants from the Park. Sixty seven percent of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park depend on animals from the Park and nearly all of the respondents (99%) near Tala Private Park indicated that they do not depend on animals from the Park.

Seventy one percent of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and all the respondents near Tala Private Park do not require access into the respective private Parks for ancestral worship. However, in Ezulwini Private Park the remaining 29% of the respondents do require access into the Park for ancestral worship. It is important to consider that tourist activities to the area may bring the communities economic opportunities but erode the values of sacred places and traditional rituals (Lai and Nepal, 2006). It would have been interesting to ascertain whether this is the case in this study since respondents were not asked whether they desired access only whether access is currently granted. However, during the focus group discussions it did emerge that sacred sites were located in the Parks but community members had restricted access to them.

In this study it is interesting to note that the respondents who live closer to the Park (Tala Private Park) access resources to a lesser extent than those residing in Nibela (near Ezulwini Private Park). This could be attributed to more restrictions at Tala Private Park or to the fact that the community has better facilities and services because it is located in close proximity to Pietermaritzburg.

Table 5.88 Respondent’s perceptions as to whether tourists have contributed to negative impacts (in %)

	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Plant and tree destruction			
Yes	-	1	0.5
No	100	99	99.5
Water pollution			
Yes	-	3	1.5
No	100	97	98.5
Air pollution			
Yes	-	5	2.5
No	100	95	97.5
Vandalism of artefacts			
Yes	1	5	3
No	99	95	97
Animal depletion			
Yes	2	3	2.5
No	98	97	97.5

The overwhelming majority of the respondents from both Parks did not perceive that tourism activities cause any destruction to the plants and trees (100% in Tala Private Park and 99% in Ezulwini Private Park), water pollution (100% in Tala Private Park and 97% in Ezulwini Private Park), air pollution (100% in Tala Private Park and 95% in Ezulwini Private Park), animal depletion (98% in Tala Private Park and 97% in Ezulwini Private Park) or the vandalism of artefacts (99% in Tala Private Park and 95% in Ezulwini Private Park) (Table 5.88). With domestic and international tourism rapidly increasing in the country it is vital that legislation curtails the impact of tourism on the environment. For example, Honey (1999) discusses a special law that is implemented in Galapagos Islands near South America. According to Honey (1999), this legislation is intended to support residents, stabilise populations on the islands, set aside an additional 2% for human settlement, set aside more land for conservation, extend the zone of protection in the ocean and ban industrial fishing for specific species. This law does not regulate tourism, it does limit tourism infrastructure and stresses the importance of environmental education in schools. In this study the majority of the respondents indicated that they do not feel that visitors have contributed to negative environmental impacts, supporting visitor and tour operator perceptions that the natural environment is currently being well managed. However, managers should consider the recommendations made by Honey (1999) to mobilise community support since the current benefits derived directly for communities from

tourism in the area are limited. As the literature indicates that when communities do not experience benefits they are more likely to undermine conservation efforts.

5.4.6 Challenges facing local communities

Table 5.89 lists a range of constraints that respondents identified in relation to tourism in their respective areas.

Table 5.89 Constraints facing the community in relation to tourism (in %)

Constraints	Ezulwini (n=100)	Tala (n=100)	Total (n=200)
Apartheid unequal relationships	22	8	15
Assist in building of community garden	3	-	1.5
Do not understand what it is like to be a tourist	6	82	44
Financial problems	2	-	1
Lack of access into the private Park	3	-	1.5
Lack of communication	27	7	17
Need to be educated in tourism related issues	15	-	7.5
No capital to start own business	11	-	5.5
Restrictions in obtaining education	3	-	1.5
Segregation between Park owner and the community	7	-	3.5
The community do not have access to tourism facilities	-	3	1.5
Lack of tourism community projects	1	-	0.5

From Table 5.89 it is evident that the major constraints facing the respondents near Ezulwini Private Park were lack of communication with the Park owner and management (27%), apartheid which led to unequal relationships (22%), need to be educated in tourism related issues (15%), no capital to start their own business (11%), segregation between Park owner and the community (7%), do not understand what it is like to be a tourist (6%), need assistance to build community garden (3%), lack of access into the private Park (3%), not exposed to education (3%), financial problems (2%) and lack of tourism community projects (1%). Respondents near Tala Private Park identified their major constraints as: they do not understand what it is like to be a tourist (82%) as many community respondents have never been on holiday, apartheid unequal relationships (8%), lack of communication with the Park owner (7%) and the community lacks access to tourism facilities (3%).

The key constraints relate to unequal relationships, the need for more community development and support, the need to understand what a tourist is and lack of access to resources. The responses reflect Scheyvens' (1999) four dimensions of empowerment (economic, social, psychological and political) which communities' desire.

5.4.7 Focus group findings

The study also used participatory approaches to analyse the data regarding the challenges that the local community faced. Communities were assisted to illustrate their problems since, as Laws et al. (2003) state, participatory research can lend itself to solutions. Based on research carried out by Milligan et al. (2009), the benefits of using such participatory exercises include (i) personal benefits where individuals feel that their view points are valued, (ii) gaining an understanding of how others are affected and consequently react to situations, and finally, (iii) an opportunity to raise key points in an arena where issues may be unfamiliar and very radical. It is often difficult for the community to be heard because communities consist of heterogeneous opinions and attitudes toward tourism development and conservation (Alexander, 2000; Mehta and Kellert, 1998; Snaith and Haley, 1999). Participatory research actively involves community members who best understand and have the greatest stake in the issues (Laws et al., 2003). However, participation in decision-making should not be seen as a panacea (Milligan et al., 2009). Some of the participatory exercises included venn diagrams, mental mapping and ranking exercises undertaken during focus group discussions which are predominantly useful to enable respondents to visually communicate issues. However, there are a number of practical challenges involving various viewpoints without creating too much of a focus on individual and personal biases (Treby and Clark, 2004). In practice, balancing the interests of multiple stakeholders is extremely difficult (Milligan et al., 2009). The principle of participatory research focuses on planning with rather than planning for to search for ways to build a community's capabilities to respond to changes as well as to generate change themselves (Wearing and McDonald, 2002). Tosun (2000) refers to the belief that the participatory development approach would facilitate the implementation of principles of sustainable tourism development by creating improved opportunities for local people to gain larger and more balanced benefits from tourism development taking place within their localities. Inskeep (1994) says that the participatory development approach results in a more positive attitude towards tourism development and the

conservation of local resources. Presently, participation techniques are bound to notions of empowerment (Wearing and McDonald, 2002).

A variety of groups within a community have different levels of knowledge and understanding of their relationship with management and staff of private Parks. Perceptions of various stakeholders will generally differ, therefore it is essential to interact with different social groups within the community (men, women, poor, landless, youth, various ethnic and social status, etc.) in order to gather a diverse understanding of different perspectives. The analysis of the participatory approaches provided an indepth understanding of the plight of the communities adjacent to the private Parks as well as the relationship that the community has with management and staff of the private Parks. As discussed earlier, a group of eight local community members in each of the communities of diverse age, race, religion, qualifications and interests participated in the participatory exercises.

Problem ranking matrix can be used to assess people's expectations, beliefs, judgements, attitudes, preferences and opinions (Mikkelson, 1995). In this study, participants were asked to list and rank the main problems experienced in their respective communities. The results are presented in the Tables below and reflect earlier findings pertaining to constraints and problems identified by the survey respondents. Table 5.90 show the Nibela community responses.

Table 5.90 Nibela community ranking matrix

	ET	E	CO	EW	T	IT	I	CI	PA	IC	R	HA	C
ET	•	ET	ET	EW	T	IT	ET	ET	PA	ET	ET	ET	ET
E	•	•	CO	E	T	E	E	E	E	E	E	E	E
CO	•	•	•	CO									
EW	•	•	•	•	T	EW	I	CI	EW	EW	EW	EW	EW
T	•	•	•	•	•	T	T	T	T	T	T	T	T
IT	•	•	•	•	•	•	I	CI	PA	IC	R	HA	C
I	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	CI	PA	IC	R	HA	C
CI	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	PA	CI	CI	CI	CI
PA	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	PA	R	HA	C
IC	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	IC	IC	IC
R	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	HA	HA
HA	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	HA
C	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

Problem	Scoring	Ranking
1. Lack of education relating to tourism (ET)	8	4
2. Lack of employment (E)	9	3
3. No community owned Parks (CO)	11	1
4. Exploitation of workers (EW)	7	5
5. Loss of tradition (T)	11	1
6. No interaction with tourist(IT)	1	13
7. Lack of investment in community (I)	2	12
8. No community involvement (CI)	7	5
9. Problematic animals (PA)	5	8
10. Increase in crime (IC)	5	8
11. Racism (R)	3	10
12. HIV/AIDS (HA)	6	7
13. Increase in casinos (C)	3	10

Loss of tradition (1) and no community owned Parks (1), lack of employment (3) and lack of education relating to tourism (4) ranked as the highest problems in the community. These were followed by exploitation of workers (5) and no community involvement (5), HIV/AIDS (7), problematic animals (8), increase in crime (8), racism (10) and increase in casinos (10), lack of investment in community (12) and no interaction with tourists (13). Most of the community respondents indicated loss of tradition, limited opportunities and the lack of ownership by the local community as the main obstacles leading to social impacts. The participants indicated that

the Ezulwini Private Park owner has not approached the local community to develop a partnership. The participants also felt that lack of employment opportunities (as the respondents indicated that the unemployment levels were 40%) has resulted in resentment amongst the local community. Unemployment could also exacerbate crime in the area resulting in a reduction of visitors. Programmes including aspects such as conflict resolution and education must be given priority by the private sector together with the government (Allen and Brennan, 2004). These programmes are integral to future ecotourism planning in KwaZulu-Natal.

Also, local communities need to be educated in tourism related issues because many locals do not know what it is like to be a visitor. This can be achieved with the support from the government and private sector. Allen and Brennan (2004) state that it is important to understand the tourist-host encounter in the evaluation of the tourist experience, it is essential that communities are prepared to participate enthusiastically and to be receptive of tourists into the province. Training of local people to be interpretive guides can assist in achieving not only ecological sustainability but also economic sustainability (Weiler and Ham, 2002).

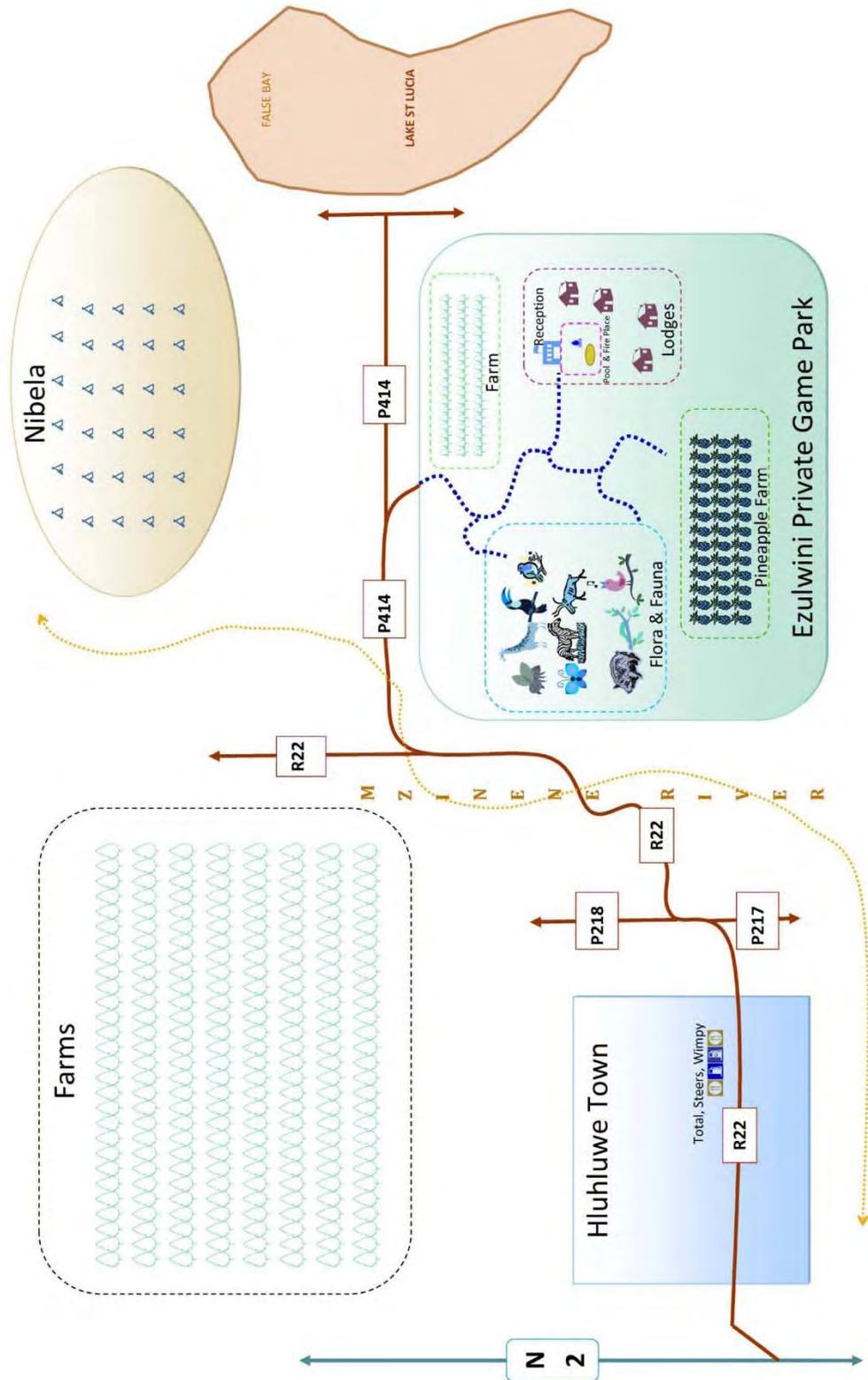
Exploitation of workers (who are mainly Blacks) and racism were also identified by the participants. Issues of racism must be addressed with the support of the government, private sector and NGOs in terms of workshops. These workshops must be carried out with the relevant stakeholders including visitors, park personnel, park owners, tour operators and the local community who can come together and discuss problematic issues. This process will enable all stakeholders to identify issues and through negotiation find solutions to the problems.

Participants were asked during the focus group discussions to indicate ways in which they think the community can address some of the challenges they faced. Aspects that were identified (in order of importance) included:

- participation in oral and folk tradition;
- the community would create an environment whereby locals were supported in their business ventures financially and provided with expertise from more successful community members;
- Marketing of the local communities crafts for example locals were very good in wood work or selling of traditional outfits;

- the interaction with management would create open communication; and
- the use of including indigenous knowledge systems which could inform visitors about their cultures.
- Again, the creation of economic opportunities and importance of traditional culture were emphasised.

Figure 5.7 Mental map drawn by Nibela community (local community adjacent to Ezulwini Private Park)



The mental map (Figure 5.7) was drawn by the participants from Nibela community. The focus group has visually represented their relationship with the Ezulwini Private Park further emphasising an estrangement between local community, visitors and Ezulwini Private Park. This visual representation is supported by the feedback from the questionnaire survey whereby 72% of the respondents maintained that the community does not have a relationship with the management and staff of Ezulwini Private Park. The respondents visually represented the features attracting visitors to the Park such as the flora and fauna, False Bay and Lake St Lucia as well as visually illustrating the pineapple farm which sustains Ezulwini Private Park during non-seasonal periods when visitors are few. Thus, they are aware of activities within the Park boundaries. Respondents visually illustrated the Hluhluwe town depicting alternative employment opportunities as well as other private farms.

Figure 5.8 Venn diagram drawn by Nibela community (local community adjacent to Ezulwini Private Park)

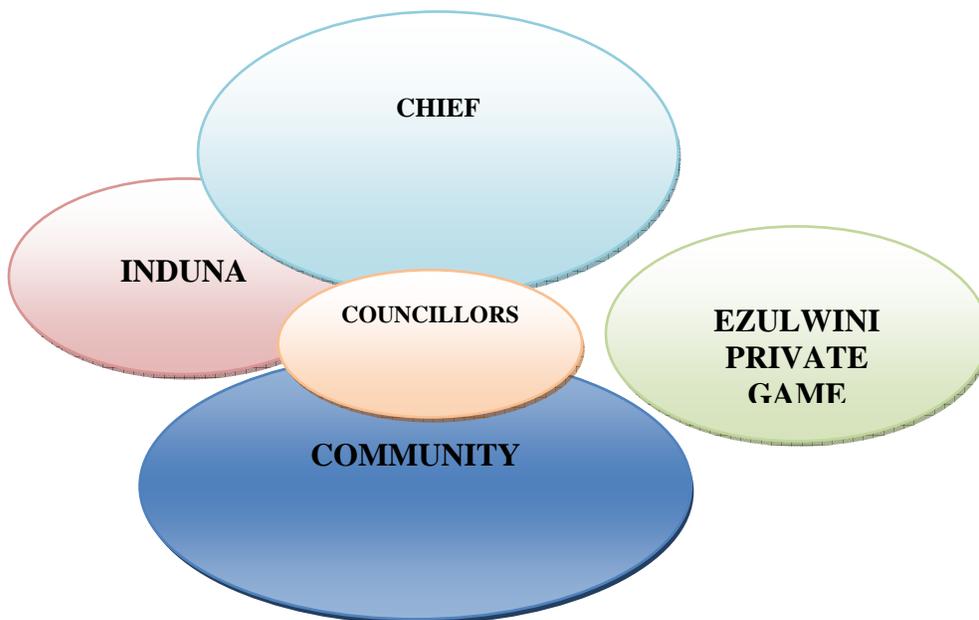


Figure 5.8 is a venn diagram that was compiled by the Nibela focus group participants. The focus group was asked to identify the institutions that are linked to the community. The overlapping of circles showed the overlap of members, functions and decision-making power. Thus, the focus group illustrated that the Ezulwini Private Park is a separate institution and does not play a role in the community, again reinforcing the estrangement between the community and the Park. Ezulwini Private Park can provide employment to the locals in the private Park as well as in the pineapple farm. For instance, the case study of Turtle Island in Fiji illustrates that local staff are employed from the local community in environmental management and rehabilitation, market gardening, complex carpentry and building as well as odd jobs around the resort operations (Figgis and Bushell, 2007). Ezulwini Private Park could follow the example of the Turtle Island in Fiji and can provide employment to the locals in the private Park as well as on the pineapple farm. In addition, Ezulwini Private Park can provide a substantial source of income to the community. From the focus group discussions the community did not foresee a relationship between the community and Ezulwini Private Park. In the questionnaire survey 72% and 73% of the respondents near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park, respectively, indicated that a

relationship does not exist between the community and the management and staff of the respective private Parks. The Ezulwini Private Park should assist the community in social issues such as making available food from the restaurant to the community or assisting the local schools with the knowledge of starting their own pineapple or vegetable garden.

The respondents have visually represented the relationship between the community and the councillors and the relationship between the Chief, Induna and the councillors. During discussions with the focus group it became apparent that the community has a strong relationship with the councillors since they feel that this is the avenue that will provide them with basic services that are needed for the local community. Furthermore, councillors were used as mediators between the communities and the Induna and Chiefs. Generally, the exclusion of the impoverished and vulnerable from decision-making processes in Zulu society is linked to the prevalence of criminal and communal violence in KwaZulu-Natal (Allen and Brennan, 2004). Thus, councillors have their own political agendas but seem to have an important role to play as a mediator between the communities and the Induna and Chiefs in Nibela. From the focus group discussions it was also evident that a small elite group belonging to the Zulu Chieftainship seem to be dominating. Respondents also stated that women were marginalised and most women who have lost their spouses were subjected to hardship and poverty because they were not allowed to inherit their husband's assets such as land and their daily survival was threatened.

Table 5.91 Magojela problem ranking matrix

	E	AN	FR	RC	UT	PR	I	BS	GC	TF
E	•	E	FR	RC	E	E	E	E	E	E
AN	•	•	FR	AN						
FR	•	•	•	FR						
RC	•	•	•	•	RC	PR	RC	BS	GC	RC
UT	•	•	•	•	•	PR	UT	BS	GC	I
PR	•	•	•	•	•	•	PR	PR	PR	PR
I	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	BS	GC	TF
BS	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	BS	BS
GC	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	GC
TF	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

Problem	Scoring	Ranking
1. Lack of employment (E)	7	2
2. Lack of access to natural resources (AN)	7	2
3. Forced removals (FR)	9	1
4. No respect for culture (RC)	3	7
5. Lack of understanding of tourism (UT)	1	8
6. Poor roads (PR)	6	4
7. No involvement (I)	1	8
8. Lack of basic services (BS)	5	5
9. Less land for grazing and cultivation (GC)	4	6
10. Lack of access to tourism facilities (TF)	1	8

Forced removals (1), lack of employment (2), lack of access to natural resources (2), and poor roads (4) were ranked by the Magojela focus group participants as being the most significant problems in the community. These were followed by less land for grazing and cultivation (6), no respect for culture (7), lack of understanding of tourism (8), no involvement in Tala Private Park decision-making (8) and lack of access to tourism facilities (8). The legacy of apartheid which contributed to forced removals is still a traumatic issue among many respondents.

De Villiers (2008: 1) states:

Land is a scarce commodity and rural populations in developing countries in particular exhibit low levels of tolerance when it comes to fertile land being set aside for conservation rather than being used for farming and grazing. In addition, the events leading to the creation of many of South Africa's protected areas were often characterised by black people being dispossessed and forcibly removed from their land. It is therefore no surprise that concerted efforts are under way by conservation authorities to win the hearts and minds of local people regarding protected areas.

De Villiers (2008) further indicates that the South African government was striving to settle all or most of the claims by March 2008 (which as indicated earlier was not accomplished) and this can only be achieved via large-scale acquisition of land from private landowners or making State owned land available. Furthermore, from the questionnaire survey it was evident that 28% of the respondents agreed that they have been forcefully removed and have lodged land claims which have not been resolved. It is imperative that these claims be resolved. The resolution of the claims will be critical to building trust and promoting development in the area.

Lack of employment (49% of the respondents who completed the surveys were unemployed in this study) was also seen as being an obstacle for the community's development which would lead to social problems. With the exception of lack of respect for culture, no other social issues were identified as problems by the community. The main aspects related to infrastructural and service provision, access to resources and employment opportunities, and forced removals.

