

**THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL
IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF THE ST.
LUCIA AREA AND THE uKHAHLAMBA-DRAKENSBERG
REGION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

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PHILOSOPHY (D.Phil.) DEGREE IN THE DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY
AND ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES, FACULTY OF HUMANITIES,
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2005

DECLARATION

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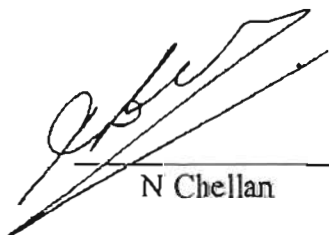
December 2005

Dear Ma'am

I, Noel Chellan, Registration Number 8524942, hereby declare that the thesis entitled:

“The Social, Economic and Environmental Impacts of Ecotourism: Case Studies of the St. Lucia Area and The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region in South Africa”

is the result of my own research and has not been submitted in part or full for any other degree or to any other University.



N Chellan

14/09/06

Date

DEDICATION

TO

**MY DAD
FOR YOUR TIRELESS STRIVING SO THAT I COULD FORGE AHEAD IN THIS
ROUGH AND TOUGH WORLD**

AND

**ALL THOSE THAT HAVE, STILL AND WILL CONTINUE TO MAKE SOUTH
AFRICA AND THE WORLD A BETTER PLACE TO LIVE IN.**

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ABSTRACT

The study focuses on two World Heritage sites in KwaZulu-Natal (uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park). It sets out to critically examine the social, economic and political aspects of natural heritage in the context of sustainability and contestation. How these heritage landscapes are managed, and in particular how decisions regarding its use and identity are taken, is the central issue under investigation. In particular, this research examines the how an understanding of stakeholder perceptions allows current management strategies to be assessed for their effectiveness and relevance to the stakeholders in the regions and the development of new management strategies which are relevant to stakeholder needs. In this regard, a central concern is to identify and evaluate the degree of participation in resource management, conservation and in direct ecotourism activities links to the heritage sites. Stakeholders will vary in their ability to influence decision-makers and they are also unlikely to gain or lose out equally from particular courses of action. These are all issues which need full consideration in approaches to sustainable tourism management. This study focused on the following stakeholders: neighbouring rural communities, tourists, accommodation personnel and tour operators. Questionnaire surveys were administered to each of the stakeholder groups identified above. Furthermore, participatory exercises (venn diagrams, resource mapping and problem ranking exercises) were conducted with focus groups. The study reveals heterogeneity within and between communities under study in relation to socio-economic aspects and perceptions regarding the Parks and levels of participation in activities linked to the Parks. In relation to heritage sites, the questions of ownership, transparency and accountability are particularly important. The study of ecotourism impacts and their management offers many opportunities to reflect on the importance of sustainability. The impacts, as outlined by the findings of the study, provides the opportunity for the implementation of biodiversity strategies linked to the establishment of conservation priorities, mobilising and establishing partnerships, identifying biodiversity threats and benefits, and providing incentives to conserve.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AIDS:	Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
B.C:	Before Christ
BEE:	Black Economic Empowerment
CAMPFIRE:	Communal Area Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CBD:	Convention on Biological Diversity
CBOs:	Community-Based Organisations
CI:	Comfort Indicator
CITES:	Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Fauna and Flora
CSI:	Corporate Social Investment
CSIR:	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research
CVA:	Conservation Volunteers Australia
DBSA:	Development Bank of South Africa
DEAT:	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism
DSTV:	Digital Satellite Television
ELA:	Environmental Impact Assessment
EIU:	Economic Intelligent Unit
EMS:	Environmental Management Systems
ESD:	Ecologically Sustainable Development
FAO:	Food and Agricultural Organisation
G-7:	Group of 7 Countries
GDP:	Gross Domestic Product
GNP:	Gross National Product
GSLWP:	Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park
HIV:	Human Immuno Virus
IDP:	Integrated Development Plan
IMF:	International Monetary Fund
IMP:	Integrated Management Plan
IPS:	Integrated Planning Strategy
ISCST:	International Support Centre for Sustainable Tourism
IUCN:	World Conservation Union
KNP:	Kruger National Park
KZN:	KwaZulu-Natal
LAC:	Limits of Acceptable Change
MDGs:	Millennium Development Goals
MTDP:	Maloti Drakensberg Transfrontier Project
n/d:	No Date
NEMA:	National Environmental Management Act
NGOs:	Non-Governmental Organisations
NZTB:	New Zealand Tourism Board
OBE:	Outcomes-Based Education
OLM:	Okhahlamba Municipality
PAVIM:	Protected Area Visitor Impact Management Resources
RBM:	Richards Bay Minerals

ROS:	Recreation Opportunity Spectrum
SADF:	South African Defence Force
SATOUR:	South African Tourism
SATSA:	South African Tourism Standards Authority
SCADCO:	Provincial Executive Committee of the St Lucia Scientific Advisory Council
SDI:	Spatial Development Initiative
SEA:	Strategic Environmental Assessment
SII:	Soil Impact Index
SOE:	State-of-the Environment
SOP:	State-of-the Park
SPSS:	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TOMM:	Tourism Optimisation Model
TOS:	Tourism Opportunity Spectrum
UKDP:	uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park
USA:	United States of America
USAID:	U.S. Agency for international Development
UNEP:	United Nations Environment and Education Programme
UNESCO:	United Nation Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
VAMP:	Visitor Activity Management Process
VERP:	Visitor Experience Resource Protection
VIM:	Visitor Impact Management
WCS:	World Conservation Strategy
WESSA:	Wildlife and Environmental Society of South Africa
WTO:	World Tourism Organisation
WTTC:	World Travel and Tourism Council
WTWHA:	Wet Topics World Heritage Site Area
WWF:	World Wide Fun

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction: Motivation for the Study

According to Christ et al. (2003), the World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC), and the activities associated with it, is said to generate 11% of the Global Domestic Product. It is an industry that employs 200 million people and transports 700 million people per year to international destinations. This figure is predicted to double by the year 2020. Eighty three percent of countries list tourism as one of the five main exports. For 38% of the countries tourism is the main source of foreign currency. There is an urgent need to minimise the negative impacts of tourism and to maximise its positive contribution to biodiversity conservation and the quality of life of the local communities. However, the Responsible Tourism Guide (2003) asserts that this is not without placing a tremendous burden on local economies, cultures and the natural environments. Many of the world's sensitive biodiversity areas are under increasing pressure from tourism in general and ecotourism in particular. Cowan et al. (2003) indicate that after Indonesia and Brazil, South Africa is said to possess the third highest level of biodiversity in the world. The Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Mr Mohammad Vali Moosa (DEAT, 1996), stated that such biodiversity together with South Africa's landscapes and seascapes is important to every South African. This is especially so in the light of many South Africans being excluded from the rich tapestry of resources that was essential for their livelihoods. The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT, 1996) further states that the South African White Paper on Tourism provides a necessary framework for the establishment of a culture of tourism in South Africa. The South African Government has identified tourism as an industry that may generate income for South Africa.

The South African White Paper on Tourism (DEAT, 1996: 27) states the following principles and policy guidelines as regards 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 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, wetlands, etc.; and
- ensure tourism plans do not deprive communities of access to coastal resources needed for their livelihoods.

According to Lea (1988), one view of conceptualising tourism's place in development is the political economy approach, which states that tourism has evolved in a way which closely matches historical patterns of colonialism and economic dependency. The existence of the industry, according to this approach, is that tourism is firmly governed by the political and economic determinants of world trade. This approach also acknowledges the historical experiences of Third World Countries and the continuing contributions of the tourism industry to the present inequalities. Butler (1986) asserts that the shape of tourism and recreation in South Africa are reflective of the apartheid era. Although the political landscape of tourism has changed, tourism in South Africa exists in relation to the past politics of separation and discrimination. Such an assertion is supported by the White Paper on Tourism (DEAT, 1996) that maintains that under apartheid the majority

of South Africans were excluded from the tourism industry. This was as a result of the policies of the Apartheid government. The tourism industry is labour intensive. Tourism is seen as a major generator of income. In many countries tourism produces 6.1% of the Gross National Product (GNP). In South Africa tourism produces about 2% to 3% of the GNP. Blank (1989) maintains that the tourism experience occurs mostly at the level of the communities. Hence, the tourism industry must be closely managed with the communities that they are located in and in this way, through tourism development, they have the opportunity for a better, balanced, more viable economy, and improved living quality for their citizens. Tourism has also been known to have devastating impacts on the environment. According to Fiona Macleod (2003: 3):

Tour operators and 'jeep jockeys' cashing in on South Africa's increasingly competitive wildlife industry have taken to taunting animals and herding them towards tourist vehicles for a close-up-view-with fatal results. In mid-January tourists were reported to be getting out of their cars to taunt elephants near the electric fence in the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park.

The World Tourism Organisation (WTO) declared in 1988 (Bien, 2003: 4) that:

Sustainable tourism is envisaged as leading to the management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems.

The above discussion outlines some of the issues, concerns and challenges facing the developing ecotourism industry within the South African Context.

1.2. Aim of the Study

The aim of the study is to research the social, economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism by using the case studies of the Greater St. Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. The success of the ecotourism industry in South Africa is dependent on the various inputs of different stakeholders. The rural stakeholders at the two World Heritage Sites comprise communities of Khula Village and Dukuduku Forest at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands

Park and Mnweni and Obanjaneni at the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The different stakeholders in the ecotourism industry have varying vested interests. The social, economic and environmental dynamics are an integral component of the ecotourism arena. It is, therefore, necessary that the different stakeholders are part and parcel of the conceptualisation, planning and implementation of ecotourism projects and programmes at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The specific research objectives of this study are as follows:

To determine the socio-economic profile of the visitors as well as their perceptions, needs, levels of awareness and suggestions regarding ecotourism initiatives.

The significance of this objective is to determine the role tourists 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 understand their culture and to gauge their general attitude towards South Africa.

To identify the positive as well as the negative effects of ecotourism experiences on the visitors to the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

This objective is important so as to strategise for a better service oriented tourism package for tourists based on their evaluation of their experiences in both of the Parks. Suggestions would be made, based on the findings, on ways to minimise or eliminate negative experiences and mechanisms to strengthen positive ones.

To determine the roles of the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park with regards to biodiversity conservation and sustainable tourism development in South Africa.

Policies sometimes do not translate into action and where they do, the impact is minimal. Hence, this objective will serve to expose any discrepancies between policy and practice and also to determine whether the policies and practices have the support of the other stakeholders of the Parks. The findings arising from this objective will help to support both the policies and practices for sustainable tourism development.

To identify and examine the perceptions, needs and concerns of various stakeholders linked to the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

The researcher intends to utilise the findings of this objective with a view towards improving the communication amongst the different stakeholders, where such a situation is warranted. Also, for each group to contribute in a way that will allow the full potential of the Parks to be explored but in a sustainable way which means that the Parks will follow the 'Triple Bottom Line' approach which is economic, environmental as well as social sustainability.

To examine the nature and extent of the involvement of neighbouring rural communities regarding the Parks' activities and decision-making of the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

This objective intends to examine whether the neighbouring rural communities and the Parks as a tourism industry have a mutually dependent relationship with a view to making suggestions as to how the conditions of the neighbouring rural communities can be improved through job creation, partnership ventures, etc.

To assess the attitudes and perceptions of rural communities residing adjacent to the Parks towards tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

Tourists are clients and their welcoming reception to an area is important for the welfare of all those that is supported by the ecotourism Parks. Hence, this objective will serve to

dispel any myths and strengthen relationships between the service providers and their clients.

To identify the limitations that the current socio-economic and political climate (globally, regionally and nationally) has on sustainable tourism initiatives with specific references to the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

Systems are situated within contexts and their functioning may be determined by the constraints that the contexts place on them. Hence, it is hoped that this objective will assist to uncover any constraints that the broader political and socio-economic context may have on the sustainability of the Greater St Lucia Wetland and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Parks.

To forward recommendations and possible alternative strategies aimed at enhancing the Greater St Lucia Wetland and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Parks' existing conditions in relation to sustainable practices.

Based on the research findings, the study intends to suggest ways of maximising the potential of the Parks to expand local economic development through job creation and partnership development whilst minimising any negative impacts that the ecotourism initiatives at the Greater St Lucia Wetland and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Parks may have on the environment and the social fabric of the neighbouring rural communities.

1.4. Scope, Delimitations and Limitations of the Study

The scope of the study is to examine the socio-economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism from the perspectives of the different stakeholders that have a vested interest in the industry. More specifically, the scope of the study entails how the impacts are perceived and managed. The study was delimited to the two World Heritage Sites that are located within the province of KwaZulu-Natal. The sites are the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The stakeholders comprised of rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites, tour operators, tourists, government representative, NGOs and the accommodation personnel and

owners. Limitations of the study included the unwillingness of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park Authority to grant permission to conduct the study within the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, the unwillingness of many tour operators to respond to the questionnaire survey and the volatile situation within Dukuduku Forest which made research work potentially dangerous.

1.5. Chapter Outline

Chapter one of the thesis provides an introduction of tourism in general and ecotourism in particular. The chapter introduces ecotourism as one of the development industries that has the potential to improve the economy of South Africa. The chapter also comprises the aim, objectives as well as the scope and limitations of the study. Chapter two discusses the research that has been conducted by scholars in the field of ecotourism. Chapter two, which is the literature review of ecotourism, comprises the many findings, debates and discussions about the topic and recommendations for a more sustainable form of ecotourism. Chapter two also attempts to locate the ecotourism sector within a global as well as a historical context. Chapter three presents the conceptual framework within which ecotourism is discussed and researched. Particular emphasis is placed on the stakeholder approach to the ecotourism sector. Chapter four locates the ecotourism sector within South Africa and focuses on literature that discusses the historical development of ecotourism as well as challenges and opportunities that the ecotourism sector faces. Chapter five outlines the case study areas that were surveyed and the methodologies utilised during the research process. Chapter six analyses the research findings and the discussion that emanated from the findings. Chapter seven summarises the key findings of the research study, proposes recommendations and presents concluding remarks.

1.6. Conclusion

South Africa's history of racial discrimination has resulted in a skewed development of the economy in so far as the exclusion of the Black majority from the mainstream developmental agenda. Post-1994, many sectors, including the tourism sector has been earmarked as potential sectors for economic as well as social development. Integral for any form of development is the assessment of the status quo. Hence, within the

ecotourism industry, a current assessment is necessary if development is to be premised on the many experiences and perceptions of the stakeholders that have a vested interest in the ecotourism industry. This study will add to the body of knowledge that will inform the development agenda in general and the development of ecotourism, in particular.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

1.1. Introduction

Chapter two reviews the literature on ecotourism. This chapter, therefore, comprises the many findings, the debates and discussions about the topic and recommendations for a more sustainable form of ecotourism. Chapter two also attempts to locate the ecotourism industry within a global as well as a historical context. According to Liu (2003), the huge body of sustainable tourism literature is embedded with many weaknesses. In many instances the aspect of tourism demand especially at the destination level is not given much thought. Discussions about biodiversity sustainability are usually confined to processes of conservation and preservation, without fully understanding the dynamic complexity of biodiversity changes, especially in the face of evolving technological innovations and society's preferences. Okech (2004) states that many authors of ecotourism fail to recognise the unequal and disempowered role that the host community is relegated to within the industry. Also, there is widespread agreement that ecotourism has the potential to have negative impacts on the social and cultural aspects of the host community. Whilst there is this acknowledgement, many writers maintain that host communities should reap the economic benefits whilst, at the same time, they propagate that cultures should be kept intact. Even though organisations as well as academics have explored many and varied ways of constraining the growth of tourism, their suggestions, regulation, policies, etc. were met with limited success. (Liu, 2003: 461) further states:

The means and instruments advocated for achieving sustainable tourism are often fraught with simplistic or naïve views. Many writers and practitioners enthusiastically promote ecotourism, alternative tourism, responsible tourism, soft tourism, low-impact tourism, community tourism, and so on, as the path to sustainable tourism development. But experiences show that none of these forms can be relied on as the way forward for a sustainable and growing tourism industry worldwide.

Li (2004) illustrates that with an increase in tourism in an area, the feelings of community members towards tourism proceeds through four stages from euphoria, through apathy and annoyance to antagonism. Community members within tourism destination are the main recipients of positive or negative impacts of tourism. Community involvement within the tourism sector should be preceded by four conditions: namely, legal rights and opportunities to participate, access to information, provision of enough resources for people or groups to get involved, and genuine public participation, that is, broad instead of selective involvement from the concerned communities. Also, authentic community involvement ensures that the community are empowered economically, psychologically, socially and politically.

2.2. The Global Context

Wearing and Neil (2000) state that worldwide, the political agenda is on an increasing basis being dominated by principles of economics that seem to be directly proportional to the increasing rate of consumption of resources by those in Western countries. The challenges that many countries face are closely linked to globalisation. The process of globalisation is underpinned by economic activities. Rowntree et al. (2003) stress that natural resources have become global commodities. The result is that the natural environment is now threatened. According to Meethan (2001), processes such as industrialisation, urbanisation and capitalism have been major driving forces of social change. Advocates of globalisation maintain that the process of globalisation is a logical and inevitable one and that all nations will invariably benefit from globalisation. Rowntree et al. (2003) further postulates that opponents, however, disagree citing the increasing rate of poverty amongst developing countries. Opponents to globalisation maintain that localised and sustained activities give way to a free-market and an export-oriented economy. The level of prosperity experienced by a country is determined by the level of economic development that it undergoes. This, in turn, may be transformed into social benefits such as health care, education and better job prospects for the people. A country's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and Gross National Product (GNP), access to potable water, quality of air, fuel, and social services were, traditionally, the indicators

used to measure development. Fennel (1999) maintains that the concept of civilisation has and is often been used synonymously with that of development in that those countries that are developed are perceived to be civilised whereas those that are less developed are perceived to be uncivilised. According to Bush (1997), 20% of the world's population (mostly those in the North) use about 80% of the world's resources. If the rest of the World has to develop on such a premise then the issue of environmental sustainability is impossible. Whilst the Rio Summit of 1992 sets out the principles for sustainable development, it has repercussions for the African continent and the South. At the summit, environmental issues were viewed as being of global concern. Environmental goods such as clean air and clean water were viewed as belonging to the global collective. However, a country such as America refused to reduce its rate of Carbon Dioxide emissions.

Rowntree et al. (2003) describe Europe as a continent comprising of thirty seven independent states. Europe has the enviable status of being the birthplace of the Industrial Revolution. Whilst Europe is renowned for inventing the modern economic system, it had to deal with the legacy of two world wars, ten years of global depression, and the Cold War. Europe's Industrial Revolution was characterised by two factors namely, the replacement of human skills and labour; and the exploitation of energy for the functioning of the machinery. The Industrial Revolution had an initial lifespan of more than one hundred years before the process spread to other parts of the World. Europe's industry produced more than 90% of the World's manufactured output before World War 1. However, the negative impacts of two world wars and political turmoil contributed to Europe's poverty, homelessness, high refugee population and the destruction of vast areas of industrial areas. The Industrial Revolution led to masses of people leaving the countryside. According to Bulbeck (2005), the romantic movement of the 19th century declared the countryside, in rebellion against the ugliness of the Industrial Revolution, as sites of spiritual renewal. Also, with industrialisation and urbanisation, human relationships with animals underwent a transition from game animals and stock animals to pets and companion animals.

According to Dieke (2001), Africa comprises five geographical regions with fifty three countries in total. Grove (1990) illustrated that the history of the African continent, before the sixteenth century, was captured through folklore, artefacts, tools, pottery and buildings. The first modern people, *Homo Sapiens*, were discovered to be in Africa one hundred thousand years ago. Aswegen (1990) maintains that during the Stone Age, Prehistoric men and women preferred the grassy plains in the interior whilst evidence does exist to suggest that occupation of the coastal areas did occur. In terms of their nutritional needs, people lived of bulbs, fruit, seals, whales, dolphins, fish and shellfish. The tools utilised to catch animals and fish were spears, arrows as well as snares and tidal pool traps. Grove (1990) further states that Africa comprises 19 million km² of land and is the second largest of the continents. The industrial development of the African Continent is inextricably linked to the availability of resources such as water, energy, and minerals. Les cahiers de l'IFB (n/d) states that the economies of Southern African countries are such that there is a major emphasis or an extreme reliance on the renewable and non-renewable natural resources. Hence, the effective management of such ecosystems and biodiversity is imperative for their development and the fight against poverty. Southall (2003) indicates that in most countries in Africa, the government assumes a major role in the economy because the capitalist markets are less advanced.

Rowntree et al. (2003) maintain that much of European colonisation took place from 1500 until the mid-1900s. The process of colonisation occurred when a country was politically and economically administrated by a foreign country. Around 1488 Bartholomeu Dias, a Portuguese sailor, set foot on what is now known as Mossel Bay. The Europeans first contact with the latest immigrants to South Africa, which were the Khoikhoi took place. The first settlers in Cape Town were the Dutch in the year 1652. The initial occupation was intended to serve as a halfway refreshing station for the Dutch on the way to and from India. About 1820 the British, with the aim of asserting control of the sea route to India, took over control of what is now known as Cape Town. Once in South Africa each colonist was given 40 hectares of land on which to farm. The British were mostly concentrated in the towns whereas the Boers or the Afrikaners mostly resided in the rural areas. Almost the entire of the African continent was carved up by

European powers by 1900. Additionally, Grove (1990) states that in South Africa Africans were allowed to only own land in the reserves which constituted 13% of the country.

Understanding the global context, especially from a historical perspective serves to contextualise the ecotourism industry. Hence, the interconnectedness of the ecotourism sector to other parts of the world and to past events is acknowledged and understood.

2.3. The International Tourism Industry

According to Barrow (1961), the first recorded history of travel seems to have been embarked upon by Pytheus in 325 B.C. Cater (1994) views travel as recuperation, regeneration, compensation, social integration, escape, communication, broadening the mind, freedom, self-determination, self realisation and happiness. Butler et al. (1999) indicate that tourism implies travel away from home and frequently implies a time involvement of at least twenty four hours. Wearing and Neil (2000) illustrate that fifty percent of tourists that holiday do so in developing countries. Drummond and Yoeman (2001) maintains that tourism is often referred to as the world's biggest industry. Bulbeck (2005) emphasises that tourism accounts for 670 million arrivals at international airports. One hundred and twelve million people, more than any other sector, are employed by the tourism industry. Westering (n/d) asserts that tourism in the United Kingdom is a big money spinner. In 1995 sixty-seven million tourists visited historic sites thereby generating more than two-hundred million pounds in revenue. Tourism contributes in a big way to Australia's economic development. It is an industry that is significantly responsible for the generation of employment.

Hall (1994) illustrates that being the biggest export earner, the tourism industry is responsible for 5.6% of Australia's Gross Domestic Product. The positive economic impacts of tourism in Australia, is offset by its social and environmental impacts. New Zealand markets its tourism as 'clean and green' with the environmental theme being the country's major draw-card. New Zealand has witnessed a big increase in tourist numbers to its national, regional and urban parks as well as its public gardens (Hall, 1994). Whilst such a trend is viewed positively from an economic perspective, there is concern about

the negative impacts of ecotourism on existing facilities. Tourism, as a service sector activity, has been identified as an economic activity that would assist in the development of the Pacific Islands. However, owing to the low level of economic development within the Pacific Islands, they are very much dependant on aid from countries such as France, Australia, New Zealand and Japan.

Cater (1994) maintains that for most, if not all, countries their sovereignty is compromised or given up. For most, if not all, countries in the world, especially developing countries, tourism is more of a dictate than an option. The pattern and organisation of international tourism indicates the interconnectedness of businesses in different countries. Munyori (1992) states that with regards to tourism receipts, Europe receives 65% of global arrivals, the Americas receive 18%, East Asia and Oceania receive 10% and Africa receives approximately 5%. Africa's lack of general infrastructure, lack of access to proper transport, lack of tourism facilities, lack of sufficient marketing and promotion and its political instability makes it the continent with the least percentage of tourism receipts. Dieke (2001) maintains that tourism consumption is demand-led with developed countries generating tourists. These countries are France, Germany, the United States, the United Kingdom, etc. The exogenous or extrinsic factors that make such travel possible are disposable income, leisure-time availability, image, etc.

2.4. The Conservation of Biodiversity

Hardy et al. (2002) contend that underpinning sustainable tourism was the vision of conservation. The conservation movement built up momentum in the 1940s and the 1950s. The number of national environmental agencies grew from eight to one hundred and thirteen between 1972 and 1986. However, Watkinson (2002) maintains that the tension between conservation bodies and the tourism industry is ever-present. Hvenegaard et al. (2003) emphasise that it is wrong to believe that ecotourism is the universal remedy for conservation and development. Casagrandi and Rinaldi (2002) assert that economic development and environmental protection are conflicting objectives. Al-Sayed and Al-Jangawi (2003) indicate that it is also widely recognised that

any form of development endangers the natural resource base. Monbiot (2004) supports the view that environmentalism and ecology are positions of conservatism. Whilst the cause for environmental protection is both honourable and justifiable, they are not radical positions. Monbiot (2004) further states that the movement for the protection of the environment (the green movement) began as a response by the landowners to the process of industrialisation and the subsequent rise of the middle class. The process of industrialisation threatened both the natural environment and the economic power of the ruling aristocracy. The tendency for the very wealthy to fund green movements still continues in the United Kingdom. Whilst corporations have plundered the earth's natural resources, industrialisation still seems to be the path for less developed countries to pursue in order to reach full development. Such a paradox has led to theft of natural resources and pollution being major issues of political concern.

2.4.1. Sustainable Development and Ecotourism

Stilwell (2002) asserts that Ecologically Sustainable Development (ESD) has as its underpinning the conservation of biodiversity. Ecologically sustainable development is defined by four essential principles, two of which are biophysical in character and two of which are socioeconomic in character. The biodiversity principle emphasises the moral obligation of *Homo Sapiens* to co-exist with both fauna and flora. The principle of ecological integrity argues for the non-surpassing of environmental damage threshold levels. This principle acknowledges that the survival of the human species will result in a certain degree of environmental damage which can be regenerated. The intergenerational equity principle emphasises the importance of future generations to inherit a natural environment that is intact. The constant natural principle states that the use of natural resources should be regulated. The idea of regulation has political and economic implications since it contrasts with business principles of profit maximisation. Nonetheless, changes to policies can lessen the exploitative impact of personal economic gain on the natural environment.

Hall et al. (1998: 19) state:

The first great fact about conservation is that it stands for development. There has been a fundamental misconception that conservation means nothing but the husbanding of resources for future generations. There could be no more serious mistake. Conservation does not only mean provision for the future, but it means also and first of all the recognition of the right of the present generation to the fullest necessary use of all resources with which this country is so abundantly blessed. Conservation demands the welfare of the country first, and afterward the welfare of the future generations to follow.

According to Mugabe (1998), world bodies such as the Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN) and the United Nations Food and Agriculture Organisation (FAO) have brought attention to the massive loss of biodiversity. Attempts to prevent or mitigate environmental degradation led to the formations of such forums and conventions or conferences as the Convention on Wetlands of International Importance, the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Fauna and Flora (CITES). The Convention of Migratory Species of Wild Animals and the Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD). It was in March of 1980 that the concept of sustainability first got public attention through the publication of the World Conservation Strategy (WCS) as prepared by the Union for Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (IUCN), the United Nations Environment Education Programme (UNEP), the World Wildlife Fund (WWF), the Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations (FAO) and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). The three specific objectives as listed by the World Conservation Strategy (WCS), as cited in Hall et al. (1998:2) are:

- To maintain essential ecological processes and life support systems (such as soil regeneration and protection, the recycling of nutrients, and the cleansing of waters), on which human survival and development depend.

- To preserve genetic diversity (the range of genetic material found in the world's organisms), on which depend the breeding programmes necessary for the protection and improvement of cultivated plants and domesticated animals, as well as much scientific advance, technical innovation, and the security of the many industries that use living resources.
- To ensure the sustainable utilisation of species and ecosystems (notably fish and other wildlife, forest and grazing lands), which support millions of rural communities as well as major industries.