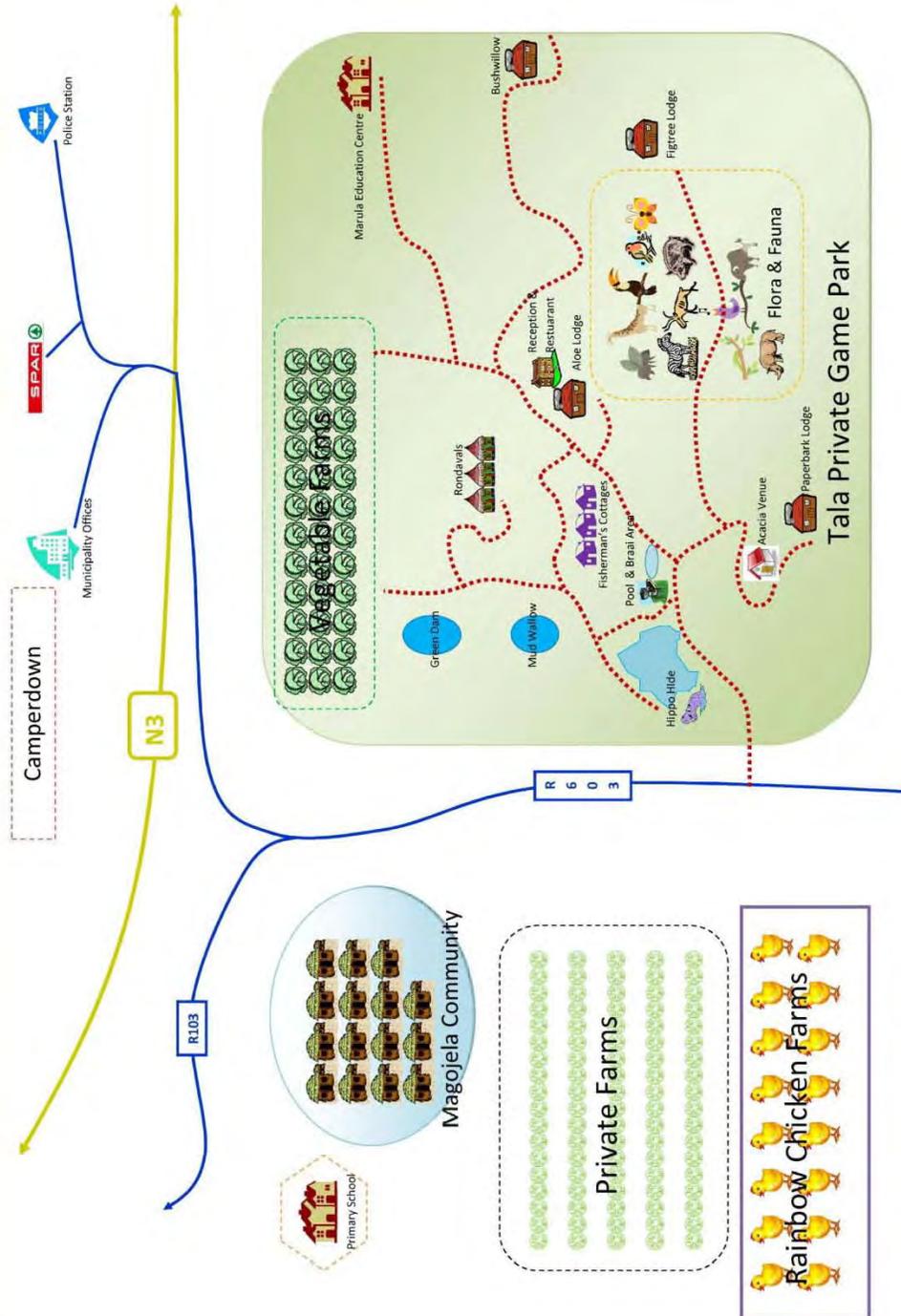
Lack of access to natural resources within Tala Private Park is also perceived by respondents as a major problem. South Africa's big five reserves were fenced and excludes resident human population (other than staff) and many of the pro-community alternatives of resource sharing and mixed agricultural or subsistence utilisation with wildlife tourism are not available to game reserve managers (Relly, 2004). Clearly, this concern persists in the two case study sites where the private Parks are fenced and access to the Parks by neighbouring community members are restricted. Issues of access (albeit controlled and managed to ensure the sustainability of the natural resource base) need to be addressed.

Poor roads is an important issue, especially for tourist access into the community, and this needs to be discussed with the local government as it could contribute to employment generation among the local community. For example, the local community could be employed in the

construction of the roads. Good roads will enable easy visitor access since tour operators will then conduct tours within the Magojela community. The local communities would then be able to market and sell their authentic arts and crafts to the visitors.

The local community of Magojela lacks the understanding of being a visitor or what it is like to go on a holiday as this is seen as a luxury to them. Guides, especially indigenous guides and trainees from the rural village, have difficulty empathising with the expectations and aspirations of foreign tourists (Weiler and Ham, 2002). This is an important aspect which must be dealt with by the management of Tala Private Park. The social ecologist of Tala Private Park should be involved in the educational aspect as this will reduce hostility between the local community of Magojela, the visitors and the Park staff.

Figure 5.9 Mental map drawn by Magojela community (local community adjacent to Tala Private Park)



Mikkelsen (1995) refers to mental mapping as a visual method conducted with a group. Figure 5.9 is a mental map that was drawn by the focus group participants from the local community (Magojela) adjacent to Tala Private Park. The respondents visually illustrated the Magojela community which is in close proximity to other private farms as well as the Rainbow chicken farm. Some of the respondents were employed in the Tala Private Park. Thus, respondents were able to identify the key features that attract visitors such as flora and fauna, rock pool, Marula education centre and lodges. Respondents visually illustrated the vegetable farm which grows produce for the restaurant La Tala as well as to shops such as Spar and Fruit and Veg City. Likewise, this farm sustains Tala Private Park during non-seasonal periods as the pineapple farm sustains Ezulwini Private Park.

Figure 5.10 Venn diagram drawn by Magojela community (local community adjacent to Tala Private Park)

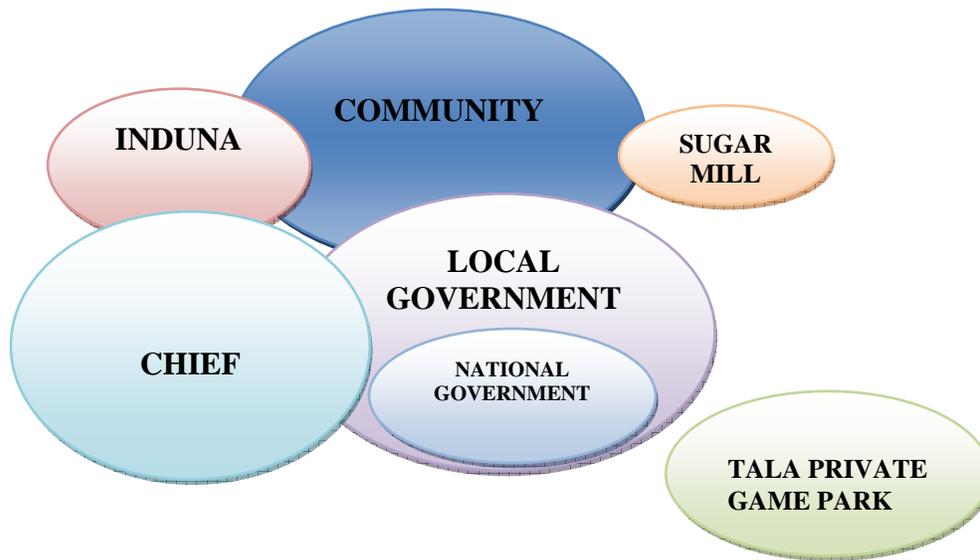


Figure 5.10 is a venn diagram that was compiled by the Magojela focus group participants. Venn diagrams are essential in providing information about which institutions were most significant and who participated in and were represented by which one. Hence, the respondents visually demonstrated no link between Tala Private Park and the local community. However, Sugar Mill Farm was visually illustrated to be linked to the local community. The respondents perceive that this farm provides them with employment opportunities and social assistance.

The hierarchical power structure was visibly illustrated. The respondents visually displayed that the community does not approach the Chief directly. The respondents stated that issues were discussed with the Induna and the Induna would take the community's issues to the Chief. Thus, the respondents perceived the Induna to be a mediator. However, the respondents visually represented a link between the community and local government and the local government and the Chief. Furthermore, the respondents indicated that the local government would report back to the national government on issues and problems facing the local community.

5.5 Park personnel

These following issues were addressed in the Park personnel surveys and are examined in this section:

- park personnel profile;
- relationship with local communities;
- conservation issues; and
- suggestions.

5.5.1 Park personnel profile

Park personnel play a crucial role in interacting with tourists and developing rules and regulations that have to be adhered to by tourists (Desai, 2005, Okech, 2004). Guides are expected to act as role models for environmentally and culturally sensitive behaviour and they assist in natural resource management, providing education and interpretation as well as act as a cultural mediator between clients and the local community (Munoz, 1995). Pond (1993) recognises five distinct roles of the contemporary guide as a leader, educator, public relations representative, host and conduit. Similarly, Lindberg et al. (1998) stated that guides are the heart and soul of the ecotourism industry. This section of the study dealt with the different aspects relating to the Park personnel in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park.

Table 5.92 Respondent's employment position at the Park (in %)

Position	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Anti-poaching officer	-	10	5
Assistant in the kitchen	10	-	5
Barman/lodge supervisor	-	10	5
Cellar master	-	10	5
Cook	10	-	5
Game ranger	10	40	25
Gardener	20	-	10
Head game ranger	-	10	5
Head housekeeper	10	-	5
Housekeeper	10	-	5
Manager	10	10	10
Receptionist	10	10	10
Waitress	10	-	5

Respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park consisted of gardeners (20%), kitchen assistants (10%), cooks (10%), game rangers (10%), head housekeepers (10%), housekeepers (10%), managers (10%), receptionists (10%) and waitresses (10%) (Table 5.92). In Ezulwini Private Park the lower skilled respondents can be categorised as gardeners, kitchen assistants, cooks and housekeepers. The majority of the respondents at the Tala Private Park consisted of game rangers (40%), an anti-poaching officer (10%), a barman or lodge supervisor (10%), a cellar master (10%), a head game ranger (10%), a manager (10%) and a receptionist (10%). In Tala Private Park, the low income respondents consisted of receptionists and game rangers. The results indicate that more of the personnel interviewed in Tala Private Park were higher skilled as compared to Ezulwini Private Park. This may be attributed to Tala Private Park being a 5 star tourism site.

Table 5.93 Respondent's age and gender (in %)

Age	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
18-21	20	20	20
22-30	30	60	45
31-40	40	20	30
41-50	10	-	5
	x=30.5	x=26.6	x=28.5
Gender			
Male	30	70	50
Female	70	30	50

Seventy percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 80% of the respondents at Tala Private Park were between the ages of 22 to 40 years (Table 5.93). In Ezulwini Private Park 20% of the respondents was between the ages of 18 to 21 years and one respondent was between the ages of 41 to 50 years. In Tala Private Park 20% of the respondents was between the ages of 18 to 21 years. The average age of the respondent employed at Ezulwini Private Park was 30.5 years (ranging from 18 to 50 years) whereas the average age of the respondent employed at Tala Private Park was 26.6 years (ranging from 18 to 40 years). The majority of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park (70%) were female and the majority of the respondents at Tala Private Park (70%) were male.

Table 5.94 Respondent's marital status and education (in %)

Marital	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Single	90	90	90
Married	-	10	5
Divorced	10	-	5
Education			
None	10	-	5
Level 2 (std 6)	20	-	10
Level 3 (std 8)	30	-	15
Level 4 (std 10)	40	30	35
Level 5 (diploma or degree)	-	70	35

Ninety percent of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park were single. Forty percent of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park have a level 4 education implying that they have completed their schooling. In contrast, the majority of the respondents (70%)

from Tala Private Park have a level 5 education which consists of either a diploma or degree. As a result, Table 5.94 shows that 60% of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park have low skill levels whereas, the majority of the respondents (70%) from Tala Private Park have tertiary qualifications, that is, they were highly skilled.

Table 5.95 Respondent’s historical racial category and home language (in %)

Race	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
African	80	50	65
White	20	50	35
Home language			
English	-	70	35
Zulu	80	30	55
Afrikaans	20	-	10

Table 5.95 shows that at Ezulwini Private Park, the majority of the respondents (80%) were African and the dominant home language was Zulu. In Tala Private Park there is an equal balance of respondents in terms of racial composition. Half of the respondents were African and the balance of the respondents was White. With respect to the respondents home language, in Tala Private Park 70% spoke English fluently and another 30% spoke Zulu fluently. The majority of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park (80%) spoke Zulu fluently and the balance of the respondents (20%) spoke Afrikaans. According to CENSUS (2001), the majority of the people of KwaZulu-Natal are proficient isiZulu. Thereafter English is the most widely spoken language.

Table 5.96 Respondent's race and position (in %)

Park	Position	African (n=10)	White (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Ezulwini	Assistant in the kitchen	10	0	10
	Cook	10	0	10
	Game ranger	0	10	10
	Gardener	20	0	20
	Head housekeeper	10	0	10
	Housekeeper	10	0	10
	Manager	0	10	10
	Receptionist	10	0	10
	Waitress	10	0	10
Ezulwini Total		80	20	100
Tala	Anti-poaching officer	10	0	10
	Barmen/lodge supervisor	0	10	10
	Cellar master	10	0	10
	Game ranger	20	20	40
	Head game ranger	0	10	10
	Manager	10	0	10
	Receptionist	0	10	10
Tala Total		50	50	100

From Table 5.96 it is evident that from Ezulwini Private Park, the majority of the respondents (80%) were African and 20% of the respondents were White. In Ezulwini Private Park the African respondent's job description comprised of low skill levels such as assistant in the kitchen (10%), cook (10%), gardener (20%), head housekeeper (10%), housekeeper (10%), receptionist (10%) and waitress (10%). Furthermore, in Ezulwini Private Park the White respondents' job descriptions comprised of skilled levels of employment such as game ranger (10%) and manager (10%). In Tala Private Park, half of the respondents were African and the other half of the respondents were White. The African respondents can be further categorised into game ranger (20%), anti-poaching officer (10%), cellar master (10%) and manager (10%). The White respondents can be further categorised into game ranger (20%), barmen/lodge supervisor (10%), head game ranger (10%) and receptionist (10%).

Table 5.97 Place of residence of respondents (in %)

Name of area	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Ezulwini (20 km)	20	-	10
Hammarsdale (10 km)	-	20	10
Camperdown (10 km)	-	20	10
Bayala (25 km)	10	-	5
Matubatuba (50 km)	30	-	15
Hlabisa (50 km)	10	-	5
Mkuze (50 km)	10	-	5
Nongoma (75 km)	10	-	5
Jozini (75 km)	10	-	5
Pietermaritzburg (30 km)	-	10	5
Tala	-	50	25

Thirty percent of the respondents reside in Matubatuba which is 50 km away from Ezulwini Private Park, 20% of the respondents reside in Ezulwini Private Park (employees' accommodation), 10% of the respondents reside in Bayala which is 25 km away from Ezulwini Private Park, 10% of the respondents reside in Hlabisa which is 50 km away from Ezulwini Private Park, 10% of the respondents reside in Mkuze which is 50 km away from Ezulwini Private Park, 10% of the respondents reside in Nongoma which is 75 km away from Ezulwini Private Park and 10% of the respondents reside in Jozini which is 75 km away from Ezulwini Private Park (Figure 5.11). Those respondents that live within Ezulwini Private Park have to share communal toilets and showering facilities, however, respondents indicated that they save on transport fees compared to the majority of the respondents who reside in Matubatuba which is 30 km away.

The majority of the respondents (50%) reside in Tala Private Park, 20% of the respondents reside in Hammarsdale which is 10 km away from Tala Private Park, 20% of the respondents reside in Camperdown which is 10 km away from Tala Private Park and 10% of the respondents reside in Pietermaritzburg which is 30 km away from Tala Private Park (Figure 5.12). Similarly, the respondents who reside in Tala Private Park also save a considerable amount of their salary whilst living within the private Park.

Figure 5.11 Proximity of the respondent's place of residence to Ezulwini Private Park

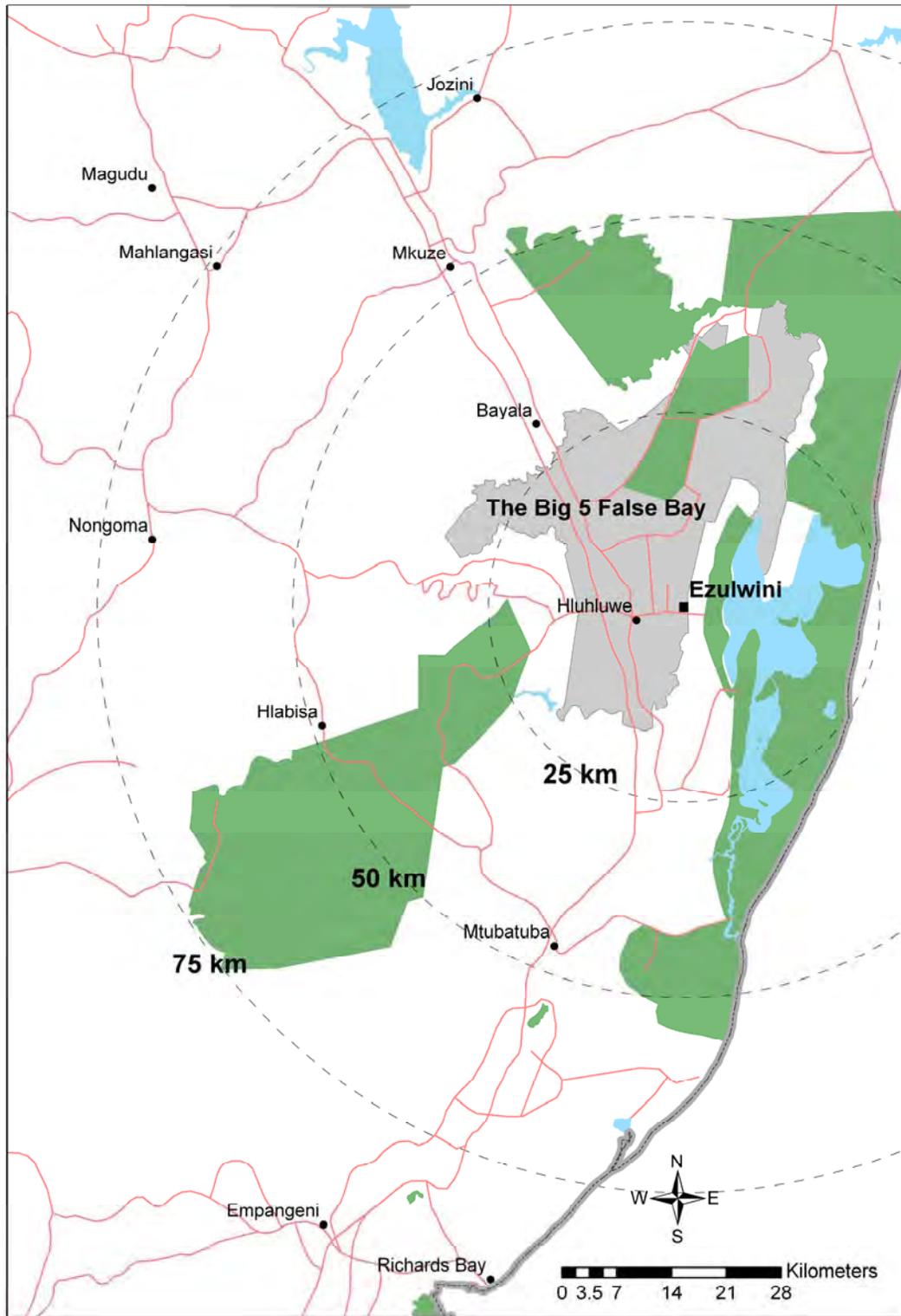


Figure 5.12 Proximity of the respondent's place of residence to Tala Private Park

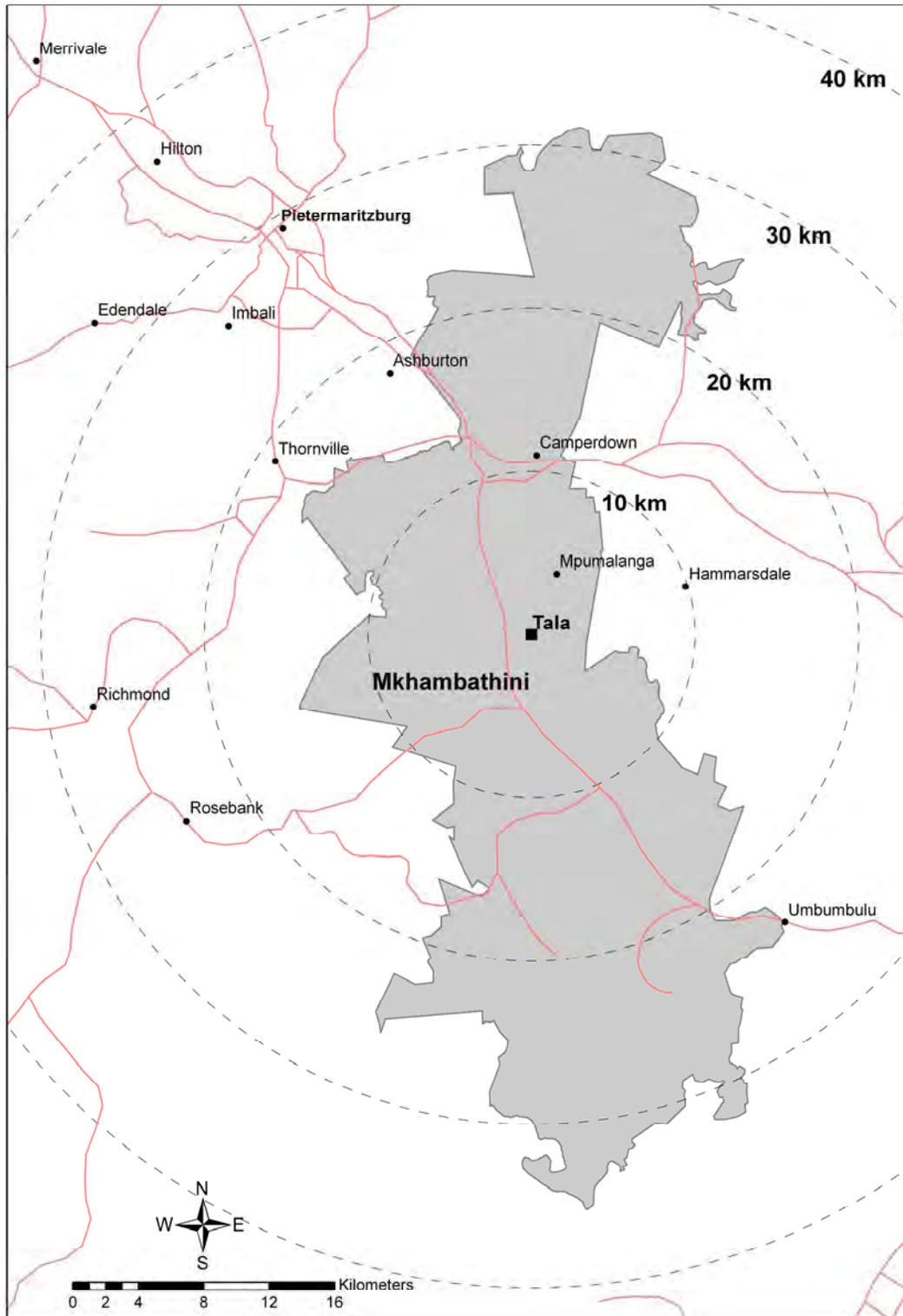


Table 5.98 Duration of employment and monthly income of respondents (in %)

Worked	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
1-5 years	70	80	75
6-10 years	30	20	25
	x=4.5	x=4	x=4.3
Income			
R1,000-R3,000	80	50	65
R3,000-R5,000	20	40	30
R7,000-R9,000	-	10	5
	x=R2,400	x=R3,400	x=R2,900

The majority of the respondents (70% and 80%, respectively) worked for less than five years at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. Eighty percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and half of the respondents at Tala Private Park earned an income of between R1,000 to R3,000 per month. The salary may not be that high compared to the turnover received by the private Parks. Thus, respondents indicated that they would obtain experience at these private Parks and seek more lucrative employment that may provide more benefits and an increase in salary. The average number of years respondents were employed at Ezulwini Private Park was 4.5 years (ranging from 1 to 10 years) whereas the average number of years the respondents were employed at Tala Private Park was 4 years (ranging from 1 to 10 years). The average income of the respondent employed at Ezulwini Private Park was R2,400 (ranging from R1,000 to R5,000) whereas the average income of the respondent employed at Tala Private Park was R3,400 (ranging from R1,000 to R9,000).