Les cahiers de l'IFB (n/d) argues that the traditional and usual response for the setting aside of protected areas were that species of biodiversity were threatened with extinction. This approach to biodiversity conservation presumed natural balances. Towards the latter part of the nineteenth century, certain sectors of the population began to place emphasis on the spiritual over the material. This was the beginnings of the environmentalist movement. Hardy et al. (2001) indicate that the emphasis of the spiritual over the material gave rise to the establishment of National Parks in Australia and North America. These paradigms and development then witnessed the formation of environmental organisations such as the World Conservation Union in 1948 and the World Wide Fund for Nature in 1960.

Article 2 of the 1992 Rio de Janeiro Convention defines biological diversity as:

the variability among living organisms from all sources including, inter alia, terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes of which they are part; this includes diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems.

Additionally, Les cahiers de l'IFB (n/d) maintains that the first formalised international consensus meeting to conserve natural resources was signed in 1946 and specifically related to the conservation of whales. Since the debate for the protection of natural areas (Convention on Nature Protection and Wild Life Preservation in the Western hemisphere) in 1940, there were a series of subsequent conventions. They include the 1959 Antarctica

Treaty, the 1971 Ramsar Convention on Wetlands of International importance, the 1976 Convention on Conservation of Nature in the South Pacific, the 1976 Geneva Protocol Concerning Mediterranean Specially Protected Areas, and the 1991 International Convention on the Protection of the Alps. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) conducted its seventeenth session from the 17th October to 21st November of 1972 in Paris, France. The General Conference aimed to adopt a set of resolutions for the protection of the World Cultural and Natural Heritage. The General Conference noted:

The cultural heritage and the natural heritage are increasingly threatened with destruction not only by the traditional causes of decay, but also by changing social and economic conditions which aggravate the situation with even more formidable phenomena of damage or destruction.

Two of the Six considerations that were produced at the Conference were:

Protection of this heritage at the national level often remains incomplete because of the scale of the resources which it requires and of the insufficient economic, scientific, and technological resources of the country where the property to be protected is situated,

and

In view of the magnitude and gravity of the new dangers threatening them, it is incumbent on the international community as a whole to participate in the protection of the cultural and natural heritage of outstanding value, by the granting of collective assistance which, although not taking the place of action by the State concerned, will serve as an efficient complement thereto.

Hall et al. (1998) elaborate that the perspective through which nature and wilderness was perceived underwent a few paradigm shifts. Prior to the 17th century the Western view of nature was one of idealism whereby landscapes were thought to be cultivated, wild nature

was under control mechanisms and that wilderness boundaries were apparent. This idealistic view of nature was then followed by Romanticism in the late 17th century and the early 18th century, a view that saw the classification of fauna, flora and races into categories of genera, species and sub-species. However, the concept of nature experienced a paradigm shift from a mechanistic and static one to that of an organic and dynamic one. The paradigm shift seemed to have taken place at the time of the establishment of factories and the commodification of labour. The Romantic view of nature stood opposed to the scientific view and emphasised the spiritual over the material. Synonymous with the Romantic view were concepts and processes such as intuition, instinct and emotion.

Bulbeck (2005) affirms that wilderness areas do not exist anymore in the world. All wilderness areas have been encroached by human beings in one way or another. Those areas that are called natural areas are no longer natural areas since they have been encroached upon and they have to be managed. The rapid and accelerating rape of the wild makes the management of these areas a difficult and burdensome one. Mugabe (1998) argues that the loss of rich biodiversity continues despite the many policies, laws and effort to mitigate environmental degradation. The rate of such loss threatens humanity's future. Okello et al. (n/d) illustrate that in Kenya, the human deaths and injury by wildlife and insecurity have greatly reduced the support by the Maasai people for conservation efforts. New pressures on the Maasai people have caused a paradigm shift in their thinking towards nature conservation with most of them supporting destructive and incompatible land use activities. This paradigm shift has been attributed as a response to the impoverishment of the local inhabitants. The factors that gave rise to such a situation were: their alienation from the lucrative (for some) tourism industry and the removal of their land user rights. Damania and Hatch (2004) state that in Africa the colonial powers believed that the conservation of the environment could only take place if common property was transformed to private property.

The Convention on Biological Diversity (2003) proclaims that the meeting of the Convention on Biological Diversity, in London in 2003, developed a range of mechanisms to ensure that the goal of reducing biodiversity loss by the year 2010 is adhered to. The meeting also recognised the importance of incorporating the 2010 biodiversity target with the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). The eight millennium development goals are: to eradicate poverty and hunger; achieve universal primary education; promote gender equality and empower women; reduce child mortality; improve maternal health; combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases; ensure environmental sustainability and develop a global partnership for development.

According to Anan (2005: 3):

We will have time to reach the Millennium Development Goals – worldwide and in most, or even all, individual countries – but only if we break with business as usual. We cannot win overnight. Success will require sustained action across the entire decade between now and the deadline. It takes time to train the teachers, nurses and engineers; to build the roads, schools and hospitals; to grow the small and large businesses able to create the jobs and income needed. So we must start now. And we must more than double global development assistance over the next few years. Nothing less will help to achieve the Goals.

Hardy et al. (2003) state that the G-7 (United States, Canada, France, Germany, Britain, Italy and Japan) Economic Summit at Paris in 1989 recognised the important connection between development, international debt and the environment. Caalders et al. (1999) illustrate that the Convention on Biological Diversity has described the following values with regards to biodiversity:

- the intrinsic value of all that lives;
- the importance of biodiversity for the quality of life and well-being;
- its contribution to life-supporting systems; and
- being the motor behind ecological processes and its economic significance.

2.5. Ecotourism Development

Fennel (2003) argues that there is uncertainty as regards the historical origins of ecotourism. Natural areas were never attractions before the 18th century. However, the World Trade Organisation (WTO) predicts that by 2018 the demand for national parks and heritage sites will be sought after by another one billion international tourists. Hardy et al. (2002) indicate that in America environmental concern occurred at about the same time as America had reached economic expansion and when people began reacting against a materialistic way of life. According to Liu (2003), the romantic vision of the 19th century emphasised the spiritual aspects of humans and that human beings were an inextricable part of nature. Contrary to popular belief, ecotourism is for the purposes of marketing the industry as opposed to conserving the environment.

Bulbeck (2005) asserts that the formation of national parks movements was in response to the process of industrialisation and of romanticism's rejection of industrialisation. According to Turner (2001), tourism dates back to the ancient Greeks, its accelerated growth was spurred on by the Industrial Revolution in Europe. Butler (2000) maintains that prior to the romantic revolution of literature and art in the nineteenth century, natural destinations such as rich biodiversity and mountains were viewed as a burden instead of tourist attractions. The scenic and much sought after destinations of natural areas were once viewed as dangerous places.

The sustainability concept evolved from the environmental movement of the 1970s. Liu (2003) states that the concepts of sustainability, sustainable tourism and sustainable development have been used interchangeably in literature, and not much thought have been accorded to the differences of the concepts. The term ecotourism is shrouded in controversy and confusion. The often used synonym of alternate tourism that is used to describe ecotourism is to portray it to be alternate to mass tourism. Cater (1994) argues that ecotourism, which is the fastest growing sector within the tourism industry, is equated with nature or ecologically based tourism and the concept is most used as well as abused by the travel and tourism trade. Hardy et al. (2001) indicate that the concept of sustainable development gave rise to sustainable tourism. Tubb (2003) asserts that

ecotourism development was also seen as the solution to natural environmental conservation whilst at the same time ensuring economic development, especially for developing countries.

Hall et al. (1998) detail that the Hot Springs in Arkansas was the first declared national natural reservation area in the United States in 1832. The declaration was in recognition of the spring's physical health value and not due to any scenic or aesthetic value. The tourism potential of many parks was, thus, realised. Hence, tourism was the underlying reason for the establishment of the first national parks and conservation reserves. Parks and nature reserves have oscillated between the ideas of preservation and conservation. The preservation idea emphasises the notion of no human activity whilst the conservation idea propagates the safe and wise use of natural resources. The latter view, therefore, sanctioned activities such as timber harvesting, building of dams and water supplies, selective mining and grazing. Eagles (1997) maintains that travel to experience nature in its wilderness took place in Yellowstone Park, USA in 1872. Royal Park, in Australia, was declared as a national park in 1879 and Banff Park and Niagara Falls, in Canada, were declared as national parks in 1885. The Albert National Park, in the Belgian Congo, was created in 1925 and the Kruger National Park, in South Africa, was created in 1926. Eagles (1997) states further that the Selous Game Reserve, in Tanganyika, was created in 1922. This was followed by the creation of the Ngorongoro Highlands in 1928 and the Serengeti in 1930. The Ngorongoro Highlands and the Serengeti were combined in 1940 to form the Serengeti National Park. Nairobi, Kenya's first national park, was created in 1946.

Fennel (1999: 30) states that Ceballos-Lascurain first coined the term ecotourism and defined it as follows:

Travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring, and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations.

Wallace et al. (1996: 846) defines ecotourism as:

Travel to relatively undisturbed natural areas for study, enjoyment or volunteer assistance. It is travel that concerns itself with the flora, fauna, geology, and ecosystems of an area, as well as the people (caretakers) who live nearby, their needs, their culture, and their relationship to the land. It views natural areas both as 'home to all of us' in a global sense ('eco' meaning home) but 'home to nearby residents' specifically. It is envisaged as a tool for both conservation and sustainable development, especially in areas where people are asked to forgo the consumptive use of resources for others. Such tourism may be said to be true ecotourism when it features six principles.

The six principles of ecotourism as outlined by Wallace et al. (1996: 846) are:

- Entails a type of use that minimises negative impacts to the environment and to local people.
- Increases the awareness and understanding of an area's natural and cultural systems and the subsequent involvement of visitors in issues affecting those systems.
- Contributes to the conservation of and management of legally protected and other natural areas.
- 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.
- Directs economic and other benefits to local people that complement rather than overwhelm or replace traditional practices (farming, fishing, social systems, etc.).
- Provides special opportunities for local people and nature tourism employees to utilise and visit natural areas and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see.

It would, therefore, be safe to state that visitors to wilderness or natural areas that do not subscribe to or adopt the above principles would not be considered as eco-tourists.

According to Liu (2003: 460), the World Tourism Organisation (WTO) defines sustainable tourism development as:

meeting the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future. It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity and life support systems.

Stem et al. (2003) state that the Ecotourism Society defines ecotourism as responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of the local people. Sharpley (2000) argues that the concept 'sustainable tourism development' is still very much a subject for vigorous debate. The strength of ecotourism or sustainable tourism as a means or an end to tourism development is highly questionable and there is a clear lack of consensus as far as its meaning or objectives are concerned. Sharpley (2000) further states that the definition of sustainable tourism or ecotourism, whilst attractive, lacks a clear and concise definition thereby not adding to the discourse on sustainable tourism or its processes. The objectives or principles of sustainable tourism or ecotourism have been falsely perceived to quite easily be transposed onto tourism development contexts or situations. Lele (1991 cited in Sharpley, 2000: 3) believes that the concept of sustainable development may be thought of as an equation whereby its separate constituents would help understand the philosophy of sustainable development:

$$\text{Sustainable development} = \text{development} + \text{sustainability}$$

Hardy et al. (2003), however, emphasise that sustainable development is a smokescreen or cliché behind which resource exploitation is still continuing. Boon et al. (2002) assert that for the last twenty years nature-based or sustainable tourism supported the way for the exploitation of the natural environment under the appearance of environmental awareness.

The above discussion illustrates that there is no consensus on precisely what sustainable ecotourism means. Weaver (1999), however, argues that the three core conditions or criteria for ecotourism are that it is nature-based, culturally-based and entails the educational or study aspects of the resources as opposed to the consumption of the resources for either direct or indirect utilisation. Also, ecotourism should be synonymous with the concept of sustainable development in that the carrying capacities of the site and support for the local communities should be adhered to. Wallace et al. (1996) maintain that ecotourism is different from other forms of tourism owing to its emphasis on ethical values and principles. Tubb (2003) states that sustainable tourism emphasises the quality of visitor experiences, the continuity of tourism, natural resources and cultures and the balance of needs of tourists, operators, host communities and the environment. Reid (n/d) asserts that the concept of ecotourism is also perceived to be used by many tourism businesses notwithstanding the fact that their activities may not be motivated by the beliefs of conservation and preservation. The ecotourism label is believed to hide many sins and the term itself has become jargon.

According to Cater (1994), both sustainable development and ecotourism have been conveniently and opportunistically co-opted by politicians and businesses interests with the sole purposes of conferring an aura of respectability to their activities. Hardy et al. (2002) maintain that the ecotourism term is tourism-centric and so as to prevent a parochial, narrow-centred assumption in the term it is best to speak about sustainable development within the context of tourism. Higham et al. (2002) state that the search for a symbiotic relationship between ecotourism and environmental conservation seems to be a futile one. This is in view of the rapid development, proliferation and the diversification of ecotourism within the globalised World. It now appears that ecotourism may be the leading contender for mass tourism as opposed being an alternative to it (Burton, 1998 as cited in Higham et al., 2002).

According to Wearing and Neil (2000), the four fundamental aspects of ecotourism are that: it involves travel from one geographical location to another; it is nature-based; it is conservation-led; and ecotourism has an educative role. Thomlinson et al. (1996) argue

that ecotourism is, most times, perceived to be an alternative to mass-based tourism. It, sometimes, is used as a marketing tool and is really a disguised form of nature tourism on a mass-scale. Wearing et al. (1996) and Bulbeck (2005) maintain that whilst the concept of ecotourism is difficult to define it does, however, tries to set forth a philosophy, describe an activity and advocate a model for development. Other related concepts that are synonymous with ecotourism are nature tourism, alternative tourism, green tourism and responsible or ethical tourism, appropriate tourism, soft tourism, environment-friendly travel and sustainable tourism. Boon et al. (2002) indicate that the concept of sustainable tourism is meant to set forth a philosophy that would help guide the tourism sector. According to Western (1992), the concepts of nature tourism and wildlife tourism gave rise to ecotourism. The ecotourism label served to recognise and legitimise the nature tourism sector.

Bulbeck (2005) calls attention to the ecotourism concept which dates back to 1965 when Nicholas Hetzer advocated for ecological tourism. It was during the 1970s that the concepts of tourism and heritage became introduced to each other. The concept of heritage is synonymous with traditions, values, historical events, industrial machinery from a bygone era, historic houses, art collections and cultural activities. Drummond and Yeoman (2001) state that the issue of heritage has assumed a contradictory nature in that they are initially meant to be preserved and conserved as well as for people to be educated about biodiversity. On the contrary, heritage sites and entities compete for financial gains. Besides being educative, these entities must also be entertaining and in so doing they begin to lose their initial value. In the South-West Pacific, the concept ecotourism has two different dimensions to it: ecotourism as green or nature-based tourism, which is essentially a form of special interest tourism and refers to a specific market segment and the products generated for that segment and ecotourism as any form of tourism development which is regarded as environmentally friendly. Hall (1994) argues that not many challenge the notion of an economic activity that purports to conserve the environment. Page and Thorn (2002) maintain that the concept of ecotourism has been used for propaganda purposes. Wall (1997) states the concept of ecotourism is an instigator of change. Cynthia et al. (2000) indicate that the World Trade

Organisation (WTO) estimates the annual value of ecotourism to be twenty billion dollars. Ecotourism together with nature-based tourism make up twenty percent of global international travel.

According to Okungu (2001), in Kenya, the ecotourism sector is perceived to be catering mostly for the wealthy that care more for the conservation of the natural environment than local economic development. Where local people are involved in the ecotourism sector, they are mostly small exclusive groups. Another example, as indicated by Higham and Carr (2002), is that of New Zealand where ecotourism has developed at a rapid pace over the past fifteen years. Hall (1994) asserts that very little is known about the supply as well as the demand side of ecotourism. Ecotourism is perceived to be an ideal attraction for foreign exchange and economic development.

2.6. The Politics of Parks

IUCN (1999) maintains that protected areas are areas of land and or sea that are dedicated towards protecting biological diversity through legal and other effective means. Human beings' relationship to the land has an intrinsically spiritual component. A case, in point, is that of the Aborigines who lived in synchronisation with the natural environment before the arrival of Europeans. Stilwell (2002) asserts that the turn of events, in the form of industrialisation and urbanisation, caused the relationship between the Aborigines and the natural environment to be strained.

Bush (1997: 503) states:

In many respects the neo-Malthusian orthodoxy persists whether in academic, national policy making, or international financial institution circles. The poor are blamed for land degradation and too many people chasing too few resources are often identified as the cause of environmental crisis.

Ashley et al. (2003) state that whether ecotourism will succeed depends very much on the landscapes, wildlife, heritage sites and recreational facilities. Wearing and Neil (2000) state that protected areas in Australia are susceptible to increasing pressure from both

within and outside of the country. Wearing and Neil (2000) attribute these shifts to changes in both philosophical and political arenas. The two major contributing factors towards these pressures or strains are the allocation of protected areas for the sole purpose of tourism and the decreasing funding towards protected parks by government. Hall (1994) elaborates that many countries in the west have set aside areas for conservation. These areas have become ecotourism destinations resulting in the natural heritage of the destination area taking precedence over human settlement. In most, if not all cases, humans have been coerced to move from their place of settlement. Hall (1994) further states that some governments are slowly recognising the inextricably interwoven relationship between the cultural aspects and the natural heritage of a National Park. Also, as believed by much of humanity, human beings are an integral, as opposed to an incidental, component of the physical environment. However, this piece of evidence seems to be ignored by many businesses, consultancies, researchers and advocates such as environmental groups. Ecotourism reproduces the idea that natural areas are people-free landscapes. Gray (2003) maintains that this idea is based on western values of conservation and is continuously reproduced by scientists, academics, researchers, environmental organisations and businesses. The entrenchment of this view finally justifies the exclusion of local people from the lands.

According to the International Support Centre for Sustainable Tourism (ISCST: 2003), the four main issues that are to be addressed if the negative impacts of ecotourism are to be reversed are international law, ancestral title, customary laws and protocol. International law dictates that indigenous peoples have two levels of rights which are the collective rights of people known as indigenous rights and the individual rights of people which are human rights. Both these rights entitle indigenous peoples to make submissions on any aspect of tourism development. Ancestral title forms the core of indigenous rights and is inextricably linked to the ancestral land. The land is viewed as sacred and spiritual and is perceived to be handed down by the creator. The protection of land for future generations is seen as sacred. However, the proclamation of land as protected areas is an indictment on such a way of life. Customary laws deals with the attitudes and behaviour of indigenous peoples to ancestral lands. The central theme is to create a balance with the

land, with other human beings and with all other aspects of life. Customary laws encompass traditional knowledge and includes issues of accountability at different levels of existence. Protocol amongst indigenous peoples provides a framework for decision making. These four main issues form the foundation for respect of indigenous peoples' rights and which also includes economic rights as well.

As cited in Nelson and Hossack (2003: 10), the 12th General Assembly of IUCN meeting in Kinshasa, Zaire, in September of 1975 in recognition of:

- The value and importance of traditional ways of life and the skills of the people and the great significance they attach to land ownership; and
- The vulnerability of indigenous people and the great significance they attach to land ownership,

recommended:

- That governments maintain and encourage traditional methods of living and customs which enable communities, both rural and urban, to live in harmony with their environment;
- That educational systems be oriented to emphasise environmental and ecological principles and conservation objectives derived from local cultures and traditions, and that these principles and objectives be given wide publicity;
- That governments devise means by which indigenous people may bring their lands into conservation areas without relinquishing their ownership, use and tenure rights;
- That the governments of countries still inhabited by people belonging to separate indigenous cultures recognise the rights of these people to live on the lands that they have traditionally occupied, and take account of their viewpoints; and
- That in the creation of national parks or reserves indigenous peoples should not normally be displaced from their traditional lands, nor should such reserves anywhere be proclaimed without adequate consultation with the indigenous peoples most directly affected by such proclamation.

Wallace et al. (1996) assert that since designated natural areas, almost always, causes local inhabitants to be forcibly removed from their land, there remains the moral obligation for the local people to have a stake in the ecotourism sector. According to Poffenberger (1994), during the mid 19th century, the creation of large forest areas meant that millions of rural inhabitants had to be displaced. The bargaining power of the poor is greatly enhanced when they have tenure rights over land and natural resources. A case in point is that of the Mahenye community in Zimbabwe that has a significant stake in the ecotourism sector because of the lease agreement for two lodges. Ashley et al. (2000) maintain that where land has been forcibly removed from the local inhabitants the locals were excluded from the ecotourism industry. Such is the case of the Sabang community which forms the gateway to St Paul's National Park in the Philippines. In 1998, in Rowok and Lombok, Indonesia, indigenous people who refused to sell their land, for fear of losing their livelihood and for fear of having their beautiful natural and wilderness areas being tamed and destroyed by big investors for the sake of profit, were attacked by police and the military and had their homes burnt to the ground (Fallon, 2001).

Weaver (1998) states the original network of protected areas in Kenya came into existence through the expropriation of traditional tribal lands. Wildlife tours or safaris were considered the domain of local and foreign white elites. Okello et al. (n/d) illustrate that in the case of the Maasai people of Kenya, the traditional lands were taken away from them to make way for the National Park. The Maasai people were neither compensated nor consulted on this issue. (Hall, 1994) maintains that in many parts of the world the natural environment is of vital importance to the local inhabitants for economic as well as social reasons. Human society and the economy is dependant on the earth's biodiversity. Woodhouse (1997) argues that the creation of the Amboseli National Park in Kenya in the 1950s resulted in a reduction in access of the Maasai people to water and land pastures. With independence, the situation had improved somewhat. However, with large tracts of land being set aside for wildlife tourism, the interests of the ecotourism industry has come into conflict with cultivators.

Cater (1994) states that developing countries are the last havens of unspoilt nature. Natural attractions in developing countries comprise tropical rain forests, savannah grasslands, secluded beaches with coral reefs, spectacular waterfalls and high mountain ranges. Nine case studies have been recorded in Nelson and Hossack (2003) with regard to indigenous people and protected areas in Africa. Nelson and Hossack (2003) illustrate that in 1925 the Albert National Park was first declared a Volcanoes Protected Zone by King Albert 1 of Belgium. Covering land in both Rwanda and the Democratic Republic of Congo, it was then split into the Virunga National Park and the Volcanoes National Park in 1960. The endangered mountain gorillas have resulted in these sites establishing themselves as important ecotourism destinations. South-west of Rwanda is the Nyungwe Natural Forest which is extremely rich in biodiversity. Both these protected areas of Rwanda possess land that overlaps with the traditional land of the Batwa. The establishment of the Parks saw the Batwa people, who were also viewed as the 'Pigmy' people, being excluded from any consultation processes. This created many constraints in their livelihood strategies which included hunting, honey collecting, food and material gathering from the forests. The Rwandan national conservation legislation made it impossible for the Batwa to eke a livelihood from the forests. With pressure from the Rwandan Batwa NGO and international conservation organisations the plight of the Batwa people were beginning to be addressed. Dialogue amongst the different stakeholders agreed to develop alternative sources of income as well as the enabling of the Batwa to have some access to the natural resources within the reserves.

According to *Les cahiers de l'IFB* (n/d), France acknowledges that the goals or objectives as set out in the Convention on Biological Diversity, which was held in Rio 1992, with regards to protected areas can be realised. The world public good status of protected areas renders it logical that supranational assistance be rendered to countries that have set aside these protected areas: (*Les cahiers de l'IFB*, n/d: 30) further states:

If developing countries conserve resources of interest to the world, such as biodiversity, then it is legitimate for this service rendered to the international community to be remunerated, either through official development assistance or in other ways.

Govender (2005) argues that nature conservation areas, in South Africa, were built through the forceful removal of rural communities. Such a move meant that Africans were squeezed into small parcels of lands thereby leading to overcrowding and limited access to agricultural lands. The problems of livelihood strategies were compounded through the denial of hunting and fishing licences to these communities. On the contrary, these parks were mainly for the pleasure of the White elite. Kenya and Munai (1992) state that in Kenya, the Mfangano, Rusingo and Takawiri communities are selling prime land at extremely low prices. These lands are bought by safari businesses that are interested in building luxury camps. Gakahu (1992) maintains that the declaration of conservation areas has often meant that people were evicted from their lands without compensation and with severe restriction to natural resources.

2.7. The Impacts of Ecotourism

Stem et al. (2003) state that ecotourism has been identified as a sector that would contribute to conservation efforts and community development. However, ecotourism may outwit or discourage the conversion of forest to agricultural or pastoral land and the industry may result in negative social, cultural and economic impacts. It is, hence, wise for communities to diversify the local economy without relying too much on ecotourism for their livelihood. Morgan et al. (2000) assert that travel and tourism to far-flung places of the world continues to grow. Such growth results in increased number of visitors to natural areas thereby resulting in increasing pressure on both the natural environment as well as the other visitors to the area. Cater (1994: 21) describes tourists as 'a plague of marauders spreading across the earth' and Krippendorf (1987 cited in Cater, 1994: 22) describes tourists as 'landscape eaters'. Tubb (2003) argues that the nature of national parks could and usually results in land degradation, habitat and species loss, pollution, stress and behaviour modification of wildlife. According to Hardy et al. (2002), tourism disrupts the lifestyles of host communities, provides jobs of a seasonal nature and contributes to environmental impacts.

Rowntree et al. (2003: 15) state:

Global tourism in its different faces brings strangers (some welcome, some not) to far-flung localities, often corrupting and compromising the very uniqueness the tourists sought. Further, very few places and people are isolated from global politics and tensions, from the influences of superpowers and supranational organisations.

According to Butler et al. (1999), with regard to tourism, the market does not protect the environment on which it depends. Businesses that rely on tourism care more about short-term profits and little about social and environmental needs. Meethan (2001) suggests that it is a given that for the tourism industry to thrive then it is necessary that space, culture and people in the form of distinctive localities and ways of life are commodified. Whilst tourism may have positive impacts such as the promotion of certain aspects of inter-cultural communication, the stimulation of the expression of traditional wear, the growth of local entertainment, the promotion and conservation of biodiversity, historical and cultural sites, some of its negative impacts are an over-dependence on foreign tourists thereby resulting in price hikes that are beyond the affordability of local inhabitants, prostitution, indecent dressing, drug taking and an increase in school dropouts.

The increased demand for Kenya's wildlife and rainforests has resulted in the adverse affect on the animal ecology, the degradation of the natural habitat and a decrease in visitor satisfaction levels. Okungu (2001), for example, illustrates that the communities, whose land has been confiscated to expand the protected areas, have become resentful of the turn of events. Further, Awundo and Nthuku (1992) maintain that tourism to Kenya has also resulted in decreased food production owing to the large tracts of land that game reserves take up.

Wearing et al. (1996) illustrate that a survey into the socio-cultural impacts of ecotourism on the Santa Elena community indicated the positive impacts as being sharing and learning of new traditions, educational opportunities, employment opportunities, economic benefits for the community and friendships with the visitors to the area. The

negative impacts comprised an increase in drug and alcohol abuse, economic materialism, changes in traditional culture, negative influences on the youth of the community and a change from a once peaceful community. With regards to the positive impacts, the responses given by the community were: no positive impacts, sharing knowledge between cultures, education about other countries, opportunities to learn about new traditions and cultures, opportunity to learn another language, children can learn English, educational opportunities, students are encouraged to finish school, opportunity to study in other countries, learning from tourists, opportunity to learn from visiting scientists, employment opportunities, work is well paid, chance to go to other countries for jobs, economic benefits, money goes to families, money for development, better transportation, more resources to community, nature conservation, increased awareness of preservation, women's rights and work opportunities, better future for the region, more opportunities for young people, increase in the quality of life, new ideas, visitors give donations, ideas to help in voluntary work, communication with foreign students, more people, tourists tell friends about Costa Rica, increased personal development and rich and educated friends who love Costa Rica.

According to Wearing et al. (1996), the negative impacts given were stated as: drugs, alcohol, Costa Ricans sell drugs to tourists, no space for increased rubbish, too much rubbish, traffic pollution, pollution, increased prices, expensive place to live, travel within Costa Rica for locals is expensive, high prices for tourist services, materialism, money atmosphere-greed, people care more for tourists than Costa Rica, everything costs money-even favours, always charge in dollars, community exploit tourists, conservation taught is materialistic, exploitation of local resources for money, community is losing cultural identity, different traditions and values, too much change too quickly, tourists set a bad example, no interaction with tourists and community, caring nature of community gone, cannot hunt or collect wood in reserve, agriculture has been deserted, community tries to imitate foreigners, youth copy bad habits of tourists, youth must choose between cultures, youth leave family business for hotel work, youth have no goals and they party too much, the peaceful nature of Saint Elena is gone, too many hotels, immigrants and quick population increase, less housing and farming space, lack of security, theft, money

leakages out of community, tourism benefits only business owners, bigger differences between classes, tourism not stable source of income, community prefer easy tourism job, losing sense of community due to competition, community does not think about future generations, prostitution, more/new diseases, disorder due to quick development, problem to find farm workers, Costa Rica belongs to tourists and women take low paying jobs.

Furthermore, Wearing et al. (1996) list the following positive impacts of ecotourism: the creation of employment, the rebirth of local arts, crafts and traditional cultural activities, the revival of social and cultural life of the population, the increase in educational opportunities, the development of friendships and social interaction, the promotion of the needs to conserve areas and the creation of employment for women in areas such as cooking and cleaning. The negative impacts as listed in Wearing et al. (1996) are: high financial leakages, the distortion of local social values and customs by foreigners, the creation of unstable employment as a result of seasonal tourism, the decline of traditional activities such as farming owing to competition with tourism for space, an increase in prostitution and crime, an increase in the cost of living for the local community, a heightened resentment towards visitors as they may be perceived to be receiving preferential treatment and discontentment.

According to Okello et al. (n/d), nowadays tourists are educated about the rights of community members and issues around the environment. Attitudinal surveys reveal that many tourists express a view that local inhabitants of a destination area should benefit from the tourism proceeds. Many believe that they do benefit from wildlife tourism but the reality is that local inhabitants do not. Liu (2003) puts it aptly when he states that if social and economic development means anything at all, it must mean a clear improvement in the conditions of life and livelihood of ordinary people.

Table 2.1: Potential positive and negative impacts of tourism on aspects of livelihoods

	Positive	Negative
Livelihood goals	Tourism can support livelihood goals such as economic security, cultural life, health, example by increasing cash income of workers/entrepreneurs, contributing to cultural restoration and catalysing improvements in hygiene.	Tourism can undermine economic security, self determination and health, example by creating dependency on a volatile industry among workers, creating local inflation, disempowering residents from decision-making and exacerbating spread of disease.
Livelihood activities	Expand economic options, example by creating employment and small business options for the unskilled and semi-skilled, or by complementing other activities, example earnings in agricultural lean season and development of transferable skills.	Conflict with other activities, example constrain fishing, gathering, or agriculture if land and natural resources are taken away, clash with busy agricultural seasons and increase wildlife damage to crops and livestock.
Capital assets	Build up assets (natural, physical, financial, human, and social), example enhanced physical assets, if earnings are invested in productive capital, enhanced natural capital and if sustainability of natural resource management is improved.	Erode assets, example lost access to natural assets if local people are excluded from tourism areas, erode social capital if conflict over tourism undermines social and reciprocal relations and overburdening of physical infrastructure (sewage, water supply).
Policy and institutional environment	Improve the context or resident's ability to influence decisions, example by expanding local markets, focusing policy-makers' attention on marginal areas. Participation in tourism planning and enterprise can give residents new status, information and skills to deal with outsiders.	Exacerbate policy constraints, example diverting policy-makers' attention, resources and infrastructure investment to prioritise tourism over the local activities. Improved transport access and markets can undermine local production.
Long-term livelihood priorities	'Fit' with people's underlying long-term priorities, example to diversify against risk, or build buffers against drought and by developing an additional source of income which continues in drought years.	Create or exacerbate threats to long-term security, example physical threats from more aggressive wild animals due to disturbance by tourists and economic vulnerability can be exacerbated due to dependence on volatile tourism.

Source: Ashley (2000: 10-11)

According to Prosser (1994), ecotourism, just like the extractive industry, is embedded in exploitative processes. The process of exploitation starts with the perception of the natural resources being valuable or attractive. The demand grows and the destination booms. The resources become maximally exploited with the result that the resource or product becomes less competitive, attractive or valuable and the destination declines or finally dies as the resource is exhausted. Cater (1994) maintains that ecotourism, even if it is practised at a small scale, has the potential to have worse impacts than that of conventional tourism. Undeveloped areas that are drawn into the international tourism loop are more vulnerable to disruption and degradation. Caalders et al. (1999) argues that ecotourism is a 'double edged sword' because it is an industry that is revered as well as reviled. Boon et el. (2002) assert that the tourism industry, especially in pristine natural environments the world over, seems to be suffering from its own success. Lindberg (1992) maintains that the task of reducing the cost of ecotourism and increasing the benefits will not be an easy one. Often those that benefit from ecotourism have more power than those who suffer.

Henry (1992: 49) states:

Like a modern Midas, tourism has transformed much of the world's natural beauty into gold. In the process, the tourist industry may have planted the seeds of its own destruction. For the suspicion is growing, ever so slowly, that the more tourism succeeds the more it cannibalises the very basis of its existence: the wilderness, the unspoiled landscapes, the quaint villages, the unique cultures that drew visitors in the first place.

Caalders et al. (1999) state that it is also important to note that the ecotourism destinations are but one link of the ecotourism chain. Other components of the chain comprises flight reservation, pre-flight stay at the airport, drinking and dining, using facilities aboard the plane, and visiting tax-free shops on the way home. The maintenance and disposal of aeroplanes and impacts of all the other activities that make up the ecotourism journey should be taken into account so that a true audit of the impacts would

be gauged. Farrell and Marion (2002) illustrate that the management of visitor impacts is important for the following reasons: impacts may compromise protected area resource protection mandates, many impacts occur rapidly, some impacts are cumulative increasingly degrading resources over time and impacts may lead to other undesirable consequences such as diminished visitation, economic benefits or resource protection incentives. Stone and Wall (2003) state that research results into ecotourism and community development at Hainan, China indicated that benefits to the community are extremely limited, there are very limited funds that are generated for conservation purposes and the educational opportunities for visitors to the Parks were few.

2.7.1. Social Impacts of Ecotourism

According to Marschall (2003), modernisation does not totally obliterate non-modern cultures. What it does is to help preserve non-modern culture in its artificial form. Wearing et al. (1996) argue that theoretically, ecotourism development seems to have very little negative impacts on the host cultures. However, in practice, issues around planning, implementation and management of ecotourism development may give rise to many difficulties. According to Meethan (2001: 143), socio-cultural impacts with respect to tourism refer to “changes in terms of patterns of behaviour and material culture.”

Wearing et al. (1996: 121) define socio-cultural impacts of tourism as:

The ways in which tourism is contributing to changes in the value systems, individual behaviour, family relationships, collective life-styles, safety levels, moral conduct, creative expression, traditional ceremonies and community organisations.

Meethan (2001) noted in his study of tourism and modernity in Swaziland that the elder Swazi people perceived western influences (nightclubs, alcohol consumption and young girls wearing trousers) to be having a negative influence on the younger generation and which ultimately led to conflict between the young women and the traditional male. de Kadt (1979), Fennel (1999), Mathieson and Wall (1982) and Pearce (1989) as cited in Meethan (2001) have consistently observed and found that the commodification of

tourism invariably leads to the loss or the degradation of cultural distinctiveness. Liu (2003) states that tourism has trivialised culture, brought about uniformity, and had adverse effects on traditional ways of life and on the distinctiveness of local cultures. Vesey and Dimanche (2003) state the relationship between sex and tourism has always been the subject of tourism research. Destinations such as Pigalle in Paris, the Hamburg Reeperbahn, Pattayya in Thailand and Cuba are popular sex tourism destinations.

Managers at natural destinations experience problems around management due to large numbers of visitors. Hence, a Comfort Indicator (CI) was devised with the aim of measuring negative experiences by visitors. Morgan et al. (2000) state the Comfort Indicator (CI) as a management tool to monitor visitor overcrowding is but a technical solution. The ultimate decision must be made within the political and social context. Ateljevic et al. (2000) maintain that with the rapid growth of tourism businesses in New Zealand, there was a corresponding loss of control of lifestyle choices of the owners, their families and the surrounding communities. A research study into the evaluation of ecotourism in Amazonas, Brazil used the following indicators to measure the awareness levels and understanding of cultural systems of visitors: percentage of visitors exposed to a local community, visitor perceptions of visit, types of activities engaged in with the community and willingness to support community projects. Seventy nine percent of the respondents rated their visit as very good. Owners of businesses indicated that the local people have no social skills around visitors and are, therefore, employed in less visitor contact jobs. On the contrary, the visitors surveyed indicated that they enjoyed being around the local people. Eighty three percent of the respondents indicated that they would be willing to financially support any community projects. Whilst community members were offered telephones for emergency situations, they were prevented access by some lodges to traditional areas that were used for fishing, hunting, farming and gathering (Wallace et al., 1996).

In a study on the social impacts of tourism on guides, Holloway (1981) found that in many instances guides resort to manipulative and dramaturgical skills to keep the tourists' satisfaction levels at a peak. The presence of a guide amongst a group of tourists

may also lead to tourists adopting a herd mentality whereby the guide's lead causes the tourists to take on a secondary role. Prosser (1994) argues that as ecotourism proceeds to mass tourism, communities are displaced, societies are dislocated and cultures are transformed. Ecotourism's markets are largely in the developed countries. Hence, ecotourism destinations, which are mostly in the south, have to cater for western tastes and needs.

2.7.2. Economic Impacts of Ecotourism

According to Prosser (1994), global ecotourism has been sometimes referred to as economic colonialism with the North exploiting the South for its attractive resources. For many developing countries, the prospects of foreign exchange have been proven to be elusive as much of tourist spending leaks out of the destination region. Still ecotourism is becoming big business. Cater (1994) states that in 1989 the Economic Intelligent Unit (EIU) estimated the world-wide ecotourism market to be valued at ten billion dollars. The Canadian Wildlife Service estimated that 200 billion dollars was spent on ecotourism activities in 1990. Dieke (2003) asserts that the economic benefits of ecotourism occur at the macro or national level and at the micro or sub-national level. At the macro level foreign exchange increases state revenue and at the micro level the benefits are in the form of job creation, revenue or income generation and an equitable regional development.

Butler et al. (1999) illustrate that many governments have reached consensus that tourism can and does generate economic benefits for rural areas. With regards to employment, however, Meethan (2001) noted that employment within the tourism sector is usually of a seasonal and part-time nature and tends to comprise of migrant workers in the informal and unregulated part of the economy. Cater (1994) further states that ecotourism shares the same characteristics as mass tourism in terms of leakages. Much of tourism expenditure is not made at the destination end. Also, the prime motive of tour operators and tour businesses is profit maximisation. Fennel (1999) states that the economic impacts of tourism are almost zero since very little, if any, monies are spent at the

destination areas. A major sum, if not all, of the monies go to hotels or huge resorts. Producers of local goods are not supported.

According to Hjalager (1996: 201):

Increased environmental awareness is a driving force for innovation in the tourist industry. New 'green' products and services are emerging, and being combined with measures such as recycling, energy savings etc. The rationale for the tourist industry is to stay in business and to gain competitive advantage through innovative behaviour.

Ashley et al. (2000) illustrate that the central focus of ecotourism is the environment and its care thereof. However, very little, if no, emphasis is placed on poverty alleviation for the poor. The proceeds to the poor from the tourism industry depend on many factors. These factors include ownership of assets, issues around gender and livelihood strategies, the policy on the environment and, more specifically, the issues around tenure and regulations. Up to now the poor have received very little benefits from the tourism industry but they do, however, bear many of the costs. Access to financial and other capital make it difficult for the poor to participate as equal partners in the tourism sector. Thomlinson et al. (1996) found that guests expressed shock at experiencing the poor living conditions of the local residents of Mando Maya, thereby believing that tourism was not having a positive economic impact on the local residents.

Wallace et al. (1996) discuss a research study into the evaluation of ecotourism in Amazonas, Brazil which used the following indicators to measure the economic impacts of ecotourism: local ownership of ecotourism ventures and affiliated services and employment opportunities for the local people within the ecotourism sector. The study found that none of the lodges were owned or operated by the local people. Forty percent of the workers reported that they were local people. The more highly skilled and better paying jobs were, however, held by outsiders. There was an absence of committees or co-operatives responsible for tourism development. Stern et al. (2003) assert that many other

scholars are sceptical about ecotourism's economic contribution to local economic development-concluding that very little or no ecotourism revenue reaches local people.

Ashley et al. (2000) argue that regulations and laws governing tourism are biased in favour of the formal sector businesses and are not favourable for those that do not have a contact network and who lack capital. Also, within tourism destinations, tourists stay in accommodation that is owned by outsiders and the local elites. The local people are confined to selling their wares at the roadsides and at the entrances and exits of Parks. Also, the maximum gains from tourism for the poor occur within the informal economy. Ashley et al. (2000) further state that with regards to leakages, the Development Bank of South Africa (DBSA: 2000) found that in the case of Gambia and the Caribbean, as much as 75% of tourism expenditure remains outside the destination country. The main reasons for leakages are due to the importation of skilled labour and luxury products, the repatriation of profits by owners, the powerful role of marketing and owing to transport and other services being located within the country of origin.

Ashley et al. (2000) state further that poor people do not belong to a homogenous group and the impacts of tourism on this group vary greatly and are also unevenly distributed. Very few of the poor have access to jobs within the tourism sector. Also, any net benefits accruing for the poor are the smallest. In situations where local elites are absent, the space is filled by migrants who are more skilled and, therefore, exploit the situation before the local poor are able to develop their skills. Migrant workers also work for a lower wage. Within the tourism sector, those that are most sexually exploited are the poorest women, girls and young women. According to Okello et al. (n/d), the Tsavo and Amboseli Parks in Kenya attract large sums of money for government and foreign investors with wildlife-related losses and insecurity accrued by the Maasai community. To earn tourist income the Maasai resort to selling crafts, singing traditional songs and dancing. Goodwin et al. (1997) state that in Zimbabwe many traditional societies sell crafts alongside tourist routes as a form of income generation. In South Africa, indigenous culture has always been part of the touristic attraction (Harkin, 2003).

2.7.3. Environmental Impacts of Ecotourism

According to Okungu (2001), in his address at the Regional Preparatory Meeting for the International Year of Ecotourism, 2001, the Assistant Director of Tourism in Kenya referred to the natural environment as the 'Mother of Tourism' and, hence, Kenya's tourism relies on biodiversity conservation. The success of the tourism industry depends on the utilisation of the natural environment. Hence, the removal or displacement of local inhabitants from rich natural areas for the purposes of development raises ethical questions. Holden (2003) asserts that there is also a growing awareness that tourism can have negative impacts on the natural environment. With regards to ecotourism, biodiversity in its many forms are viewed as commodities for consumption by tourists.

Stem et al. (2003) argue that thinking about ecotourism needs to shift out of the traditional mode of perceiving ecotourism to be non-consumptive of the natural resources. With regards to the African continent, Grove (1990) maintains that the concentration of biodiversity depends on the availability of water in the soil, relief of the ground surface and the chemical and physical composition of the rocks and soils that underlie the ground surface. This pattern of natural evolution has, however, been modified by the processes of cultivation, grazing, cutting down of trees and large population densities. Such processes have usually resulted in the degradation of the natural environment. Butler (2000) illustrates that the relationship between tourism and the environment is a complex one. Environmental impacts of tourism and ecotourism have not been properly researched by academics and students. Hence, any measurement of tourism impacts needs to be conducted over a longer time period than is traditionally done. The more pronounced impacts of tourism such as vegetation compaction or surface erosion, impacts upon wildlife such as changes in populations, vegetation species mix or climax vegetation patterns cannot truly be ascertained over a short period of time. Infrastructure development, which may be related to tourism, in the form of accommodation, irrigation, dams and canalisation are other forms of human activity that impacts on the environment. Butler (2000) further states that research into tourism impacts in private destinations are difficult to conduct because private owners may consider environmental impacts to be negligible in view of profit maximisation.

Environmental impacts may either be deliberate or accidental. Disturbances of birds and animals feeding may cause untold stress and even deaths. Tourists that are responsible for environmental impacts are usually avid supporters of environmental conservation. The many tools that have evolved to minimise tourism impacts on the environment are environmental impact assessments, regulations, zoning, design and layout, and behaviour modification. However, the implementation of these management tools is fraught with difficulties mainly because of the privatised nature of the tourist destinations.

According to Caalders et al. (1999), ecological or environmental impacts of ecotourism can be measured using the following categories: land use and conversion, physical contact, addition of matter, addition of biota, withdrawal of matter, withdrawal of biota and disturbance. Aylward and Lutz (2003) assert that ecotourism has the potential to contribute negatively to the environment through either misuse or improper use and may cause the industry to go through a boom-and-bust cycle. However, with proper management it can contribute positively to both development and conservation. Thomlinson et al. (1996) illustrate using the case study of El Mundo Maya that tours to a visitor complex were halted by a tour company because of environmental pollution. In a study conducted in Lamington National Park in Southeast Queensland, Australia, Beaumont (2001), found that a visit to the Park did not have the desired effect of promoting environmental awareness and responsible behavioural changes in visitors. One possible reason may be that the respondents were already environmentally-conscious. Such a finding challenges the notion of net benefits of ecotourism experiences to tourism destinations. The research finding led Beaumont (2001) to conclude that whilst a more comprehensive experiential programme may instil a conservation ethic in visitors the influx of many people to an ecotourism destination may be encouraged thereby, exposing sensitive environmental areas to be under threat. Reid (n/d) maintains that contrary to popular belief ecotourism is as damaging to the physical environment as other economic activities. Many tourism businesses have a marked negative effect on the physical environment as well as the indigenous people and their way of life.

With regards to minimising negative impacts on the natural environment, Armstrong and Weiler (2002) found that tour operators disseminated very few messages as to how tourists could be responsible. Kenya and Munai (1992) state that in Kenya's ecotourism parks, lodges have been built on sensitive ecological sites so that tourists would be able to have an up-close and personal view of the animals. The irresponsible disposal of solid waste resulted in elephants, baboons, monkeys and birds dying from feeding on bottle-tops and plastic material. Some elephants and baboons had to be shot because of the animals' attraction to waste, that were disposed of close to the lodges. Also, a number of hippos had died as a result of the pollution of the Mara River by detergents that were discharged from the lodges. According to Visser and Koyo (1992), the Kenyan Coast is also under threat from over-use and over-harvesting of resources, pollution, discharge of raw sewerage, oil spills and dumping of waste and raw materials.

Gossling (2000: 410) states:

Tourism has, in recent years, received increasing attention as a low-impact, non-consumptive development option, in particular for developing countries. This positive view contrasts with the fact that major parts of the tourism industry have remained harmful to the environment and that some aspects, like the use of energy and its global consequences have virtually been excluded from the discussion on sustainable tourism development.

Wallace et al. (1996) assert that the negative impacts of ecotourism on the natural environment, is potentially huge owing to the remoteness of rural and natural areas sought after by ecotourists. Slama (2004) discusses that case of Ranthambore National Park in India, which is home to tigers, leopards, bears, antelopes, crocodiles, pythons and a variety of bird species. The number of cars visiting the Park is beyond the Park's carrying capacity. The number of people visiting the Park has increased almost twofold in ten years. The head of the Park has stated that powerful and politically influential hotel owners who have built luxury hotels in eco-sensitive areas are responsible for the pressures on the natural environment. In some Parks in China, Li (2003) noted that bird songs decreased with increased tourist activity development. Liu (2003) argues that ecotourism destination often results in the off the beaten tracks becoming roads and

finally highways and thereby destroying the very limited natural areas that are left in the world. Liu (2003) further states that ecotourism is the primary force that is responsible for the destruction of indigenous homelands and cultures. According to Linderberg (1992), infrastructure development, at ecotourism sites, are responsible for eliminating vegetation, removing compact soils, reducing animal habitats, increasing the likelihood of soil erosion and disturbances of wildlife by visitors.

Wallace et al. (1996) discuss a research study into the evaluation of ecotourism in Amazonas, Brazil, which used the following indicators to measure the impacts of ecotourism on the natural environment and the local people: architectural style building materials, solid waste management, impacts on wildlife, impacts at visitor-use sites, guidelines used, and perceptions of local people about visitors. The study found that the human made buildings were obtrusive. The animals were tamed as opposed to being wild. Land fill sites were used by the lodges for solid waste and basic septic tanks were used for sewerage and grey water. Erosion of trails was evident as were beverage containers and throwaway utensils. Visitors also observed litter on trails. Oil spills due to fuel utilisation were observed at the lodges. Around the mid-1970s with regards to environmental impacts in Kenya, Western (1992) noted that there would be about thirty minibuses around predators in the parks. Such a pattern of ecotourism development cannot be sustainable under such conditions. Stem et al. (2003) argue that the paradox of ecotourism lies in its success. Ecotourism initiatives that are successful invariably attract more tourists to their destination thereby intensifying the negative impacts on the natural environment such as solid waste generation, habitat disturbance and trail erosion.

With regards to World Heritage Sites, Westering (n/d) asserts that increasing numbers of tourists leads to problems in safety, the reduction in the pleasure of the visit, pollution and negative impacts on the monuments and buildings. Higham and Carr (2002) maintain that on site ecotourism behaviour is bound to be determined by the values held by tourists. Higham and Carr (2002) further maintain that educationally designed programmes emphasise environmental awareness with the result that the visitors' values, attitudes and behaviour towards the environment is positive that educating tourists about

the environment and related issues is an exercise in futility. The latter finding is supported by Russel (1994 cited in Higham and Carr, 2002) who states that ecotourists simply contribute to increased waste and habitat destruction. Educational programmes at ecotourism destinations are tantamount to preaching to the converted. However, findings by Higham and Carr (2002) support the view that visitor experiences at ecotourism destinations may be effective in so far as influencing pro-environmental values, attitudes and behaviour.

Hall (1996) asserts that whilst tourism is a smokeless industry it is by no means harmless. Countries such as Australia and New Zealand have recognised and acknowledged the considerable negative impact that tourism can have on the host communities in. In New Zealand, tourists often impact negatively on the natural environment of the Parks. The paradox is that the very reason they visit the Parks is because of its pristine and natural state. Ward et al. (2002) illustrate that the case study of the Fox River Caves near Punakaiki in New Zealand revealed structural damage, vandalism, pollution, mud sedimentation and changes in fauna community composition due to visitor impacts. Boon et al. (2002) state that at Refuge Cove and the Kent network of islands, impacts from sullage (waste water and sewerage) from boats, boat anchors, oil, fuels and cleaning compounds, leaching and boat traffic have contributed to increased biological demand for oxygen and the destabilising of marine and plant communities.

Hall (1994: 140) states:

Ecotourism is big business. It can provide foreign exchange and economic reward for the preservation of the natural systems and wildlife. But ecotourism also threatens to destroy the resources on which it depends. Tour boats dump garbage in the water of Antarctica, shutterbugs harass wildlife in National Parks, and hordes of us trample fragile areas. This frenzied activity threatens the viability of natural systems. At times we seem to be loving nature to death.

According to Deng et al. (2003), visitor usage of trails in protected areas is proportionate to trampling impacts. Yellowstone Village Trail and Gold Whip Stream Trail in Zhangjiajie National Forest Park in China have the highest Soil Impact Index (SII) and the highest rate of scarred trees. There are also spots within the Park that have the highest levels of unacceptability. However, the perceptions of visitors towards environmental degradation may not always coincide with the actual physical deterioration.

Tubb (2003) asserts that whereas activities such as agriculture and extractive industrial activities such as logging and mining have been known to have quite detrimental impacts on the natural environment, tourism has been perceived to contribute in a major way to the conservation of natural areas. It is precisely because of the intrinsic nature of protected areas and national Parks that the negative impacts, on the natural environment by humans are so severe. Tubb (2003) further states that, however, the negative impacts of tourism almost always reach proportions that are equal to that of the extractive industries.

Table 2.2: Development of indicators for the environmental impacts of tourism

Potential environmental impact	Indicator
Vegetation degradation	Area degraded, change in species composition and community structure, percentage cover of introduced weeds, cumulative use of site, soil type, slope, climate, damage and or mortality to icon trees, growth and survival of restoration plantings and inappropriate track construction and placement.
Soil erosion and compaction	Total area affected, percentage bare ground, slope, aspect, soil type, climate and multiple track formation in boggy areas.
Wildlife behaviour (varies within and between species)	Loss of habitat, food supply, change in feeding patterns, breeding success, effect on productivity resulting in disturbance of essential function, severe exertion, displacement, death, habituation and imprinting.
Reduced biodiversity	Species numbers, number of invasive species, predator abundance and diversity and habitat loss or fragmentation.
Impacts on selected species or groups of species	Population levels, general health, resilience to impacts (function of size of impacts and significance to species).
Indirect effects on other species (example: birds, rodents, reptiles, insects)	Changes in species behaviour, productivity and amount of litter.
Negative effects of crowding, structures	Complaints, reduced visitor numbers, spatial or temporal displacement, pressure on non-target areas and visitor behaviour.
Pollution: water, sewage and waste disposal and litter	Level of use, faecal coliforms, giardia, erosion and sedimentation, flow and dilution rates, nutrient enrichment, amount sewerage discharged and waste produced.
Noise from air, road or boat traffic	Complaints, reduced visitor numbers, wildlife disturbance and visitor behaviour.
Damage to natural features	Type of damage, area affected, and alteration to natural character.

Source: Ward et al. (2002: 250)

Table 2.3: Example of information requirement for inclusion in a Decision Support System from pick lists applied to management of tourism impacts on wildlife

	IMPACT	INDICATOR	MANAGEMENT GUIDELINES
GENERIC LEVEL	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Disturbance -Increased anxiety -Failure to breed -Population change through decreased breeding success, nesting success and fledging success -Decrease in numbers at site -Habitat displacement -Behavioural change, anxiety, stress and aggression -Habitat and environs degradation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Change in population dynamics through time from predisturbance, nesting, breeding, fledgling success and mortality rates. -Change in behaviour, spatial, temporal displacement, stress, failure to breed, egg or chick abandonment and physiological changes -Changes in visitor behaviour, compliance with interpretation, litter, nest damage and off track erosion -Erosion, vegetation and pollution 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Monitor indicators and adapt management as necessary -Monitor wildlife ecology, behaviour and habitat -Restrict visitor access, times and behaviour -Provisions of appropriate infrastructure -Active habitat maintenance, restricted access, weed eradication and pest control
SITE SPECIFIC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Disturbance from camera flashes -Species very vulnerable to disturbances during pre-egg and nesting phases 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Change in behaviour 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Modify visitor use such as boardwalks, viewing areas and seasonal restrictions. -Observatory closed during pre-egg and nesting phases

Source: Ward et al. (2002: 253-254)

According to Cater (1994), tourist expectations are inextricably intertwined with the profit-maximising and revenue generating motives of tourism organisations. Environmental degradation that does not meet the expectations of tourists will result in a drop in tourism income generation as has happened in Kenya. Sisman (1994) maintains that environmental degradation will have negative impacts for the host communities in terms of both tourism as well as general development. Cater (1994) further states that the legacy of tourism is one of negative environmental impacts, which is a reflection of historical failure as opposed to an expression of future intent. Unless ecotourism becomes

really sustainable both the natural environment will be degraded and travel to the destination area will cease to exist thereby resulting in the decline of economic development as well. Butler (1991) argues that the low level of development in Third World countries makes it costly to embark upon environmental protection measures. This is especially so since ecotourism essentially exploits the carrying capacity of the natural environment. Also, if the goal is for natural areas to be natural then it is imperative that no tourism development is initiated.