Table 5.99 Understanding of key environmental concepts (in %)

Concepts	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Biodiversity			
None	20	-	10
Vague	-	20	10
General	20	30	25
Good	10	10	10
Detailed	50	40	45
Protected areas			
None	10	-	5
Vague	-	10	5
General	20	20	20
Good	20	30	25
Detailed	50	40	45
World heritage principles			
None	10	-	5
Vague	10	30	25
General	20	50	30
Good	10	10	10
Detailed	50	10	30
Ecotourism			
None	-	10	5
Vague	10	10	10
General	20	10	15
Good	20	40	30
Detailed	50	30	40
Conservation			
Vague	10	10	10
General	10	10	10
Good	20	20	20
Detailed	60	60	60
Sustainable development			
Vague	10	10	10
General	30	50	40
Good	10	30	20
Detailed	50	10	30

Sixty percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and half of the respondents at Tala Private Park had a good or detailed understanding of the concept of biodiversity. Seventy percent of the respondents both at Ezulwini Private Park and at Tala Private Park had a good or detailed understanding of the concept of protected areas. Sixty percent of the respondents at Ezulwini

Private Park had a good or detailed knowledge on world heritage principles and 80% of the respondents at Tala Private Park had a vague or general knowledge on world heritage principles. Seventy percent of the respondents (both at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park) had a good or detailed understanding of ecotourism. Eighty percent of the respondents both at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park had a good or detailed understanding of conservation. Sixty percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 80% of the respondents at Tala Private Park had a general or good understanding on the concept of sustainable development. Strasdas et al. (2007) discuss issues such as the lack of conservation and ecotourism-related knowledge and skills which are deficient in tourism professionals and the private sector. This statement can be applicable to Tala Private Park were respondents should try to develop a more detailed understanding on the concepts of world heritage principles and sustainable development. Nianyong and Zhuge (2001: 239) state: “there is currently a severe lack of personnel with appropriate qualifications for managing and developing ecotourism presently in the nature reserves. Skills training are very significant and needs attention. Training is urgently required to provide reserve staff with courses related to biodiversity management, environmental protection, ecotourism planning, interpretation designing, community participation and development”. The aspects identified are relevant to the training of Park personnel in terms of translating and understanding of key concepts into practice.

Table 5.100 Statements that the respondents most associate ecotourism with (in %)

Ecotourism perceptions	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
It entails a type of use that minimises negative impacts to the environment and to the local people			
Strongly agree	50	20	35
Agree	30	80	55
Disagree	20	-	10
It increases the awareness and understanding of an area's natural and cultural systems and the subsequent involvement of visitors in issues affecting those systems			
Strongly agree	60	70	65
Agree	30	30	30
Disagree	10	-	5
It contributes to the conservation and management of legally protected and other natural areas			
Strongly agree	70	80	75
Agree	20	20	20
Strongly disagree	10	-	5
It maximises the early and long-term participation of local people in the decision-making process that determines the kind and amount of tourism that should occur			
Strongly agree	20	30	25
Agree	40	60	50
Strongly disagree	10	-	5
Disagree	20	10	15
Don't know	10	-	5
It directs economic and other benefits to local people that complement rather than overwhelm or replace traditional practices (farming, fishing, social systems, etc)			
Strongly agree	30	60	45
Agree	20	40	30
Strongly disagree	20	-	10
Disagree	20	-	10
Don't know	10	-	5
It provides special opportunities for local people and natural tourism employees to utilise, visit natural areas and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see			

Strongly agree	20	40	30
Agree	50	60	55
Strongly disagree	30	-	15

From Table 5.100 it is evident that 80% of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and all the respondents at Tala Private Park strongly agreed or agreed that ecotourism entails a type of use that minimises negative impacts to the environment and to the local people. Ninety percent of the respondents at both Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park strongly agreed or agreed that ecotourism entails the awareness and understanding of an area's natural and cultural systems and the subsequent involvement of visitors in issues affecting those systems. Ninety percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and all the respondents at Tala Private Park strongly agreed or agreed that ecotourism contributes to the conservation and management of legally protected and other natural areas.

Sixty percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and 90% of the respondents at Tala Private Park strongly agree or agree that ecotourism maximises the early and long-term participation of local people in the decision-making process that determines the kind and amount of tourism that should occur. Half of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and all the respondents at Tala Private Park strongly agree or agree that ecotourism directs economic and other benefits to local people that complement rather than overwhelm or replace traditional practices such as farming, fishing and social systems. Seventy percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and all the respondents at Tala Private Park strongly agree or agree that ecotourism provides special opportunities for local people and natural tourism employees to utilise, visit natural areas and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see.

The findings show that the Park personnel respondents generally believed that ecotourism minimises negative social and environmental impacts, promotes environmental education and understanding of biodiversity (for visitors and local communities), contributes to the conservation of biodiversity, and develops economic benefits for local communities that complement traditional practices. The positions articulated by the Park personnel respondents are interesting given that community respondents stated that key problems were job creation and access to Park resources. This implies that while the broad objectives of ecotourism are supported theoretically by the Park personnel respondents there is very little evidence that

community benefits are being realised. When community benefits are accrued, they are not widespread but restricted to a few beneficiaries.

5.5.2 Relationship with local communities

This sub-section examines Park personnel perceptions of the relationships with local communities in relation visitor interactions, types of relationships between Parks and local communities, local community involvement in Park activities and decision-making structures, community projects supported by the Parks, and positive and negative impacts of tourism.

Table 5.101 Description of the relationship between the community and management or staff of the Private Parks (in %)

Describe relationship	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Excellent	40	10	25
Very good	-	10	5
Good	30	50	40
Average	-	20	10
Not applicable	30	10	20

Seventy percent of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and 90% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park stated that a relationship exists between the community and management or staff. This relationship ranges from excellent, very good, good and average. In Ezulwini Private Park, 40% and 30% of the respondents describe the relationship between the community and management or staff as excellent and very good, respectively. In Tala Private Park, half of the respondents indicated that the relationship between the community and management or staff as good, 20% of the respondents indicated that the relationship between the community and management or staff as average and each of the other respondents (10%) indicated that the relationship between the community and management or staff as being excellent and very good.

Table 5.102 List of reasons rating the relationship between community and management or staff of the Private Parks (in %): Multiple Responses

Reasons	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Aware of each other but do not have much of a relationship	-	20	10
Poaching	-	10	5
Conflict resolution	40	10	25
Employment	-	30	15
Lilly of the Valley	-	10	5
Zulu dancers	-	10	5
Grazing of goats on Tala's land	-	10	5
Upliftment of quality of life	-	10	5
Respect culture	30	-	15
Interaction between staff and community	30	-	15
Not applicable	30	10	20

Table 5.102 lists the respondent's reasons for rating the relationship between community and management or staff in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. The reasons for their rating regarding the relationship between the community and management or staff at the Ezulwini Private Park were conflict resolution (40%), respecting culture (30%) and interaction between staff and community (30%). The reasons for their rating regarding the relationship between the community and management or staff at the Tala Private Park were employment (30%), aware of each other but do not have much of a relationship (20%) and one respondent each indicated increase in poaching, conflict resolution skills, Lilly of the Valley choir group was used for weddings, Zulu dancers from the local community entertain visitors, goats belonging to the local community were allowed to graze on Tala's land and the upliftment of the quality of life. From the findings above it has become evident that there were more positive reasons listed by the respondents than negative reasons. Furthermore, this could be attributed to the respondents being content with their work environment in the respective private Parks. As will be elaborated on later, these findings are interesting given that Park personnel and community respondents generally agree that interaction between the community and Park management is limited and in some cases non-existent. The positive ratings may be more reflective of there not being incidences of outright conflict between the Parks and the local communities.

Table 5.103 Rating of relationship between visitors and local communities (in %)

Rating of relationship	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Excellent	30	-	15
Very good	10	20	15
Good	20	50	35
Satisfactory	10	-	5
Not applicable	30	30	30

Strasdas et al. (2007) state that conservation used to be synonymous with building a fence, virtual or real around a protected area whereby scientific research and species management was carried out. However, little attention was focused on the communities outside Park boundaries (Strasdas et al., 2007). Ecotourism is therefore increasingly focused on community interaction with conservation areas and benefits that local areas can accrue. From Table 5.103 it is evident that 60% of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park indicated that they perceived the relationship between the visitors and the local communities to be excellent, very good or good. Seventy percent of the respondents of Tala Private Park indicated that they perceived the relationship between the visitors and the local communities to be very good or good. It is imperative that the communities near to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park develop an excellent relationship with visitors as this would encourage visitors to return to the private Parks and markets these destinations via the word of mouth approach. It is interesting to note that 30% of the respondents at both Parks did not feel that the local community interacts with visitors. This is similar to the visitor and community responses which highlighted that although they is a desire for the various stakeholders to interact, currently very little interaction actually takes place.

Table 5.104 Perceptions of the various relationships between Parks and locals (in %)

Relationship	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Community church choir	-	10	5
Employment of locals	30	30	30
Local employed in vegetable garden	-	10	5
Introducing rehabilitation centre local communities will look after them	10	-	5
Involvement limited	-	10	5
Tala Private Park could do more	-	10	5
Visitors visit local communities to learn and understand about their cultures	20	-	10
Zulu dancers perform in the private Park	10	-	5
Not applicable	30	30	30

It is important not only to examine if a relationship exists between communities and Parks, but also to look at the type/s of relationships which is a better indicator of whether specific interactions and projects exist. From Table 5.104 it is apparent that 30% of the respondents in both Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park state that first preference in terms of employment opportunities is given to locals from the nearby community thus, contributing to a favourable relationship between the private Park and the local communities. Twenty percent of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park perceive that visitors can visit local communities to learn and understand about their cultures. One of the respondents from Ezulwini Private Park stated that a rehabilitation centre is in place where local communities adjacent to the private Park can provide assistance to care for the animals that have been hurt and distressed. One of the respondents stated that Zulu dances could entertain visitors.

In Tala Private Park, one of the respondents stated that the church choir from Eston entertain visitors which create employment. In Tala Private Park, one of the respondents stated that locals were employed in the vegetable garden. These vegetables were used in the restaurant La Tala. One of the respondents stated that the relationship between the local community and visitors were limited due to Park personnel being busy with taking care of the visitors and not having sufficient time to interact with community members. One of the respondents stated that Tala Private Park could do more in terms of interaction between visitors and the local communities.

The results reinforce the community respondents' position that interaction focuses on employment creation, visitor visits and supporting specific projects such as community gardens. These interactions are generally *ad hoc* and more needs to be done to strengthen the relationships between the Parks and the local communities.

Table 5.105 Rating local communities' involvement in private Parks activities and decision-making (in %)

Activities and decision-making	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Not involved	30	30	30
Somewhat involved	50	70	60
Highly involved	20	-	10

Host communities can create barriers to the ecotourism sector if they are not consulted and included into the decision-making process (Silva and McDill, 2004). In this instance, half of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and 70% of the respondents in Tala Private Park indicated that the local communities were somewhat involved in the activities and decision-making of the private Parks (Table 5.105). In Ezulwini Private Park, 30% of the respondents stated that the local communities were not involved and 20% of the respondents felt that local communities were highly involved in the activities and decision-making of the private Park. In Tala Private Park, 30% of the respondents were not involved in the activities and decision-making of the private Park. Strasdas et al. (2007: 154) argue:

Involving local people in protected area-based tourism, either as employees, as providers of goods and services, or as independent tourism entrepreneurs, is a key element of the ecotourism concept. This is vital to protected areas in order to create local support for conservation, for protected areas to deliver regional economic benefits, and to tackle poverty alleviation. Protected area agencies should assume an active role in order to ensure that local benefits are indeed being generated, either by employing or promoting local people, for example, as tourist guides/drivers, handicraft manufacturers, managers and service personnel. Alternatively, Park management may act as a mediator between local people and external investors wishing to establish tourism enterprises in the park or its vicinity.

The findings are interesting in that while some Park personnel are aware of community involvement in Park activities and decision-making structures, others are not. This leads to the questioning of the nature and extent of the interaction if not all personnel are aware of

community involvement. Also, it is possible that involvement is on an *ad hoc* basis and therefore only personnel who are aware of these projects know of community interaction. Given this situation and the importance of the role played by Park Personnel (as highlighted by Strasdas et al. in the above quote) in involving local people, it is imperative that a more planned approach to engaging with local communities be adopted.

Table 5.106 List of reasons demonstrating local communities’ involvement in the Parks (in %)

Community involvement	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Decisions are primarily made by the management	60	-	30
Employment		50	20
Privately owned therefore all decisions were at owner and management level	20	20	10
Lilly of the Valley project	-	20	10
Limited knowledge about animals	-	10	5
Local communities were being informed about private Park changes	20	-	10

Table 5.106 provides reasons as to why the respondents perceived the level of involvement of local communities as they do. In Ezulwini Private Park, 60% of the respondents stated that the decisions were primarily made by the management and 20% of the respondents either mentioned that the local communities were being informed about private Park changes or that the private Park is privately owned therefore all decisions were at owner and management level. Half of the respondents in Tala Private Park stated that the local community were employed at the private Park in housekeeping and entertainment. Twenty percent each of the respondents at Tala Private Park mentioned that all decisions were at owner and management level or that Tala Private Park is involved in a project called Lilly of the Valley where they supply foodstuff to the local community. One of the respondents indicated that the local community has limited knowledge about animals. The responses reaffirm the dominance of Park management in making decisions and that interaction is confined to specific projects and/ or issues rather than viewed as a right that local communities should have since the existence of Parks directly impact on their lives as highlighted in the literature reviewed. The fact that the Parks are “owned” emerges as a strong sentiment for validating or explaining limited community participation in Park activities and decision-making processes.

Table 5.107 Rating local communities attitudes towards the private Parks' management and staff (in %)

Attitudes	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Excellent	40	10	25
Very good	-	10	5
Good	30	50	40
Satisfactory	30	20	25
Poor	-	10	5

Seventy percent of the respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park feel that there is an excellent or good relationship with regard to the attitudes of the local communities towards the private Park's management and staff and 70% of the respondents at the Tala Private Park feel that there is an excellent, very good or good relationship with regard to the attitudes of the local communities towards the private Park's management and staff (Table 5.107). Thirty percent of the respondents feel that there is a satisfactory relationship in respect to the attitudes of the local communities towards the private Park's management and staff. The results are surprising given that some of the respondents (30%) are not aware of community interactions with the respective Parks.

Table 5.108 List of reasons depicting local communities' attitudes towards the private Parks' owners, management and staff (in %)

Perceptions	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Employment	20	-	10
Limited access to the area	20	-	10
Distant relationship with the local community	30	-	15
Selling of art work	30	-	15
Private Parks owner makes money available for funeral cover	-	10	5
Owner employs locals at the farm called Vitahfresh	-	20	10
Assistance to transport furniture		10	5
Tala Private Park does not provide assistance to the community	-	30	15
Try to keep good relationship locals will then protect animals	-	30	10

Respondents from Ezulwini Private Park provided reasons for their perceptions of local communities' attitudes towards the private Parks' owner, management and staff. Thirty percent of the respondents indicated that the local community were distant to the private Parks owner, management and staff and a further 30% of the respondents indicated that the local community can sell their art work within the private Park. Twenty percent of the respondents indicated that there was limited access to the area and employment opportunities. Respondents from Tala Private Park provided reasons for their perceptions of local communities' attitudes towards the private Parks' owner, management and staff. Thirty percent of the respondents indicated that the private Park does not provide assistance to the community and 30% of the respondents stated that the Park tried to maintain a good relationship as this would motivate the local community to protect animals. Twenty percent of the respondents stated that local community members were employed at the farm called Vitahfresh and one respondent each indicated that the Park owner makes money available for funeral cover and provides assistance when transporting furniture. The results again show that economic opportunities for locals as well as supporting them when possible were deemed to be key to having a positive relationship with neighbouring communities. However, some respondents indicated that there was no relationship and others in Ezulwini Private Park felt that communities were located too far away from the Park. It is important to note that when Parks rely on job creation of *ad hoc* projects as a basis for promoting better relationships with local communities, these are often inadequate in that only a few members of the community are directly impacted. In fact, if not managed properly this can create conflicts in the community who see some members benefiting while they do not.

Table 5.109 Rating of attitudes of the local communities towards the visitors visiting the Private Parks (in %)

Attitudes of local communities	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Euphoria (excitement)	90	20	55
Apathy (visitors are taken for granted)	10	70	40
Annoyance (misgivings about tourism)	-	10	5

Table 5.109 shows that 90% of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and 20% in Tala Private Park indicated that the attitude of the local community towards the visitors were one of euphoria. Seventy percent of the respondents in Tala Private Park and 10% in Ezulwini Private Park indicated that the attitude of the local community towards the visitors were one of apathy.

Furthermore, one respondent in Tala Private Park described the attitude of the local community towards visitors as annoyance while none described it as antagonism (openly displayed irritations). Strasdas et al. (2007) stated that being a visitor is a phenomenon which is well known to the affluent contemporary societies. In a developing country, the rural people find it extremely difficult to understand the concept of being a visitor (Strasdas et al., 2007) and their attitudes go through four main stages (used in the questionnaire) described by Doxey (1975: 61). Many protected areas carry a historic elitist tag, the apartheid-era baggage as well as indoctrination which will be very difficult to remove unless local communities receive substantial economic benefits (De Villiers, 2008). It is interesting to note that while the benefits from the private Parks to the local communities are currently limited (as per community and Park personnel responses), the results in Table 5.109 indicate that most of the personnel in Ezulwini Private Park perceive local communities to have a positive attitude towards visitors while most of the personnel interviewed in Tala Private Park felt that local communities were apathetic, perhaps because they do not see the benefits or do not have opportunities to interact with visitors. They certainly are not hostile towards the visitors. The results are similar to the sentiments expressed by most of the community respondents in that they are willing to interact with the visitors.

Table 5.110 Negative types of community behaviour that affects the Park (in %)

Negative types of behaviour	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Crime			
Yes	30	80	55
No	70	20	45
Their presence in the area			
Yes	-	20	10
No	100	80	90
Their hunting of wildlife			
Yes	100	60	80
No	-	40	20
Their over-reliance on natural resources			
Yes	10	30	20
No	90	70	80

Seventy percent of the respondents of the Ezulwini Private Park indicated that crime does not affect the private Park and 80% of the respondents of the Tala Private Park indicated that crime does affect the private Park (Table 5.110). All the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and 80% of the respondents in Tala Private Park indicated that the presence of the local community does not deter tourism to their respective private Parks. All the respondents of Ezulwini Private Park and 60% of the respondents of Tala Private Park indicated that the hunting of wildlife by the local community does hamper tourism to their respective private Parks. Ninety percent of the respondents of Ezulwini Private Park and 70% of the respondents of Tala Private Park indicated that the local community's over-reliance on natural resources does not deter tourists to the respective private Parks. The results show that aspects such as crime (especially in Tala Private Park, perhaps because of its close location with urban centres which are known to have higher levels of criminal activities than rural communities) and hunting of wildlife which obviously affects the marketability of the ecotourism sites are negative community behaviours that affect the Parks. On the other hand, most respondents did not feel that the local communities' presence in the area and their reliance in natural resources affect the Parks. In terms of the latter, this is probably due to access to natural resources within the Parks being restricted (thus households source the natural resources they use from other localities) or its use being properly managed and monitored.

Table 5.111 Does certain characteristics of community members promote tourism to the private Parks (in %)

Promotion of tourism	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Their presence in the area			
Yes	40	50	45
No	60	50	55
Their unique culture			
Yes	100	100	100
No	-	-	-
Their sustainable use of natural resources			
Yes	60	70	65
No	40	30	35
Their willingness to assist tourism development			
Yes	40	40	40
No	60	60	60

Table 5.111 shows that 60% of the respondents of Ezulwini Private Park and half of the respondents of Tala Private Park indicated that the presence of the local community promotes tourism to their respective private Parks. All the respondents of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park stated that the local communities' unique cultures promote tourism to the respective private Parks. Sixty percent of the respondents of Ezulwini Private Park and 70% of the respondents of Tala Private Park indicated that the local communities' sustainable use of natural resources promotes tourism to the respective private Parks. These results show that most of the Park personnel respondents felt that local communities can strengthen tourism in the area and Park visitation more specifically. Thus, they see a complementary tourism product base: the private Park and the uniqueness of local cultures which contribute to a better African experience (that is, the combination of people and nature which is advocated by many proponents of pro-poor or responsible tourism). However, the challenge is to develop partnerships and opportunities to create more CBT products that interface with the Park tourism marketing strategies and efforts.

Table 5.111 also shows that 60% of the respondents from both the private Parks indicated that the local communities were not willing to assist in tourism development in the respective private Parks. By the community not assisting in tourism development the multiplier effect is lost.

According to Strasdas et al. (2007), the lack of the local community's assistance in tourism-related skills has led to outside investors bypassing local communities, importing goods and using personnel from urban centres. This is certainly important in terms of leveraging and creating community benefits and tourism-related opportunities. Of concern, however, is that the community respondents in this study feel that opportunities were limited. Sixty percent of the Park personnel feel that the community should take the lead but this is not always possible given that most community members are not familiar with the tourism industry and often lack the resources to assist in tourism development. It is therefore essential that partnerships are developed and community capacity in relation to tourism be enhanced.