Sober (1998 cited in Visser and Koyo, 1992: 82) speaks about the “Tourist Self-destruct Syndrome”:

A remote and exotic spot offers peaceful rest and relaxation and provides an escape for the rich, who live in isolation from the resident population. Tourism promotion attracts persons of middle income, who come as much for the rest and relaxation as to imitate the rich. More and more hotel accommodation and tourist facilities are built to attract and accommodate more and more tourists. This transforms the original character of the place from an escape paradise to a series of conurbations with several consequences. The local residents become tourism employees and earn more than before. The rich tourists move on elsewhere. The growth in the tourist population makes interaction between tourist and resident population inevitable, leading to a variety of social consequences. Increased tourist accommodation capacity leads to an excess supply over demand and deterioration in product and price. The country resorts to mass tourism, attracting people of a lower standard and social behaviour and economic power. This leads to the social and environmental degradation of the tourist destination. As the place sinks under the weight of social friction and solid waste, tourists exit, leaving behind derelict tourism facilities, littered beaches and countryside, and a resident population that cannot return to its old way of life.

2.8. Sustainable Ecotourism Measures

Mburugu (1992) is of the view that humanity exists as part and parcel of nature. Unless nature and natural resources are conserved so that present as well as future generations can survive, there will be no future. Casagrandi and Rinaldi (2002) state that the short-sightedness and greed of *Homo Sapiens* can make the goal of sustainability unattainable.

Wight (1994) asserts that there must be an acceptance of key principles that underlie ecotourism and that these principles are fundamental for the sustainability of the industry.

These principles are:

- It should not degrade the resource and should be developed in an environmentally sound manner;
- It should provide long-term benefits to the resource, to the local community and industry (benefits may be conservation, scientific, social, cultural and economic);
- It should provide first-hand, participatory and enlightening experiences;
- It should involve education among all parties: local communities, government, non-governmental organisations, industry and tourists (before, during and after the trip);
- It should encourage all-party recognition of the of the intrinsic values of the resource;
- It should involve acceptance of the resource on its own terms, and in recognition of its limits, which involves supply-oriented management;
- It should promote the understanding and involve partnerships between many players, which could include government, non-governmental organisations, scientists and locals (both before and during operations); and
- It should promote moral and ethical responsibilities and behaviour towards the natural and cultural environment by all players.

According to Liu (2003), many case studies attempt to find new and innovative ways to practice sustainable ecotourism. However, these measures provide solutions that are micro in nature but the problem is macro in nature. Also, many tourism stakeholders and academics have proposed tools for the limitation to tourism growth but with very little success. de Burgos-Jimenez et al. (2002) identify ten ways that companies can measure environmental performance. One of the ways is some form of homogenised measure of waste or consumption that would allow a comparison such as the quotient between the quantity of pollution produced and some form of measurement of the company's activity, such as production, sales, profitability or added value (standardised).

Tubb (2003) maintains that the negative impacts of ecotourism on the natural environment can be minimised or mitigated through the process of interpretation. The principle of interpretation serves to encourage the idea that Parks are special places which, therefore, warrants special behaviours on the part of visitors. Tubb (2003) further states that the process of interpretation intends to contribute towards the modification of tourist behaviour towards the natural environment through the use of increased knowledge and awareness of the natural environment. The negative impacts of ecotourism on the natural environment are not linked to the increase in visitor numbers to ecotourist destination but to inappropriate and inadequate policies and practices around issues of growth in the industry. The implementation of appropriate management strategies will lead to sustainable tourism management. Buckley and Pannel (1990 cited in Tubb, 2003: 477) see management implementation as focusing on regulation and surveillance, incentives, protection, and education. Tubb (2003) asserts that interpretation does not lead to an increased knowledge of environmental awareness amongst visitors to the Dartmoor National Park in the United Kingdom. A loss of interest amongst visitors was evident, as they moved along the interpretive aisle.

With regards to overcrowding, Lindernerg (1992) suggests that dispersal strategies for reducing crowding could be through developing other Parks for tourism, dispersing visitors within currently developed parks and dispersing visitors over time at current sites. Hvenegaard (2002) argues that it is also important to be able to segment ecotourists so that ecotourism could be appropriately planned, marketed and managed. Weaver (2002) asserts that the hard-core ecotourist is said to have strong environmental commitment, to organise specialised ecotour trips, to embark on long trips, to travel in small groups, to be physically active, to expect very few services, to emphasise personal experience and to make own travel arrangements. Ecotourists' segmentation differ based on a variety of factors such as socio-demography, travel behaviour and trip characteristics, satisfaction with the tour and their motivations for engaging in an ecotourism experience (Bricker et al., 2005).

Ward et al. (2002) illustrate that the Department of Conservation in New Zealand has the following tools to manage visitor impacts at ecotourism destinations: reduce the use of the site by restricting visitor numbers; modify visitor activities and behaviour mainly through interpretation and education; modify the timing of visitor activities; move the activity, facility or service somewhere else better able to cope and or increase the site resistance by barriers to separate visitors from the target resource. Ward et al. (2002) assert that other tools designed to manage the impacts of ecotourism on the natural environment comprise the Protected Area Visitor Impact Management (PAVIM) framework (Farell and Marion, 2002: 40); Visitor Impact Management (VIM) model; the Recreation Opportunity Spectrum (ROS) (Clark and Stankey, 1979); the Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC) (Stankey et al., 1985; Page and Thom, 2002: 402), and the Tourism Optimisation Model (TOMM) (McArthur, 2000).

Moore et al. (2003) list the Tourism Opportunity Spectrum (TOS) (Butler and Waldbrook, 1991 cited in Ward et al. 2002), Visitor Activity Management Process (VAMP) (Payne and Graham, 1993 cited in Ward et al., 2002) and Visitor Experience Resource Protection (VERP) (Hof and Lime, 1997 cited in Ward et al., 2002) as management frameworks for the reporting of environmental performance for natural area tourism. State-of-the Park (SOP) and state-of-the environment (SOE) are also said to become frequent aspects of natural area management. Moore et al. (2003) further assert that environmental management systems (EMS), which was a management tool used for the mining and manufacturing industry, could be used within the tourism industry

According to Cater (1994), the ecotourism industry is an industry that is highly contested by its many and varied interest groups. The stakeholders within the ecotourism comprise tourists, nature reserves, tourist boards, government, conservationist organisations, tour operators and the host community. All these many and varied stakeholders have different interests. Given the huge number of interests by the different interest groups, the issue of complete sustainability is more likely to remain an ideal than a reality. Owing to many tour companies exploiting the ecotourism label to advance their company, Acott et al. (1998) have suggested that ecotourism should be divided into deep ecotourism and

shallow ecotourism, the former would emphasise the intrinsic nature of value, the importance of community self-determination and participation and a preference for small scale tour operators. The latter's primary focuses would be on utilitarian or extrinsic values. Stem et al. (2003) argue that only the former (deep ecotourism) can ensure long-term sustainability. Scientific research is seen as an important tool in protected area management. This is especially so in the light of increase visitor demand for wilderness areas, increasing number of lawsuits against Parks because of injuries to visitors, contractual issues relating to commercial permits, etc. Buckley (2002) asserts that links with research organisations are, therefore, important in the sustainable development of protected areas. It is essential that the ecotourism industry develop appropriate guidelines for their operations. The basic objectives of ecotourism guidelines as outlined by Gakahu (1992: 29-30) are:

- To increase an awareness and consciousness amongst all stakeholders;
- To prevent negative ecological, cultural and socio-economic impacts, and control and mitigate existing impacts;
- To promote development of local ecotourism activities by facilitating provision of resources;
- To increase income for all stakeholders, reduce leakage to foreign sinks and retain ecotourism income within local communities; and
- To promote sustainable use of cultural and biological use.

Prosser (1994: 31) asserts that the potential for sustainable tourism falls within the ambit of the principles of sustainable development. According to Stem et al. (2003), as far back as 1974, the Galapagos National Park Management Plan decided on a maximum carrying capacity of 12,000 persons per annum. However, this limit was exceeded each year with the result that the 1991 Galapagos National Park Management Plan scrapped the threshold level. Prosser (1994) further states that any ecotourism policy should reflect concern for the environment and provision of an economic resource base for future generations; the concept of sustainability should depend upon the persistence or desirability of a system's productivity under known or possible conditions, and on consumption not exceeding resources. The World Trade Organisation (WTO) (2002)

maintains that sustainable tourism is more likely if there are lesser tourists with higher spending patterns. A fewer number of tourists also means that there are fewer environmental problems.

Table 2.4: A model of sustainable development: principles and objectives

Fundamental principles	<p>Holistic approach: development and environmental issues integrated within a global scale.</p> <p>Futurity: focus on long-term capacity for continuance of the global ecosystems.</p> <p>Equity: development that is fair and equitable and which provides opportunities for access to and use of resources for all members of all societies, both in the present and the future.</p>
Development objectives	<p>Improvement of the quality of life for all people: education, life expectancy, opportunities to fulfil potential.</p> <p>Satisfaction of basic needs: concentration on the nature of what is provided rather than income.</p> <p>Self-reliance: political freedom and local-decision making for local needs.</p>
Sustainability objectives	<p>Sustainable population levels.</p> <p>Minimal depletion of non-renewable natural resources.</p> <p>Sustainable use of renewable resources.</p> <p>Pollution emissions within the assimilative capacity of the environment.</p>
Requirement for sustainable development	<p>Adoption of a new social paradigm relevant to sustainable living.</p> <p>International and national political and economic systems dedicated to equitable development and resource use.</p> <p>Technological solutions that can search continuously for new solutions to environmental problems.</p> <p>Global alliance facilitating integrated development policies at local, national and international levels</p>

Source: Sharpley (2000: 8)

Sharpley (2000) states that the above model on sustainable development may be adapted to the ecotourism industry. Hardy et al. (2002) maintain that in Australia attempts to operationalise the concept of ecotourism were in the form of Best Practise Ecotourism, Developing Tourism Projects in Profile and Being Green is your Business. However, if there are to be real changes to sustainable development than it is imperative that the historical development of sustainable tourism be looked at rather than developing more sustainable development tourism initiatives. Hardy et al. (2002) state further that the

future conceptualisation of sustainable tourism must address the harmonious balance between the environment, the economy and community issues. Still other forms of sustainable ecotourism measures include the training of guides to be models of the natural environment, more research measures and the undertaking of systematic evaluations of guide training (Black et al., 2001: 154; Weiler and Ham, 2002: 52-54).

Boon et al. (2002) illustrate that so as to minimise the negative impacts on the natural environment it is necessary that natural areas be supply-led as opposed to demand-driven if the quest for sustainable nature-based-tourism is to become a reality. Ecotourism researchers and writers are constantly calling for the co-operation between the private sector and the public sector as a precondition for any form of sustainable ecotourism. Whilst, the public sector is concerned about maintaining natural resources, the private sector is threatened about governments' interference in the profit-making venture. Linderberg (1992) argues that so as to cement this relationship, for the sake of sustainable ecotourism, the Ecotourism Society in America, has embarked upon a Green Evaluation programme that would get the private sector to abide by ecotourism principles.

According to Watkinson (2002), stakeholder involvement is punted to be an important factor in sustainable ecotourism. However, the path to involving all stakeholders is not an easy one. In the case study of the Wet Tropics World Heritage Site Area (WTWHA), Australia, the conservation sector and the Aboriginal people's representation on the marketing of the heritage site was rejected on the grounds that they were perceived to not contribute constructively. Watkinson (2002) states further that with stakeholder involvement in the marketing of WTWHA, conservation management can be balanced with the goals of the ecotourism industry and the local community. Davies (2002) illustrates that Conservation Volunteers Australia (CVA) is an organisation that undertakes more than one thousand volunteer programmes every year. CVA has developed stakeholder partnerships with government, protected area managers, conservation agencies, communities, tourism agencies, researchers and private landholders so as to achieve realistic conservation outcomes.

Western (1992) states that the exclusion of the rural communities, as an important stakeholder in Kenya's National Parks, from ecotourism benefits resulted in deep seated resentment of the local people. The ensuing results were an increase in poaching and the attack on tourists. Namwalo (1992) and Western (1994) state that Kenya has some of the world's richest wildlife and marine habitats. Long term planning in ecotourism, therefore, requires both local as well as international support. Gakahu (1992) argues that the involvement of local communities in ecotourism projects serves to avoid developments and decisions that may be in conflict. Such a stakeholder approach ensures better planning so the benefits may be maximised and costs may be minimised. Lusiola (1992) maintains that involving local communities in all aspects of ecotourism development ensures that the industry is developed along sustainable lines. Okech (2004) asserts that the inclusion of local communities in the ecotourism industry is integral for sustainable development. Caalders et al. (1999) state that the involvement of all stakeholders of ecotourism serves to stimulate the efficiency of decision-making processes, improve the quality of the process and also serves to legitimise the process.

The IUCN (1999) illustrates that stakeholders derive many benefits from protected areas. In the public sector, for example, there are electricity providers that depend on protected areas upstream, water companies who have similar needs and health ministries who may need reservoirs of medicinal plants. The commercial sector may engage in profit-generating ventures in protected areas. Non-governmental organisations have a commitment to conservation. Research institutions may be interested in carrying out research in protected areas and local communities depend on natural resources from these areas. According to Caalders et al. (1999), in 1995 the Netherlands Nature Conservation Union decided to increase the admittance fees for foreign tourists so that more monies would be available for Park maintenance. However, pressure from the Tourism Board finally led to the lowering of admission fees. Community ownership of ecotourism projects seems to be a precondition for sustainable ecotourism. Linderberg (1992) asserts that the CAMPFIRE (Communal Area Management Programme for Indigenous Resources) programme in Zimbabwe is a case in point.

The plenary session of the Kenyan Ecotourism Workshop (1992) comprised the following working groups: ecotourism impacts and visitor management, marketing and promotion of ecotourism, community participation in ecotourism and education, and training within the ecotourism industry. The workshop looked at the many and varied problems plaguing the ecotourism sector and came up with different strategies and action plans to address these problems. The Durban Consensus on African Protected Areas for the New Millennium drew up a ten-point agenda for action:

- Building public support;
- Make protected areas a central part of poverty reduction strategies;
- Improve regional and national conservation policies;
- Increase the importance of protected areas in national and regional development planning;
- Strengthen technical capacity and financial support for the management of protected areas at national level;
- Improve management of existing protected areas;
- Improve representation and coverage of biodiversity in protected areas;
- Target threatened species and their habitats;
- Promote landscape approaches to protected area establishment and management; and
- Foster international recognition for African protected areas.

(The IUCN World Parks Congress, 2003)

According to Fuller et al. (2004), research conducted on the Aborigines potential to make inroads into the ecotourism sector resulted in the following recommendations:

- establish commercial arrangements with carefully selected non-indigenous joint-venture partners;
- seek technical assistance in the planning, development and marketing of ecotourism experiences on indigenous land with an emphasis on attracting visitors from overseas;
- prepare a marketing plan for the proposed new ecotourism enterprise;
- set sales targets which will achieve an agreed return on investment;

- achieve sales targets within three years; and
- provide full and part-time employment opportunities for at least five people from the local community during the first year of operation and ensure a sustainable balance between economic use and protection of indigenous land.

Chapman (2003) illustrates that with regard to sustaining the values associated with free-range fauna, it was proposed that an international civil service; fee structures with higher charges for foreign visitors; local scholarships for primary, high school, and college education; financial support for governments with international park status; and promotional support for ecotourism for international parks be instituted. Jones (2005) maintains that a high level of social capital and a commitment to collective action leads to sustainable development. In the case study of an ecotourism camp at Tumani Tenda in Gambia, every effort is being made to minimise environmental impacts of the camp. Fuelwood is taken from the forest, which is being replanted and has an area for fast growing species to be used solely for the provision of building materials and fuelwood. Bottles are recycled and energy saving light bulbs are used.

Fennel (2003) indicates that not-for-profit organisations and NGOs involved in the ecotourism sector generally have as their central focus the issues of environmental conservation. The operations costs of running not-for-profit organisations are recognised and any monies generated are put back into programmes dealing with environmental issues. This is not so with profit-driven ecotourism businesses. Fennel (2003), however, states that not-for-profit organisations seem to be making loads of money from ecotourism opportunities and they have a firm stake in the ecotourism industry. Norman Myers as cited in Child (2004: 233) states that global diversity is everyone's heritage and nobody's business.

Casagrandi and Rinaldi (2002) assert that it is difficult, if not impossible to find policies that guarantee sustainable ecotourism. Also, there is no major contention on the different definitions of ecotourism. The contentions lie in its implementation. There is no consensus on what should be sustained. Weaver (2005) argues that there is extreme

difficulty in selecting what indicators, weighting, benchmarks or threshold should be used to assess sustainability. Barton (2000: 235) asks: 'If we cannot all go to the country, can the country come to the city?' Such a question begs the response as to whether the factors that make the countryside so attractive could be applied to city life.

2.9. Ecotourism and Rural Development

Wearing and McDonald (2002) indicate that ecotourism enforces or reinforces the cash economy into rural communities which were primarily reliant on a subsistence economy. Butler et al. (1999) illustrate that global economic, political, social and technological changes have resulted in Western countries instituting major structural changes in rural areas. Rural areas have been undergoing continuous changes with the changes beginning with humankind moving away from a nomadic means of livelihood. The changes have been in the form of rural to urban migration, the enclosure of open fields, the commercialisation of agriculture and the impacts of technology (from improvements in transportation and mechanisation to refrigeration and chemicals). Hence, new forms of economic activities have found their way into rural planning with the result that rural livelihoods depend on off-farming income generating activities. WTO (2002) maintains that rural communities can participate in many forms of tourism: village tourism, ecotourism, arts and crafts tourism, rural tourism and agrotourism. Kiss (2004), however, argues that the ecotourism industry is a far-fetched business for rural communities with no previous experience to get into and if the business does get off the ground it may take years.

Butler et al. (1999) state that two of the earliest forms of recreational activities during earlier centuries in rural areas of England were fishing and hunting. Hunting activities were expanded to deer and foxes with the result that hunting Parks were established primarily for such a purpose. The pursuit of such activities was enjoyed mainly, if not solely, by the landed gentry, the social and the economic elite of England. The rural residents, on the contrary, had severe limitations on activities such as hunting and fishing. Rural areas in western areas have undergone major structural changes because of global economic, political, social and technological change. Butler et al. (1999) further state that

tourism, which is also synonymous with leisure and recreation, has been recognised as an important economic activity in rural areas. Japan, so as to prevent or reduce the rate of rural out-migration, has replaced forestry, farming and fishing with rural tourism.

Turner (2001) illustrates that in 1969 the Makuleke community of the Northern Province in South Africa were removed from the Kruger National Park so that the Park would extend to the Zimbabwean border. Recently they succeeded in reclaiming 30 000 hectares of land that falls within the Kruger National Park. In terms of the Land Claims Act, with regards to conservation areas, evicted communities may own the land but may not occupy the land as residents. The Makuleke community has embarked upon developing the reclaimed land as a tourist attraction, complete with lodges, cultural village, tour guides, etc. They are looking forward to making money from their business venture. On the other hand, Turner (2001) states that rural communities living around the Wild Coast of South Africa are less than happy about the proposed Wild Coast Spatial Development Initiative (SDI). The memories of past policies and practices of land grab, associated with tourism development, have left them suspicious of proposed new developments in the area. Their main complaint, and an important one at that, is the lack of consultation during the entire process. Hence, Turner (2001: 363) has identified three challenges with regards to ecotourism, nature conservation and rural development:

- the depth of policy commitments to the participation of the rural poor in these activities, in terms of their management and control of these sectors, and their economic profit from them;
- whether rural people have the institutional capacity to participate in a sustainable and profitable way in these sectors, and if not, whether this capacity can be built; and
- whether nature-based tourism and conservation enterprises are effectively marketed.

For the poor rural people, Cater (1994) asserts that the question of choice with regards to sustainability is a futile one. The poverty environment forces poor people into unsustainable forms of behaviour. To appeal to the poor to resort to idealist or altruistic

sustainable behaviour is a needless exercise. Cater (1994) further states that there is a level of poverty whereby the issue of sustainability is an unaffordable luxury for many poor people. Rural people gain very little from the designation of protected areas. The greatest beneficiaries of National Parks and protected areas are the wealthy consumers from the industrialised North. So as to help develop themselves de Beer et al. (1998) indicate that rural communities in South Africa have often resorted to forming care groups and community based organisations such as burial societies, sports clubs, savings clubs, choirs and women's groups.

2.10. Conclusion

The review of the literature is indicative of the many and varied problems that plagues the ecotourism industry. The realities of the ecotourism industry are in stark contrast to the philosophy or a way of life that it purports. The challenges revolve around social, economic as well as environmental impacts. Conspicuously present is the struggle to attain a level of sustainability within the ecotourism industry. This is especially problematic given the philosophy of ecotourism as a way of life that benefits the natural environment and surrounding communities of nature reserves and protected areas.

CHAPTER THREE

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

3.1. Introduction

Martin (2002) states that the turn of the 21st Century has witnessed an escalating privatisation and individualisation of movement thereby putting vast expanses of landscape at risk. Hardy et al. (2002) argue that whilst there is an overabundance of arguments over the conceptualisation of sustainable ecotourism there is no universally accepted theory related to sustainable ecotourism in existence. Meethan (2001) maintains that the development of analytical approaches towards explaining tourism is fairly recent. Even though there are numerous books, journals and conferences that are dedicated to tourism, it lacks a comprehensive theoretical analysis and remains “eclectic” and “disparate”. The dynamics of commodification is integral to the entire basis of tourism. All literature dealing with tourism must look at the issue of commodification as the centrality of the tourism industry. This includes the manner in which material culture, people and places become objectified for the purpose of satisfying the global market. Meethan (2001) further states that whilst the primary function of culture is to create and communicate symbols they possess a material basis. Fennel (1999) asserts that at a global level, developments which are economically driven have resulted in the modification of natural resources. Hence, consumption patterns, including tourism, have become structured. With capitalism has emerged the process of alienation. Bulbeck (2005) argues that nature has become commodified. Soguk (2003) indicates that the tourism industry recruits indigenous resources and predominant political powers for the purpose of profit extraction. According to Gakahu (1992), whilst governments attend to the welfare of the natural resources that form the foundation for the ecotourism industry, the private sector has mainly focussed on client satisfaction and profiteering.

Sharpley (2000) maintains that in order to understand the theory of ecotourism it is necessary to understand development theory in general. Four main schools of development have been postulated since the 1950s. They are modernisation theory, dependency theory, the neo-classical counter revolution theory and alternative

development theory. Modernisation theory has western ethnocentric overtones and this theory continues to underpin the rationale for tourism development, especially in developing countries. The basis of modernisation theory is economic growth leads traditional societies to societies of mass consumption. The neo-classical counter revolution theory emphasised the liberalisation of national economies through increased privatisation, very little State intervention and a heavy reliance on the free market economy. Sharpley (2000) states further that development policies with such an underpinning resulted in policies by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) drawing up policies that was highly prescriptive for countries borrowing finances. Alternative development theory shifts from an economic perspective to one that focuses on human welfare and the environment. The premise of the alternative model is that development does not start with goods but with people and their education, organisation and discipline. Research on tourism has been very much informed by dependency theory. With regards to dependency theory, international tourism is reflective of historical patterns of colonialism and dependency. Sharpley (2000) continues that there are evident correlations between dependency theory and the political economy of international tourism.

3.2. The Political Economy Approach

Shaw and Williams (2004) argue that there has been a general failure to analyse how tourism is governed by and, likewise, influences the wider economic, political, social, and cultural structures and relationships in society. Duffy (2002) maintains that ecotourism is a much broader part of the political and economic phenomenon. Chalker (1994) states that tourism like all other sectors of development must be viewed within the context of the collective, global agenda on sustainable development. The dynamics or real world phenomena do not fit into compartmentalised boxes under the many and varied labels such as political, social, economic, cultural, historical, etc. These phenomena, however, are inextricably linked. The classification or categorisation of phenomena under labels is for the purpose of academic, research and study purposes. No doubt, understanding world phenomena does require an orderly and scientific approach.



Chalker (1994) states further that the political economy approach, of which one of its strength is its interdisciplinary nature, begins to investigate phenomena by putting forward the following questions:

- What is happening?
- Why is it happening?
- Who gains?
- Who loses?
- Does it matter?
- If so, what can be done about it and by whom?

Jafari (2000) illustrates that political economy describes the investigation of the relationship among political and economic policies, institutions and structures and the impacts that these policies impose on development, societies and individuals. The departure point of political economy from the discipline of economics is the recognition of both the political as well as the ideological dimensions of analysis, policy and theory. The paradigm of political economy analyses the formal relations within the capitalist state of development and the expression of real power relations among individuals, groups, institutions and culture. Jafari (2000) states further that inextricably linked to the capitalist system is the process of the persistent commoditisation of all aspects of life that is fast-tracking the process of globalisation. The Marxist approach views class as being integral to political economy. With regards to ecotourism, it is the ruling class that controls the form and content of natural destinations.

Fallon (2001) asserts that tourism, like other industries such as mining, forestry, the construction of dams, housing and industrial estates, is an industry that has competing interests. The stakeholders are of local, national as well as transnational origins and they all compete for the control of resources. Dahles (1997) argues that so as to understand the workings of the tourism industry it is imperative to take cognisance of the organisation of economic and political power within developing countries. Within political economy, the relationships between the state, labour, businesses, civil society and non-governmental organisations, such as environmental movements, are analysed. The Nation State is also

analysed within the context of globalisation. The central tenet of classical political economy is the economic system, which is characteristic of almost the entire world, produces goods and services that are surplus to what is required for social reproduction. Analyses of the expansion and distribution of these goods and services is an integral component of political economy. Stilwell (2002) asserts that Marxist economics, which is rooted in classical political economy, emphasises the ruthless and persistent drive for capital accumulation. The process of labour exploitation yields surplus goods and services. Institutional economics focuses on the link between capitalist developments, especially around the growth of big business, transnational corporations, the influence of trade unions, and the nature of economic policies embarked upon by Nation States. State intervention in addressing inequality, as a result of capitalist growth, is emphasised. Stilwell (2002) states further that Keynesian economics highlights that a capitalist economy would not lead to full employment, unless the nation state makes interventions in the economy.

With regards to sensitive natural environments, Eagles (1997) states that bribery of bureaucrats and politicians ensures that powerful individuals and businesses gain accesses to these areas to set up ecotourism ventures. The world over, the private sector has wasted little time in developing ecotourism ecolodges close to important natural areas. Webb (2002) asserts that Parks are increasingly functioning as commercial businesses, the nature of which is to make a profit. Modern political economy highlights with much significance the link between the natural environment and the economic system. The political economy framework recognises that the economy is an integral and inextricable part of the natural environment as noted by Stilwell (2002) in the quote below:

All economic activity occurs in a biophysical context, using land and other natural resources, and generating products, including waste products, impacting on the environment. To neglect such connections is not only to limit the potential contribution of political economic analysis to environmental concerns, but also to impoverish the study of the economy.

Stilwell (2002) illustrates that environmental impacts assume different proportions and are evident on different spatial levels. Political economy acknowledges that the extent of environmental impacts is dependant on the type and form of economic growth. The ideology of consumerism is the centrality of environmental degradation and decay. The diverse social, economic and environmental problems are firmly rooted in the ideology of the privatisation of nature and the appropriation of rent from land use. Economic surplus in the form of rent income is as a result of the application of capital and labour to the natural environment. Bulbeck (2005) maintains that the greatest threat to the environment is abstract nature. It is the unauthentic experience in national Parks that is sold by nature companies. The irony is that those that live in the city are the most ardent advocates of nature. However, they fail in their endeavour to conserve nature because they really are not aware as to what they are trying to save in the first place.

Bush (1997) argues that capital from transnational and multinational companies serves to pillage the earth's natural resources. Gray (2003) indicates that it seems that 'business as usual' is destroying the very natural environment that it is dependent upon. Barany et al. (2001) assert that many commercial operators within the tourism industry use ecotourism as a marketing strategy in order to increase their market share and the emphasis on meeting ecotourism demands can and usually supersedes the effort of resource conservation. Meethan (2003) states that space and place are important aspects within the tourism industry for precisely the reason that tourism relies on the commodification of place. Stem et al. (2003) illustrate that many scholars and practitioners of ecotourism are deeply concerned about tour operators that capitalise on the ability of ecotourism to market their activities with hardly any focus on environmental conservation. Ateljevic et al. (2000) argue that a conscious and deliberate effort on the part of tourism entrepreneurs to scale down their business operations leads to a balance amongst the economic, socio-cultural and environmental components of the business venture. A market-driven environment compromises the natural environment, social worth, sense of place, community identity, inclusivity and quality of life.