Table 5.112 Respondents identified a list of community projects that private Parks have invested (in %)

Projects	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Clinics			
Yes	-	10	5
No	100	90	95
Schools			
Yes	20	-	10
No	80	100	90
Educational trusts			
Yes	10	-	5
No	90	100	95
Housing			
Yes	10	50	30
No	90	50	70
Small business ventures			
Yes	10	-	5
No	90	100	95
Sports facilities			
Yes	20	10	15
No	80	90	85
Events			
Yes	20	50	35
No	80	50	65

From Table 5.112 it is evident that all the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and 90% of the respondents in Tala Private Park stated that there were no clinics provided by the respective private Parks. In terms of schools being provided by Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park, 80% of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and all the respondents in Tala Private Park stated that no schools were provided by the private Parks. Ninety percent of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and all the respondents in Tala Private Park indicated that no educational trusts were set up by the respective private Parks. Ninety percent of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and half of the respondents in Tala Private Park indicated that no housing was provided by the private Parks. Ninety percent of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and all the respondents in Tala Private Park indicated that small business ventures were not supported by the private Parks. Eighty percent of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and

90% percent of the respondents in Tala Private Park perceive that the private Parks have not contributed to sport facilities in the local community. Eighty percent of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and half of the respondents in Tala Private Park indicated that the private Parks have not contributed to events undertaken by the local community. None of the respondents in both the Private Parks identified community garden projects. The results which are similar to the community respondents' responses reveal that very few community projects are initiated by the private Parks. Additionally, more Park personnel are aware of projects in Tala Private Park than in Ezulwini Private Park. Community projects are important ways of interacting positively with local communities and ensuring that they derive benefits from conservation efforts (including the creation of private Parks) in their area. This is certainly an area that needs to be addressed.

Table 5.113 Potential negative social impacts of tourism in the area (in %)

Negative social impacts	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
More sex workers in the area			
Yes	-	10	5
No	100	90	95
Lowering of traditional values			
Yes	-	40	20
No	100	60	80
Feeling negative about your culture			
Yes	-	20	10
No	100	80	90

Table 5.113 shows that the respondents of Ezulwini Private Park do not mention any negative social impacts due to tourism such as an increase in sex workers in the surrounding area, more casinos in the surrounding area, lowering of traditional values among local communities and the local communities feeling negative about their culture. In Tala Private Park, 90% of the respondents stated that tourism does not lead to an increase in sex workers to the area, all of the respondents stated that tourism to the area does not lead to an increase in casinos in the area, 60% of the respondents stated that tourism does not lower traditional values among local communities and 80% of the respondents stated that the local community were not embarrassed about their culture as a result of tourism. Sex tourism was not identified by the Park personnel of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park as a major problem. This is different from other

parts of the world. For example, However, Scheyvens (2002) found that female visitors are reluctant to travel to Thailand due to sex tourism and this has forced the Thai government to look for ways to clean up its tourism industry. It is interesting to note that while the Park personnel generally did not perceive the aspects outlined in Table 5.113 as having negative social impacts in the area, this differed from some of the community responses. This is possible because these types of social problems are experienced in the neighbouring communities rather than within the Parks.

5.5.3 Conservation issues

A self-rating scale in relation to seven broad environmental concepts listed in Table 5.114 was used to determine immediate concerns affecting Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park.

Table 5.114 Ranking environmental impacts at private Parks (in %)

Immediate concerns	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Depleting wildlife			
High	20	-	10
Moderate	70	-	35
Low	10	60	35
No concern	-	40	20
Diminishing plant and tree life			
High	10	20	15
Moderate	50	10	20
Low	10	50	30
No concern	30	20	30
Soil erosion			
High	10	50	30
Moderate	10	10	10
Low	50	20	35
No concern	30	20	25
Litter			
High	-	10	5
Moderate	20	40	30
Low	50	20	35
No concern	30	30	30
Polluted water spots			
High	-	20	10
Moderate	20	20	20
Low	50	20	35
No concern	30	40	35
Infrastructure development			
High	-	10	5
Moderate	20	30	25
Low	50	40	45
No concern	30	20	25
Too many visitors			
High	-	10	5
No concern	100	90	95

Seventy percent and half of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park indicated that depleting wildlife and diminishing plant and tree life, respectively, were of moderate concern. Half of the

respondents at Ezulwini Private Park indicated that soil erosion, litter, polluted water spots and infrastructure development were of low concern. All of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park indicated that an increase in visitors was of no concern. At Tala Private Park 60% of the respondents stated that depleting wildlife was of low concern, half of the respondents stated that diminishing plant and tree life were of low concern and 40% of the respondents stated that infrastructure development was of low concern. Half of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park stated that soil erosion was of high concern. Forty percent of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park stated that litter was of moderate concern. Forty and 90% of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park stated that polluted water spots and too many visitors, respectively, were of no concern.

The results show that concern (from high to low) was raised in relation to all the environmental impacts examined with the exception of too many visitors. More concern was raised in relation to depleting wildlife, and diminishing plant and tree life by the Ezulwini Private Park respondents as compared to the Tala Private Park respondents. On the other hand, more concern was raised in relation to soil erosion, litter, polluted water spots and infrastructural development by the Tala Private Park respondents as compared to the Ezulwini Private Park respondents. The differences illustrate that there are context specific issues in the types of environmental pressures Park face. For example, the problems in Tala Private Park may be reflective of the higher number of visitors as a result of its close proximity to Durban and Pietermaritzburg as compared to Ezulwini Private Park. As stated earlier, in the context of carrying capacity it is essential for Park personnel, especially guides, to be informed about environmental issues. They must be able to interpret and educate tourists about minimal impact practices (Weiler et al., 1991; Weiler and Ham, 2001).

Nianyong and Zhuge (2001: 239) state:

It is reasonable to establish international cooperation in the training programme. Environmental education and the popularisation of scientific knowledge are important functions of nature reserves. They also form core components of ecotourism. Nature reserves should incorporate these in the management and operation of tourism to meet the demands of tourists for information about local natural phenomena and ecosystems. This would increase public awareness of nature conservation on one hand, and on the other hand, could obtain economic yields that would increase sources and channels of funding for protection. Environmental education and interpretation should be given in an enjoyable easily understood manner, and combined with local cultural folklore to illustrate relationships between humans and nature locally.

5.5.4 Suggestions

A range of suggestions were forwarded by the Park personnel on how the private Parks can contribute towards community economic development. The main aspects revolved around ways to create income generating opportunities, education and training (especially environmental education), provision of resources and services and improving access.

Table 5.115 List of reasons explaining the private Parks future positive contribution towards the economic development of the community (in %): Multiple Responses

	Ezulwini (n=10)	Tala (n=10)	Total (n=20)
Allow independent tour groups	-	10	5
Competition	-	10	5
Excursions	-	10	5
Education	10	30	20
Housekeeping training	-	20	10
Provide fertilizer for seedlings	-	20	10
Grow and sell indigenous plants	-	20	10
Improve housing	-	10	5
Increase in salaries	10	10	10
Allow locals to utilise vegetable garden	-	20	10
Increase in employment opportunities	30	-	15
Create an environmental awareness	10	-	5
Increase consultation process and encourage small businesses	20	-	10
Management should build a curio shop where community can house arts and crafts	10	-	5
Promote Zulu culture	10	-	5
Provide showers and toilets for the community	10	-	5

Table 5.115 provides a list of ways identified by the respondents on how Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park can contribute positively towards the economic development of the community. In Ezulwini Private Park the suggestions included increasing employment opportunities such as in the pineapple plantation as well as the lodge which will create more opportunities for locals (30%), increasing consultation process and encouraging small business (20%), increasing the salaries of the locals (10%), increasing education thus reducing illiteracy (10%), creating environmental awareness which encourages locals to appreciate wildlife (10%), management should build a curio shop where locals can display their arts and crafts (10%), promoting Zulu culture (10%) and providing showers and toilets for the community (10%).

In Tala Private Park the suggestions included encouraging locals to educate themselves (30%), providing housekeeper training (20%), providing fertilizer for seedlings planted by the local community (20%), encouraging locals to grow and sell indigenous plants (20%), allowing locals access into the vegetable garden (20%), private Park owner should improve housing provided for

the local community within the private Park (10%), increasing the salaries of the staff (10%), allowing independent tour groups access into the private Park (10%), encouraging locals to participate in the fishing competition (10%) and encouraging tours to the local communities adjacent to the private Park (10%).

According to Hausler and Strasdas (2003), every project which has successfully integrated local people into the ecotourism enterprises or has created thriving local ecotourism ventures has had a strong capacity-building component. One such example is the Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife on the job training of local employees in the agency's tourism facilities. The private Parks should encourage the capacity-building of its local Park personnel while gainfully employed, especially in relation to interacting with local communities. Clearly, the results show that most Park personnel interviewed support community development and interaction which is a positive sign.

5.6 Park owner

According to Weaver et al. (1996), little attention has been given to individual, private sector site providers of ecotourism opportunities. However, evidence has confirmed the emerging importance of this sector (Weaver et al., 1996). Private protected areas have emerged as innovative and powerful engines for sustainable development (De Alessi, 2005; Krug, 2001, Langholz and Lassoie, 2001). Barany et al. (2001: 107) state that "the development of private reserve systems depends directly on public policy and partnerships. Governments that wish to adopt ecotourism as a development strategy, but lack resources to establish and manage protected area systems should act now to reduce barriers to private reserve establishment and create market incentives for investments in the national ecotourism industry". In addition, private game reserves have the potential to encourage visitors to stay longer in the province, therefore increasing their impact in the region (Langholz and Kerley, 2006) as well as promoting community development.

The following issues were discussed in this section:

- Park owners' profiles;
- Park owners' understanding of ecotourism;
- social impacts;
- economic impacts;

- environmental impacts; and
- suggestions.

5.6.1 Park owners' profiles

The owners of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park were South African, White males and fall within the age category of 41 to 50 years of age. This is reflective of the situation in South Africa where most private Parks are owned by Whites. In terms of educational qualifications both the owners have a diploma. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park was fluent in Afrikaans and the owner of Tala Private Park was fluent in English. Both the owners reside in the Park. Both the owners of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park indicated that their main means of marketing were word of mouth nationally. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park indicated that their main marketing means were the internet internationally. The owner of Tala Private Park indicated that their main marketing means were word of mouth internationally. The importance of word of mouth marketing was stressed by the other stakeholders as well. Similar to the owner survey of Tala Private Park, the visitor respondents that visit Tala Private Park particularly indicated that word of mouth was the most important source of information. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park describes their visitors as comprising mostly of foreigners whereas the owner of Tala Private Park describes their visitors as comprising of an even distribution of foreigners and locals. This was also reflected in the visitor surveys where more respondents from Ezulwini Private Park were foreigners as compared to Tala Private Park.

The owner of Ezulwini Private Park indicated that the visitors' racial composition comprised of mostly Whites. The owner at Tala Private Park indicated that the visitors' racial composition comprised of an even distribution of Black and White visitors. However, the researcher observed that during the questionnaire survey that there were more White visitors than Blacks. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park indicated that the visitors' comprised of an even distribution of males and females.

The owner of Ezulwini Private Park stated that the tour operators tour the Park for approximately 6 to 10 trips per month. The owner of Tala Private Park stated that the tour operators tour the Park for more than 15 trips per month. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park

stated that during peak season the carrying capacity and the average occupancy rate in terms of the number of beds was more than 40 beds. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park mentioned that during off peak season the average occupancy rate was 26-30 beds. The owner of Tala Private Park mentioned that during off peak season the average occupancy rate was 36-40 beds. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park indicated that the number of cars entering the premises per day were between 6 and 10 cars. The owner of Tala Private Park indicated that the number of cars entering their premises per day were between 21 and 25 cars. This is because Tala Private Park caters more for day-trippers than Ezulwini Private Park. The actual impacts in relation to carrying capacity were not established in this study. However, the importance of examining environmental impacts as advocated by Goodwin (1995) is supported. Goodwin (1995) discussed that tourists have been found to be bigger consumers of resources than local people at tourist destinations therefore careful environmental assessments of tourist developments are important in recording their use. EIAs must be used to identify impacts that are in their non-monetary form enabling developers to use resources efficiently in achieving a reasonably sustainable product over a long period. The owner of Tala Private Park must try to establish the impacts that cars have on their environment and try to reduce its impacts. The reason being many communities and environmentalists are concerned that profit will take precedence over protection (Eagles, 2001).

5.6.2 Park owners' understanding of ecotourism

A self-rating scale was used to gauge whether the specific concepts (biodiversity, protected areas, world heritage, ecotourism, conservation and sustainable development) were understood by the Park owner respondents. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park had a general understanding of the biodiversity, protected areas, world heritage principles, ecotourism and sustainable development concepts as well as a good understanding of the concept of conservation. The owner of Tala Private Park stated that the protected areas, world heritage principles, ecotourism, conservation and sustainable development concepts were generally understood. The owner of Tala Private Park had a good understanding of the concept of biodiversity. The results show that the Park owners are generally confident that they have a sufficient understanding of key environmental concepts which bodes well for the effective management of the natural resources in the respective Parks.

Both owners agreed that ecotourism entails a type of use that minimises negative impacts to the environment and to the local people. Thus, Park owners must establish good relations with local residents in order to ensure the acceptance of Parks and other areas in respect environmental protection and regulations (Brown and Harris, 2005). Furthermore, evidence has proven that privately owned conserved areas can protect biodiversity, thrive financially and contribute to social upliftment (Kramer et al., 2002).

The owner of Ezulwini Private Park agreed and the owner of Tala Private Park strongly agreed that ecotourism entails the awareness and understanding of an area's natural and cultural systems and the subsequent involvement of visitors in issues affecting those systems. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park agreed and the owner of Tala Private Park strongly agreed that ecotourism contributes to the conservation and management of legally protected and other natural areas. It is imperative to understand that conservation will only be readily supported by the locals if they benefit from the tourism (Scheyvens, 2002).

The owner of Ezulwini Private Park agreed and the owner of Tala Private Park strongly agreed that ecotourism maximises the early and long-term participation of local people in decision-making processes that determine the kind and amount of tourism that should occur. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park agreed and the owner of Tala Private Park strongly agreed that ecotourism directs economic and other benefits to local people that complement rather than overwhelm or replace traditional practices such as farming, fishing and social systems. However, local people have to be cautious. The reason being, the tourism industry is hardly ever identified as an appropriate agent for facilitating the development and empowerment of local communities, mainly due to its self-serving profit motive (Scheyvens, 2002).

The owner of Ezulwini Private Park agreed and the owner of Tala Private Park strongly agreed that ecotourism provides special opportunities for local people and natural tourism employees to utilise, visit natural areas and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see. However, in this study, as indicated by the other stakeholder responses, interaction with and leveraging opportunities by local communities are minimal and tend to be on an *ad hoc*, project by project basis. It is imperative that the Park owners and management place as much emphasis

on the local people as they do currently on the natural environment to ensure that both sides of the ecotourism coin are adequately addressed to ensure sustainable development.

5.6.3 Social impacts

Both owners stated that there is an interaction between visitors to the private Parks and the local communities. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park indicated that there was a good relationship between visitors to the private Park and the local communities. The visitors interacted with the employees who were representative of the local community. This is an insufficient understanding of local community participation and engagement. It does not assist in spreading benefits and assumes that when visitors interact with local community members who are employed in the Park they are *de facto* interacting with the community. As indicated earlier, the Parks employ only a few locals in the first instance. Additionally, the local community areas itself entail a spatial and cultural reality that can only be truly experienced by visiting the area. When visitors interact and visit the local communities near the private Parks they are more likely to benefit economically (from sale of items, cultural shows, etc.) and socially (by themselves interacting with the visitors).

The owner of Tala Private Park indicated that there was an excellent relationship between visitors to the private Park and the local communities. The reason being visitors create employment. Again, the importance of employment is emphasised. Both owners stated that the local communities were not involved in the activities and decision-making of the private Parks. The reason forwarded was that as a private Park decisions were made by the Park owner. Furthermore, when the local community near to the respective Parks were questioned, 72% of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and 73% of the respondents living near Tala Private Park indicated that no relationship exists between the community, management and staff of the respective private Parks. Park owners of both the private Parks need to involve the community since participation creates more responsible citizens and makes the decision-making process more credible (Brown and Harris, 2005). The results show that while private Park owners embrace the concept of ecotourism they do not fully grasp the integral role of the local communities and that ecotourism is intricately linked to the sustainable development and participation of local communities as well.

The owner of Ezulwini Private Park pointed out that the attitudes of the local communities toward the Park owner, management and employees were good. The owner of Tala Private Park pointed out that the attitudes of the local communities toward the Park owner, management and employees were excellent. The owners listed reasons regarding the good and excellent attitude of the local communities towards the Park owner, management and employees which were loyalty, respect and employment generation (that is to say that the increase in Game farms have led to an increase in visitors).

Both owners described the attitudes of the local communities towards the visitors as being one of euphoria (excitement). According to the owner of Ezulwini Private Park, there is a code of conduct developed for visitors concerning interaction with the local community. However, according to the owner of Tala Private Park, there is no code of conduct developed for visitors concerning interaction with the local community.

According to the owners of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park there were increasing negative types of behaviour affecting the community that could hinder tourism to the respective Parks such as crime, hunting of wildlife and the over-reliance on natural resources. However, both owners of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park stated that the presence of the local community does not hinder tourism to the Park. Again, the issue is effective management and engaging with local communities. This can only occur in a meaningful manner if opportunities are created for local communities to participate in Park activities and decision-making structures.

Expertise and resources are invested in the Parks and reserves contributing to economic development while those surrounding the Parks and reserves are faced with inadequate resources, impoverishment, few opportunities and social problems which make it extremely difficult to overcome their situation (Scheyvens, 2002). In this study the owner of Ezulwini Private Park identified community projects that the Park invested in such as educational trusts, housing and events. The owner of Tala Private Park identified the community projects that the Park invested in such as clinics and housing. However, from the responses obtained from the other stakeholders interviewed as well as focus group findings, these projects are inadequate and very few community members are aware of them and/ or derive benefits from their existence.

Both Park owners described their relationship between the community, management and employees as being good. According to the owner of Ezulwini Private Park, a good relationship can be attributed to loyalty and respect. In addition, the owner of Tala Private Park attributed a good relationship to community involvement in activities such as Zulu dancing and singing, as well as all charity organisations can enter without paying gate fees and the private Park rents a building from the neighbouring community called “Lilly of the Valley”. Many communities realise that implementing ecotourism as a development strategy is one way of avoiding other more destructive development (McLaren, 1998). In this study, most community respondents supported the existence of the Parks and clearly the Park personnel and owners feel that supporting community development is important. However, what is required is a more coherent approach that incorporates communities more meaningfully and integrally into Park activities and management as well as more widespread benefits.

5.6.4 Economic impacts

Both owners indicated that the Parks were privately owned for more than 15 years. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park stated that the monthly income generated by the private Park was approximately R50,000 to R100,000. The owner of Tala Private Park did not want to disclose the monthly income generated by the Park. However, private game reserves have the potential to create multiplier effects in the regional economy (Langholz and Kerley, 2006). This could be attributed to buying crafts, staying in hotels, renting cars, flying in planes, buying petrol, purchasing clothes, visiting other attractions and dining in restaurants (Geach, 2002). Therefore, visitors’ economic impact is much wider than what is spent at the private game reserves (Langholz and Kerley, 2006). This is also supported in this study, although the actual economic multiplier effect was not calculated.

Both owners indicated that they have not approached the Nkosi or Chief, selected members of the community, community-based organisations or the councillor to develop a partnership. In addition, both owners mentioned that none of the members of the community were on the management team. As stated earlier, this is an aspect that needs to be addressed since community participation is a critical component of ecotourism. The owners need to understand that including the communities in decision-making structures need not be threatening. In fact, it can assist in

the long term to create more tourism product synergies as well as minimise conflicts and tensions that may arise.

Both owners agreed that the local communities should benefit from tourism in respect of employment generation because South Africa is known by its indigenous people, animals and the variety of cultures. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park indicated that tourism levies were not charged. However, the owner of Tala Private Park indicated that tourism levies were charged and these levies were used for community development, the Park's operating costs and Park development.

5.6.5 Environmental impacts

Both Park owners indicated that there were codes of conduct for visitors and tour operators concerning environmental issues. The owners were asked to rank (high, moderate, low and no concern) if there were any environmental issues concerning the environment. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park indicated that depleted wildlife, diminishing plant and tree life, soil erosion, litter, polluted water spots, infrastructure development and too many visitors were of no concern to the environment within the private Park. The owner of Tala Private Park indicated that depleted wild-life, diminishing plant and tree life, polluted water spots, infrastructure development and too many visitors were to be of no concern to the environment whereas soil erosion and litter were ranked as not a major problem within the private Park. When ecotourism is carried out with genuine interest in conservation, resource degradation will not take place (Barany et al., 2001). Thus, this could be the case for the both the private Parks. All stakeholders agree that the Parks are generally well managed in relation to environmental considerations.

5.6.6 Suggestions

Both the owners of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park identified ways in which their management team can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism. According to the owner of Ezulwini Private Park, one solution could be creating a favourable working environment whereby staff can be empowered in skills development. Langholz and Kerley (2006) stated that the reliance on a local rural population to supply an upscale tourism service presents an overwhelming challenge. Thus, in their study private game reserves tried to tackle this

predicament through intensive and ongoing enrichment and training programmes for their employers. Topics included English language, tracking, cooking, housekeeping, guiding, marketing and hotel management skills. During discussions with the Ezulwini Private Park owner some of the areas for skills development were identified.

According to the owner of Tala Private Park, protecting flora and fauna in the Park by creating an awareness campaign whereby all relevant stakeholders could be involved via education programmes should be considered. Langholz and Kerley (2006) stated that in their study respondents indicated that they would want to create a training facility for disadvantaged youth that focuses on environmental topics. The focus on environmental education is important and it is commendable that the Tala Private Park owner feels that all relevant stakeholders should be involved.

Both owners identified ways in which visitors visiting Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park could promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park indicated that visitors must contribute financially to the cause of ecotourism. The owner of Tala Private Park indicated that a conscientious effort must be made to protect flora and fauna. In addition, Park owners in both private Parks could adopt a strategy used by other Parks. Some of these strategies identified by Wells and White (1995) include adoption programmes such as adopt-a-trail or adopt-an-animal where visitors would contribute financially to the upkeep of the animal or trail.

The owner of Ezulwini Private Park indicated that the government can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism by providing bursaries to learners from the local community. The owner of Tala Private Park indicated that the government should provide more road signs to encourage more domestic visitors as well as foreign visitors. Both owners pointed out ways in which the community can contribute positively towards the economic development of the Parks. The owner of Ezulwini Private Park proposed that the local community should make available their indigenous knowledge skills to the Park because the local community possesses knowledge on indigenous methods of managing resources. This is an interesting position given that currently community members are not involved in any community structures. The owner of Tala Private Park stated that the local community should stop poaching. According to Langholz (1996),

poaching continues to be a major problem for private nature reserves in many parts of Sub-Saharan Africa and Latin America. However, private game reserves in the Eastern Cape described poaching as a minor problem since they have anti-poaching units in many reserves that frequently patrol the fence line. Tala Private Park may want to consider anti-poaching units which include community members.

Human resources such as lack of skilled staff, attaining professional services locally and training local staff in hospitality from an agricultural background are a major challenge in South Africa, especially in rural areas. private Park owners (and managers) face a dilemma of achieving short-term gain by providing visitors with what they want to experience at the expense of degrading the landscape in the long term. Financial constraints were quite challenging thus both the private Parks practice agricultural farming as well as engaging in the hospitality industry. Among the financial constraints identified by the Park owners were many costs related to purchasing of land, handling the historical legacy of apartheid, the lack of revenue during the development stage before visitors arrive, designing and building high quality infrastructure, as well as carrying out sufficient marketing.