Table 3.1: Segmentation model of ecotourism supplier, motivation and impact

SECTOR	MOTIVATION	LOCAL INVOLVEMENT	NEGATIVE IMPACT
FOR-PROFIT SECTOR	ECO-SELL (profit, selling nature, unaware or uncaring about impact)	LOW	HIGH
	RESPONSIBLE TRAVEL AND MARKETING (profit, aware of impact, attempts to be constructive)		
	ASSOCIATION WITH LOCALS, CONSERVATION GROUPS, SCIENTISTS (profit, constructive impact, donations, non-profit affiliations)		
NOT-FOR-PROFIT SECTOR	TRAVEL SERVICE (member service, source of funds)	HIGH	LOW
	CONSERVATION, PRESERVATION (conservation, education, funds)		
	SCIENCE, RESEARCH (education and research)		

Source: Wight (1994: 46)

According to Ateljevic et al. (2000), when entrepreneurs do not focus on profit-maximisation, the economic and tourism development of the local region is severely constrained. The New Zealand Tourism Board (NZTB) as cited in Ateljevic et al. (2000) noted that the motivating factors for Australians travelling were their fast and stressful or boring and mundane lifestyles.

Pleumarom (1991) states:

This pattern of centralised and highly capitalised tourism development is rooted in easy availability of capital, competitive advantage, power in the political economy, and compatibility with the interests of central governments in efficient 'shearing of the tourist sheep' to maximise foreign exchange... Yet, (eco-tourism) advocates continue to blindly promise economic cornucopia to local residents from tourism revenues without appreciation of the fact or understanding of the social structural conditions under which tourism can provide benefits to local people.

In a research study into the valuation of ecotourism in Amazonas, Brazil, Wallace et al. (1996) concluded that ecotourism ventures in Amazonas was, to a great degree, profit-motivated and that community development as well as environmental conservation were secondary and incidental considerations. Wearing et al. (1996) maintain that with increased volumes of visitors off to a destination, the interaction between the visitors and the local inhabitants take on a commercial nature thereby resulting in attitudes of 'annoyance' and 'apathy' on the part of the inhabitants. Poverty elimination objectives do not underpin tourism development. Economic, environmental and cultural factors are the drivers of tourism at both the national as well as the international level.

Ashley et al. (2000) argue that it cannot be expected of the private sector to focus on poverty alleviation and eradication. Investments, if any, by donors in the tourism industry, are usually in the form of infrastructure. The investors are usually transnational companies and local elites. Incomes generated by the industry leaks to foreign countries and metropolitan centres. Ashley et al. (2000) further state that the economic link

industry and the weak inter-sectoral linkages. The tourism sector is also fraught with economic, environmental and socio-cultural problems. Two inherent characteristics of the tourism industry are low wages and foreign domination. Underpinning the tourism sector in sub-Saharan countries are the international distribution network, the proficiency and skill levels of foreign investment, as well as the competitive and image factor. Statistics on tourism arrivals and receipts amongst many tourist destinations highlights the highly competitive nature of the tourism industry. Whilst countries in the North have the biggest slice of the tourism industry (73% of arrivals), developed as well as developing countries compete ferociously to get more of the market share. However, the odds are stacked heavily in favour of the developed countries. A case study of Gambia reveals that the country is one of the most densely populated countries. Developments within the world economy, especially the high petrol prices of the 1970s saw the Gambian economy deteriorate to an all time low.

Dieke (1994) further argues that the introduction of the Structural Adjustment Programme by the World Bank intended to create a favourable climate for private investment. Tourism development was identified as one of the sectors for Gambia's economic development. International pressure in the form of business and interested institutions compelled the Gambian government to allow the private sector a leading role within the tourism sector. However, it has been noted that tourists to Gambia are mostly on pre-paid trips. Air-carriers to Gambia are foreign-owned. Once in Gambia, tourists mostly stay in foreign-owned accommodation. Such a situation reveals that the benefits to the host country are barely significant. Attempts to address the situation are met with an array of problems mostly because of the inter-connectedness of the tourism sector to the international economy. The compounding problems highlight the economic significance of the tourism sector in Gambia.

Reid (n/d) asserts that ecotourism principles are noble and the inclusion of local people within the ecotourism paradigm is testimony to this fact. However, the actual implementation of ecotourism principles is fraught with difficulties. The forces that counter the philosophy of preservation and conservation are far greater and are the

determining factors to growth and development of the ecotourism sector. The pressure of developing countries to open their market to the globalised world so as to cater for mass tourism and allow the industry to absorb a percentage of the economically active population is great and almost always results in a deregulated market. No doubt, as to whether ecotourism is intact as set out by its principles is entirely dependent on the consumptive patterns of consumers. The consumptive view of natural resources is that the natural resource is an object to be consumed. The non-consumptive view of natural resources is that the natural resources are to be studied, analysed and viewed preferably from a distance. With regard to the problems surrounding ecotourism sustainability, Prosser (1994: 5) perceives there to be “a diametrically opposed and widening divergence that exist between the slow, steady, self-less, cosy, back to nature, sustainable, eco-friendly, controlled small-scale solution to tourism problems and the realities of globally, a capitalist society with inbuilt growth dynamics.” Caalders et al. (1999) argue that the countries in the North are more concerned about the growing deterioration of nature. Concurrently most of the unspoilt natural areas are located within countries in the South. This catch-22 situation leaves many countries in the South in a fix because of the low levels of economic development.

Bulbeck (2005) illustrates that the gap between human beings and nature can never be completely closed. However, increasing numbers of people visiting natural sites are testimony to the fact that human beings want to be in touch with nature, if even for a short while. For many westerners, nature offers a need for meaning and a sense of the spiritual. The present set-up makes it impossible to go back to pre-modern times, nor stay safely in the dislodged present. Bulbeck (2005: 121) further states that ‘we are neither completely separate from nor completely merged with the world around us’. Wheeler (1997) argues that the issues raised more than five years ago by critics of ecotourism are still very much with us today. Common sense and logic tells us that sustainability is a completely futile exercise. Many proponents of ecotourism focus mainly on the physical aspect of the natural environment at the expense of the social and cultural aspects. Ecotourism policies that outline a carrying capacity threshold at ecotourism destinations are not in sync with the ever burgeoning demand for ecotourism. Wheeler (1997) further

argues that there are as many as thirty examples of 'bad' sustainable tourism for every 'good' sustainable tourism example. Such overwhelming evidence means that the overall impact of sustainable tourism is negative.

According to Duim et al. (2001), ecotourism is nothing more than a niche' market for short term profits. Ecotourism uses the same infrastructure as conventional tourism, is motivated by the same profit factor and is nothing but mass tourism under a disguised label. Gray (2003) maintains that sustainable tourism is discerned by the margins of profit, risk ecological and socio-cultural. Ecotourism is nothing but the expansion of capitalist development into the realms of nature. Gray (2003) further asserts that for organisations such as the World Bank and U.S. Agency for international Development (USAID), ecotourism serves to green their image whilst they go about with large scale developments. Christou (n/d), states that there is a strong relationship between visitor loyalty and destination image and reputation. Veloutsas (n/d) maintains that tourism destination marketing is becoming evermore sophisticated. The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, in South Africa, is currently undergoing a name change. St Lucia is a famous tourist destination in the Caribbean Islands and is also being proclaimed a World Heritage Site. Stakeholders of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park wish to market the World Heritage Site under a different brand name so as not to cause confusion with the St Lucia in the Caribbean Islands.

3.3. Uncovering the Probable Reasons for the Historical Development of Ecotourism and the State of its Affairs

Wilson (n/d) illustrates that England's industrialised society resulted in a few people acquiring riches. The rich bought off vast expanses of land and forced people of the land. These lands they converted into places and spaces of entertainment and relaxation. Many of those that tried to continue with a subsistence way of life found it almost impossible to compete with cheaper imports and made off for the colonies. Issues such as 'comparative advantage,' 'supply and demand,' and 'economies of scale' were unheard of and, hence, England was ignorant of the tide of events that were enveloping her and for which she

had hardly any control. Today the rapid changes and the subsequent pressures are still sweeping through other parts of the world.

Liu (2003) argues that modern growth economics have provided the impetus for the transformation of vast amounts of natural resources into consumables and finally garbage. This is causing huge imbalances in the natural environment and amongst people. Cater (1994) states that a balance view of sustainability entails the acknowledgement of *Homo Sapiens* as masters, harnessers and users of the natural environment. Sustainability would also be compromised if one does not acknowledge the inextricable link between the natural resource base and the human resource base. According to Liu (2003):

The denigration of human progress embodied in the sustainability paradigm is likely to hold back humanity from facing up to and solving problems of poverty and underdevelopment. It is hence, a far bigger problem than some of the trouble by-products of unplanned tourism.

The Caring for the Earth report (IUCN, 1991 cited in Sharpley, 2000) states that sustainable lifestyles, especially by those in the North, should underpin sustainable development. The thinking was that natural resource problems are human problems and not really environmental problems. The earth is a closed system. Natural resources are not unlimited. The global ecosystem has a finite capacity to supply the needs of production and consumption and a finite capacity to absorb the waste that results from such production and consumption. Cater (1994) maintains that unless the ecotourism industry, which is based on the consumptive use of human activity, is underpinned by an important principle, its lifespan will not be sustained. The natural environment should be regarded as a capital stock and the eating into it will compromise its sustainability.

Hardy et al. (2002) illustrate that the social advances (paid leave, women in the workforce and flexitime) within the workplace and transport advances facilitated mass tourism. Jacobsen (2003) questions whether the primary motive of tourists is to escape from their everyday lives. Meethan (2003) asserts that pre-modernity lifestyles are often viewed as being authentic and natural. Alienation is the archetypal condition of

modernity. Vesey and Dimanche (2003) indicate that tourists have a need to remove themselves from the modern and fragmented modern world and seek out traditional places that have a sense of authenticity and tradition. For many ecotourists, their home environments contrast greatly with the natural environments of the destination areas

Cater (1994) indicates that therapeutic and mental health, physical health, self-sufficiency, social identity, educational, spiritual, aesthetic and creative attributes have been associated with wilderness areas. Webb (2002) found that self-esteem, self-satisfaction and self-awareness improved with exposure to wilderness areas. Lindeberg (1992) states that there are increases in the development of ecotourism destinations with ever-increasing demands. The many ecotourism destinations now begin to compete amongst each other for the ecotourism market. Shelley (1992) maintains that the stresses of more wealth and access to leisure time create pressures for such societies to escape from both a physiological as well as a psychological perspective. Wilderness areas provide such an environment for escape. Caalders et al. (1999) state that, no doubt, the demand for ecotourism is growing as more and more people have a need to escape from the stresses of modern living. For many tourists, according to Stein et al. (2003), biodiversity offers the non-material element of life that they so desire. 'Relaxing' and 'escaping' were rated quite high as to the reasons for visiting natural areas. Duffy (2003) asserts that people go on travel tours to 'get away from it all', to 'relax' and to be free from the constraints of everyday modern life and so as to rejuvenate their mental and physical well-being. Barton (2000) illustrates that living in urban areas is more stressful than living in the countryside. Those living in the cities live faster and more pressurised lives and such stress levels increases when they meet other stressed people in the city. Stein (2003) states that visits to natural areas results in improved physical fitness, improved mental state and family cohesion. Weaver (2005) asserts that Parks serves as places whereby some people go to relax.

3.4. Stakeholder Perspective

This study uses the stakeholder theory to understand the social, economic as well as environmental impacts of ecotourism with regard to biodiversity and sustainable development at the two World Heritage Sites. The stakeholder framework allows for the perceptions of all stakeholders within the tourism system to be considered. Zesmi et al. (2003) state that local stakeholders' direct participation is fundamental to protecting biodiversity as they may actively oppose or support conservation actions. Therefore, for any form of sustainable development and successful conservation efforts to be implemented it is necessary that all stakeholders are involved.

Ronald et al. (1997) argue that there is not much disagreement as to whom or what qualifies as a stakeholder. Persons, organisations, communities, neighbourhoods, institutions, society and even the natural environment can be regarded as actual or potential stakeholders. Henriques et al. (1999) list four types of stakeholders that are necessary for environmental protection. They are:

1. Regulatory stakeholders (governments, trade associations and informal networks)
2. Organisational stakeholders (customers, suppliers, employees and shareholders)
3. Community stakeholders (community groups, environmental groups and other potential lobbies)
4. Media (mass communication)

Grimble et al. (1997) assert that the advantage of stakeholder analysis is that it provides a methodology and a conceptual framework for a better understanding of environmental and developmental problems and interaction through comparative analysis of the different perspectives and stakeholder interests at different levels. With regards to ecotourism development and consultation guidelines, Thomas et al. (2003: 48) state:

- Identify all the stakeholders;
- Approach all stakeholders on the basis of equality and transparency;
- Produce materials that are informative, clear and user-friendly;
- Use a variety of culturally appropriate means to seek views; emphasise the draft nature of proposals;

- Be ready to revisit any proposals;
- Keep a complete and documented record of all comments, and log all contacts;
- Ensure that all requests for meetings, materials etc. are responded to promptly;
- Make sure that every view has been considered, whether it is adopted or not; allow time so that people do not feel rushed by the process, but not so much that they lose interest;
- Engage in further consultation if changes in the plan are envisaged that will affect other stakeholders than those seeking these changes;
- Feedback the results of consultation to all who commented; and
- Above all treat all the stakeholders as essential partners in the conservation of the protected areas, not as obstacles.

3.5. Conclusion

The political-economy conceptual framework locates the ecotourism industry within the global and local political as well as economic context. Such a conceptual framework recognises the many stakeholders that influence and are influenced by the ecotourism industry. The political-economy conceptual framework, in general, and the stakeholder approach, in particular, implicitly acknowledges the responsibility of the various stakeholders towards ensuring the sustainability aspects of the ecotourism industry. This is especially so within the context of South Africa, where the economy is still very much racially skewed in favour of the White minority. More generally, the political-economy approach may warrant a political intervention in so far as attempting to address any discrepancies that may occur within the ecotourism industry.

Aside from the conservation of biological and cultural diversity, protected areas are increasingly expected to play an integral role in the social and economic upliftment of the local communities that reside in close proximity to the protected areas. Hence, the understanding of stakeholders' perceptions is necessary if they have to be involved in the conceptualisation, planning, implementation and management of any ecotourism projects and programmes.

CHAPTER FOUR

ECOTOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA

4.1. Introduction

Bulbeck (2005) maintains that in 1926 the then South African Government, through its National Parks Act, identified tourism as a reason for the proclamation of Parks. If South Africa is to survive in the Global World, then industries will have to flourish. It is within this context that the Government has identified, amongst others, Tourism as a potential industry to develop the economy. Could ecotourism begin to serve as a vehicle towards assisting to meet some of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs)? The MDGs are:

1. Eradicate extreme poverty and hunger
 - Halve the proportion of people whose income is less than one dollar a day
 - Halve the proportion of people who suffer from hunger
2. Achieve universal primary education
 - Ensure that boys and girls alike complete primary schooling
3. Promote gender equality and empower women
 - Eliminate gender disparity at all level of education
4. Reduce child mortality
 - Reduce by two thirds the child mortality rate
5. Improve maternal health
 - Reduce by three quarters the maternal mortality ratio
6. Combat HIV/AIDS, malaria and other diseases
 - Reverse the spread of HIV/AIDS and the incidence of malaria and other major diseases
7. Ensure environmental sustainability
 - Integrate sustainable development into country policies and reverse loss of environmental resources
 - Halve the proportion of people without access to safe drinking water
 - Significantly improve the lives of at least 100 million slum dwellers
8. Develop a global partnership for development
 - Raise official development assistance

- Expand market access
- Encourage debt sustainability

The realisation of the MDGs are extremely important within the South African context and are in line with broader development imperatives that aim to address past inequalities. Economic development is a priority in South Africa (Fairhurst, 2002). The South African White Paper on Tourism (DEAT, 1996) provides a necessary framework for the establishment of a culture of tourism in South Africa. Both the National government and the Provincial government of KwaZulu-Natal have identified ecotourism as a sector that would generate economic growth and provide employment, especially for the unemployed rural community. Chapter four, hence, looks at a brief history of South Africa, the ecotourism sector in South Africa, in general, and in KwaZulu-Natal, in particular and some of the issues and concerns surrounding the ecotourism sector.

4.2. A Brief History of South Africa's Indigenous People and their Relationship to the Natural Environment

Davenport (1992) illustrates that during the Stone Age, people were hunters and gatherers of food. The presence of *Homo Sapiens* in South Africa dates back 125,000 years. Two groups of people that were identified as the earliest inhabitants of South Africa were the Khoisan (previously known as Hottentots) and the San (Bushmen). The San are thought to be the first immigrants to South Africa followed by the Khoikhoi. Both groups have a common origination and very similar physical appearances. There were, however, marked differences between and amongst the groups themselves in terms of linguistics. Aswegen (1990) says that in terms of their economic activities the San People were called hunter-gatherers. The Khoikhoi were referred to as herders or cattle owners. The San unit usually consisted of twenty to twenty five members. They lived in caves, rock overhangs and they sometimes built shelters on the open fields. Their hunting lifestyles forced them to follow migrating animals and this meant that they had to also be on the move constantly. Their lifestyles were generally very simple. The size of a Khoikhoi group usually consisted of 250 men, women, and children. The Khoikhoi were herders of sheep and cattle. Their possession of cattle ensured a fixed supply of meat and milk.

Their habitats depended on the exhaustion of grazing resources for the sheep and cattle. Hence, the changing of habitat occurred about two to three year intervals.

Davenport (1992) further argues that the Khoikhoi, before the arrival of the colonialists, traded with another indigenous group, namely the Bantu-speaking groups, in cattle, dagga, iron and copper. With the arrival of the colonialists, other products such as tobacco were introduced into the trading fray. However, the dominant ideology of the colonialists finally led to the Khoikhoi being usurped of their land, their stock, and their role as traders. They were then handed down roles as herdsmen, labourers, and militiamen. Pierce et al. (2002) assert that the impact of colonisation, like in many parts of the world, has been extremely negative with regards to South Africa's biodiversity. Two factors that aggravated biodiversity degradation were over-hunting and alien diseases. The ensuing result was the passing of legislation by the colonial rulers for wildlife protection.

Duminy and Guest (1989) illustrate that the late 18th and early 19th century saw Natal's economy grow markedly. Also, the physical environment began to be altered quite markedly. The reliance of the indigenous peoples on natural resources such as animal skins for clothing; feathers for ornamentation and saplings for stockades and hats occurred on a sustainable basis. However, the migration of White people into Natal resulted in African hunters joining Whites in the slaughter of game. Horn and tortoise-shell were utilised for Victorian fashion. The ivory was utilised for billiard balls, ornaments and piano keys. Duminy and Guest (1989) further state that the plundering of natural resources was compounded by the cultivation and fencing off of natural land. The exploitation of the environment extended to rivers becoming silted and polluted. The traditional movement of the indigenous people to other parts of the land became almost impossible because of drought and soil exhaustion. The lands on which they lived were overcrowded. They also lived as squatters or labour-tenants on private land. This situation forced many people to seek employment in the labour market.

Oelofse and Scott (2002) indicate that South Africa, on its transition path, is experiencing the environmental impacts of industrial development. The skewed development of South Africa has resulted in high levels of poverty, unemployment, ecological degradation and poor living environments. With respect to the environment, the National Environmental Management Act (NEMA) has a major influence in decision-making with regards to developmental projects in South Africa. However, there needs to be a shift away from the green agenda to one that focuses on social, ecological and environmental justice.

4.3. Overview of Ecotourism in South Africa

The Centre for Public Participation (2003) maintains that whilst South Africa has made headway since the first democratic elections in 1994, the economy is still very much in the hands of a few White males. The political breakthrough also ushered in deepening poverty, widening of income gaps, extensive job losses and high levels of unemployment. The ecotourism industry in South Africa must be seen within such a context. Together with Kenya, South Africa is a well established and high profile ecotourism destination within the region. Dieke (2001) states that of the twenty countries that were profiled by the World Tourism Organisation (WTO), South Africa came up as the most favourable destination. Weaver (1998) asserts that South Africa also has a competitive advantage because of its well developed network of protected areas, its economy and its relatively sophisticated transport network. Groenewald (2004) says that tourism is South Africa's third largest earner of foreign money. The industry contributes 8.2% or in excess of twenty five billion rands to South Africa's economy. Turner (2001) maintains that so as to understand the role of ecotourism and nature conservation in relation to rural development, it is vital that the economic as well as the social history of the evolution of tourism and nature conservation in South Africa be acknowledged and understood.

Tapela and Omara-Jungu (1999) illustrate that many underdeveloped communities in Africa, in general, and South Africa, in particular, live close to or on the borders of national Parks. In the case of the Makuleke Community, a community living in close proximity to the Kruger National Park (KNP), 74.3% of the respondents used firewood as the main source of energy for the household, 77.2% required thatch for the roofings and

of the 63.5% that were employed by KNP 77.8% earned less than R1500. The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT, 1996) states that after Brazil and Indonesia, South Africa is ranked as third in the world as an international biodiversity hotspot. It is the only country in the world to have an entire floristic kingdom within its border. South Africa has over 100 species of mammals, over 900 species of birds-of which 77 are endemic, and 120 species of amphibians. South Africa is signatory to the Convention on Biodiversity, the Ramsar Convention on Wetlands, the Convention to Combat Desertification, the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species, the Convention on Migratory Species and the World Heritage Convention. The environmental legal framework includes the National Environmental Management Act, the Protected Areas Bill and the Biodiversity Bill.

According to Goudie et al. (1999), the tourism industry has often come under fire for the discrepancies that arises from the different components of the industry. The promised economic benefits of tourism, especially at the community level, is seldom realised and when it is there are other problems that plague the industry. Following closely on the heels of tourism development are social ills such as prostitution, drug trafficking and crime. Such thinking and findings about the tourism industry has particular relevance to the reconstruction and development of the South Africa economy since tourism has been identified has a vehicle for economic development. With regards to a proposed N2 toll road that was to link Umtata to the KwaZulu-Natal South Coast, Macleod (2004) states that fears were around sensitive ecosystems that would be destroyed. Also, mining of the Pondoland Coastal dunes was thought to follow the construction of the N2 toll road. Whilst the Ministry of Environmental Affairs and Tourism was said to favour ecotourism development of the site, members of the Eastern Cape Provincial government favoured a more diverse economic plan for the area. At its annual congress in Durban, the World Conservation Union experienced resistance to its undertaking to cooperate with extractive industries on condition that they do not exploit protected areas.

Integrated Planning Services (PTY) LTD (1998) conducted a feasibility study for tourism development in the Mnweni Valley of KwaZuluNatal, Drakensberg and found that there

will be both positive and negative impacts on the social and cultural environment of the Mnweni Valley. The likely positive impacts would be employment opportunities, increased income, training and capacity building associated direct and indirect entrepreneurial opportunities, and introduction of foreigners brings different values and world views. The likely negative impacts may be possible pressure for relocation of communities, potential for external damage to cultural sites and introduction of foreigners brings different values and world views.

Groenewald and Macleod (2004) assert that in some areas, such as the Marakele National Park, the transition from farmlands to game reserves has not been smooth. Marakele National Park, which is situated in the Limpopo province of South Africa, is a public-private partnership set up for ecotourism purposes. Unhappiness on the part of farm workers that resided on the land has resulted in law suits being filed against the private investors, the South African National Parks and the former farm owners. The lawsuit was about the unlawful eviction of the farmworkers from the farms. A lawyer, acting on behalf of the farmworkers, stated that the rights of the environment took precedence over people's rights.

Education and Training Unit (1998) illustrates that the South African Constitution recognises that every South African has a right to a safe and healthy environment. Hence, the many laws that aims to conserve the different aspects of the environment. They include the Conservation of Agricultural Resources Act, the Water Act, the Marine Resources Act and the Environment Conservation Act. The Environment Conservation Act directs that the South African Government should ensure the conservation of the environment, through policy making, which every governmental department should abide by. South Africa, together with 170 other countries, has made official Article 6 of the Convention on Biological Diversity. The underlying principle of Article 6 requires Governments to integrate biodiversity conservation and sustainability into economic planning.

The Integrated Management Plan (2004) states:

Act 49 of Heritage Convention Act, 1999 encapsulates the inclusion of the World Heritage Convention into South African law. The prologue to the Act states:

Recognising that the cultural heritage and the natural heritage are among the priceless and irreplaceable possessions, not only of the Republic, but of humankind as a whole;

and

Acknowledging that the loss, through deterioration, disappearance or damage through inappropriate development of any of these most prized possessions, constitutes an impoverishment of the heritage of all the peoples of the world and, in particular, the people of South Africa.

Act 49 of 1999 strives to protect, conserve and present World Heritage values whilst, also, placing a strong emphasis on local economic development through the tourism industry. This is especially so in situations where there exists great poverty even though there may be plenty of natural resources to eke a livelihood out of.

Specifically the Act:

- Provides for the establishment of Authorities and determines their powers.
- Requires the preparation and implementation of Integrated Management Plans (IMP) for all South Africa's World Heritage Sites. It lays down minimum requirements for IMPs and specific procedures for their adoption.
- Requires that the Authority has due regard for, and seeks to integrate and harmonise the IMPs with applicable national, provincial, regional and local development plans. This includes the relevant district and local municipal Integrated Development Plans (IDPs).
- Together with the World Heritage Convention, requires that each World Heritage Site defines a buffer zone.

The South African Government Gazette, Act 49 of Heritage Convention Act (1999) illustrates that the objectives of Act 49 of Heritage Convention Act, 1999 are to ensure that the cultural and environmental protection and sustainable development of, and

related activities within, World Heritage Sites, are provided for; to encourage tourism and other associated development linked to the World Heritage Sites; the encouragement of investment, innovation, and job creation; the promotion of the development of culturally, environmentally and, if applicable, economically sustainable projects with regards to World Heritage Sites; and the promotion of empowerment of previously disadvantaged individuals in projects linked to World Heritage Sites.

Zaloumis (n/d) argues that in South Africa the ecotourism option over the mining option at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park was the first Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) to have been conducted. It was then that the Leon Commission had recommended a People's Park for the Wetlands. The underlying philosophy was that the Wetlands should have a beneficial impact on the lives of future generations. However, the fate of the wetlands will be decided by its ability to deliver to the surrounding poor rural communities as well. In the interim the Wetlands will continue to unite and divide people and will raise lots of controversies.

According to Fakir (n/d), South Africa has a set of environmental tools that allows for problems of the natural environment to be resolved well before any development takes place. However, environmental rights occur, not in isolation, but within the context of other rights. Whilst the South African environmental laws have caused development to move at a snails pace, the welfare of the poor and the unemployed is now at risk. The threats are from groups that focus on the environment over everything else. Hence, any claims by dispossessed people of land within these protected areas are perceived as threats instead of opportunities.

4.4. Overview of Ecotourism in KwaZulu-Natal

KwaZulu-Natal is one of nine provinces in South Africa. Previously KwaZulu-Natal comprised of the KwaZulu homelands and Natal. KwaZulu-Natal's abundant biodiversity as well as its rich and painful history makes it an attractive tourist destination. Nature tourism is one of the primary land uses in KwaZulu-Natal in general and in Zululand in particular. A significant proportion of land (8.4% - 6,752 square kilometres) in KwaZulu-

Natal is protected. Fifty two percent is made up of communal land, 25% is private land and about 17% is regarded as conserved land which is managed by Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife.

Aylward and Lutz (2003) maintain that 21 percent of KwaZulu-Natal's gross domestic product is derived from ecotourism. In KwaZulu-Natal, a minimum of 140 private reserves, spanning an area of approximately 2,600km², have been established. These reserves were once agricultural and commercial farmland and are now raking in more income. However, whilst owners of the newly formed reserves are not short of the foreign and wealthy tourist market, the downside is the negative impacts that result because of the conversion of once agricultural land to game reserves. These impacts are in the form of farm labourers being forced to leave because of the introduction of wildlife. Wines (2004) states that Ngogo is a town where thousands of workers that were evicted from farms, now reside. Critics of transformation argue that, that is the precise intention of the farm owners and that is to coerce Black tenants to leave their farms.