5.7 Conclusion

In this chapter, results from the data description and analysis demonstrate that stakeholder involvement is essential in minimising social, economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. From the data collected it can be established that the local communities are an important stakeholder who are poverty-stricken and need to benefit from sustainable ecotourism socially and economically. Additionally, all stakeholders in this study support sound environmental management practices and community development. However, in terms of the latter, significantly more needs to be done to create opportunities for broader community participation. A more detailed discussion of the key findings in relation to the objectives of the study as well as the recommendations emanating from the research will be presented in the next and final chapter.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

Ecotourism is the option most frequently touted for its potential to promote social, economic and environmental development and sustainability (Stronza and Gordillo, 2008). It has been attributed with the power to sustain rural livelihoods (Honey, 1999), catalyse new development (Weaver, 1998), renew cultural pride (Epler-Wood, 2002), empower local people (Scheyvens, 1999) and protect biodiversity (Christ et al., 2003). Specifically, ecotourism is designed to channel greater benefits directly to communities (Stronza and Gordillo, 2008). Furthermore, community participation is often regarded as one of the most important tools for tourism to make a substantial contribution to the national development of a country (Lea, 1988; Simpson, 2008; Tosun, 2006). In terms of globalisation, tourism is one of today's most controversial issues and can be seen as the integration of economies, societies and civilisations (Hjalager, 2007). The tourism sector offers numerous and diverse opportunities for working lives across its varied sub-sectors and at different levels throughout the world (Baum, 2007). Approximately half of the tourists' money spent in developing countries leaks away because goods, services and employees are imported (Van Wijk and Persoon, 2006).

The above aspects are critically important in the context of South Africa where ecotourism is often linked to having the ability to promote local community development, encourage economic advancement and maintain environmental sustainability. The need to examine the extent to which these often contesting intentions can be achieved in relation to private Parks has foregrounded the need for this study. This is within a context where the differences between ecotourism sites (which are generally well-off in terms of infrastructure, services and natural assets) and neighbouring rural communities (which are generally poverty-stricken and characterised by high unemployment levels, poor infrastructure and services, and low levels of development) are vast. In particular, key contributions to knowledge relate to unpacking critical issues pertaining to private Parks which, as indicated in the introductory chapter, is a relatively under-researched field of study despite this sector becoming increasingly important and widespread (Fennell, 2003; Hulme and Murphree, 2001; Kerley et al., 2003; Weaver et al.,

1996). This is particularly relevant in the South African context where private Parks are increasing and are lucrative business ventures that attract high income tourists from developed countries, mainly from Europe. Furthermore, to the best of the researcher's knowledge this is the first study in South Africa relating to private Parks that adopts a stakeholder analysis. Studies often examine the concerns and perceptions of one stakeholder, usually local communities or visitors. This study includes local communities and visitors as well as tour operators, Park personnel and Park owners. Furthermore, two case studies are examined: Tala Private Park and the Magojela neighbouring rural community as well as Ezulwini Private Park and the Nibela neighbouring rural community. Adopting this approach entailed undertaking a comparative analysis between the case study sites as well as among the stakeholders.

This chapter provides a summary as well as recommendations based on the deliberations, investigations and findings of the study. As mentioned in the previous chapters, this study investigated social, economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism as well as management issues with regard to biodiversity conservation and sustainable development at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa from various stakeholders' perspectives. The stakeholders involved in the private Parks comprised of visitors, tour operators, local communities, Park personnel and Park owners. The main findings are summarised in relation to the objectives of the study and the key issues raised in the study such as perceptions, local community involvement; role/s of tour operators, Park personnel and Park owners; socio-economic profiles of visitors; and social, economic and environmental impacts and biodiversity conservation.

It is unfortunate that in South Africa local communities were embroiled in a legacy of dispossession and displacement (Ngubane and Diab, 2005). According to King (2007), one of the main consequences of apartheid spatial planning was the restriction of large populations to small geographic spaces with questionable agricultural value. Thus, tourism offered a better opportunity to revitalise rural areas through the diversification of economic activities (Allen and Brennan, 2004; Bennett, 2000, Mahony and van Zyl, 2002; McGehee and Anderdeck, 2004) and grants a useful way for restoring regional balance in a country (Nieman et al., 2008; Schaller, 2001). This study reinforces these assertions and shows that ecotourism contributes to economic and social development as well as promoting environmental protection and sustainability.

However, the nature and extent of the benefits (especially in relation to local communities) remain disconcerting aspects and need to be addressed. An increasing number of rural areas and governments have identified the economic benefits that accrue to rural areas from tourism development (Butler et al., 1998; Nieman et al., 2008; Ying and Zhou, 2007). This is discernible in this study, however, the benefits tend to be limited and impacts positively only on a few households who have a family member who secures employment in the Parks or are able to derive an income from the sale of items (crafts, food or even cultural entertainment) to visitors. This study illustrates that local community involvement in relation to private Parks are confined to a few members of the community who generally have access to employment opportunities. Thus, this research illustrates, as asserted by Mafunzwaini and Hugo (2005) and Mahony and van Zyl (2002), that South Africa has yet to capitalise fully on ecotourism in rural areas. In South Africa, the previously excluded groups must now be granted the opportunity to partake either as entrepreneurs or as tourists themselves (Allen and Brennan, 2004). In South Africa, communities need to be involved in private Parks as employees, providers of goods and services or as independent tourism entrepreneurs.

6.2 Summary of key findings

The key results and findings of this study are summarised and presented in relation to the objectives of the study in an attempt to address the issues raised by the research questions. There were substantial similarities as well as differences between the various stakeholder groups. The findings are generally similar to Okech (2004) and Chellan's (2005) studies on Public Parks in Kenya and South Africa, respectively which also adopted a stakeholder approach.

6.2.1 Objective One: Levels and extent of involvement and participation of neighbouring local communities in relation to the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park's ecotourism activities and decision-making processes.

The focus of this objective was to determine whether the neighbouring local communities and the private Parks as a tourism industry have a positive relationship with a view to making suggestions as to how the conditions of the neighbouring rural communities can be improved through employment, partnership ventures, improved housing, building of schools and clinics, etc.

In this case study, the majority of the respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park indicated that no relationship exists between the community, management and staff of the respective private Parks. As stated by Allen and Brennan (2004), experience has shown that in KwaZulu-Natal, local participation is a slow and costly experience. This study reveals that local participation is limited and confined to a few individuals.

Contrary to the local community respondents, the majority of the Park personnel respondents at the Ezulwini Private Park and at the Tala Private Park indicated that a relationship exists between the community, management and staff. This is understandable given that they directly benefit from being employed in the Parks and many of the Park personnel interviewed were from neighbouring communities. However, both the owners mentioned that the local communities were not involved in the activities and decision-making of the private Parks. The main reason forwarded was that as a private Park decisions were made by the Park owner. However, community participation would definitely create more responsible citizens and would eventually lead to making the decision-making process more reliable (Brown and Harris, 2005; Tosun, 2006). Community participation enables Park owners and management to mitigate conflict. Community participation in tourism makes certain that there is sustainability (Woodley, 1993), better opportunities for local people to gain benefits from tourism taking place in their locality, positive local attitudes and the conservation of local resources (Simpson, 2008; Tosun, 2006).

Community respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park provided positive as well as negative reasons to describe their relationship with the management and staff of the respective, private Parks. The respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park provided positive reasons such as the locals from the community were employed, the community enjoys meeting visitors from other destinations, the community can visit the Private Park, there is good consultation and community members were asked to perform Zulu dances. The respondents living near Tala Private Park provided positive reasons such as the management and employees have a friendly relationship with the community and the management as well as employees share some concerns. The positive reasons related primarily to positive interactions with Park personnel, opportunities regarding access into the Park and opportunities derived from meeting visitors.

The community respondents living near Ezulwini Private Park provided negative reasons such as: the Park owner was perceived to have a racist attitude although no specific examples emerged during the data collection process, workers were dismissed if unhappy with salary and respondents were unable to visit relatives employed in the Park. The respondents living near Tala Private Park provided negative reasons such as: the management and staff treat local people unfairly and the relationship is only linked to employment. It is important to call for community participation which is based on the assumption that participation lessens opposition to development, minimises negative impacts and revitalises economies (Hardy et al., 2002). However, if one of the assumptions of community participation is to revitalise the economy, the community respondents near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park should be aware that ecotourism may not be able to meet the high employment demands. Specifically, it is important to note that ecotourism with its focus on minimal impacts on the environment is not likely to be a significant creator of jobs needed in rural contexts in South Africa.

The results from the focus groups illustrate that similar problems were identified by Nibela and Magojela communities in relation to economic opportunities, access to resources and the provision of services and infrastructure. However, as expected, the issue of forced removals is the most important problem in the Magojela community given that this community still has unresolved land claims. The mental maps and venn diagrams illustrate that both communities are estranged from the private Parks. Additionally, the maps reveal the community participants are aware of the Park landscapes (that is, the facilities available and farming activities). The venn diagrams underscore the importance of the traditional authority systems and local government structures in both communities which need to be considered when engaging with the Park management.

6.2.2 Objective Two: Roles of tour operators in ecotourism activities and promoting responsible tourism in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park.

Tour operators are key role players in the tourism industry. They directly influence the types of visitors brought to an area. This objective sought to determine the levels of community involvement in management policies and strategies, their understanding and support of the reasons for ecotourism, the marketing strategies they used in promoting ecotourism as well as their role in encouraging and supporting local community development.

The owners of the tour operating companies that tour Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park were predominantly White. As mentioned earlier, the monopoly of White ownership could be attributed to the apartheid financing schemes that focused on White investors who had sufficient collateral at their disposal (Cassim and Jackson, 2003). The majority of the respondents that tour Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park described their tour operating company as operators that sell nature. Thus, nature is being commodified and sold to visitors as a tour package. This raises a range of concerns relating to sustainability if responding to market demands emerges as a key driver. Certainly, this study shows that visitors' needs and considerations are important and that they are deemed to be the main stakeholder by Park owners who make the decisions.

At least half of the respondents surveyed at the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park perceived a good interaction level between their tour operating company and the surrounding community. In an educational sense, the tour operator is important both as a direct provider of experiences and information about the environment and as a channel for the tour operating companies to communicate with each other (Hockings, 1994; Spenceley, 2007b). The good relationship with the surrounding community adjacent to the Ezulwini Private Park can be attributed to the tour operating company encouraging visitors to purchase goods from the cultural villages and the tour operating company assisting to build schools and houses. In addition, the good relationship with the surrounding community adjacent to Tala Private Park can be attributed to the majority of the respondents indicating that the tour operating company employs local tour guides.

As stated by Whinney (1996), from an ecotourism standpoint, employing locally trained guides has the commercial advantage with respect to marketing, repeated trips, superior service and in the long term, increased profits. The majority of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park felt that there were opportunities for visitors and hosts to meet on equal terms and learn about each other. At the Ezulwini Private Park, the opportunities for visitors and hosts to meet on equal terms and learn about each other could be obtained through visiting the local cultural villages, the use of local guides and visiting sangomas known to the western world as medicine men. At the Tala Private Park, the opportunities for visitors and hosts to meet on equal

terms and learn about each other could be obtained through using local guides and the visiting of sangomas.

The tour operator has an important role in meeting the tourist's expectation and providing proper explanations and additional information (Cohen, 1985; Geva and Goldman 1991; Holloway, 1981; Kim et al., 2007; Orams, 1999). The tour operators that tour the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park were in a relatively strong agreement with the opinion that interpretation (providing information and additional information) was a very important component of tourist operations (Hockings, 1994; Wearing and Mc Donald, 2002). In this study all the tourism operators surveyed indicated that one of their main roles was providing visitors with information, specifically in relation to the unique natural resources in the area.

It is evident that the majority of the tour operators at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park support local development initiatives. It is imperative that tour operators make provisions to support local development initiatives as this will encourage visitors to support the communities. The majority of the respondents at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park stated that none of the locals were employed by their tour operating company. It is important for tour operating companies to employ locals from the community as local knowledge that exists within communities can be of major importance in tourism development and to ensure that meeting the objective of empowering local communities via ecotourism is realised. According to Lea (1988) and Tosun (2006), the increased participation of locals in tourism ventures and employment must involve the inclusion of low-income people in both rural and urban areas who are not normally involved. The majority of the respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park indicated that visitors were very willing to donate money to local environmental and social causes. As mentioned earlier, donations to local environmental and social causes will only depend on how the tour guide has interpreted and carried the message across to the visitors.

6.2.3 Objective Three: Role of the Park personnel of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park in respect of ecotourism conservation, management and sustainable development.

The aim of this objective was to analyse the extent to which the Park personnel was involved in environmental protection, monitoring impacts, conservation, sustainable ecotourism

development and their relationships with the locals. Importance was given to ecotourism management initiatives in the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park.

The Park personnel respondents in Ezulwini Private Park were predominantly African, fluent in isiZulu, and their highest qualification was matric (senior certificate). The racial composition of the Park personnel respondents at Tala Private Park were equally balanced in relation to White and African. The majority of the Park personnel respondents at Tala Private Park were fluent in English and their highest qualification was a diploma. Half of the Park personnel respondents of Ezulwini Private Park resided in Matubatuba which was 50 km away whereas half of the Park personnel respondents resided in Tala Private Park. The majority of the Park personnel respondents in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park were single and had worked for less than five years in the respective private Parks. The White Park personnel respondents of Ezulwini Private Park occupied skilled levels of employment such as game ranging and managerial positions, whereas the African Park personnel respondents of Tala Private Park occupied skilled positions such as a manager. The results show that a racial pattern of employment did not emerge across the two case study sites although in both Parks the menial jobs were mostly undertaken by Africans.

The Park personnel in Ezulwini Private Park indicated that they have a detailed understanding of the following concepts: biodiversity, protected areas, world heritage principles, ecotourism, conservation and sustainable development. The Park personnel of Tala Private Park indicated that they have a detailed understanding of the following concepts: biodiversity, protected areas and conservation. The Park personnel and managers traditionally provide information and interpretive services to visitors ranging from basic signage and brochures to guided trails (Hockings, 1994). This was also noticeable in this study. This direct communication between visitor, Park personnel and manager is used to assist both the needs and expectations of the visitor and the objectives of the Park personnel and manager.

The majority of the Park personnel respondents of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park indicated that there were interactions between visitors to the respective private Parks and the local communities. The majority of the Park personnel of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park mention that local communities were somewhat involved in the activities and decision-

making of the respective private Parks. These responses reinforces that sentiments expressed by the local community members that participation was limited.

The Park personnel of Ezulwini Private Park observed that crime, local communities' presence in the area, hunting of wildlife, over-reliance on natural areas and unique cultural activities have not hindered tourism. This is primarily because both Parks are fenced and access to the Parks is restricted. The Park personnel of Tala Private Park observe that crime and the hunting of wildlife by local communities hinders tourism to the area. There were instances of crime and poaching in the area. The Park personnel perceive that the owner of Ezulwini Private Park has invested in certain projects in the local community, for example, schools, educational trusts, housing, small business ventures, sport facilities and events. The Park personnel perceive that the owner of Tala Private Park has invested in certain projects in the local community, for example, clinics, housing, sports facilities and events. These perceptions were supported by other stakeholders. However, the concern as will be discussed further in the next section, is that these projects are identified and initiated by the Parks with very little community input and consultation.

6.2.4 Objective Four: Socio-economic profile of visitors to the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park and their perceptions pertaining to ecotourism, community development and sustainability imperatives.

The significance of this objective was to determine the role visitors play in terms of increasing foreign earnings thereby contributing to local economic development, the creation and improvement of employment opportunities, improving the quality of service offered by the tourism industry, the conservation of wildlife and the protection of the environment, their willingness to interact with the local community and the understanding of their culture and to gauge their general attitude towards South Africa. The majority of the international visitors at Ezulwini Private Park were mainly American or European. In contrast, the international visitors at Tala Private Park were mainly Asians. The results reveal that there are differences in the target markets of private Parks and are illustrative of the differences between the two case study sites. The majority of the foreign respondents visiting Ezulwini Private Park were with a tour group. All the respondents visiting Ezulwini Private Park stayed at the Park lodge. In contrast, the majority of the foreign respondents visited Tala Private Park as a family and did not stay in

the lodges. The visitors to Tala Private Park consisted mainly of day-trippers. This finding relates directly to the location of the private Parks. Ezulwini Private Park is approximately 4 hours away from Durban (the main flight destination of tourism and KwaZulu-Natal's economic hub). On the other hand, Tala Private Park is 40 minutes from Durban and 20 minutes from Pietermaritzburg, two key economic and visitor source markets in the province.

The majority of the visitors to both Parks were domestic visitors residing in the province of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. The majority of the domestic visitors touring the Tala Private Park were day-trippers. The majority of the visitors stayed at Ezulwini Private Park for a maximum of 2 nights in the lodge and the majority of the visitors spent the day at Tala Private Park. In keeping with the travel patterns described above, the visitors to Ezulwini Private Park travelled by means of a conducted tour whereas visitors to Tala Private Park travelled with their own vehicle. The day-trippers to Tala Private Park listed reasons restricting them from staying at the Private Park: they were in close proximity to their homes, they were first time visitors and there were time and financial constraints that restricted them from staying at the Tala Private Park. The results reinforce the importance of domestic spending and support of ecotourism.

Generally it was observed that the racial composition of the visitors where White however, there were a few Black South Africans. The visitor respondents that toured both the private Parks were professionals with a tertiary education and were married. The majority of the respondents visiting the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park were between the ages of 22 and 40 years old.

The majority of the visitors to Ezulwini Private Park had obtained a tertiary qualification on environmental matters whereas the majority of the visitors to Tala Private Park had self-taught themselves on issues pertaining to environmental matters. The majority of the visitors to the respective private Parks do not belong to any conservation, environment or outdoor recreation organisations. The visitor respondents indicated that the most important reason for visiting Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park was relaxation.

In Ezulwini Private Park the visitors' main source of information was the internet and in Tala Private Park the visitors' main source of information was by means of word of mouth. Most of

the visitors visited Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park once and generally rated the private Parks as second best amongst other Parks visited.

Some of the visitor respondents (40%) at Ezulwini Private Park and only 3% at Tala Private Park agreed that they have met the local community whilst staying at the respective private Parks. However, the majority of the visitor respondents at both Parks indicated that they would be keen to meet and learn about the local people and their cultures. This study clearly reveals the interest that visitors have in terms of interacting with local communities. Currently, there appears to be few opportunities to do so, with more opportunities at Ezulwini Private Park than Tala Private Park. As will be discussed in the recommendations section, creating more opportunities for interactions with communities and promoting participation are keys to realising ecotourism ideals and principles. As Cousins (2007) states, there should be a component of education, learning or appreciation between the ecotourist and the attraction, which includes local communities.

The majority of the visitors to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park did not experience overcrowding, over-development, unregulated recreation, pollution, wildlife disturbances, vehicle use, lack of signage and noxious weeds. The visitors to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park indicated that their visit has influenced them to change their attitudes at home to be more environmentally responsible or when they visit other natural areas. Moreover, visitors to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park indicated that this visit to the respective private Parks had an influence on their views on conservation issues in general, as well as actions that they may take in the future. The results therefore show that ecotourism does promote environmental education and contributes to influencing positive changes in relation to conservation and sustainability issues.

6.2.5 Objective Five: Role of the Park owner of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park in terms of their interaction with the local community relative to their participation in activities and decision-making.

This objective examined the relationship between the Park owner and the local community in the respective private Parks especially in matters relating to participation and decision-making. The

owner of Ezulwini Private Park stated that he generally understands the concept of biodiversity, protected areas, world heritage principles, ecotourism and sustainable development. Furthermore, he had a good understanding of the concept of conservation. The owner of Tala Private Park indicated that he generally understands the concept of protected areas, world heritage principles, ecotourism, conservation and sustainable development. The owner of Tala Private Park also had a good understanding of the concept of biodiversity. As expected, both Park owners were confident that they understood key environmental concepts.

Both Park owners felt that there exists an interaction between the visitors and the local communities. Both Park owners mentioned that the local communities were not involved in the activities and decision-making of the private Parks. Both Park owners stated that there were an increase in negative types of behaviour from the community that would hinder tourism to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park such as crime, hunting of wildlife, over-reliance on natural resources and the local community's unique cultural activities. However, both owners identify that the presence of the local community does not hinder tourism to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. The results intimate that while the Park owners support the presence of local communities in promoting tourism in the area, they feel that access to Park resources should be restricted. This is in keeping with the ecotourism ethos generally in South Africa where both private and public Parks are fenced and local community involvement in tourism is restricted and/ or controlled both spatially (that is, where they can go and who can visit them in their locations) and economically (what opportunities and benefits should be derived by local communities). This imbalance remains a key area of concern and potential point of conflict.

The owner of Ezulwini Private Park listed the following projects that were invested by the private Park for the community: educational trusts, housing and events. The owner of Tala Private Park listed the following projects that were invested by the private Park for the community: clinics and housing. Projects are generally focused on developmental aspects, mainly service provision and housing.

Both Park owners point out that they have not approached the Nkosi/Chief, selected members of the community, community based organisation and the counsellor to develop a partnership. According to both Park owners, none of the members of the community were on the management of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. The owners in the respective

private Parks agreed that the local communities should benefit from tourism in respect of employment generation. They also supported Li's (2006) assertion that when the community has no involvement in the planning and operation of a tourism initiative, the community should still receive meaningful benefits. They felt that the projects they initiate and support are ways in which communities benefit. This sentiment is similar to that expressed by the tour operators who indicated that they encourage visitors to give donations to local communities. However, this encourages a dependency relationship and encourages local communities' reliance on hand-outs. This can be extremely dangerous and can undermine local empowerment and self-reliance which are key to sustainable community development.

Both owners indicated that there were codes of conduct for visitors and tour operators concerning environmental issues. In Ezulwini Private Park the owner views depleting wild-life, diminishing plant and tree life, soil erosion, litter, polluted water spots, infrastructure development and too many visitors to be of no concern to the environment. In Tala Private Park, the owner sees depleting wild-life, diminishing plant and tree life, polluted water spots, infrastructure development and too many visitors to be of no concern to the environment whereas soil erosion and litter were ranked low. The results reinforce stakeholder views that currently the natural environment is healthy and there is little evidence of unsustainable practices in the Parks.

6.3 Theoretical reflections

The theoretical framework embedded in a spatial, geographical analysis clearly demonstrates the importance of focusing on specific spatial contexts and environments. This study clearly shows that location matters and any attempts at formulating theoretical generalisations need to consider the importance of a spatial context. This does not mean that generalisations or looking for patterns are not important. It is these contributions to knowledge production that permit a rethinking and revision of policies or formulating new policies if need be. This study, for example, clearly shows that local community aspirations and concerns are important when examining sustainability issues pertaining to ecotourism. However, the comparison of the case studies reveals that there are two important factors that influence the extent and nature of the interaction between the local communities and ecotourism Parks:

- Location of the neighbouring communities: communities closer to the Park boundaries (in this case Magojela near Tala Private Park) appear to have closer relationships and expectations pertaining to Park issues.
- Park type: many of the stakeholders (including community respondents) felt that their participation is limited because the Parks are privately owned.

The issue of the Park type is an important aspect that needs to be examined critically. While private ownership is associated with rights and control being largely invested in the hands of the owner, the essence of ecotourism is the promotion of a type of tourism enterprise that protects the natural resource base and empowers local communities. Thus, owners (whether private or public) who embrace the concept of ecotourism to market their tourism products need to focus on local communities as well. There is a disconcerting trend identified in this study where the participation of local communities is not deemed important (in fact some respondents felt that it will undermine the environmental integrity of the Parks) or is limited to specific projects, often identified and controlled by the Parks.

Adopting a political ecology perspective is also important. Some political ecologists state that capitalist forces or oppressive State policies have an impact on local people and resources (Blaikie, 1985; Blaikie and Brookfield, 1987; Stonich, 1993). This is definitely applicable in South Africa as the apartheid regime had made it very difficult for communities to become involved in the ecotourism sector and the years of excluding the Black population have left them ignorant of their potential benefits of the trade (Allen and Brennan, 2004). This study shows that the impacts of colonial and apartheid planning are still being felt in the private ecotourism sector and among poor local communities. The private ecotourism sector remains predominantly White and neighbouring local rural communities have largely been unable to benefit from tourism in these areas.

The study illustrates how the political ecology perspective can be used to understand the social, economic as well as environmental dimensions of ecotourism with respect to biodiversity and sustainable development. A classical theme in political ecology is how protected areas are becoming arenas of conflict which results in contested patterns of resource management

(Zimmerer and Bassett, 2003). With communities being unemployed and impoverished, protected areas were seen as the proverbial playground for the rich (De Villiers, 2008). Thus, private Parks were still seen by the local communities as being elitist since it was not affordable and accessible to the local communities. This study indicates that although outright conflicts which can take the form of violence (for example, land invasions) and demonstrations are not noticeable in the case study areas, there are tensions and concerns expressed by the various stakeholders, especially the community respondents which need to be managed and addressed. While tensions and dissatisfaction emerge as perceptions, as Treves and Karanth (2003) and Woodroffe et al. (2005) illustrate, they are potentially destructive issues that impede development, social equality and conservation. The literature review shows that competition for resources and benefits (especially financial) as well as divergent views and aspirations can cause and worsen conflicts over natural resources (Hellstrom, 2001; Homer-Dixon, 1994). The theoretical framework used in this study demonstrates the importance of being people-centred, especially in relation to community issues. This is also relevant in the context of private Parks since unmet expectations and unresolved issues among neighbouring communities can undermine ecotourism ventures.

Chapter three indicated that the science of biodiversity conflict management has struggled to develop a conceptual debate and framework of its own (White et al., 2009). This study contributes to this debate by showing how examining differences and points of contestation are important to predict and address potential areas of concern and conflict. This study illustrates, as indicated by Gossling (2003), that political ecology can be used as a powerful tool to investigate the role and interests of different actors in the process of environmental change. The importance of adopting a stakeholder approach is regarded as particularly important. Protected area managers and policy-makers have been leaning towards a more participatory and all-encompassing forms of management which would replace conventional top-down governance (Innes and Booher, 1999; Westley, 1995). Thus, this study investigated five stakeholders, namely, local communities, tour operators, Park personnel, Park owners and visitors. The need to investigate all the relevant stakeholders came about as an antidote to remedy the injustices of the past and to deal with potential conflict situations harmoniously.

The political ecology approach also underscores the importance of addressing how we understand environmental crises and how we identify social vulnerability identified as key issues by Forsyth (2008). The case study shows that in terms of environmental sustainability, all the stakeholders agree that the Parks are healthy and sustainable environmental practices are noticeable. On the other hand, local communities remain socially and environmentally vulnerable as they face numerous developmental challenges and restricted access to natural resources.

Rocheleau (2008: 716) indicates that “political ecology is rooted in a combination of critical perspectives and the hard won insights distilled from fieldwork”. This study draws heavily on primary fieldwork as a critical component of adding knowledge in relation to stakeholder perceptions and concerns of private Parks.

6.4 Recommendations

Throughout the analysis and previous sections in this chapter, suggestions to address problems have been integrated into the discussion. Additionally, the following specific recommendations are forwarded:

6.4.1 Community participation and empowerment

A conviction held by many scholars is that unless local residents are empowered and participate fully in decision-making and ownership of tourism developments, tourism will not reflect their values and will be less likely to generate sustainable outcomes (Hardy et al., 2002; Lea, 1988; Simpson, 2008; Stronza and Gordillo, 2008; Tosun, 2006). It is absolutely crucial that community involvement in the conceptualisation, development, start-up, functioning and day-to-day management of a tourism enterprise be developed to assist stakeholders (including the local community), partners and potential benefactors to identify, understand, appreciate and focus on those areas that are most likely to deliver net benefits to the community (Scheyvens, 2002; Tosun, 2005; Tosun and Timothy, 2003). Thus, it is essential for local communities near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park to be empowered as active partners as well as managers of ecotourism ventures within or surrounding the private Parks. This will create an attitude whereby locals support conservation and assist in tackling poverty alleviation.

The private Parks' management and owners have to develop and promote the "People and Parks" catchphrase and to establish relationships with the local community living near the private Parks. Communities living near the private Parks face numerous issues such as land use, land claims, poaching, limited access to private Parks, lack of skills and unemployment. All stakeholders, especially private Park owners, should be determined to encourage participation of communities living adjacent to the private Parks. In this study, private Park owners were representative of the White minority group. It is this group who had enforced apartheid and through legislation forced the removal of the Black majority off their ancestral land (De Villiers, 2008). Through negotiation and perseverance the dispossessed Black people living near private Parks can establish a partnership and establish an approach so that both stakeholders can benefit from ecotourism in the area. There should be a flexible governance system in place to monitor private Parks' ecotourism ventures which provide legitimacy of voice, transparency, fairness and should be culturally sensitive to issues such as the patriarchal nature of African societies whereby women and men may have different roles in the ecotourism initiative. To gain the advantages from participation in ecotourism it is essential that development is undertaken in a manner that incorporates all stakeholders (Allen and Brennan, 2004). This is clearly not the case for Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park since local communities were not actively involved in the Park activities and decision-making processes. According to Vodden (2002), community participation in tourism development is a process by which individuals, their families and the community as a whole can initiate and generate their own solutions to developing a tourism venture, assisting in the building of long term community capacity by encouraging the integration of economic, social, cultural and environmental objectives. Any joint ventures and collaborations between the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park must at the outset have a written agreement between the private Park owner and the local communities. Verbal agreements can be risky and lead to hostility which can be dangerous to the visitors touring the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. Thus, community participation is seen as a crucial tool for educating locals about their rights, laws and political good sense and is essential for public education (Tosun, 2000). Park owners of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park need to design development initiatives that encourage beneficiaries to become independent. Beneficiaries should be at the forefront by participating in their own development, by mobilising their own resources, making their own decisions and defining their own needs as well as how to meet those needs (Stone, 1989).

According to Ferreira (2004), local communities have historically succeeded in evolving systems of resource use and management, thus combining livelihood security with resource conservation. However, this is not the case for the local community living near the Tala Private Park. Projects need to be initiated to improve the livelihood security of the local community. For example, the Tsitsikamma National Park, has initiated a project whereby permaculture gardens were established in the vicinity of the Park (De Villiers, 2008). These vegetable gardens provide for the communities' own needs and surplus produce is sold to the public and to tourist establishments from roadside stalls. Four gardens were used as case studies by the Park management to show the local communities how to go about establishing a garden and the potential economic benefits they may expect (De Villiers, 2008). Similarly, in Nicaragua's Domitila Private Wildlife Reserve approximately 300 people live on the boundary of the private Reserves and they conduct small-scale agriculture, raise cattle and seek employment within the private Park (Barany et al., 2001). This enables the local community to practice sustainable agricultural income generating activities such as growing of crops which could be sold at an informal market or consumed within the household. Thus, the owners and managers of the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park could make use of the fruit and vegetable farms to guide and educate the local community with respect to practicing sustainable resource use and improving their livelihood security.

From the participatory exercises it is evident that the visitors, tour operators, Park personnel and Park owners have to familiarise themselves with customary ownership practised by the African community. The stakeholders that were involved in visiting the local communities near to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park need to understand the roles of the Chief and Induna, and in certain circumstances, the councillors, local government and national government and their role in the lives of the local communities concerned.

The relevant private enterprises and government departments have to address the concern that the private ecotourism sector (especially in relation to tour operators and Park owners) is too White. The South African government has to implement incentives for the tour operating companies to include Black tour operators as partners in the business of ecotourism. However, it is essential to consider that these partners must be actively included in the organisation and management of the tour operating business. In Ezulwini Private Park there were some Black tour

operators, however, it is still too few. It seems like the White tour operating companies have a monopoly on the visitors touring the respective private Parks. BEE is a key part of post-apartheid restructuring of the South African economy which is used to address the inequity and exclusion formed by apartheid (Ashley and Haysom, 2005). It has faced numerous problems including the fact that only a few Blacks benefit and has been unable to have a significant impact on the majority of the Black population. However, if implemented correctly to address the above concern BEE together with PPT should be introduced into the tourism business, especially in private Parks. PPT is an approach to tourism that increases net benefits to the poor (Ashley and Haysom, 2005). Furthermore, as mentioned by Holden (2005) previously, the basis of PPT can be dealt with by the empowerment of the poor, and sustaining their livelihoods which are all inclusive of environmental, economic, cultural and social benefits. Adopting this approach will encourage social development among the communities living near the private Parks in respect of constructing and supporting schools, creating, managing and funding a crèche for the nearby local community, and facilitating delivery of adult-based education training (ABET) programmes.

According to Langholz and Kerley (2006), private Parks were active in the area of BEE in collaboration with the pro-poor approach as local communities can be used as subcontractors. There is potential for an indigenous owned and operated small enterprise, focused on the growing ecotourism market, to be established and to achieve commercial viability. Such a business could yield substantial economic and social benefits for the owners/operators, employees and the community. The local multiplier effect will not be lost since visitors and tour operators would spend money in the local area enabling re-circulation and re-spending into the local economy. The Park owners of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park need to be patient since locals will require training and initial support in establishing these ventures.

Both private Park owners need to liaise with aspirant Black tour operators living near the private Parks to encourage and support them to venture into the ecotourism trade. This will enable community members to improve their skills and marketing capabilities as well as create additional income generating opportunities. In addition, government needs to intervene. As Rogerson (2004) stresses, the need for public sector involvement and support is emphasised by

the fact that the private finance sector in South Africa does not support new businesses in tourism.

6.4.2 Building partnerships

For ecotourism to contribute seriously to conservation and sustainable development by not only focusing on visitors who visit pristine environments but also promoting local development, certain codes of conduct must be adhered to. Generally, ecotourism should provide major benefits for local residents; contribute to the sustainable management of natural resources; incorporate environmental education for visitors and the local communities; and be developed and managed to minimise negative impacts on the environment and local culture. In practical terms, the private sector should involve local communities as equal partners in all phases of ecotourism planning and development. Financial incentives are evidently an important part of such a partnership and the local communities must have the final say about how much and what kind of tourism development they would want.

The significance of training and education shows a common issue that links the literature on tourism and indigenous development (Fennell, 2003). Wearing (1994) suggests that at any level of hierarchy, indigenous people are able to solve their own problems if given the chance. Experiential education and training are vital in enabling such communities to develop tourism so that it is not just another commodified product where benefits are exported and natural resources are abused (Wearing, 1994).

Local people with access to ecotourism assets who wish to establish small businesses often lack the necessary education and training required to effectively manage a small enterprise. This would require a need to establish joint ventures with the private sector and the local communities. Local communities face difficulties accessing institutions, due to lower income and asset levels as well as a lack of familiarity with the procedures of financial institutions and the inability to prepare the formal business and financial plans required by mainstream commercial lenders (Fuller et al., 2005). The local communities are required to obtain the skills and experience to promote and market a business locally as well as in international markets are usually lacking. Thus, the joint venture partnership will partly be able to compensate for these skill deficiencies by taking responsibility for the marketing of the businesses and the training of

local communities. Garrigos-Simon et al. (2007) state that there is a need to increase firm investment in education and managerial development.

The Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park in collaboration with the government (DEAT) could train individuals from the local community to utilise their indigenous knowledge to educate the visitors on conservation issues discussed later in this section. Tourist education is deemed necessary and will improve the overall quality of the visits to the Park (Boshoff et al., 2007).

6.4.3 Addressing tensions and potential points of conflict

Colonialism had ostracised local communities, they had to endure resource loss through the declaration of protected areas, had to abandon their indigenous methods of farming and cultivation, profited less from ecotourism and had to extract small value from the visitor (Adams and Mulligan, 2003; De Villiers, 2008; King, 2007). The post-apartheid government has the task to fulfil constitutional and international obligations, to preserve environmental assets and also to embark on land reform benefiting the previously dispossessed (Crane, 2006). This situation can be applied to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park where there were a few forced removals and land claim issues affecting the local communities. As indicated earlier in this chapter, although there are no examples of current outright conflicts there are tensions and concerns, especially community dissatisfaction pertaining to lack of participation and benefits as well as access to Park resources. Thus, Crane (2006) mentions that there is a constant challenge of reconciling complex and conflicting relationships between poverty, inequitable access to resources and the protection of biodiversity.

Social exclusion is often found among tribal communities and is useful in analysing social processes that hinder progress of the deprived and marginalised (Evans, 1996). These may include restricted access to land, unemployment, low incomes, little or no welfare support, gender inequalities, ethnic rivalries and social monopolies (Evans, 1996; Gaventa, 1998). Allen and Brennan (2004) stated that much of the literature concerned with the welfare of African communities in northern KwaZulu-Natal focuses on the debilitating and chronic poverty that characterises the region's tribal life. Thus, there is an essential need for mediators to be

appointed from the community and the private Parks for the purpose of resolving future conflicts, building relationships and trust and resolving the painful issues of land claims within the private Parks. However, these community members must be representative of the community.

The Park owners of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park need to change their attitude towards the local community near to the private Park as the community perceive the Park owners to be distant and they have generally failed to include community members in Park activities and have severe restrictions to park resources. Thus, conflict resolution skills aimed at building partnerships and trust need to be adopted by both the private Parks through the use of NGOs or staff from the local community whereby information can be shared and decisions made through the use of transparency and understanding. There should be days allocated for the local communities surrounding the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park to visit the private Parks without paying entrance fees. Transport should be arranged by both the Park owners. Both the Park owners have the necessary transport available to transport the local communities to the private Park and back. Thus, the locals would not see the private Park as a protected area designated for wealthy visitors only. Additionally, the government should insist that private Parks or all protected areas to rigorously conduct Social Impact Assessments (SIA). The government should provide private Parks and local communities with resources to undertake this process by appointing independent researchers and/ or facilitators. This procedure should include assessing potential changes to community lives as a result of contact with the various stakeholders in the tourism sector.

6.4.4 Marketing of local communities' tourism products and services

Local communities near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park can aid the private Parks either as tour guides or drivers, arts and crafts manufacturers, managers, Park personnel, selling of fruit and vegetables and cooks. Lack of education or illiteracy among the communities near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park can be seen as an impediment for communities to interact with tourists. The rural people near Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park may find it difficult to obtain formal qualifications. Hence, thorough on-the-job training can be substituted. The private Park owner of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park should initiate projects which could be reflected on their brochures and web-sites to encourage visitors

to support local projects. Additionally, tour operators need to educate visitors about responsible tourism, to establish the market for more ethical, indigenous products (Spenceley, 2007b).

Tour operating companies bringing foreign visitors to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park should market local community tourism products and services by means of their web-sites, brochures and tour operators should mention these on their tours as well. Additionally, they can promote visitors supporting community projects and out-reach programmes to assist the local communities near the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. Word of mouth is a powerful medium to encourage visitors not only to compensate financially but also to contribute expertise, assistance and mentoring in the upliftment of the local communities near the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park.

It is important to realise that local communities may resent wealthy visitors. Since, the local communities near to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park stated that they lack the understanding of what it is to be a visitor, if local communities were trained in skills such as learning a foreign language or national language; learning how to prepare food for foreigners as well as catering to different dietary, nutritional and culinary tastes; assisting in indigenous methods of disposing of litter; and maintaining infrastructure and buildings they will benefit from and learn about the importance of tourism. Services such as laundry and maintenance should also be outsourced to locals near the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park.

6.4.5 Promoting Zulu culture

There can be designated evenings when traditional cuisine, dress, dancing, story telling and stick fighting could be used to promote Zulu cultures among the visitors visiting Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. Notices on Zulu cultural events could be placed near the accommodation outlets thus, visitors would be informed of opportunities to better understand the communities near to Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park in respect of their past and their cultural heritage. Traditional Zulu household items could be displayed in accommodation units in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park with information boards explaining how these items could be used. Some of these items must be made available to visitors at the reception area of Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park. In Ezulwini Private and Tala Private Park, the Park

owners should issue a code of conduct to all visitors that should include guidelines on interacting and supporting the local communities near to the private Parks.

From the focus group discussion it is evident that the visitors, tour operators, Park personnel and Park owners have to familiarise themselves with customary ownership practised by the African community. As Cousins (2007) stated, there should be a component of education, learning or appreciation between the ecotourist and the attraction.

6.4.6 Environmental awareness

According to Okech (2004), guided activities are critically important to maximise opportunities to promote environmental education which is a key objective advocated in supporting ecotourism. While self learning is important, many aspects of the natural environment remain poorly or misunderstood. Therefore, guided activities by trained personnel can assist in educating the visitors about a range of issues that they may not consider on their own.

The local communities near to the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park should be encouraged to practise indigenous natural resource management within the private Parks. This can then be explained to the visitors visiting Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park with the use of the locals from the surrounding communities who can be trained to guide these information sessions. Walks can also be used to disseminate environmental information. The trails in both the private Parks can be classified according to difficulty using a colour scheme, for example, hardcore (red), enthusiastic (blue) and novice (green). The Park personnel in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park must monitor the trails to ascertain environmental damage. EIAs can be carried out to establish the nature and extent of the damage and how they can be managed.

Focus could be given to children's activities at Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park whereby a chosen area near the reception area could be converted into an Environmental Education Centre which could include board games relating to nature or those played by local African culture, traditional music instruments, role playing for children dressing-up as a Zulu boy or girl, chess, darts and table tennis. Other ideas include traditional story-telling, drawing competitions whereby the children can draw what they have seen on the trails or what they have

participated in during the day, historical information and colourful maps about Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park can be displayed on the walls. An environmental education officer or a social ecologist from the local community must manage this center and children would only have access at certain times of the day. In Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park the management and Park personnel must design educational activities for children such as talks in conjunction with first-hand experiences. These must not just a “watered down” version of that which is offered to adults.

Hunting could be allowed into the Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park only during hunting season whereby the locals could be involved as wildlife custodians. If the locals benefit economically from hunting to the respective private Parks, a positive attitude towards conservation can be fostered. Proceeds from hunting can be divided into the private Park owners’ fund and the community funds. The community can use the money to establish or upgrade facilities such as clinics, schools, housing, small business ventures, sports facilities, community gardens and events.

6.4.7 Promotion of sport tourism

It is interesting to note that sport tourism has recently become an important reason for holiday trips (Getz, 2003). According to Swart and Bob (2007), sport tourism can play a pivotal role in economic and social regeneration of both urban and rural communities. In order to promote sport tourism at both Parks, management should involve the community by introducing indigenous sports. Additionally, the provision of sport facilities at the Park could link sport and tourism for the local residents (Jackson and Weed, 2003). However, an increase in sport events can create greater consumption of resource such as energy and water, increased emissions of noise and pollution and further side effects, for example, increased traffic volume (Schmied et al., 2007). It is therefore important that the greening of sport events as advocated by Schmied et al. (2007) is included to minimise negative environmental impacts and promote sustainable practices.

6.4.8 Recommendations for further research

With the advent of colonialism and then apartheid, ecotourism and protected areas were seen as a “White domain”. In this study the Park personnel and management were White which reinforces

the White dominance described above. It is important that research focuses on transforming the ecotourism sector while adhering to sustainability principles.

South Africa is fortunate to have pristine beauty of flora and fauna which attracts visitors locally and internationally. Research dealing with issues relating to private Parks was very limited. Thus, further research in this field will be of interest to all stakeholders who interact with private Parks and national Parks. Research is needed that compares the social, economic and environmental aspects between private Parks and national Parks which may assist in examining differences and commonalities of national importance that can inform appropriate policy development and revision. It is imperative for studies to respond to management needs in particular and researchers should ensure their results reach the relevant stakeholders.

It is important that the private sector together with the public sector support research pertaining to nature conservation and ecotourism. The private Parks ought to have an increased allocation of resources for both research and implementation. The various stakeholders that are linked to ecotourism can facilitate the establishment of a strong business sector which can support ecotourism development as well as managing the natural resource base more effectively. In the literature review and among some of the stakeholders (especially the tour operators) accreditation and certification emerged as an important component of setting and monitoring benchmark for sustainable practices and marketing ecotourism products as environmentally-friendly. Research needs to be undertaken to ascertain standards and examine national and international best practices. However, there are many definitions of sustainability and ecotourism and there are disagreements around what is in and what is outside tourism thus it is a difficult industry to regulate (Font, 2002). All stakeholders must be consulted on issues pertaining to accreditation and certification. Accreditation and certification must protect local communities as they were one of the important stakeholders. It should not be imposed but rather introduced gradually. Additionally, standards need to be incorporated in existing tourism and related policies, and new policies developed if necessary.

A major issue that needs to be addressed is in relation to unresolved land issues. Specifically the resolution of land claims in Parks (a concern in Tala Private Park) is critically important and remains a major challenge in South Africa. It is therefore recommended that research be

undertaken in terms of the nature and extent of conflicts between Parks and local communities in South Africa with an aim to develop a conflict resolution and management strategy. Furthermore, research needs to be undertaken that examines land issues in relation to contestation, current and future land use patterns and likely impacts, developmental pressures and opportunities, and environmental quality. Furthermore, the aspect of understanding and addressing conflicts are important from a policy perspective since conflict management strategies are embedded in policies.

More research needs to be done on visitor experiences and expectations. Destination managers and operators should periodically (for example annually) survey their tourist populations and use the information to recognise the level of interest that tourists have in the product and service provision in their particular location (Gross and Brown, 2008). The consumer perceptions of the location can then assist marketing strategies through appropriate targeted promotional programmes (Gross and Brown, 2008).