In a study, 'The Actual and Potential Contribution of Nature Tourism in Zululand: Considerations for Development, Equity, and Conservation', Aylward (2003: 4) asked the following questions:

- Do lower socio-economic groups in the local communities adjacent to Parks benefit from nature tourism? Are there ways to increase those benefits?
- Is there potential for local tourism by previously disadvantaged groups, and if so, how can it be encouraged?
- Is nature tourism leading to the degradation of the natural resource base? What are the main managerial options for improving the resource base or minimising degradation?
- How should Park entrance fees be structured? Should differential pricing be used? In particular, should foreign visitors be charged more?
- Is it better to raise conservation funds through changes in destination pricing or through taxes on the tourism trade?

- How do increases in fees lead to improvements in conservation, and what are the trade-offs or complementarities with development and equity objectives?

4.5. Conclusion

South Africa's rich biodiversity provides an ideal destination for those seeking a retreat into wilderness areas. However, the setting aside of World Heritage Sites and nature reserves presents its own set of problems within the context of South Africa's ruthless history of land grab and the current context regarding the challenges of the creation of jobs and sustainable livelihoods. The challenge for the many stakeholders is to find a sustainable path for ecotourism development such that the industry assumes a developmental role as opposed to an oppressive role and that the ecotourism sector could serve as one of the macro tools that would begin to assist in the realisation of some of the Millennium Development Goals.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

5.1. Introduction

The case studies that were researched were that of The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Both these sites have World Heritage Status. The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park are located in South Africa, in the province of KwaZulu-Natal. This Chapter describes the procedures and processes that have been embarked upon in the conducting the research at the two World Heritage Sites. The study was conducted in various phases over a two year period. This Chapter presents the case studies, the sampling frameworks, the methodological approaches that were utilised, the research instruments that were utilised, data collection procedures and the limitations of the study.

The fieldwork into the socio-economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park was conducted during both peak seasons and off-peak season in 2004 and 2005. The approaches to the study were both qualitative and quantitative in nature. De Vos et al. (2002) outline a comparative perspective of both the qualitative and quantitative approaches to social sciences research as displayed in the table below.

Table 5.1: A Comparison of the quantitative and qualitative approach to social research (source: De Vos et al., 2002: 81)

Quantitative approach	Qualitative approach
<p>Epistemological roots in positivism</p> <p>Purpose is to test predictive and cause-effect hypotheses about social reality</p> <p>Methods uses deductive logic</p> <p>Suitable for study of phenomena that are conceptually and theoretically well developed; seeks to control phenomena</p> <p>Concepts are converted into operational definitions; results appear in numeric form and are eventually reported in statistical language</p> <p>The research design is standardised according to a fixed procedure and can be replicated</p> <p>Data are obtained systematically and in a standardised manner</p> <p>The unit of analysis is variables that are atomistic (i.e. elements that form part of a whole)</p>	<p>Epistemological roots in phenomenology</p> <p>Purpose is to construct detailed descriptions of social reality</p> <p>Methods uses inductive logic</p> <p>Suitable for a study of relatively unknown terrain; seeks to understand phenomena</p> <p>Participants' natural language is used in order to come to a genuine understanding of the world</p> <p>The research design is flexible and unique and evolves throughout the research process; there are no fixed steps to be followed and the design cannot be exactly replicated</p> <p>Data sources are determined by the information richness of settings; types of observations are modified to enrich understanding</p> <p>The unit of analysis is holistic, concentrating on the relationships between elements, contexts, etc.; the whole is always more than the sum</p>

5.2. Research Questions

According to Babbie (1992), the primary tool utilised for data collection is the questionnaire. In this study the questionnaires used comprised of both open-ended and closed-ended questions. Open-ended questions require the respondent to provide his or her own answers to the questions. Closed-ended questions require the respondent to select an answer from a list provided by the researcher. The main disadvantage of closed-ended questions is that the researcher may have excluded other relevant choice of responses. The questionnaire utilisation process was twofold in that the questions were at times asked by the researcher and at other times the questionnaires were self-administered. The questionnaire was the primary means through which data was collected. The questionnaire was designed along the lines of the objectives that were to be achieved as well as the main guiding questions that were to be answered. The broad categories that constituted the questionnaire were the social, economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism to The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Consideration of the neighbouring rural communities formed an integral part of the questionnaire design. The questions that were asked were informed by previous work and were constructed with the listed objectives in mind. Flower et al. (1997) list three broad types of data categories that informs questionnaire design and they are data which classify people, their circumstances and their environment; data which relate to their behaviour; and data which relate to attitudes, opinions and beliefs. The content of these three types of data categories were firmly rooted in the research questions under investigation. The study was guided by the broad research questions that are listed below:

1. What are the visitors' socio-economic profile, perceptions, needs, and levels of awareness regarding ecotourism?
2. What are the positive as well as the negative effects of the ecotourism experiences on the visitors to the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park?
3. What impacts do the practices and policies of the Parks' Management have on the biodiversity conservation and sustainable tourism development?

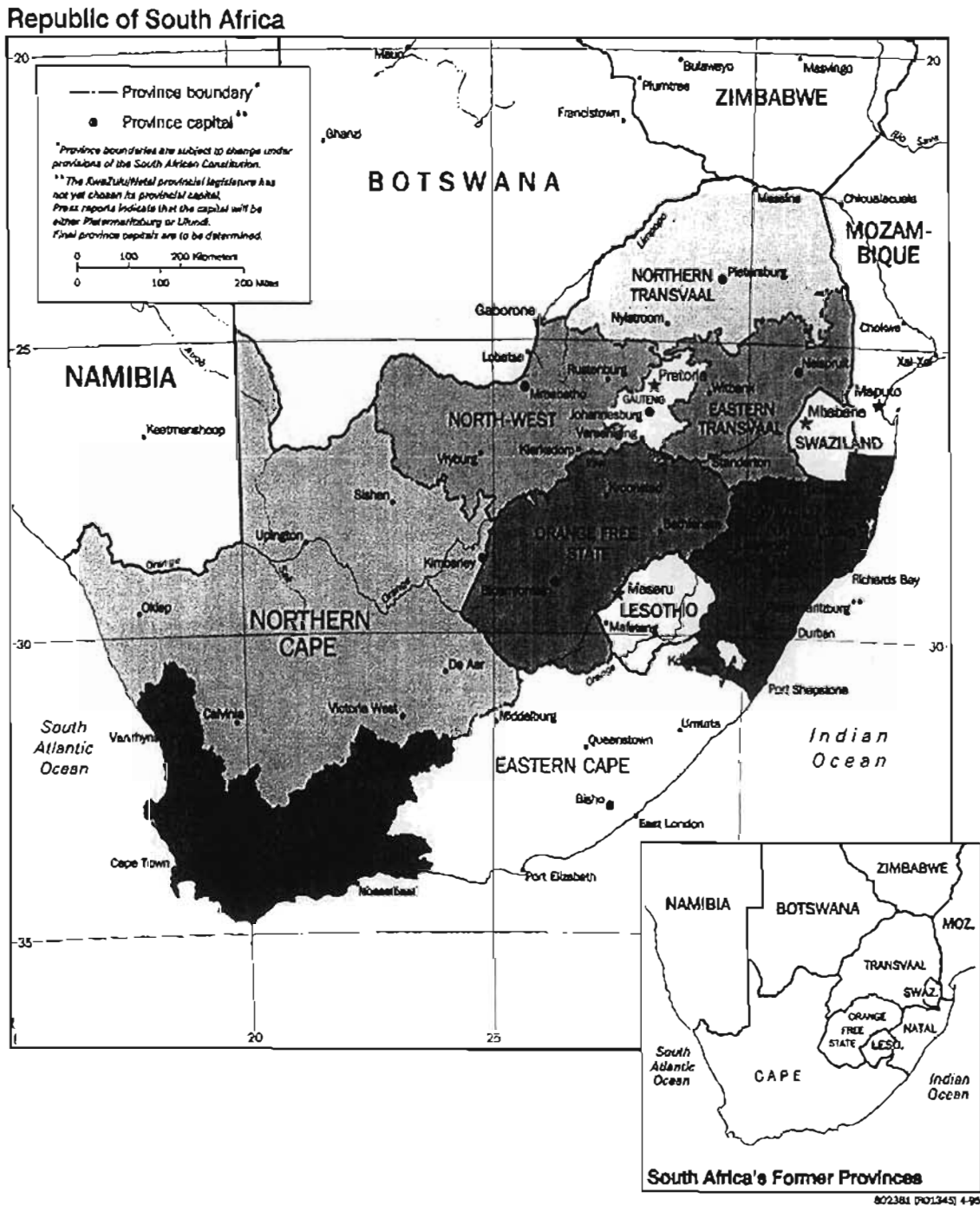
4. What are the perceptions, needs, concerns and suggestions of the various stakeholders linked to the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park?
5. To what extent are the neighbouring rural communities of the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park involved in the decision-making and activities of both these protected areas?
6. What impacts are the activities of the various stakeholders having on the environment of the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park?
7. Do the existing socio-economic and political contexts address the issues of sustainable tourism sufficiently?

5.3. Case Studies

Map 5.1. is a map of South Africa illustrating the nine provinces. Statistics South Africa (2003) illustrates that South Africa comprises 1 219 090 square kilometers of land. KwaZulu-Natal occupies 7.6% (92651 km²) of the total. The province of KwaZulu-Natal was formerly known as Natal. 9 426 017 of South Africa's 44 819 778 population reside in KwaZulu-Natal. Although, KwaZulu-Natal is the third smallest province in terms of land area it is the province with the largest population: 84.9 % are Black African, 8.5 % are Indian or Asian, 5.1% are White and 1.5 % are Coloured. Of the nine provinces in South Africa, KwaZulu-Natal has the highest disabled population, numbering 470 588 of South Africa's 2 255 982 disabled population. Approximately 22 percent (2 064 298) of KwaZulu-Natal's population have no formal education and only 6.9 % have a tertiary qualification. Of KwaZulu-Natal's population 27.8% are employed, 21.6% are unemployed and 45.7% are not economically active. 142 900 of the employed population are involved in the agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing sectors and 9 089 are involved in the mining and quarrying economic sector. 581 036 of KwaZulu-Natal's population live in dwellings made of traditional materials. Approximately 27 percent of the population use wood for cooking. Approximately 27 percent of the population do not have access to piped water and rely on boreholes, springs, rain-water tanks, dams, pools, stagnant water, rivers, streams and water vendors. Approximately 40 percent have no

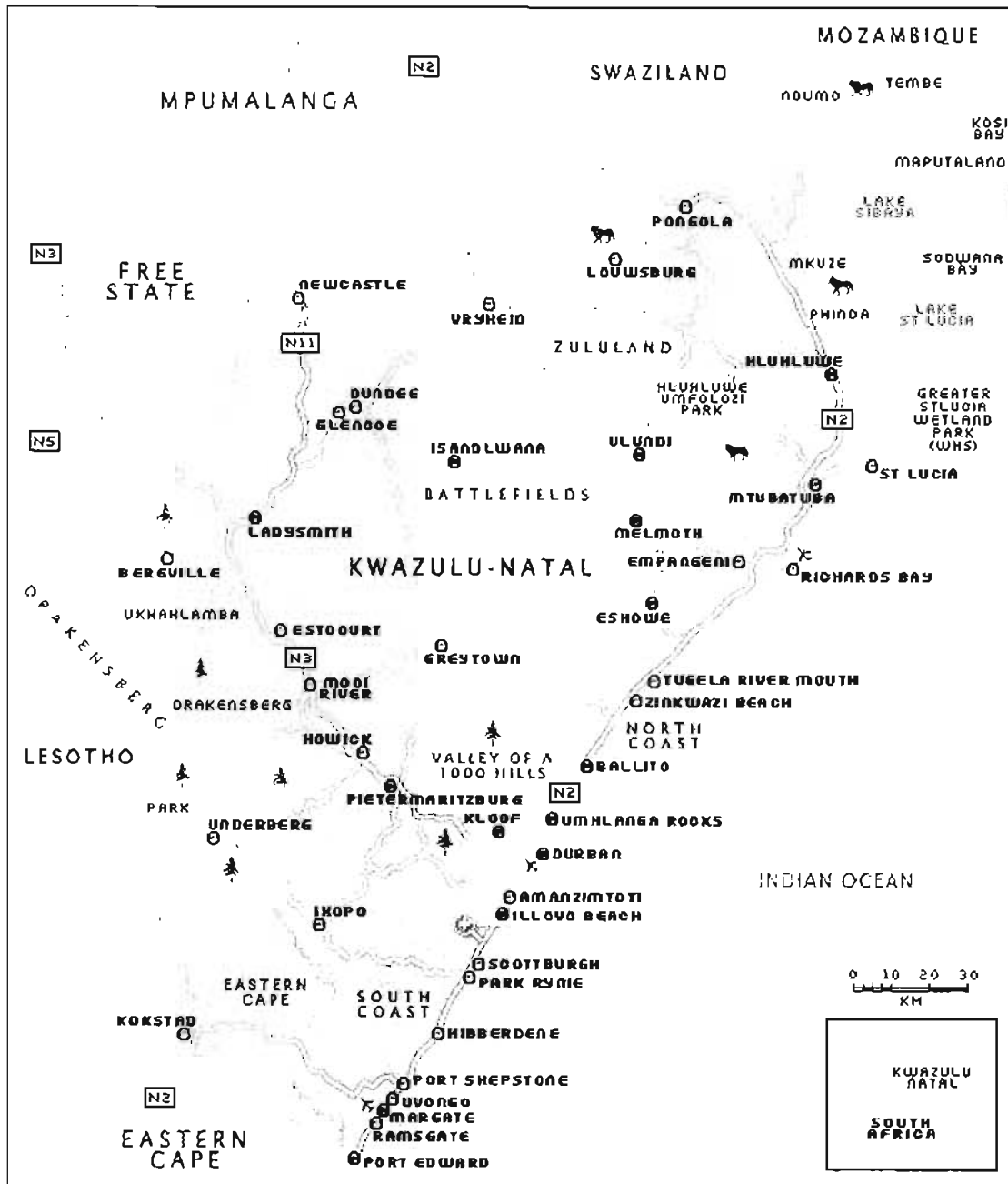
access to either a telephone or a cellular phone. Approximately 16 percent have no toilet facilities and 49.2% have no access to refuse removal.

Map 5.1: Map of South Africa



The Map below illustrates the protected areas in KwaZulu-Natal.

Map 5.2: Map of KwaZulu-Natal depicting the protected areas within the province



5.3.1. The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park

Wetlands Wire (2005) indicates that at present there are 788 World Heritage sites with sixty three in Africa and six in South Africa. The Greater St Lucia Wetland Park was among the first three to be inscribed, along with Robben Island and the Cradle of Humankind in December 1999. Aylward (2003) illustrates that the Greater St Lucia Wetlands complex lies to the east of KwaZulu-Natal. The Park extends from the Mozambican border, north of the Kosi Bay estuary, to Mapelane which is south of the St Lucia estuary. On the eastern boundary is the Indian Ocean. On the western boundary are the Kosi, Sibaya and St Lucia lake systems as well as the uMkhuze Game Reserve. The Integrated Management Plan (2004) asserts that being South Africa's third largest Park, the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park is approximately 325 000 hectares in size with 220 km of coastline.

Aylward (2003) asserts that the three largest protected areas of the Greater Saint Lucia Wetlands Park are Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park (96,500 hectares), Mkhuze Game Reserve (38,000 hectares), and the Ithala Game Reserve (29,500 hectares). Lake St Lucia is situated on the east coast of northern KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa. On 2nd October 1986 the St Lucia system was declared a wetland of international importance in terms of the Ramsar Convention. The Greater Saint Lucia Wetland Park was declared a World Heritage Site in 1999 due to its unique ecosystems and its spectacular natural beauty. Covering a distance of approximately 220 km and comprising 325 000 hectares, the Park extends from the border of Mozambique south to Cape St Lucia. Chapman et al. (2003) illustrate that the Greater Saint Lucia Wetlands Park comprises five inextricably linked ecosystems: a marine system characterised by a warm sea, the southernmost extension of coral reefs in Africa, submarine canyons, and long sandy beaches, a coastal dune system consisting of high linear dunes sub-tropical forests, grassy plains and wetlands, lake systems including two estuary-linked lakes, St Lucia and Kosi, and four large freshwater lakes, Sibaya (the largest in Southern Africa), Ngobezeleni, Bhangazi north and Bhangazi south, the Mkuzi and Imfolozi swamps, with swamp forests, extensive reeds and papyrus swamps, and an inland system which includes ancient shoreline terraces and dry savannah.

According to Crass (1982), conservation of the Greater St Lucia area dates back to 1895 when the reserves were set aside along the shores of St Lucia. A 1940 visit by Dr Bonde to the Lake of St Lucia was subsequently followed by a scientific expedition by Prof. Day in 1948. The mud-filled channel saw a decrease in the fish population with a resultant downturn in tourism. The management practices of Lake St Lucia came under fire for not finding acceptable solutions to the problems arising out of the drop in water levels. In response, the Provincial Executive Committee of the St Lucia Scientific Advisory Council (SCADCO) was formed around 1968, with a view towards researching the Lake and making recommendations. The solution to the problem, however, came in the form of a flood in 1972.

Taylor (1982) illustrates that historically, the land-uses of the St Lucia System were tourism, nature conservation activities, afforestation, bait fisheries, the cutting of nceme, reeds and thatch, fish poaching, military and mining. Tourism activities comprised ski-boat fishing, shore angling, driving of off-road vehicles, skin-diving, spearfishing, bait collecting, swimming other beach activities and infrastructure associated with the different types of land uses. Nature conservation activities comprised animal introductions, animal culling, veld-burning, alien plant removal, management of poaching and dredging. Approximately fifteen tons of prawns and one and a half tons of mullet are caught by the Natal Parks Board for angling purposes per annum. *Juncus Kraussi* (ncema), reeds and thatch are harvested by the Zulu people to use in mat making and hut construction. Fish poaching, through the use of gill nets, result in the sale of fish in the Stanger-Durban region. Military uses by the South African Defence Force (SADF) are for the purposes of missile testing. Prospecting mining leases were granted for the mining of rutile, ilumenite and zircon which are richly deposited in the coastal sand dunes. Land-use infrastructure comprises staff housing, offices, roads, telephone systems, jetties, and fleets of motor vehicles and boats.

With regard to the land-use, Taylor (1982: 241) states:

Man has a large influence in the St Lucia system which cannot be ignored. As the demands for further development of the area increase, so there is continuous insidious expansion of the utilisation of the area. Prior to further expansion a master plan providing for all land-uses in the whole area should be drawn up. This plan should take into account the need for a diversity of habitats, of tourist facilities, and the requirements of the country for paper-pulp and for minerals. It will be necessary to zone the area to prevent the more intensive forms of land-use from encroaching on the extensive ones. For each zone the type of development and recreation usage should be specified, and limits be placed on the extent of usage.

The Environmental Impact Report undertaken by CSIR (1993) asserts that the area surrounding Lake St Lucia is one of the least developed districts in South Africa with conditions of extreme poverty. Case Study 2 (2000: 65) stated:

As reported yesterday, the development of the St Lucia region as an ecotourist destination has to demonstrate success within 20 years. While this may seem like an age to some, it is actually very little time when one is considering the highly complex nature of human and environmental interaction in the Greater St Lucia Wetlands. The rate of population increase can be expected to continue in a region well known to be the poorest in the province, while it is impossible to predict the political or even the climatic circumstances that will prevail in 20 years' time. The potential for immediate development of St Lucia is apparent in the fact that twice as many tourists visit the region as to the Kruger National Park. The challenge is to get the Parks Board, resort developers and investors, and representatives of the local community working together to provide a viable and sustainable plan for the exploitation of the region. On a larger scale, the success of the St Lucia plan will also depend on the solving the problems of criminal and political violence, and creating and adequate transport network. Building the proposed King Shaka Airport and the upgrading of the north coast road are essential to ensuring that both economic development and the protection of the environment can co-exist in harmony.

Ngalwa (2004) asserts that forced removal of the communities living in the Park took place between 1950 and 1970. The Leon Commission, which was set up to advise government on the path to take, argued against the mining option and recommended that ecotourism be the preferred industry. In terms of the national policy on land claims with regards to World Heritage Sites, land claimants may possess title deeds to the land but not allowed to move back onto the land. With regards to the development aspect of the Park, 884-bed facilities are planned for the 18 months to follow. Nine hundred direct jobs are expected to be generated from the development.

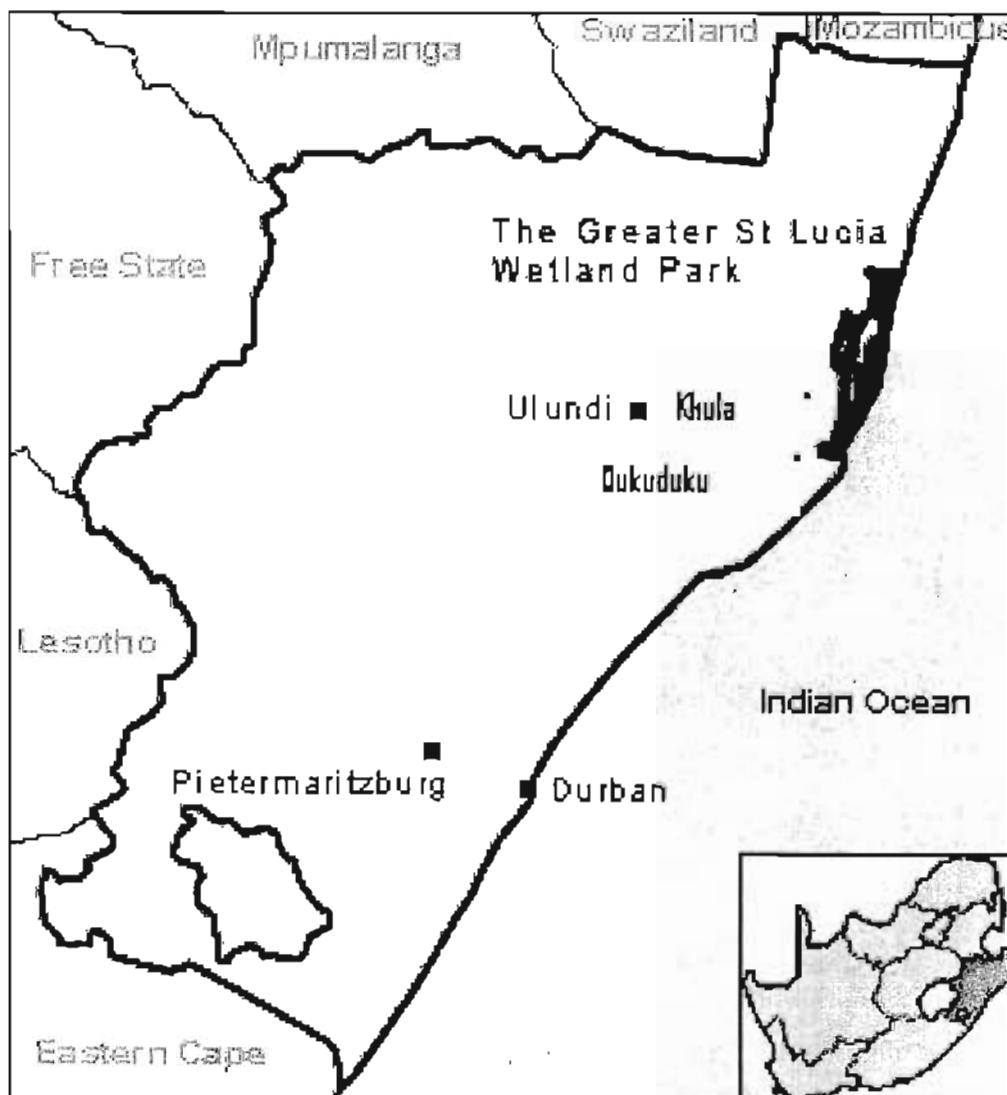
Tribune Reporter (2004) illustrates that the Bhangazi community that are now resettled around the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park have been given financial compensation as well as five hectares of land within the Park for burial and ancestral ceremonies. Groenewald (2004) states that the Bhangazi community as well as the Mabibi community has entered into partnerships with the private sector in tourism business ventures in the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. After being forcibly removed from their land, each homestead of the Bhangazi community received thirty thousand rands in 1999 in terms of the land claims settlement. With the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park receiving World Heritage status, the Bhangazi community, under the stewardship of the Bhangazi Trust, has become partners in three sites within the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park; Cape Vidal Lake, Perrier's Rock and Cape Vidal beach. Since the formation of the trust in 2000, the trust has received almost one million rands of the 10% of the revenue that the community receives from gate takings at Cape Vidal. The Emalangeneni community is said to get shares in development on the Amanzinyama sites, land claimants from the Western shores of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park are said to get shares from Ndlozi A and Ndlozi B development sites, while the Enkovukeni and KwaDapha communities are said to get shares from the Enkovukeni and Nek- KwaDapha development sites respectively. The shares are said to range between 5% and 30%.

Khula village was established by the state to resettle some of the families who had settled in the Dukuduku indigenous forest and comprises some 925 residential plots of the order of 2 000m² each. The properties have been developed by the community and

accommodate homesteads with associated subsistence agricultural activities. Dukuduku Forest lies to the south and south-west of Khula Village. Dukuduku Forest comprises of a community of about 10 000 people. The Dukuduku community rely on subsistence farming and the manufacture of crafts, essentially for their livelihood strategies. The location of Khula Village and Dukuduku Forest in relation to the Park is illustrated on the Map below.

(http://www.stluciainfo.co.za/area_khula.stm).

Map 5.3. Map of KwaZulu-Natal depicting the Khula Village and Dukuduku Communities in relation to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park



5.3.2. The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park

The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park is the largest protected area in KwaZulu-Natal and is shown in Map 5.4. To the south of the province, the escarpment forms a natural border with Lesotho. It is also one of the main tourist attractions in South Africa (Aylward, 2003). The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park is 180 km in length and extends from Royal Natal National Park in the north to Bushmen's Nek in the South. Sandstones, mudstones and shales form the sedimentary rock structure of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountain. The sedimentary rock structure has an overlay of basaltic lava. The result is different soil types (Rand Water, 1998 as cited in Integrated Planning Services, 1998: 17). More than one-third of South Africa's water is supplied by the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains. Many small wetlands are scattered around the Park. These wetlands form an integral part of the water sustainability (Integrated Planning Services, 1998: 18). Vegetation communities in the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains are grassland, woody vegetation and wetlands (Rand Water, 1998 as cited in Integrated Planning Services, 1998: 18). A further division of the vegetation yields yellowwood forest, scrub forest, tree proteaveld, protea scrubveld, subalpine, scrub heath, alpine heath, southern tall grassveld and alpine veld. The flora of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains are *Aloe pratensis*, *A. cooperie* (var), *A. aristata* (a much valued endangered medicinal plant) and *Scilla natalensis* (also a much valued medicinal plant). Cannabis cultivation is also a feature of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains (Masson, 1991 cited in Integrated Planning Services, 1998: 18-19).

Indigenous animals of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains are Mountain Reedbuck, Klipspringer, Grey Rheebuck and baboons. Some of the more than 75 species of birds present are Cape Vultures, Lammergeiers, Black Storks, Bald Ibis and Black Eagles (Masson, 1991 cited in Integrated Planning Services, 1998: 18-19).

The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park has been proclaimed a World Heritage Site for both its natural as well as its cultural significance. The Park comprises a range of mountains that reaches more than 3000 metres in height. Evidence of *Homo Sapiens*, San hunter-gatherers, living on the mountains dates back to more than 8 000 years. Some 6 000

recognised San rock art sites within the Park dates back as far as 2 400 years (Chapman et al., 2003/4: 60). The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park satisfied the following criteria for its natural significance:

- Outstanding example of the major stages of the earth's evolutionary history,
- Outstanding example of communities of plants and animals or land forms,
- Area or feature of superlative natural beauty
- Important habitat of threatened species of plants and animals

(National Parks Board Commission as cited in Integrated Planning Services, 1998: 12-13)

The Park satisfied the following criteria for its cultural significance:

- Represent a unique artistic or aesthetic achievement, a masterpiece of the creative genius,
- Have exerted considerable influence over time or within an area on subsequent cultural developments
- Be unique, extremely rare, or of great antiquity,
- Be amongst the most characteristic examples of a type of structure,
- Be a characteristic example of a significant, traditional style of architecture, construction or human settlement,
- Be most importantly associated with ideas or beliefs, with events, or with persons, of outstanding historical significance

(National Parks Board Commission as cited in Integrated Planning Services, 1998: 12-13)

Mnweni and Obanjaneni are rural communities that lie just outside the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park which is a World Heritage Site (Map 5.5). Mnweni is located within Ward four of the Okhahlamba Municipality (OLM) and Obanjaneni is in Ward six of the Okhahlamba Municipality (2001 Census). The number of people living within the OLM at that time of the 1996 Census was 119 319. If the growth rate of 0.7% is used, which is the average for the period 1996-2001 which considers the effect of HIV/AIDS, then the current population is estimated at 123 106. This population is

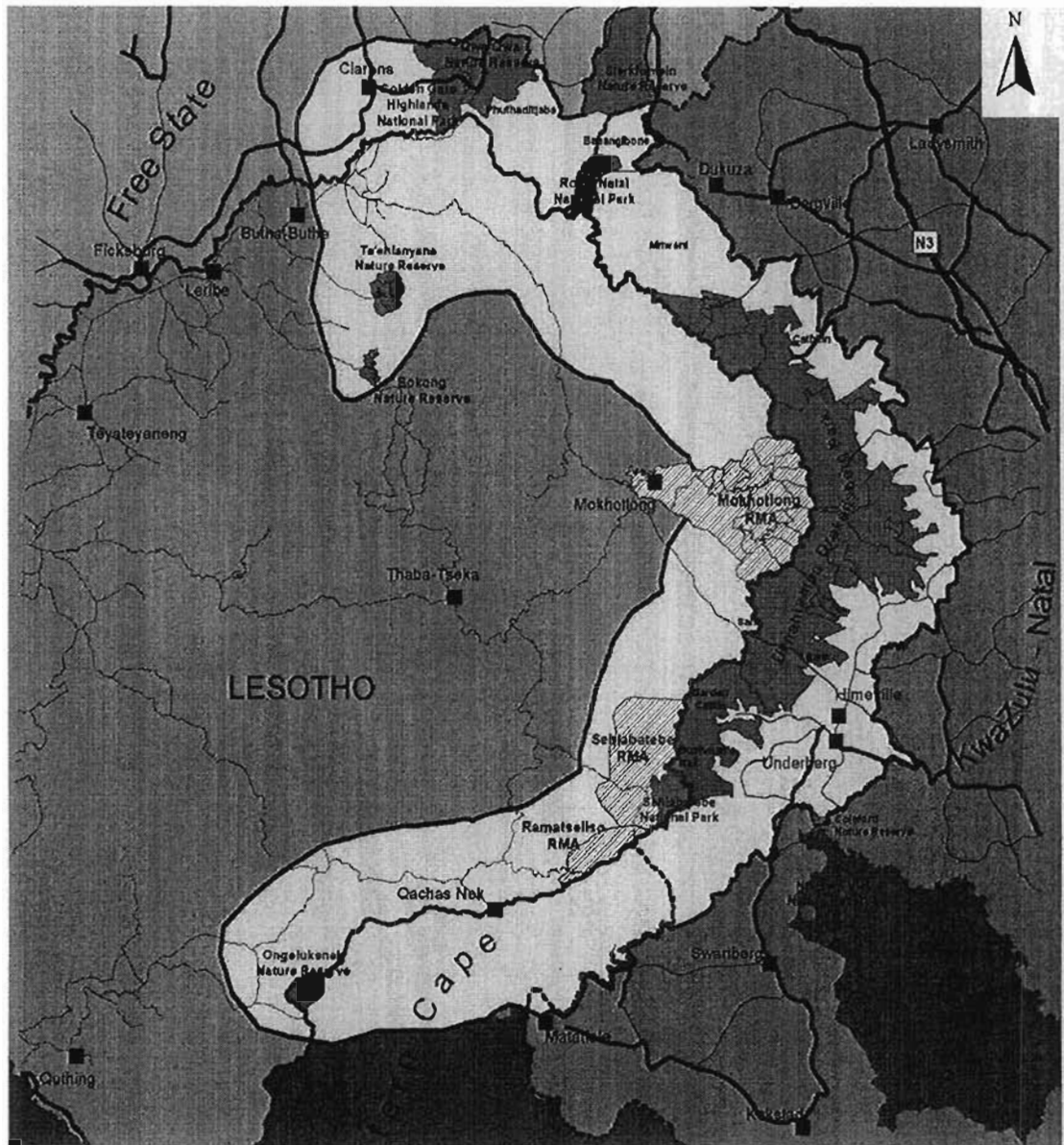
predominantly resident in rural tribal areas and freehold and settlement areas, and is 97% African. Such a high percentage of Africans is due mainly to the fact that most of the land in the OLM is owned by the Ingonyama Trust or consists of Black-owned freehold settlements, which are densely settled with tenants. This population is mainly distributed in the tribal areas along the eastern edge of the Amangwane and Amazizi tribal boundaries. As most of the settlements are remote from urban areas, the provision of basic services, infrastructure and employment is problematic, and there is a continuous movement of people (particularly males) to the urban areas in search of work. This results in a higher number of females and young people (under the working age of 20 years) in the rural areas, and more males in the urban centres (Integrated Development Plan, 2002). The Integrated Development Plan (2002) identified four logical clusters of issues or problems within the Okhahlamba Municipality. These are:

- Socio-economic
- Local economic development
- Infrastructure
- Institutional

A community led project high in the Drakensberg has seen collaboration between NGOs, scientists and farmers in the pursuit of sustainable livelihoods. The project is funded by the World Bank through the Maloti Drakensberg Transfrontier Project (MDTP). The Obanjaneni and Mnweni communities' livelihoods depend on the cultural and natural resources of the area. The MDTP has financially supported a donga rehabilitation project for a period of one year. The project has developed into a community-led cultural and natural resource management project. A collaborative project between the Farmer Support Group, Bergwatch and the Department of Grassland Science was also funded through the MDTP for two years and includes the communities of Mnweni and Obanjaneni. A group of volunteers from Okhombe (rural neighbour to both Mnweni and Obanjaneni) has begun to monitor the results of the project. They have been trained to collect data on rainfall, grass cover and soil runoff, comparing degraded areas with rehabilitated ones. The group is now gathering information to inform reclamation efforts in other areas. It is stated that through this initiative farmers will have access to further

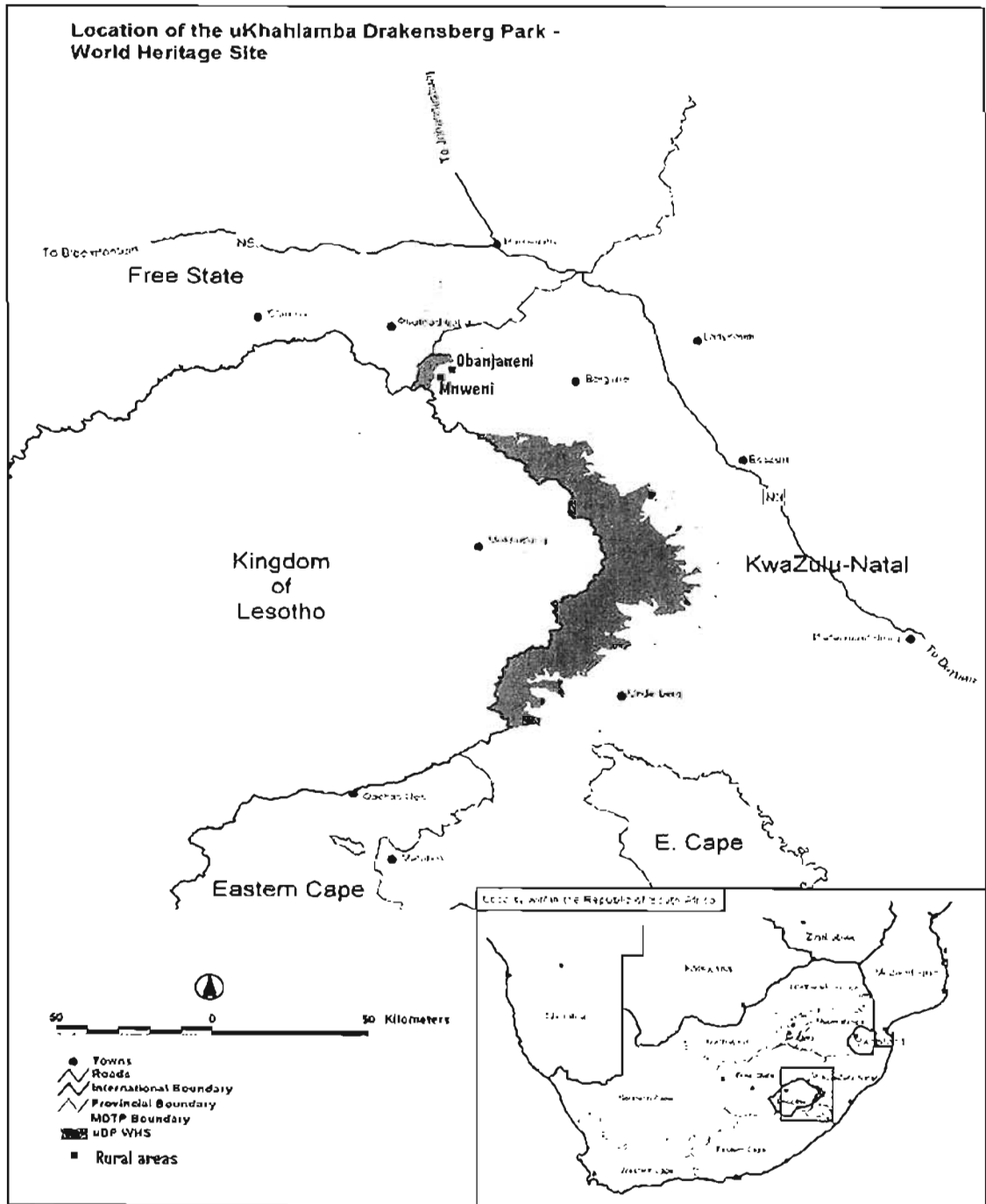
support in the establishment and management of a community conservation area to ensure that their sources of livelihood will continue to support them in the future (Masemola et al., 2005).

Map 5.4: Map of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park



Source: Maloti Drakensberg Transfrontier Project

Map 5.5: Map of KwaZulu-Natal showing the Obanjani and Mnweni Communities in relation to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park



5.4. Selection of the Sample

Bailey (1994) states that surveying entire populations consumes considerable amounts of time and money. Hence, sampling rescues the situation by ensuring that the data that is collected is reflective of the population that is being surveyed. The principle of sampling, therefore, allows for heterogeneous populations to also be sampled. However, the process of sampling is not without its pitfalls. Too small a sample size may not be an adequate reflection of the population being surveyed. Bob (2000) states that sampling refers to the set of procedures by which individuals, households or communities are selected from a total population group. The basic rationale behind sampling is that it is often not possible given various constraints to cover all units in a population. Some of the factors, according to Bob (2000), include the size of the population, time and financial costs, inadequate person power and the fact that potential respondents may choose not to participate in the research process.

De Vos (2003) states that a sample comprises the elements of the population considered for actual inclusion in the study. The major reason for the utilisation of a sample is because of its feasibility. Researching an entire population is both costly and time consuming. Hence, sampling allows for time, money and effort allows for a better quality of research and in-depth information. The sample chosen in relation to the various stakeholders (tourists, tour operators, accommodation personnel, rural communities, NGOs and government) at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park are discussed below. Types of sampling that were utilised in the study were purposive sampling and systematic sampling.

5.4.1. Tourists

Using purposive sampling, a total of two hundred tourists (one hundred from each park) were surveyed. The tourists were approached in the Park. In the case of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, where access to tourists was difficult, the researcher approached tourists that were either leaving or entering shopping centres in the vicinity of the Park. Upon confirmation that they were tourists that were visiting the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, the researcher would request that they take part in the research survey.

The researcher formally introduced the topic and permission was sought as to whether the tourist would fill out the questionnaire. Where the tourists indicated that they did not have time to fill out the questionnaire they suggested that they would fill out the questionnaire when they get back to the homes and then post it to a forwarding address that was provided by the researcher. Hence, the time and space, with regards to receiving responses from the tourists, varied.

5.4.2. Tour Operators

A total of ten different tour operators were surveyed. The tour operators conducted tours to both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains. The tour operators were chosen on the basis that they conducted tours to the two World Heritage Sites. Hence, the tour operators were purposively chosen. The responses of the tour operators were captured using a questionnaire. The tour operator questionnaires were self administered as well as researcher administered. Two of the tour operator questionnaire were completed electronically and forwarded to the researcher.

5.4.3. Accommodation Personnel

A total of twenty accommodation personnel, ten each from the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, were purposively selected and surveyed. The responses of the accommodation personnel were captured through the use of questionnaires. All of the accommodation personnel requested that the researcher leave the questionnaires with them and to then collect them at a later stage.

5.4.4. Community

One hundred households from each of the two communities identified in each of the Parks were surveyed using a systematic sampling approach. Fifty households in each community were identified. Thus, a total of 200 households were interviewed. The two communities bordering the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park that were surveyed were Mnweni and Obanjaneni. The two communities bordering the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park that were surveyed were Khula Village and Dukuduku Forest. The community households' responses were captured through the use of questionnaires. Owing to the

language challenge (the researcher was English speaking while most households spoke isiZulu), the community households' surveys were conducted with the assistance of fieldworkers that were employed from the communities. The fieldworkers were chosen on the basis that they were able to converse in both English and Zulu and they were workshopped as to how they should introduce themselves, how to capture the information provided by the respondents, how to focus on the task at hand, etc. Other criteria that the fieldworkers had to satisfy were that they were to have at least a matric pass and they had to be unemployed. Additionally, both males and females were employed.

5.4.5. NGOs

The Wildlife and Environmental Society of South Africa (WESSA) is a Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) that advocates on behalf of both the natural environments of uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. An interview was conducted with a representative of the eThekweni Branch of the Wildlife and Environmental Society of South Africa. An interview was also conducted with a representative from Ezemvelo KZN-Wildlife. He is the camp manager of Tendele Camp in the Royal Natal National Park, in the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains. Both WESSA and Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife are NGOs which are responsible for biodiversity conservation at the two World Heritage Sites as well as other protected areas. The interviews were conducted through the use of a structured set of questions.

5.4.6. Government

An online questionnaire was partially completed by a representative from the National Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism.

5.5. Research Instruments

The two broad research tools that were utilised to conceptualise and carry out the research survey were secondary data sources and primary data collection methods. These methods are outlined below. Secondary data sources provided data that has been collected, analysed and discussed by previous scholars in the field. Hence, secondary data forms a body of theory that helps to contextualise current research in the field.

5.5.1. Secondary Data Sources

Secondary data about the ecotourism industry, in general, and the ecotourism industry in South Africa were sourced from journal articles, the general media, government, non-governmental organisations, conferences and the internet. The secondary data collection served to inform as well as to contextualise the present study.

5.5.2. Primary Data Sources

The primary data sources used in the study included questionnaire surveys, structured as well as unstructured interviews, observational studies, visual data collection and participatory techniques.

5.5.3. Questionnaire Survey

De Vos et al. (2003) state that a questionnaire is made up of a set of questions on a form which is completed by a respondent in respect of a research project. The questions can be either open or closed. Alternatively, the questionnaire can contain statements on which respondents are requested to react. Questionnaire surveys are commonly used to obtain important information about the population. Each item in the questionnaire is developed to address a specific objective, research question or hypothesis of the study. The researcher must also know how the information obtained from each questionnaire item will be analysed. With regards to the writing of the questions De Vos et al. (2003) state:

- Sentences must be brief and clear, and the vocabulary and style of the questions must be understandable to the respondents.
- Questions and response alternatives must be clear and not reflect the bias of the researcher.
- Every question must contain only one thought.
- Every question must be relevant to the purpose of the questionnaire.
- Abstract questions not applicable to the milieu of the respondents should rather be avoided. Researchers must also not take for granted that respondents will have knowledge about a subject.
- The sequence in which the questions are presented must be aimed at general, non-threatening questions first, and more sensitive, personal questions later.

In this study, questionnaires were used with the tourists (Appendix 1), tour operators (Appendix 2), the accommodation personnel (Appendix 3) and the communities (Appendix 4). The surveys in this study included close-ended questions and open-ended questions as indicated earlier. The close-ended questions were related to gathering social, economic and environmental data that can be quantified. However, the general structured nature of questionnaires tends to provide limited flexibility. To some extent, including open-ended questions in this study was an attempt to address this concern. Furthermore, the questionnaires depend largely on the respondent's ability to grasp the question and articulate his/ her response.

5.5.4. Key-informant Interviews

Structured interviews were conducted through the use of a set of questions. Unstructured interviews were also conducted with stakeholders. The different stakeholders representing their respective constituencies were interviewed and asked their views about their roles pertaining to the ecotourism sector at the two World Heritage Sites. According to Flower et al. (1997), an informal approach is more likely to produce the data of the type required. Except for government, all other interviews were researcher administered to guard against confusing the questions. The researcher also clarified the questions during the interviews thereby helping the respondents give relevant responses. Also, to gather in-depth understanding of the social issues, interviews were necessary so that such information could be elucidated through interaction and genuine conversation.

5.5.5. Participatory Techniques

Bob (2000) asserts that whilst the concept of participation may mean different things to different people, the centrality of it is that it includes the ideas of contributing, influencing, sharing, redistributing power and control of resources, benefits, knowledge, and skills to be gained through beneficiary involvement in decision-making. Bob (2000) states further that one view of participation is to increase efficiency. In this regard, the idea is that if people are involved then they are more likely to agree with and support the chosen process of development. The second view perceives participation as a fundamental right. In this regard, the main aim of participation is to initiate mobilisation

for collective action, enhance community capacity by stressing institution building and increased empowerment. The participatory technique that the researcher employed for data gathering entailed immersing himself in the day-to-day activities of the neighbouring rural communities, developing relationships with people with the aim of shaping the research process as well as observing the dynamics at play in both the study areas. The participatory tools that were employed were problem scoring and ranking exercises, chappati or venn diagrams, mental mapping and transect walks. Participatory approaches to research were intended to remove the element of domination by the researcher. The research process then became an interactive process as opposed to a question and response technique that is usually susceptible to an unequal power relation between the researcher and the respondent. Ranking and scoring exercises helped make an assessment of the community's expectations, beliefs, judgements, attitudes, preferences and opinions. The scoring and ranking exercises helped to prioritise issues. Community mapping entailed the mapping by representatives of the community of geographical features such as roads, homesteads and rivers of the area. The use of venn diagrams provided a graphical understanding of the social capital that was present within the four rural communities.

5.5.6. Observational Studies

This technique entailed the observation of the day to day activities of the neighbouring rural people and their interaction with the Parks and tourists, where applicable. Vos et al. (2003) state that methods such as participant observation are used to acquire an in-depth knowledge of the dynamics under study. With regards to the current study, the manner in which the tourists interacted with the plant and animal life at the Greater St Lucia Wetland and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Parks was observed. This observation expanded to the observation of environmental impacts as well. Visual data was captured through the use of a digital camera.

5.6. Procedure for Analysis of the Data

In this study, various tools were used to analyse and understand the different types of data collected. The tools comprised the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS),

venn diagrams, ranking matrix, transect walks and mental mapping.

With regard to the analysis of data, De Vos et al. (2003) state:

Basically data analysis (in the quantitative paradigm) entails that the analyst breaks data down into constituent parts to obtain answers to research questions and to test research hypotheses. The analysis of research data, however, does not in itself provide the answers to research questions. Interpretation of the data is necessary. To interpret is to explain, to find meaning. It is difficult or impossible to explain raw data; one must first describe and analyse the data and then interpret the results of the analysis.

5.6.1. Quantitative Methods

Neuman (1997) asserts that quantitative style of data research measures objective facts, focuses on variables, focuses on reliability, is value-free, is independent of the context and the researcher is detached. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the quantitative data. The data was described and summarised through the use of descriptive statistics, frequency tables and graphic representations. The purpose of descriptive statistics was to enable the researcher to meaningfully describe the distribution of scores or measurements using a few statistical indices. Graphs were generated using the EXCEL Software Package.

5.6.2. Qualitative Methods

According to Neuman (1997), qualitative research style focuses on constructing social reality and cultural meaning, focusing on interactive processes, acknowledging, a thematic analysis of understanding and the involvement of the researcher. The qualitative tools that were utilised to construct and understand social reality within the research areas were venn-diagrams, ranking matrix, transect walks and mental mapping.

5.6.2.1. Interviews

The data collected through interviews allowed for the voices of the interviewees to have a space within the research process. The steps taken to analyse the interview schedules was through data organisation, creating categories, themes and patterns using codes. The researcher then evaluated and analysed the data to determine the adequacy of information and the credibility, usefulness, consistency and validation or non-validation in answering the research questions. The researcher made comparisons, looked for similarities and differences between and among concepts as well as statements to truly reflect the respondents' perceptions.

5.6.2.2. Venn Diagrams

Venn diagrams are visual methods used to represent the role of individuals/ institutions and the degree of their importance within the communities. Venn-diagrams are visual representations of the different power structures that the community perceives to be influencing decisions at the community level. Venn diagrams, hence, is a visual representation of the social capital that is present within the community. This tool helped the researcher to both gain an insight into the different organisations that were present within the community as well as to understand the roles of these organisations.

5.6.2.3. Ranking Exercises

Problem ranking exercises were conducted in three of the four rural communities. Access to one of the rural communities (Dukuduku Forest) for the purposes of conducting the ranking exercise was fraught with problems. Hence, the problem ranking exercises were conducted in the communities of Obanjaneni, Mnweni and Khula Village. Problem ranking exercises using pair-wise ranking and scoring were conducted with the communities mentioned. Pair-wise ranking and scoring are tools for identifying issues of concern, their causes and prioritising these problems.

The problem ranking exercise was conducted through firstly having a brainstorming exercise as to the many and varied problems facing the rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. The problems stated were then coded and put

onto a matrix table. Each problem was then pitted against another such that the problem that was scored the most was an indication of the degree of priority of that particular problem. The problem that was regarded as the one with the highest degree of priority was ranked as number one. The ranking exercises presented the many problems experienced by the rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites but with a clear and defined prioritisation scale.

5.6.2.4. Mental Mapping

The communities that were surveyed were requested to do a mental mapping exercise. The mental mapping exercise entailed the mapping of the landscape, geographical features, social institutions, economic centres, etc.

5.7. Limitations of the Study

Limitations of the study included the unwillingness of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park Authority to grant permission to conduct the study within the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, the unwillingness of many tour operators to respond to the questionnaire survey and the volatile situation within Dukuduku Forest which made research work potentially dangerous. Hence, the data that was sourced from the various stakeholders were done so under constraints thereby frustrating the research process. Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife that is responsible for biodiversity conservation at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park refused to answer any questions owing to the fact that the research at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park was not authorised by the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park Authority. Such refusal was an indication of Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife not practising an autonomous and independent role as a conservation body. The implicit collusion of Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife with the ecotourism sector at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park was clearly evident even though the Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife representative did indicate telephonically that he was aware of environmental impacts that were being caused by the tour operators at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. The verbal reason given for the refusal of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park Authority to grant permission was that the survey would raise the expectations of the neighbouring communities. Tour operators as well as accommodation personnel sometimes refused the researcher access

to their clients (tourists).

5.8. Conclusion

This Chapter discussed the research methodology, tools and techniques utilised in the study. The research methodology, tools and techniques were utilised with the intention of addressing the objectives of the study as well as trying to address the research questions. The objective of a stakeholder analysis of understanding ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites was important in so far as understanding that different and vested interests within the ecotourism sector as well as to access views as to how those interests could best be served in a sustainable manner.

CHAPTER SIX

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

6.1. Introduction

Maguire (1989) states that statistical analysis is an important tool that could be utilised in many areas of geography. According to Gregory (1971), the methods and techniques utilised in data analysis is primarily determined by the nature of the statistical data themselves. There is also the trend that is emerging that raw data are assuming a more quantitative nature and less of a qualitative nature. However, raw data must at the end of the analysis process be able to have meaning.

Chapter six, hence, presents an analysis of the raw data that has been collected from the various stakeholders interviewed at the two World Heritage Sites. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and Excel software programmes were utilised for the purposes of data analysis. Tables and graphs are utilised for the presentation of the data. Participatory Rural Appraisal methods such as venn diagrams, problem ranking matrix and mental mapping are also presented in this chapter. This section is divided into six sections representing the stakeholders who were used in the comparative study between the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region and the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. They are:

- Tourists to the Parks
- Tour operators
- Accommodation personnel
- Local communities residing alongside the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region and the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park
- Conservation bodies working in the two Parks
- Government

6.2. Tourists

Advocates of ecotourism often assume that its activities are environmentally benign. This assumption is made because the number of tourists and party sizes are small and because the tourists are interested in aspects of the environment and are, therefore, assumed to respect natural phenomena. Visitors are encouraged to take only photographs and leave only footprints (Wall, 1997).

6.2.1. Tourist Characteristics

Differentiation between an ecotourist and adventure tourists are not usually made within the ecotourism industry. All foreign travellers were thrown into the same category of ecotourism (Eagles, 2002). The surveying of tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park seeks to understand the profile of the tourists who visit the two World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.1. Nationality of tourists (%)

NATIONALITY	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
South African	66	77	71,5
German	4	6	5
British	14	2	8
American	1	-	0,5
French	2	-	1
Australian	2	2	2
Dutch	10	13	11,5
Taiwanese	1	-	0,5

Table 6.1 illustrates that sixty six percent of the respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 77% of the respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were South African tourists. Whilst South Africa, after 1994, is growing as a tourist destination for international tourists its domestic market is also growing (Turner, 2001). Fourteen percent of the respondents at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were British tourists and 10% were Dutch. In the uKhahlamba Drakensebrg Park 13% were Dutch and 6% were German. The nationality of other tourists interviewed at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were German (4%), British (14%), American (1%), French (2%) Australian (2%) and Taiwanese (1%). The nationality of other tourists interviewed at the

uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains were German (6%), British (2%) and Australian (2%). The results indicate that domestic tourism to the two World Heritage Site comprise a major component of tourism. In 1994, 7.9 million domestic tourists went on 17 million holidays (Government of South Africa, 1996 cited in Turner, 2001). The results indicate that the development of the tourism sector to the two World Heritage Sites is reliant on the domestic market for its economic maintenance and, hence, the continuous servicing of this market is integral to the sustainability of tourism to the two World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.2. If living in South Africa, province that respondent resides in (%)

PROVINCE	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Gauteng	17	38	27,5
KwaZulu-Natal	37	19	28
Free state	1	2	1,5
Mpumalanga	2	9	5,5
Northern cape	2	-	1
North west province	1	-	0,5
Limpopo province	1	-	0,5
Western cape	2	9	5,5
Eastern cape	4	-	2
Not applicable	34	23	28,5

Table 6.2 illustrates that thirty seven percent of the respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were from KwaZulu-Natal and 17% were from Gauteng. Thirty percent of the respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were from Gauteng and 19% were from KwaZulu-Natal. With the exception of KwaZulu-Natal, most of the visitors to the two World Heritage Sites were from Gauteng. Of the nine provinces of South Africa, Gauteng is the most economically developed. The reasons for most of the visitors coming from KwaZulu-Natal and Gauteng could be three-fold: the earning-power of the visitors; the location of the Parks within KwaZulu-Natal and also their relative close proximity to Gauteng or the fast and stressful lifestyles of people living in Gauteng and, hence, their need for ecotourism sites that will help them relax.

Figure 6.1. Gender of respondent (n=100 in each Park)

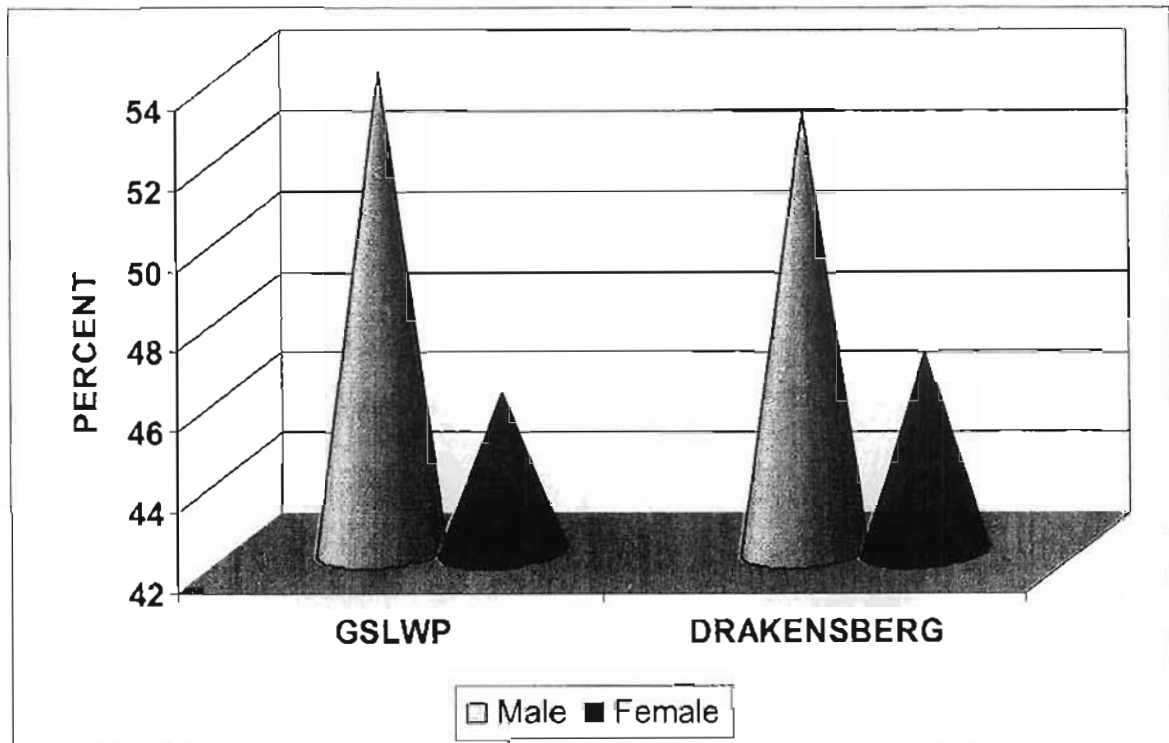


Figure 6.1 shows that fifty four percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were male and 46% were female. Fifty three percent of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were male and 47% were females. The results indicate that more males than females visit the two World Heritage Sites. The results could be indicative of the relatively unequal power-relations (economically and socially) between the males and females in South Africa and may thus account for more males than females visiting the two World Heritage Sites. Other factors could be that women have more responsibilities at home than men and face more constraints with regard to travel.

Table 6.3. Age of respondent (%)

AGE (in years)	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
1-21	13	5	9
22-30	27	22	24,5
31-40	21	29	25
41-50	11	24	17,5
51-60	12	10	11
>60	16	10	13

Table 6.3 shows that thirteen percent of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 5% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were in the age category of 1-21 years. Twenty seven percent of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 22% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were in the age category of 22-30 years. Twenty one percent of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 29% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were in the age category of 31-40 years. Eleven percent of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 24% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were in the age category of 41-50 years. Twelve percent of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 10% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were in the age category of 51-60 years. Sixteen percent of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 10% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were more than sixty years of age. It seems that for the 41-50 years age category the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park is more appealing than the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

Table 6.4. Marital status of respondent (%)

MARITAL STATUS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Single	42	3	22,5
Married	46	12	29
Divorced	9	79	44
Widowed	3	6	4,5

Of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 42% were single and 46% were married. Of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, 12% were married and 79% were divorced (Table 6.4). More single and married people visit the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park than the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and more divorced people visit the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park than the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. Physical activities are more numerous at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park than at the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The possibility, therefore, exists that the Mountains offer more of a solace and refuge for divorced people than the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

Table 6.5. Education level of respondent (%)

EDUCATION	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	4	3	3,5
Primary	2	-	1
Secondary	18	12	15
Tertiary	68	79	73,5
Other (short courses)	8	6	7

Sixty eight percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 79% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had a tertiary qualification (Table 6.5). The high educational qualification of the visitors to the Parks could also indicate the higher earning-power of the respondents and, hence, their capacity to travel on holidays to the Parks.

Table 6.6. Occupation of respondent (%)

OCCUPATION	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	1	-	0,5
Unemployed	2	-	1
Student	21	3	12
Professional	20	41	30,5
Labourer	5	-	2,5
Artisan/technician	2	2	2
Home executive	6	13	9,5
Business person	16	11	13,5
Retired	19	10	14,5
Administrator	2	11	6,5
Other	6	9	7,5

Of the tourist respondents to The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 21% were students, 20% were professionals, 19% were retired and 16% were business persons. Of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, 41% were professionals, 13% were home carers, 11% were administrators and business persons and 10% were retired (Table 6.6.). Labourers or workers are conspicuously absent as visitors to the two World Heritage Sites. Their relatively low paid jobs may be an obstacle towards them taking a holiday. Visitors to the two World Heritage Sites comprise mostly the middle class.

Table 6.7. Income in rands per month (%)

INCOME	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	8	13	10,5
0-10,000	35	18	26,5
11,000-12,000	19	34	26,5
21,000-30,000	8	2	5
31,000-40,000	7	13	10
41,000-50,000	-	3	1,5
51,000-60,000	2	3	2,5
>60,000	8	11	9,5
Not applicable	13	3	8

Of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 35% had an income of between zero and ten thousand rands and 19% had an income of between eleven and twelve thousand rands. Of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, 34% earned an income of between eleven and twelve thousand rands, 18% earned an income of between zero and ten thousand rands and thirteen percent did not respond as well as had an income of between thirty one and forty thousand rands (Table 6.7). The results indicate the economic ability of the respondents to take a holiday to the two World Heritage Sites. The results also indicate the middle class characteristic of visitor to the Parks. Spending is a major factor in that it provides the economic means for people to purchase services and goods from the ecotourism industry. Likewise, those with no or limited monies will not possess the economic means to purchase goods and services from the ecotourism industry. Ecotours, it seems, is definitely out of the financial reach of poor. According to Bulbeck (2005: 6):

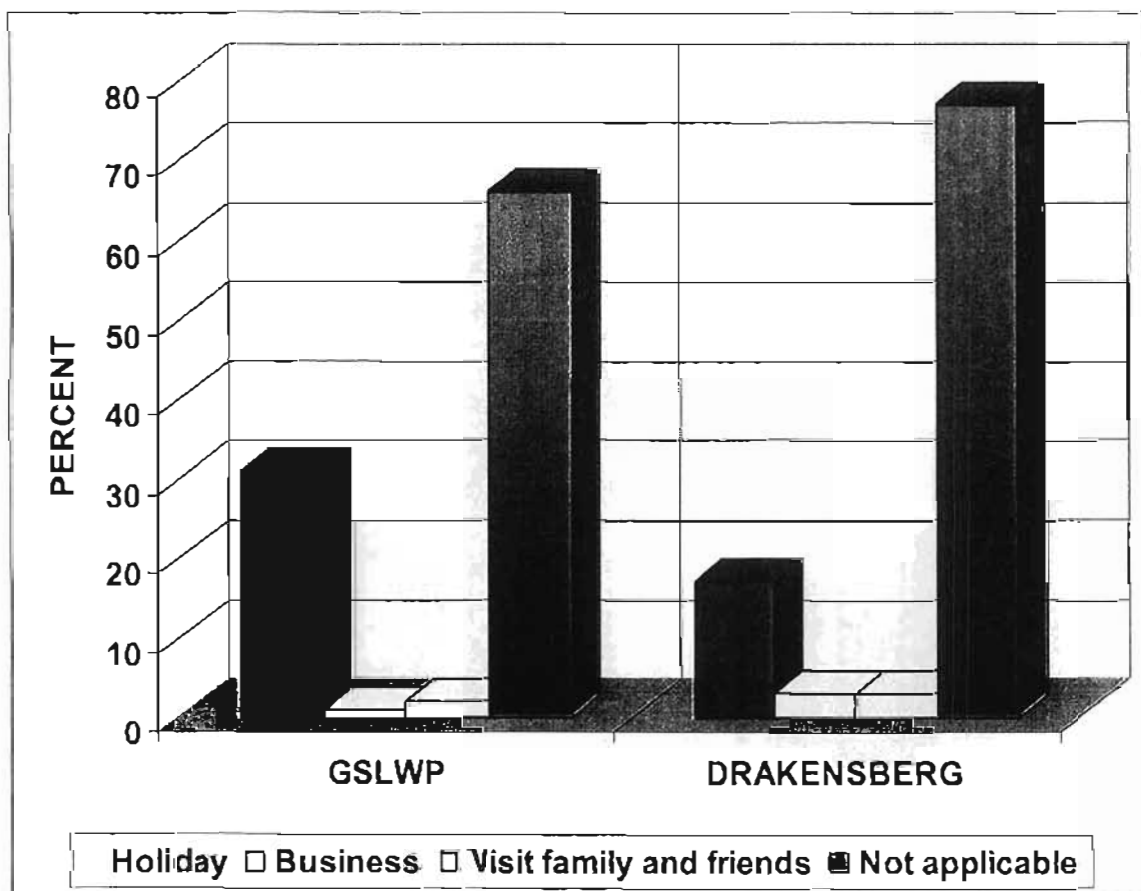
It sometimes appears that ecotourism is really just niche tourism for the rich or less about the environment than about reducing the guilt of wealthy travellers and feeding the human egotourism.

Table 6.8. Description of tourist group (%)

GROUP	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	1	-	0,5
Alone	9	-	4,5
Family	42	68	55
Friends	29	21	25
Tour group	18	9	13,5
Business colleagues	1	2	1,5

Table 6.8 illustrates that of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 42% described their group as family, 29% as friends and 18% described their group as a tour group. Of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, 68% described their group as family, 21% as friends and 9% as a tour group. Only 9% of respondents in GSLWP stated that they were alone. This indicates that the vast majority of tourists travelled in some type of group indicating that the visits were social activities.

Figure 6.2. Reasons for visiting South Africa (n=100)



Thirty one percent of the foreign tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 17% of the foreign tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that their primary reason for visiting South Africa was for holiday purposes (Figure 6.2). In a study on 'Market Behaviour of Nature Tourism in South Africa' the most important reason given by foreigners for visiting South Africa was 'wildlife' (Lindberg, 2003: 97).

Table 6.9. Respondent's knowledge of conservation and ecotourism (%)

	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
ENVIRONMENT			
No response	3	2	2,5
None	19	15	17
Self taught/reading	33	37	35
School	23	20	21,5
Technical	6	-	3
University	16	26	21
MAGAZINES			
No response	2	-	1
Never	5	12	8,5
Sometimes	65	43	54
Frequently	23	38	30,5
Always	5	7	6
ORGANISATIONS			
Yes	24	31	27,5
No	76	69	72,5
SCALE			
No response	3	-	1,5
Not an environmentalist	10	9	9,5
Slightly environmentalist	55	46	50,5
A strong environmentalist	32	45	38,5
WETLANDS ECOLOGY			
No response	3	8	5,5
None	1	9	5
Vague	40	28	34
General	36	43	39,5
Good	20	12	16

NATURAL AREAS			
No response	3	6	4,5
None	4	4	4
Vague	18	16	17
General	46	45	45,5
Good	22	26	24
Detailed	7	3	5
BIODIVERSITY			
No response	4	8	6
None	14	14	14
Vague	26	24	25
General	37	33	35
Good	14	18	16
Detailed	5	3	4
ECOTOURISM			
No response	4	8	6
None	11	14	12,5
Vague	22	24	23
General	40	33	36,5
Good	20	18	19
Detailed	3	3	3
SUSTAINABILITY			
No response	4	10	7
None	11	7	9
Vague	28	14	21
General	34	39	36,5
Good	18	24	21
Detailed	5	6	5,5
WORLD HERITAGE			
No response	4	10	7
None	13	5	9
Vague	18	11	14,5
General	44	37	40,5
Good	16	31	23,5
Detailed	5	6	5,5
MOUNTAIN ECOLOGY			
No response	4	10	7
None	9	2	5,5
Vague	33	26	29,5
General	40	49	44,5
Good	10	13	11,5
Detailed	3		1,5
Not applicable	1		0,5

Of the tourist respondents visiting the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 33% indicated that their knowledge of the environment was attained through self teaching, 23% studied the environment at school, 19% had not done any environmental studies and 16% had studied the environment at university (Table 6.9). Of the tourists visiting the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respondents indicated that 37% learnt informally about the environment, 26% had done a university course, 20% were taught at school and 15% had not done any environmental studies. The democratic transition in South Africa also witnessed the natural environment being much more prominent in the educational curriculum of both schools as well as tertiary institutions. In South Africa, Outcomes Based Education (OBE) serves to look at learning in general, and the natural environment, in particular, from an integrated as well as a holistic perspective. In South Africa, the current and future generations would be much more aware of the natural environment.

Five percent and 12% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that they 'never' read environmental, nature or wildlife magazines (Table 6.9). Sixty five percent and 43% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that they 'sometimes' read environmental, nature or wildlife magazines. Twenty three percent and 38% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that they 'frequently' read environmental, nature or wildlife magazines. Five percent and 7% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that they 'always' read environmental, nature or wildlife magazines. The results indicate that visitors to the two World Heritage Sites do make an effort to inform themselves about environmental issues.

Twenty four percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 31% of the respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they belong to any conservation; environment or outdoor recreation organisation (Table 6.9). Seventy six percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 69% of the respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they do not belong to a conservation, environment or outdoor recreation organisation. Whilst the majority of the

tourist respondents have indicated that they do not belong to any environmental or related organisation, it cannot be assumed that they are not environmentalists.

Of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 10% of the respondents described themselves as not being environmentalists, 55% as slightly environmentalist and 32% as strong environmentalist. Of the tourists to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg, 9% of the respondents described themselves as not being environmentalists, 46% as slightly environmentalist and 45% as strong environmentalist (Table 6.9). Environmentalists are often criticised for focusing wholly on the natural environment at the expense of the indigenous people and their poverty conditions. A major aspect of the problem is that they wish to import 1st World ideas about the environment into the 3rd World. The 5th IUCN World Parks Congress, in Durban, attempted to shift from this position and hence the theme “Benefits Beyond Boundaries.” Hence, the concept of ‘environmentalist’ must begin to embrace the natural environment as well as the social and economic upliftment of the local people on a sustainable basis.

Of the tourists that visited the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 36% of the respondents indicated that they possessed a general knowledge of wetlands ecology, 40% a vague understanding, 20% a good understanding and 1% indicated that they had no knowledge of wetlands ecology. Of the tourists that visited the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, 43% of the respondents indicated that they possessed a general knowledge of wetlands ecology, 28% a vague understanding, 12% a good understanding and 9% indicated that they had no knowledge of wetlands ecology (Table 6.9).

As regards an understanding of natural area conservation, 46% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they had a general understanding; 22% a good understanding, 18% a vague understanding, 7% a detailed understanding and 4% indicated no understanding of natural area conservation. Of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, 45% indicated that they had a general understanding, 26% a good understanding, 16% a vague understanding, 3% a detailed understanding and 4% indicated no understanding of natural area conservation (Table 6.9).

As regards an understanding of biodiversity, 37% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they had a general understanding, 26% a vague understanding, 14% a good understanding and no understanding each and 5% a detailed understanding of biodiversity. Of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, 33% indicated that they had a general understanding, 24% a vague understanding, 18% a good understanding, 14% indicated no understanding and 3% a detailed understanding of biodiversity (Table 6.9).

Of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 40% indicated that they possessed a general understanding of ecotourism, 22% a vague understanding, 20% a good understanding, 11% no understanding and 3% indicated a detailed understanding of ecotourism. Thirty three percent of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that their understanding of ecotourism was general, 24% a vague understanding, 18% a good understanding, 14% no understanding and 3% indicated a detailed understanding of ecotourism (Table 6.9).

With regards to the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 34% indicated a general understanding of sustainability, 28% a vague understanding, 18% a good understanding, 11% indicated no understanding and 5% of the respondents indicated a detailed understanding of sustainability. With regards to the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, 39% indicated a general understanding of sustainability, 24% a good understanding, 14% a vague understanding, 7% indicated no understanding and 5% indicated a detailed understanding of sustainability (Table 6.9).

Forty four percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated a general understanding of 'World Heritage', 18% a vague understanding, 16% a good understanding, 13% no understanding and 5% indicated that they had a detailed understanding of 'World Heritage'. Thirty seven percent of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had a general understanding of 'World Heritage', 31% a good understanding; 11% a vague understanding, 6% a detailed understanding, and 5% indicated that they had no understanding of 'World Heritage' (Table 6.9).

Forty percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated a general understanding of 'mountain ecology', 33% a vague understanding, 10% a good understanding, 9% no understanding and 3% indicated that they had a detailed understanding of 'World Heritage'. Forty nine percent of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had a general understanding of 'mountain ecology', 26% a vague understanding, 13% a good understanding and 2% indicated that they had no understanding of 'mountain ecology' (Table 6.9).

Table 6.10. Number of times that respondents visit natural areas (%)

VISIT	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	3	25	14
Once	19	-	9,5
2-5 times	46	43	44,5
6-10 times	16	16	16
>10 times	16	16	16

The majority (46% and 43%, respectively) of tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they usually visit natural areas about two to five times a year (Table 6.10). Table 6.10 also illustrates that 16% of tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they usually visit natural areas about six to ten times a year. Sixteen percent of the respondents of both Parks indicated that they visited the respective Parks more than ten times per year (Table 6.9). The results indicate that natural areas (ecotourism sites) are sought after destinations and form an important component of the lifestyles of modern living. Ecotourism destinations, on a micro-scale, should form part of local economic development in all municipalities in South Africa. Ecotourism, together with conservation, should form part of the land-use and spatial planning of local municipalities. These ecotourism destinations could fall under the ambit of Municipal Heritage Sites and perform the same functions such as the World Heritage Sites, but on a much smaller scale. The creation of these sites could be part of the economic development of poor communities as described under the 'Second Economy.' Small, medium and micro enterprises (SMMEs) and co-operatives could be set up to administrate and manage these micro ecotourism destination sites. Currently there are many natural areas in predominantly White areas that are set aside as

conservation or protected areas. Such sites should be identified in predominantly Black areas and be transformed into conservation areas that are partnered with ecotourism. The conservation areas in predominantly White areas must also be converted into ecotourism destinations. Such areas could be fenced off, where they are not, and 'soft' game could be introduced into the Parks.

Table 6.11. Respondents' perceptions of sustainable ecotourism on a scale of 1-10 (%)

RANK-USING RESOURCES SUSTAINABLY	RANK	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS SBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Using Resources sustainably	1	37	34	35,5
Reducing Over –Consumption And Waste	2	12	14	13
Maintaining Diversity	3	5	3	4
Integrating Tourism Into Planning	5	3	6	4,5
Supporting Local Economies	9	6	9	7,5
Involving Local Communities	10	7	6	6,5
Consulting Stakeholders And The Public	8	3	-	1,5
Training Staff	7	13	6	9,5
Marketing Tourism Responsible	4	3	2	2,5
Undertaking Research	6	11	20	15,5

Table 6.11 illustrates that the majority of respondents (37% and 34%, respectively) for both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park ranked the use of resources sustainably as being most important to sustainable ecotourism. Using resources sustainably was ranked as number one. Reducing over-consumption and waste was ranked as number two by 12% of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 14% of the tourists to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Maintaining diversity was ranked as number 3 by 5% and 3%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Marketing tourism responsibly was ranked as number four by 3% of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 2% of the tourists to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Integrating tourism into planning was ranked as number five by 3% of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 6% of the tourists to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Undertaking research was ranked as number six by 11% of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 20% of the tourists to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Consulting stakeholders was ranked as

number eight by 3% of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. Supporting local economies was ranked as number nine by 6% of the tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 9% of the tourists to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Involving local communities was ranked as tenth by 7% and 6% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park respectively. For ecotourism to be sustainable, it is imperative that the local communities be an integral, if not the central focus of any ecotourism development. It is indeed disconcerting that this aspect was ranked 10th by the tourists interviewed.

Table 6.12. Respondents' reason/s for visiting the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg/ Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park (%)

IMPORTANT REASON-VISITING	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (n=100)	TOTAL (n=200)
Relaxation	48	73	60,5
Adventure	6	2	4
Research purposes	8	3	5,5
Experiencing game	9	-	4,5
To visit natural areas	19	18	18,5
To visit a World Heritage Site	10	4	7

Table 6.12 shows that the majority (48% and 73%, respectively) of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park stated 'relaxation' as the most important reason for their visit to the Parks. A state of relaxation is what most of the respondents to the two World Heritage Sites have sought. Clearly, the demand is relaxation and people are paying for it. At face values it seems that the determining factor for visits to ecotourists sites is to seek out places and spaces of relaxation. Pearce and Caltabiano (1983 cited in Bulbeck, 2005: 6-7) found that the most important reason given (52% of respondents) for planning a tour trip to another country was a 'chance to relax.' Bulbeck (2005: 132-134) also speaks about the 'Western disconnection from authenticity', the 'excesses of industrialisation' and 'deracinated westerners seek to recapture their lost sense of direction'.

Whilst, it may seem that ecotourism destinations perform a 'pull force', it is actually the 'push force' that motivates or compels people to travel to natural destinations. The pace

of life in modern society is dependent on the level of the modes of production. Where the modes of production are dependent on sophisticated forms of machinery and technology, the pace of life is even faster. The underlying factor in most, if not all, developed countries is that of profit maximisation and, hence, the continuous quest for more advanced forms of modes of production. The continuous cycle of production and surplus production keeps the labour force and those that control the labour force in a perpetual state of business. This state of business seldom or does not allow the unit of labour to be in a relaxed state unless that labour is able to accumulate enough money to temporarily escape the cycle of production and surplus production and head towards destinations that offer a temporary refuge from the hustle and bustle of daily living. So the availability of money is not the determining factor in ecotourism travel but rather the means through which a temporary escape from an un-relaxed state can be instituted. Therefore, the more the world races towards surplus accumulation the greater would be the demand for natural destination sites and, invariably, the greater would be the impacts (social, economic and environmental) at these destination sites.

The 'Theory of Cumulative or Aggregate Push' with regards to ecotourism states that the fast pace of modern living pushes up the demand for ecotourism destinations which pushes governments and entrepreneurs to form protected areas, which also becomes gradually swallowed up into the economic system of capital accumulation. The creation of protected areas pushes people out of the lands and further pushes them into crime, prostitution, unemployment, etc. This inherent contradiction or fault line in a system of material accumulation and profit maximisation, exposes the natural environment as well as vulnerable communities to a constant threat of degradation and desolation. It is, therefore, not surprising that many tools (legislation, EIAs, SEAs, carrying capacity, interpretation, zoning, buffer zones, etc.) have evolved with the express aim of managing these contradictions or constant threats to the natural environment. Whilst these tools are essential within such an economic set-up, they do not attempt to penetrate to the source of the problem and that is the reason for the creation of protected areas and its demand thereof. So as to stem the negative impacts of protected area formation and its subsequent

negative impacts, it is essential that the world becomes a place whereby the factors or forces that are responsible for the fast pace of living is reigned in.

Table 6.13. Respondents means of travel to the uKhahlamba Drakensberg Park and Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park (%)

TRAVEL	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	3	-	1,5
Aeroplane	5	-	2,5
Bus	14	-	7
Own vehicle	56	78	67
Hired vehicle	9	16	12,5
Conducted tour	13	6	9,5

Fifty six percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 78% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had used their own vehicle to travel to the Parks (Table 6.13). Five percent of the tourist respondents to the GSLWP indicated that they had travelled by plane. Fourteen percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park had travelled by bus. Nine percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 16% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park used a hired vehicle. Thirteen percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 6% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had travelled as part of a tour group. Motor vehicles using leaded fuel contribute to air pollution. The more vehicles using leaded fuel that travel to World Heritage Sites, the greater would be the air pollution.

Figure 6.3. Respondents' frequency of travel (%)

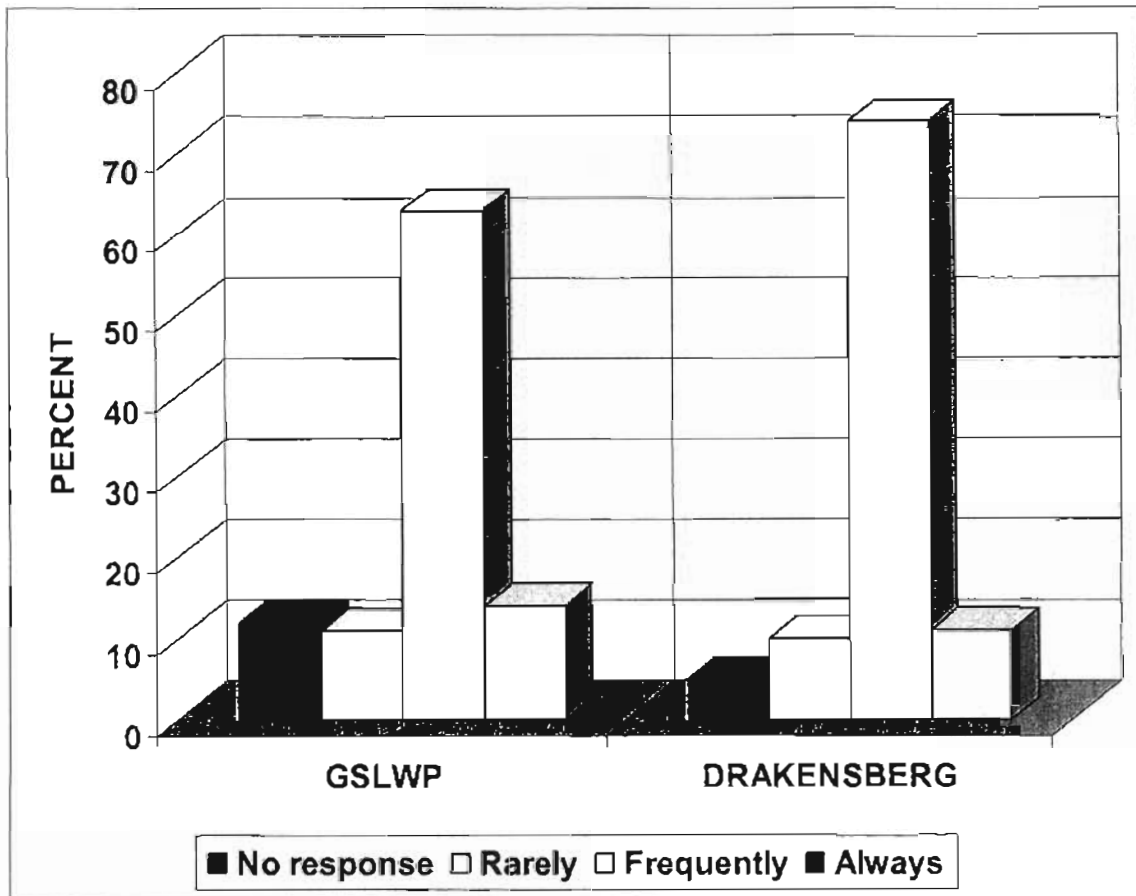


Figure 6.3 illustrates that sixty three percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 74% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they are frequent travellers. Eleven percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 10% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they rarely travel. Fourteen percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 11% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they always travel. So as to manage the potential negative impacts of ecotourism at protected areas and World Heritage Sites utilise the carrying capacity tool. The carrying capacity tool serves to restrict or control the number of visitors to protected areas. However, such a tool is irreconcilable with the fact that visitors are mostly frequent travellers and the intentions of tour operators are mainly to attract more tourists. Hence, the carrying

capacity tool, if utilised, is under constant threat by frequent travellers and the tour operator sector.