An important area of further research is to examine policy aspects pertaining to private Parks in South Africa and ecotourism more generally in relation to domestic tourism. The results from this study underscore the importance of domestic tourism. It is imperative that tourism policies, especially those that promote nature-based tourism incorporate the importance of promoting and sustaining domestic tourism. It is clear that a significant proportion of the visitors to the respective Parks are South African. Ghimire (2001) notes that tourism researchers and policy-makers have recently begun to address the research gap in relation to the neglect of domestic tourism and travel. Scheyvens (2002) states that the neglect of domestic tourism is due to the emphasis provided by national governments and policy-makers to the foreign exchange earnings derived from international tourism flows. In addition, domestic tourism is neglected due to the fact that it is difficult to track when compared to international tourism as it occurs within the country of residence and does not involve the crossing of international borders at entry points into a country where visitors are counted (Keyser, 2002). Despite the lack of research, several authors (such as Archer, 1978; Futter and Wood, 1997; Koch and Massyn, 2001; Rule et al., 2004; Saayman et al., 2001) claim that domestic tourism is a better generator of local income than international tourism as it relies more on local sources. Ghimire (2001: 2) states that the

amount of domestic tourists could soon be, “as much as ten times greater than current international tourist arrivals”.

The question of affordability is crucial when considering issues of accessibility and the elitist nature of many ecotourism sites in Africa, especially private Parks. These sites seem to be targeting middle and high income earners. This study therefore supports the concerns about the notion of private Parks being elitist as well as issues concerning access for those visitors who fall within the lower income category. Research needs to be undertaken to examine affordability issues in the South African context and how to create opportunities and interest among lower income groups to visit ecotourism sites.

6.5 Conclusion

Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park need to be more people focused, less centralised in management and search for improved balances between conservation and social, economic and environmental impacts. Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park owners and their management team have to change their mindset that the interests and rights of local and indigenous communities were in conflict with the objectives of their management style. Tour operators visiting Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park need to be culturally sensitive towards local communities and their traditions. Tour operating companies visiting Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park should contribute financially or otherwise to the upliftment of the local communities surrounding the private Parks. It is imperative for the Park personnel and management in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park to create awareness among visitors about issues such as biodiversity, conservation, sustainability, carrying capacity, soil erosion and litter.

Park personnel and management in Ezulwini Private Park and Tala Private Park need to create the real Zulu experience rather than creating staged authenticity. This can only be achieved through building effective relationships with the local community near the respective private Parks. The local communities expressed a desire to be allowed to hunt animals and it should be noted that hunting has a cultural significance to the Zulus. Increased resentment among locals will lead to poaching thus management has to incorporate a system of controlled subsistence hunting as part of the management policy. Local communities should be motivated and assisted

to gain skills in a number of areas such as: community relations, organisation and leadership, business and financial management, public administration, land use planning, poaching control and hunting, and marketing of wildlife related products.

These benefits focus not only on employment but also with issues dealing with access to the private Parks and assisting in skills development. The Park personnel together with the owners of both the private Parks need to motivate the visitors through the means of marketing which will persuade the visitors to commit to assisting other stakeholders especially the local community. The negative responses among mainly community respondents in this study relate primarily to perceptions of being unfairly treated or discriminated against and access being restricted. Given that the majority of the respondents did not interact at all with the Parks, it can be concluded that the two private Parks under study do not have a healthy and positive relationship with neighbouring communities which were typical of the apartheid era and seems to persist today. It is imperative that a community-based approach to private Park management and development is integrated in the South African context. If this does not take place in a meaningful way then these Parks will fail to fulfil the objectives of being ecotourism sites and promoting responsible tourism which entail local community development and participation.

On a positive note, all stakeholders in this study support sound environmental management practices and community development. Ecotourism is well positioned to support nature conservation efforts and initiatives and, as illustrated in this study, has significant economic potential. Ecotourism remains a key strategy for conserving biodiversity and promoting economic growth. However, nature conservation often involves restricting and controlling people's access to natural resources. The challenge is to balance contesting needs and aspirations among various stakeholders to promote social, economic and environmental sustainability.

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APPENDIX 1

SCHOOL OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF EZULWINI AND TALA PRIVATE PARKS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

VISITOR SURVEY

Park: _____ No.: _____

Municipality: _____

1. VISITOR PROFILE

1.1 What is your nationality?

South African	German	British	American	French	
Australian	Dutch	Taiwanese	Canadian	Other ()	

1.2. If you live in South Africa, from which province are you?

1. Gauteng	
2. KwaZulu Natal	
3. Free State	
4. Mpumalanga	
5. Northern Cape	
6. North West Province	
7. Limpopo Province	
8. Western Cape	
9. Eastern Cape	

1.3. Gender

1. Male	
2. Female	

1.4. Age (in years)

1. 18-21	
2. 22-30	
3. 30-40	
4. 41-50	
5. 51-60	
6. >60	

1.5. Marital Status

1. Single	
2. Married	
3. Separated	
4. Divorced	
5. Widowed	

1.6. Education

1. Primary	
2. Secondary	
3. Tertiary	
4. Other (specify)	

1.7. Occupation

1. Unemployed	
2. Student	
3. Professional	
4. Labourer	
5. Artisan/technician	
6. Home Executive	
7. Business person	
8. Retired	
9. Administrator	
10. Politician	
11. Other (specify)	

1.8. Income in rands per month

1. 1000-10,000	
2. 11,000-20,000	
3. 21,000- 30,000	
4. 31,000- 40,000	
5. 41,000- 50,000	
6. 51,000- 60,000	
7. > 60,000	

1.9. How would you describe your group?

1. Alone	
2. Family	
3. Friends	
4. Tour group	
5. Business colleagues	
6. Other (specify)	

1.10. Why did you visit South Africa? (only applicable to foreign visitor)

1. Holiday	
2. Business	
3. Visit family and friends	
4. Other (specify)	

2. GENERAL UNDERSTANDING OF ECOTOURISM

2.1. What environmental studies have you done?

1. None	3. School	5. University
2. Self taught/reading	4. Technical	6. Other ()

2.2. How often do you read environmental, nature or wildlife magazines?

1. Never	2. Sometimes	3. Frequently	4. Always
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2.3. Do you belong to any conservation, environment, or outdoor recreation organisations?

1. Yes	2. No
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2.4. Where would you place yourself on the following scale?

1. Not an environmentalist	2. Slightly environmentalist	3. A strong environmentalist
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2.5. How would you describe your understanding of the following concepts? (Please insert code).
(Scale: 1=none 2=vague 3=general 4=good 5=detailed)

1. Wetlands Ecology		5. Sustainability	
2. Conservation of natural areas		6. World Heritage	
3. Biodiversity			
4. Ecotourism			

2.6. How many times per year do you usually visit natural areas (e.g. national parks, reserves, state forests) on your own or with friends or family?

1. Once	2. 2 to 5 times	3. 6 to 10 times	4. > 10 times
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2.7. Please indicate from a scale of 1-10, whether the following are important aspects in terms of sustainable ecotourism. **1-disagree 10-fully agree**

1. Using resources sustainably	
2. Reducing over-consumption and waste	
3. Maintaining diversity	
4. Integrating tourism into planning	
5. Supporting local economies	
6. Involving local communities	
7. Consulting stakeholders and the public	
8. Training staff	
9. Marketing tourism responsibly	
10. Undertaking research	

2.8. What are your reasons for visiting Ezulwini/Tala? (tick as many as apply)

1. Relaxation	
2. Adventure	
3. Study/research purposes	
4. Experiencing game	
5. To visit natural areas	
6. To visit a World Heritage Site	
7. Business	
8. Other (specify)	

2.9. Which is the most important reason for visiting Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Relaxation	
2. Adventure	
3. Study/research purposes	
4. Experiencing game	
5. To visit natural areas	
6. To visit a World Heritage Site	
7. Business	
8. Other (specify)	

2.10. How did you travel to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Airplane	3. Own Vehicle	5. Packaged Tours
2. Bus	4. Hired Vehicle	6. Other ()

2.11. How often do you travel to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Rarely	2. Frequently	3. Always
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2.12. How did you find out about the Ezulwini/Tala?(tick as many as apply)

1. Television	
2. Travel brochures	
3. Word of mouth	
4. Internet	
5. Printed media	
6. Tour operators	
7. Hotels/motels/lodges	
8. Environmental organizations	
9. Other (specify)	

2.13. How many times have you visited South Africa? (applicable to foreign visitors only)

1. once	
2. twice	
3. thrice	
4. 4 times	
5. Other (specify)	

2.14. Will you visit South Africa again? (applicable to foreign visitors only)

1. Yes	
2. No	

2.15. How many times have you visited Ezulwini/Tala?

1. once	
2. twice	
3. thrice	
4. 4 times	
5. Other (specify)	

2.16. Will you visit Ezulwini/Tala again?

1. Yes	
2. No	

2.17. Have you visited natural parks in other parts of the world?

1. Yes	
2. No	

2.17. 1. If yes, how would you rate Ezulwini/Tala amongst the other parks?

1. Best	
2. 2 nd best	
3. 3 rd best	
4. Least best	
5. Don't know	

2.18 How long will you be staying at Ezulwini/Tala?

1 night	2 nights	3 nights	4 nights	5 nights
6 nights	7 nights	8 nights	9 nights	Other ()

2.19. How would you rate your satisfaction levels in terms of the following activities/services?
(see codes)

1. Availability of lodging	
2. Cost of lodging	
3. Quality of lodging	
4. Availability of information	
5. Availability of local food	
6. Cost of food and drink	
7. Availability of arts and crafts	
8. Cost of arts and crafts	
9. Wildlife viewing	
10. Opportunities to meet locals	
11. Natural scenery	
12. Friendliness of residents	
13. General service	
14. Access to the area	

CODES:

1=excellent	2=very good	3=good
4=satisfactory	5=poor	

2.20. Did you engage in any of the activities INDEPENDENTLY at Ezulwini/Tala? (Tick as many as apply)

1. Nature study	Yes	No
2. Taking photos	Yes	No
3. Meeting locals	Yes	No
4. Boat trips	Yes	No
5. Bird watching	Yes	No
6. Hiking	Yes	No
7. Fishing	Yes	No
8. Purchasing arts and crafts	Yes	No
9. Camping	Yes	No
10. Other (specify)	Yes	No

2.21. Did you engage in any of the following GUIDED activities at Ezulwini/Tala?(tick as many as apply)

1. Nature study	Yes	No
2. Taking photos	Yes	No
3. Meeting locals	Yes	No
4. Boat trips	Yes	No
5. Bird watching	Yes	No
6. Hiking	Yes	No
7. Fishing	Yes	No
8. Purchasing arts and crafts	Yes	No
9. Camping	Yes	No
10. Other (specify)	Yes	No

2.22. If staying at Ezulwini/Tala overnight, what type of accommodation are you using?

1. Day-trippers	3. Family and friends	5. Lodge	7. Caravan
2. Camping	4. Hotel	6. Camp	8. Other ()

2.22.1. If not staying at Ezulwini/Tala Private Park, why?

2.23. Would you recommend friends and relatives to visit Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Yes	
2. No	

2.24. During your visit, did you experience any problem?

1. Yes (if yes please answer question 2.25.)	
2. No	

2.25. Was this problem resolved to your satisfaction?

1. Yes	
2. No	

2.26. Your feelings towards Ezulwini/Tala can best be described as:

1. Very satisfied	
2. Quite satisfied	
3. Satisfied	
4. Not satisfied	
5. Very unsatisfied	

2.27. Tourism is an economic activity and therefore by its very nature means maximum profits.

1. Agree	
2. Strongly agree	
3. Neutral	
4. Disagree	
5. Strongly disagree	

3. SOCIAL IMPACTS

3.1. Have you met any of the local community whilst staying at Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Yes	
2. No	

3.2. Would you be keen to meet and learn about the local people and their cultures?

1. Yes	
2. No	

3.3. With regards to Indigenous Tourism, do you think that:

1. Hosts should set limits on entry to households and sacred sites	
2. Hosts establish preferred or permitted tourist activities	
3. Hosts indicate appropriate times for visitor access and use	
4. Hosts set limits on access to cultural knowledge and rituals	

CODES:

1 Strongly agree 2 Agree 3 Strongly disagree 4 Disagree
--

3.4. Have you as a visitor to Ezulwini/Tala engaged in any of the following activities in the surrounding communities:

1. Met with locals and learnt about their tradition	
2. Participated in activities such as Zulu dancing	
3. Soliciting of local people for sexual favours	
4. Gambling	
5. Drunken behavior	
6. Prejudice	
7. Don't know	
8. Other (specify)	

4. ECONOMIC IMPACTS

4.1. How much money have you allocated for the trip to South Africa? (If foreign visitor)

1. R5,000-R8,000	
2. R9,000-R12,000	
3. R13,000-R16,000	
4. R17,000-R20,000	
5. >R20,000	
6. Other (specify)	

4.2. What amount of the cost was spent on:

1. Transport	
2. Visa	
3. Accommodation	
4. Food and Drinks	
5. Travel in and around host country	
6. Souvenir	
7. Clothing	
8. Tourism levies	
9. Community development	
10. Other (specify)	

4.3. Do you think that the local communities have a role to play in sustainable ecotourism?

1. Yes	
2. No	

4.3.1. If yes, please provide reasons as to how the local communities can play a role in sustainable ecotourism?

4.4. Do you think that the local communities should benefit from tourism to Ezulwini /Tala?

1. Yes	
2. No	

4.5. If yes, please list some benefits that the local communities should receive from tourism to Ezulwini/Tala?

4.6. Have you as a visitor contributed to the development of any of the following projects in the community?

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

5. ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

5.1. Did you experience the following at Ezulwini/Tala? (tick as many as apply)

1. Overcrowding	
2. Over-development	
3. Unregulated recreation	
4. Pollution	
5. Wildlife disturbances	
6. Vehicle use	
7. Other (specify)	

5.2. Which negative environmental impacts have you observed at Ezulwini/Tala?(tick as many as apply)

1. Vegetation damage	
2. Polluted rivers and watering holes	
3. Taunting of animals	
4. Too many visitors	
5. Soil erosion of trails	
6. Litter	
7. Other (specify)	

5.3. Which of the following do you **FEEL** have the **POTENTIAL** to affect Ezulwini/Tala in general and your **EXPERIENCES** as a visitor, even if they have no obvious effect at the **PRESENT TIME**?

	Yes	No
1. Litter around accommodation		
2. Erosion in Park		
3. Health/condition of wildlife		
4. Number of people		
5. Damage to natural vegetation		
6. Smelly or discoloured drinking water		
7. Erosion along walk trails		
8. Other (specify)		

5.4. Please indicate how often you do any of the following things with the aim of taking care of the environment (insert appropriate code for each)

(Scale: 1=Never 2=Seldom 3=sometimes 4=Frequently 5=Always)

1. Save bottles, cans and newspapers for recycling	
2. Buy environmentally friendly or recycled products	
3. Make donations to environmental organizations	
4. Conserve water	
5. Take public transport whenever possible	
6. Engage in minimal impact practices in natural areas	
7. Participate in local environmental group	
8. Write to politicians or attend meetings about env. Issues	

5.5. How do you **PERCEIVE** the following statements regarding Ezulwini/Tala?

(Scale: 1=Not a problem 2=Slight problem 3=Serious problem)

1. Number of human-made structures	
2. Size of groups encountered	
3. Number of people encountered overall	
4. Litter around the Park	
5. Litter around accommodation facilities	
6. Damage to natural vegetation	
7. Erosion along walk trails	
8. Health/condition of wildlife	

5.6. How do you rate the following measures to make your visit more enjoyable? (Please insert appropriate number for each) (1=strongly agree 2=agree 3=neutral 4=disagree 5=strongly disagree)

1. Educate visitors more about conservation	
2. Limit the overall number of tourist	
3. Limit the use of “forest area.”	
4. Limit the length of stay during peak periods	
5. Provide more tourist facilities	
6. Provide more staff	
7. Limit the number of vehicles to the Park	
8. Other (specify)	

5.7. How would you rate the following aspects of your stay? (Please insert appropriate number for each)

(Scale: 1=Poor 2=Fair 3=Good 4=Very good 5=Excellent)

1. General information about the area provided by the lodge	
2. Information about the natural environment provided by your guide/s	
3. Presentation style of guide/s	
4. Friendliness/helpfulness of guide/s	

5.8. Has this visit made you think about changing something that you do at home or when you visit natural areas in the future?

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

5.9. Has this visit had any influence on your views about conservation issues in general or any actions you intend to take in future concerning those issues?

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

5.10. Overall, how would you rate your enjoyment of your visit to the Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Not at all enjoyable	2. Slightly enjoyable	3. Extremely enjoyable
-------------------------	-----------------------	------------------------

6. SUGGESTIONS

6.1. List ways in which the government can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

6.2. List ways in which the management of Ezulwini/Tala can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

6.3. List ways in which you as a visitor can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX 2

SCHOOL OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF EZULWINI AND TALA PRIVATE PARKS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

PARK TOUR OPERATOR SURVEY

Park: _____ No.: _____

Municipality: _____

1. COMPANY PROFILE

1.1 Name of Tour Company (head office) _____

1.2. When was the Company established?

1-5 yrs ago	6-10 yrs ago	11-15 yrs ago	16-20 yrs ago	21-30 yrs ago
-------------	--------------	---------------	---------------	---------------

1.3. How many people own the Company?

1	2	3	4	>4 ()
---	---	---	---	--------

1.4. How many women are owners or co-owners of the Company?

1	2	3	4	>4 ()
---	---	---	---	--------

1.5. Could you please state the race of the owner/s?

Black		White		Indian		Coloured	
-------	--	-------	--	--------	--	----------	--

1.6. How many workers does the Company employ?

1-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	>20 ()
-----	------	-------	-------	---------

1.7. What type of license do you have? _____

1.8. Do you think that Tour Companies should be accredited/certified?

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

1.9. If yes, please elaborate _____

1.10. What are some of your areas of expertise?

1. Strategic planning	
2. Management	
3. Sales	
4. Marketing	
5. Hospitality	
6. Environmental Matters	
7. Community Coordinator	
8. Financial	
9. Other (specify)	

2. PROFILE OF RESPONDENT AND TOUR OPERATOR

2.1. What environmental and tourism studies have you done?

1. None	
2. School	
3. Retired	
4. Technical	
5. University	
6. Other (specify)	

2.2. How would you best describe you Company?

1. Operators that sell nature	
2. Sensitive tour operators wary of impacts and support conservation	
3. Operators who donate a proportion of trip costs to conservation	
4. Those who initiate conservation projects or research	

2.3. Does the Company operate?

1. Internationally?	Yes	No
2. Nationally?	Yes	No
3. Locally?	Yes	No

2.4. What types of package tours do you offer to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Nature	Yes	No
2. Culture	Yes	No
3. Adventure	Yes	No
4. Other (specify)	Yes	No

2.5. How would you describe your clients in terms of age?

1-10	11-20	21-30	31-40	41-50	51-60	61-70	70-80	80-90	>90
------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-----

2.6. How would you describe your clients in terms of gender?

Mostly male	Mostly female	Equal distribution
-------------	---------------	--------------------

2.7. How would you describe your clients in terms of profession and interests?

1. Unemployed	
2. Student	
3. Professional	
4. Labourer	
5. Artisan/technician	
6. Home executive	
7. Business person	
8. Retired	
9. Administrator	
10. Politician	
11. Other (specify)	

2.8. How do you market your business internationally?

1. Television	
2. Travel brochures	
3. Word of mouth	
4. Internet	
5. Printed media	
6. Hotels/motels/lodges	
7. Environmental organizations	
8. Other (specify)	

2.9. How do you market your business nationally?

1. Television	
2. Travel brochures	
3. Word of mouth	
4. Internet	
5. Printed media	
6. Other (specify)	

2.10. For how long have you operated your tours to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. 1- 5 years	
2. 5-10 years	
3. 11-15 years	
4. 16-20 years (specify)	

2.11 Do you require a license or permit to operate your Company to Ezulwini/Tala?

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

2.12. What is the average number of tour trips do you make per month to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. 1-5	
2. 6-10	
3. 11-15	
4. 16-20 (specify)	

2.13. List some of the problems (if any) that is experienced in the tour business?

2.14. Are there some changes that you had to make to your tours to make more business?

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

2.14.1. If yes, please state the reasons for these changes.

2.14.2. How would you classify the success or otherwise to those changes?

1. Not successful	2. Slightly successful	3. Highly successful
-------------------	------------------------	----------------------

2.15. Does your company have a stated code of ethics and conduct for both employees and visitors?

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

3. SOCIAL IMPACTS

3.1. Does your Company do tours to the surrounding communities?

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

3.2. If yes, what are the main attractions/reasons?

1. Social / Cultural	4. Environmental
2. Economical	5. Other (specify)
3. Political	

3.3. How do you describe the level of interaction between your Company and the community?

1. Excellent	
2. Very Good	
3. Good	
4. Poor	
5. Very Poor	
6. Don't know	

3.4. Give reasons for your answer.

3.5. Are there any opportunities offered to the visitors and hosts to meet on equal terms and learn about each other?

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

3.6. If yes, please elaborate.

3.7. Are your tours promoting and encouraging preservation of natural values among local people?

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

3.8. Does the Company earmark a certain percentage of profits for local environmental organisations or other responsible ecotourism projects?

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

3.9. Do you think that tourism to the Ezulwini/Tala has resulted in any or more of the following, with regards to the surrounding communities?

More sex workers in the area	Yes	No
More casinos in the area	Yes	No
Lowering of traditional values	Yes	No
Feeling negative about your culture	Yes	No
Don't know	Yes	No
Other (specify)	Yes	No

4. ECONOMIC IMPACTS

4.1. How much does an average tour cost to Ezulwini/Tala?

4.2. Which months do you run your tours at peak level?

Jan-March	April-June	May-July	Aug-Oct	Nov-Dec	Other (specify)
-----------	------------	----------	---------	---------	-----------------

4.3. Does your Company support local development initiatives?

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

4.4. If yes, please state what type/s of initiatives:

1. Educational	
2. Health	
3. Job creation	
4. Infrastructure	
5. Housing	
6. Other (specify)	

4.5. How many (if any) of the local people are employed by your Company?

1. None	
2. 1-3	
3. 4-6	
4. Other (specify)	

4.6. Which statement do you most agree with? (see codes below)

1. The needs of the visitor should take preference over the needs of the local community for resources and space.	
2. The needs of the local community should take preference over the needs of the visitor.	
3. There should be an equal balance	
4. None of the above	

CODES

1 Strongly agree
2 Agree
3 Strongly disagree
4 Disagree
5 Don't know

4.7. How willing are visitors to donate money to local environmental and social causes?

1. Very willing	
2. Somewhat willing	
3. Not interested or willing	
4. Don't know	

4.8. Do the visitors contribute either money, materials or labour?

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

4.9. **If** yes, how does the Company ensure that money goes directly into the local economy?

4.10. Are there any developments that have taken place over the last 5-10 years in the Tala/Ezulwini?

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

4.10.1. If yes, please state the nature of the developments.

4.10.2. If no, what developments would you like to see?

5. ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

5.1. Do you belong to any conservation, environment or outdoor recreation organisations?

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

5.2. Does your Company have a stated code of ethics and conduct for both the employees and for the visitors?

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

5.3. What is the staff-to-passenger ratio?

1. 1: (1-5)	2. 1: (6-10)	3. 1: (11-15)
4. 1: (16-20)	5. 1: (21-25)	6. 1: (>25)

5.4. Which other Protected Areas in the KwaZulu Natal do you visit besides Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Hluhluwe-Imfolozi Park	
2. Greater St Lucia Wetland Park	
3. uKhahlamba-Drakensberg	
4. Tembe Elephant Park	
5. Pinda Resource reserve	
6. Other (specify)	

5.5. What number of tours/trips per month do you make to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. 0-5	3. 11-15	5. 21-25
2. 6-10	4. 16-20	6. >25

5.6. How many nights, on average, does the group spend in Ezulwini/Tala?

1 night	2 nights	3 nights	4 nights	5 nights
6 nights	7 nights	8 nights	9 nights	Other (specify)

5.7. Do you think that visitor numbers should be limited to Ezulwini/Tala?

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

5.8. Do you intentionally limit tour group sizes?

1. Yes	
2. No	

5.8.1. If yes, could the following be reasons for limiting tour size?

1. To minimise environmental impacts	Yes	No
2. To ensure privacy	Yes	No
3. Ease of handling smaller groups	Yes	No
4. Safety reasons	Yes	No
5. Based on capacity of lodges	Yes	No
6. Allows use of smaller vehicle to access remote areas	Yes	No
7. Smaller sizes equals a more genuine experience	Yes	No
8. Manageable, yet profitable size	Yes	No
9. To minimise cultural concerns	Yes	No
10. Other (specify)	Yes	No

5.8.2. If yes, what is the limit range for tour groups?

1. 1-5 visitors	
2. 6-10 visitors	
3. 11-15 visitors	
4. 16-20 visitors	
5. Other (specify)	

5.8.3. Do you intentionally limit tour group sizes?

1. Yes	
2. No	

5.9. What is the minimum number of people that is necessary for a tour to take place?

1. 0-5	3. 11-15	5. 21-25
2. 6-10	4. 16-20	6. >25

5.10. Do you make use of the following to educate visitors about wildlife, history, and culture of the area?

1. Slide shows	Yes	No
2. Pamphlets	Yes	No
3. Lectures	Yes	No
4. Discussions	Yes	No
5. Interpretation	Yes	No
6. None	Yes	No
7. Other (specify)	Yes	No

5.11. Have you observed any negative environmental impacts at Ezulwini/Tala that may be as a result of ecotourism?

1. Vegetation damage	Yes	No
2. Polluted rivers and watering holes	Yes	No
3. Taunting of animals	Yes	No
4. Noise pollution	Yes	No
5. Soil erosion of trails	Yes	No
6. Litter	Yes	No

5.12. Is the tour adequately staffed to permit attentive leadership and personalised service?

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

5.13. Does the Company stress learning opportunities, knowledge and sensitivity to the environment and local people?

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

5.14. Are there opportunities to study nature in your brochures?

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

5.15. Does your Company offer and enforce guidelines for field behavior for your staff, especially in regard to waste disposal, and for behaviour around sensitive habitat or wildlife?

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

5.16. Please indicate how often you do any of the following things with the aim of taking care of the environment (Please insert the numbers)

(scale: 1=Never 2=Seldom 3=sometimes 4=Frequently 5=Always)

1. Save bottles, cans and newspapers for recycling	
2. Buy environmentally friendly or recycled products	
3. Make donations to environmental organizations	
4. Conserve water	
5. Take public transport whenever possible	
6. Engage in minimal impact practices in natural areas	
7. Participate in local environmental group	
8. Write to politicians or attend meetings about env. Issues	

6. SUGGESTIONS

6.1. List ways in which the government can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

6.2. List ways in which the management of Ezulwini/Tala can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

6.3. List ways in which you as a visitor can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

6.4. List ways in which your tour operating Company can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND THANK YOU FOR YOUR CO-OPERATION

APPENDIX 3

SCHOOL OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF EZULWINI AND TALA PRIVATE PARKS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

COMMUNITY SURVEY

Park: _____

No.: _____

Municipality: _____

1. HOUSEHOLDS PERSONAL DETAILS

1.1. Gender

1. Male	
2. Female	

1.2. Age of Respondent

1. 18-25 yrs	2. 26-35 yrs	3. 36-45 yrs	4. 46-55 yrs	5. 56-65 yrs	6. >65 yrs
--------------	--------------	--------------	--------------	--------------	------------

1.3. Race Classification

1. African	
2. White	
3. Coloured	
4. Indian	
5. Other	

1.4. Nationality

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

1.5. Home Language

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

1.6. Disability

1. Yes	
2. No	

1.7. Education

1. None	
2. Level 1(preschool)	
3. Level 2 (std 6)	
4. Level 3 (std 8)	
5. Level 4 (std 10)	
6. Level 5 (diploma or degree)	
7. Other (specify)	

1.8. Marital status

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

1.9. Occupation

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

2. BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF HOUSEHOLD

2.1. Number of people living in your household?

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

2.2. Main source of monthly income

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

2.3. Does your household own any land?

Yes	1
No	2

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

1. 1-5 years	
2. 6-10 years	
3. 11-15 years	
4. 16-25 years	
5. 26-30 years	

2.5. Have you or your family lived elsewhere previously?

1. Yes	
2. No	

2.5.1. If Yes, why did you move here?

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

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

	Yes	No
Grazing	1	2
Cultivation	1	2

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

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

2.7. Where do you reside?

1. Within the Park	
2. 1-5 km radius from the Park boundary	
3. 6-10 km radius from the Park boundary	
4. 11-15 km radius from the Park boundary	
5. 16-20 km radius from the Park boundary	
6. 21km-30km radius from the Park boundary	

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

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

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

1. 1-5 km radius from the Park boundary	
2. 6-10 km radius from the Park boundary	
3. 11-15 km radius from the Park boundary	
4. 16-20 km radius from the Park boundary	
5. 21km-30km radius from the Park boundary	

2.7.3. If yes, how will you be compensated?

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

2.8. Do you have any land claim to the Ezulwini/Tala Region?

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

2.8.1. If yes, has the claim been settled?

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

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

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

2.9. Are you experiencing any problems because of living next to Ezulwini/ Tala?

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

2.9.1. If yes, could you list these problems?

2.9.2. How can these problems be resolved?

2.10. Type of dwelling

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

2.11. Type of sanitation

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

2.12. Main sources of domestic water

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

2.13. Main sources of energy/fuel for this household

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

3. THE COMMUNITY AND THE ECO-TOURISM PARKS

3.1. Have you heard of ecotourism in Ezulwini/Tala Region?

1. Yes	
2. No	

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

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

4. THE COMMUNITY AND THE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM

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

1. Yes	
2. No	

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

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

4.1.2. Give a reason for your choice of answer.

4.2. Do you require access into Ezulwini/Tala for cultural and social reasons?

1. Yes	
2. No	

4.2.1. If yes, are you given access into Ezulwini/Tala for such activities?

1. Yes	
2. No	

4.3. Has Ezulwini/Tala invested in any of the following projects in the community?

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

4.4. Do you meet the visitors that visit Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Yes	
2. No	

4.5. Do you enjoy visitors coming to Ezulwini/Tala?

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

5. THE COMMUNITY AND THE ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM

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

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

5.2. Who, if anybody, has Ezulwini/Tala approached to develop a partnership with?

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

5.3. Do you or any of the household members work at Ezulwini/ Tala?

1. Yes	
2. No	

5.4. Are any members of the community on the management of Ezulwini/ Tala?

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

5.4.1. If yes, complete the ffg. Table.

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

Codes

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

6. THE COMMUNITY AND THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

6.1. Do you depend on any natural resources from Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Yes	
2. No	

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

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

6.1.2. If yes, are you allowed access into Ezulwini/Tala for such natural resources?

1. Yes	
2. No	

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

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

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

6.2.1. If yes, could you please elaborate?

7. SUGGESTIONS

7.1. What are the advantages of Ezulwini/Tala for the community in relation to tourism?

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

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

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

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

APPENDIX 4

SCHOOL OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF EZULWINI AND TALA PRIVATE PARKS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

PARK PERSONNEL SURVEY

Park: _____

No.: _____

Municipality: _____

1. PARK PERSONNEL PROFILE

1.1. Job Title: _____

1.2. Gender of respondent

1. Male	
2. Female	

1.3. Age of respondent

1. 18-21	
2. 22-30	
3. 30-40	
4. 41-50	
5. 51-60	
6. >60	

1.4. Marital Status of respondent

1. Single	
2. Married	
3. Separated	
4. Divorced	
5. Widowed	

1.5.Education

None	
Level 1 (preschool)	
Level 2 (std 6)	
Level 3 (Std 8)	
Level 4 (std 10)	
Level 5 (diploma or degree)	
Other (specify)	

1.6.Race Classification

African	
White	
Coloured	
Indian	
Other (specify)	

1.7. Nationality

South African	
Nigerian	
Zimbabwean	
Mozambiquan	
Other (specify)	

1.8.Home Language

English	
Zulu	
Xhosa	
Afrikaans	
Other (specify)	

1.9.Disability

Yes	
No	

1.10. Do you live in the surrounding communities?

1. Yes	
2. No	

1.10.1. If yes, please state the name of the area.

1.11. How long have you worked at Ezulwini/Tala?

1. 1- 5 years	
2. 6-10 years	
3. 11-15 years	
4. 16-20 years	

1.12. Income in rands per month for yourself

1. 1000-3000	
2. 3000-5000	
3. 5000-7000	
4 7000-9000	
5. 11000-13000	
6. 13000-15000	
7. >15000	

1.13. How would you describe your understanding of the following concepts? (use the scale below)

1. Biodiversity	
2. Protected areas	
3. World Heritage Principles	
4. Ecotourism	
5. Conservation	
6. Sustainable development	

Scale: 1= none 2=vague 3=general 4=good 5=detailed

1.14. Which of the following statements do you most associate ecotourism with? (see codes below)

1. It entails a type of use that minimises negative impacts to the environment and to the local people.	
2. It increases the awareness and understanding of an area's natural and cultural systems and the subsequent involvement of visitors in issues affecting those systems.	
3. It contributes to the conservation and management of legally protected and other natural areas.	
4. It maximises the early and long-term participation of local people in the decision-making process that determines the kind and amount of tourism that should occur	
5. It directs economic and other benefits to local people that complement rather than overwhelm or replace traditional practices (farming, fishing, social systems, etc.)	
6. It provides special opportunities for local people and natural tourism employees to utilise, visit natural areas, and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see.	

CODES

- | |
|----------------------------|
| 1 Strongly agree |
| 2 Agree |
| 3 Strongly disagree |
| 4 Disagree |
| 5 Don't know |

2. RELATIONSHIP WITH LOCAL COMMUNITIES

2.1. Is there interaction between visitors to Ezulwini/Tala and the local communities?

1. Yes	
2. No	

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

1. Excellent	
2. Very good	
3. Good	
4. Satisfactory	
5. Poor	
6. Very Poor	

2.3. Give reasons for you choice above

2.4. To what extent (if any) are the local communities involved in the activities and decision-making of Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Not involved	
2. Somewhat involved	
3. Highly involved	

2.4.1. Explain the reasons for the above answer.

2.5. What are the attitudes of the local communities towards Ezulwini/Tala owner/management and staff?

1. Excellent	
2. Very good	
3. Good	
4. Satisfactory	
5. Poor	
6. Very Poor	

2.5.1. Give reasons for you choice above

2.6. What are the attitudes of the local communities towards the visitors that visit Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Euphoria (excitement)	
2. Apathy (visitors are taken for granted)	
3. Annoyance (misgivings about tourism)	
4. Antagonism (openly displayed irritations)	

2.7. Do you have a code of conduct for visitors concerning interaction with the local community?

1. Yes	
2. No	

2.8. Do you have a code of conduct for tour companies concerning interaction with the local community?

1. Yes	
2. No	

2.9. What, in your opinion, are the negative types of behaviour (if any) of the community that hinders tourism to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Crime	
2. Their presence in the area	
3. Their hunting of wildlife	
4. Their over-reliance on natural resources	
5. Their unique cultural activities	
6. Other (specify)	

2.10. What, in your opinion, are the types of behaviour of the community that promotes tourism to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Their presence in the area	
2. Their unique culture	
3. Their sustainable use of natural resources	
4. Their willingness to assist tourism development	
5. Other (specify)	

2.11. What projects has Ezulwini/Tala invested in the community?

None	
Clinics	
Schools	
Educational trusts	
Housing	
Small business ventures	
Sports facilities	
Events	
Community gardens	
Other (specify)	

2.12. Do you think that tourism to Ezulwini/Tala has resulted in any or more of the following with regards to the surrounding communities?

More sex workers in the area	Yes	No
More casinos in the area	Yes	No
Lowering of traditional values	Yes	No
Feeling negative about your culture	Yes	No
Other ()	Yes	No

2.13. Is there a relationship between the community and management/staff of Ezulwini/Tala?

Yes	
No	

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

Excellent	
Very good	
Good	
Average	
Bad	
Very bad	

2.13.2. Give a reason for your choice of answer.

3. CONSERVATION ISSUES

3.1. Do you have a code of conduct for visitors concerning Environmental issues?

1. Yes	
2. No	

3.2. Do you have a code of conduct for tour companies concerning Environmental issues?

1. Yes	
2. No	

3.3. Please rank the immediate concerns (if any) of Ezulwini/Tala concerning the environment?

High	Moderate	Low	No concern
1. Depleting wild-life			
2. Diminishing plant and tree life			
3. Soil erosion			
4. Litter			
5. Polluted water spots			
6. Infrastructure development			
7. Too many tourists			
8. Other (specify)			

4. SUGGESTIONS

4.1. List ways in which you think that Ezulwini/Tala can contribute positively towards the economic development of the community.

4.2. List ways in which you think the community can contribute positively towards the economic development of Ezulwini/Tala.

4.3. List ways in which the government can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

4.4. List ways in which a visitor can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.

APPENDIX 5

SCHOOL OF ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCES UNIVERSITY OF KWAZULU-NATAL

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF TALA AND EZULWINI PRIVATE PARKS IN SOUTH AFRICA.

PARK OWNER SURVEY

Park: _____

No.: _____

Municipality: _____

1. OWNER'S PROFILE

1.1. Job Title: _____

1.2. Gender of respondent

1. Male	
2. Female	

1.3. Age of respondent

1. 18-21	
2. 22-30	
3. 30-40	
4. 41-50	
5. 51-60	
6. >60	

1.4. Marital Status of respondent

1. Single	
2. Married	
3. Separated	
4. Divorced	
5. Widowed	

1.5. Education

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

1.6. Race Classification

African	
White	
Coloured	
Indian	
Other (specify)	

1.7. Nationality

South African	
Nigerian	
Zimbabwean	
Mozambiquan	
Other (specify)	

1.8. Home Language

English	
Zulu	
Xhosa	
Afrikaans	
Other (specify)	

1.9. Disability

Yes	
No	

1.10. Do you live in the surrounding communities?

1. Yes	
2. No	

1.10.1. If yes, please state the name of the area.

1.11. What is the main marketing means for Ezulwini/Tala internationally?

1. TV	
2. Radio	
3. Newspaper	
4. Magazine	
5. Word of Mouth	
6. Pamphlets	
7. Internet	
8. Billboards	
9. Other (specify)	

1.12. What is the main marketing means of Ezulwini/Tala nationally?

1. TV	
2. Radio	
3. Newspaper	
4. Magazine	
5. Word of Mouth	
6. Pamphlets	
7. Internet	
8. Billboards	
9. Other (specify)	

1.13. How would you describe the visitors to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Mostly foreigners	
2. Mostly local	
3. Even distribution of foreigners and locals	
4. Don't know	

1.14. How would you describe the racial composition of visitors to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Mostly White	
2. Mostly Black	
3. Even distribution of Black and White	
4. Don't know	

1.15. How would you describe the Gender composition of visitors to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Mostly Male	
2. Mostly Female	
3. Even distribution of Males and Females	
4. Don't know	

1.16. How often do tour operators bring visitors to Ezulwini/Tala per month?

1. <5 trips	
2. 6-10 trips	
3. 11-15 trips	
4. >15 trips	

1.17. What is Ezulwini/Tala's carrying capacity?

1. 0-10 beds	
2. 11-15 beds	
3. 16-20 beds	
4. 21-25 beds	
5. 26-30 beds	
6. 31-35 beds	
7. 36-40 beds	
8. >40 beds	

1.18. What is the average occupancy rate during peak season?

1. 0-10 beds	
2. 11-15 beds	
3. 16-20 beds	
4. 21-25 beds	
5. 26-30 beds	
6. 31-35 beds	
7. 36-40 beds	
8. >40 beds	

1.19. What is the average occupancy rate during off-peak season?

1. 0-10 beds	
2. 11-15 beds	
3. 16-20 beds	
4. 21-25 beds	
5. 26-30 beds	
6. 31-35 beds	
7. 36-40 beds	
8. >40 beds	

1.20. What is the average number of vehicles that enter your premises per day?

1. 1-5	
2. 6-10	
3. 11-15	
4. 16-20	
5. 21-25	
6. Other (specify)	

2. GENERAL UNDERSTANDING OF ECOTOURISM

2.1. How would you describe your understanding of the following concepts? (use the scale below)

1. Biodiversity	
2. Protected areas	
3. World Heritage	
4. Ecotourism	
5. Conservation	
6. Sustainable development	

Scale: 1= none 2=vague 3=general 4=good 5=detailed

2.2. Which of the following statements do you most associate ecotourism with? (see codes below)

1. It entails a type of use that utilises negative impacts to the environment and to the local people.	
2. It increases the awareness and understanding of an area's natural and cultural systems and the subsequent involvement of visitors in issues affecting those systems.	
3. It contributes to the conservation and management of legally protected and other natural areas.	
4. It utilises the early and long-term participation of local people in the decision-making process that determines the kind and amount of tourism that should occur	
5. It directs economic and other benefits to local people that complement rather than overwhelm or replace traditional practices (farming, fishing, social systems, etc.)	
6. It provides special opportunities for local people and natural tourism employees to utilise, visit natural areas, and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see.	

CODES

- 1 Strongly agree**
- 2 Agree**
- 3 Strongly disagree**
- 4 Disagree**
- 5 Don't know**

3. SOCIAL IMPACTS

3.1. Is there interaction between visitors to Ezulwini/Tala and the local communities?

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

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

1. Excellent	
2. Very good	
3. Good	
4. Satisfactory	
5. Poor	
6. Very Poor	

3.1.2. Give reasons for you choice above

3.2. To what extent (if any) are the local communities involved in the activities and decision-making of Ezulwini/ Tala?

1. Not involved	
2. Somewhat involved	
3. Highly involved	
4. Don't know	

3.2.1. Explain the reasons for the above answer.

3.3. What are the attitudes of the local communities towards Ezulwini/Tala's owner/management and staff?

1. Excellent	
2. Very good	
3. Good	
4. Satisfactory	
5. Poor	
6. Very Poor	
7. Don't know	

3.3.1. Give reasons for you choice above

3.4. What are the attitudes of the local communities towards the visitors that visit Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Euphoria (excitement)	
2. Apathy (tourist are taken for granted)	
3. Annoyance (misgivings about tourism)	
4. Antagonism (openly displayed irritations)	
5. Don't know	

3.5. Do you have a code of conduct for visitors concerning interaction with the local community?

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

3.6. Do you have a code of conduct for tour companies concerning interaction with the local community?

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

3.7. What, in your opinion, are the negative types of behaviour (if any) of the community that hinders tourism to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Crime	
2. Their presence in the area	
3. Their hunting of wildlife	
4. Their over-reliance on natural resources	
5. Their unique cultural activities	
6. Other (specify)	

3.8. What, in your opinion, are the types of behaviour of the community that promotes tourism to Ezulwini/Tala?

1. Their presence in the area	Yes	No
2. Their unique culture	Yes	No
3. Their sustainable use of natural resources	Yes	No
4. Their willingness to assist tourism development	Yes	No
5. Other (specify)	Yes	No

3.9. What projects has Ezulwini/Tala invested in the community?

None	
Clinics	
Schools	
Educational trusts	
Housing	
Small business ventures	
Sports facilities	
Events	
Community gardens	
Don't know	
Other (specify)	

3.10. Do you think that tourism to Ezulwini/Tala has resulted in any or more of the following with regards to the surrounding communities?

More sex workers in the area	Yes	No
More casinos in the area	Yes	No
Lowering of traditional values	Yes	No
Feeling negative about your culture	Yes	No
Don't know	Yes	No
Other ()	Yes	No

3.11. Is there a relationship between the community and management/staff of Ezulwini/Tala?

Yes	
No	
Don't know	

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

Excellent	
Very good	
Good	
Average	
Bad	
Very bad	

3.11.2. Give a reason for your choice of answer.

4. ECONOMIC IMPACTS

4.1. How long have you worked at Ezulwini/Tala?

1. < 5 years	
2. 5-10 years	
3. 11-15 years	
4. > 15 years	

4.2. Income in rands per month for yourself

1. 1000-3000	
2. 3000-5000	
3. 5000-7000	
4 7000-9000	
5. 11000-13000	
6. 13000-15000	
7. >15000	

4.3. Who owns the eco-tourism parks?

Government	
Private business	
The Nkosi/Chief	
The community	
Other (specify)	

4.4. How much income do you think is generated by Ezulwini/Tala per month?

0-R1000	
R1000-R10 000	
R10 000- RR50 000	
R50 000- R100 000	
R100 000-R500 000	
>R500 000	

4.5. Who, if anybody, has Ezulwini/Tala approached to develop a partnership with?

Nobody	
The Nkosi/Chief	
Selected members of the community	
Community Based Organization	
The counselor	
Don't know	
Other (specify)	

4.5.1. If yes, could you outline the nature of the partnership?

4.5.2. If a partnership exists, monies are given to:

Community trust fund	
The Nkosi/Chief	
Counselor	
Community based organization	
Don't know	
Other (specify)	

4.6. Are any members of the community on the management of Ezulwini/Tala?

Yes	
No	
Don't know	

4.7. Do you think that the local communities should benefit from tourism to Ezulwini/Tala?

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

4.7.1. If yes, please elaborate.

4.8. Does Ezulwini/Tala charge a tourism levy?

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

4.8.1. If yes, what is/are the monies used for?

1. Community development	Yes	No
2. Park's operating costs	Yes	No
3. Park development	Yes	No
4. Other (specify)	Yes	No
5. Don't know	Yes	No

5. ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

5.1. Do you have a code of conduct for visitors concerning Environmental issues?

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

5.2. Do you have a code of conduct for tour companies concerning Environmental issues?

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

5.3. Please rank the immediate concerns (if any) of Ezulwini/Tala concerning the environment?

High	Moderate	Low	No concern
1. Depleting wild-life			
2. Diminishing plant and tree life			
3. Soil erosion			
4. Litter			
5. Polluted water spots			
6. Infrastructure development			
7. Too many tourists			
8. Other (specify)			

6. SUGGESTIONS

6.1. List ways in which you think the community can contribute positively towards the economic development of Ezulwini/Tala:

6.2. List ways in which the government can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

6.3. List ways in which the management of Ezulwini/Tala can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

6.4. List ways in which a visitor can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

END OF QUESTIONNAIRE AND THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION.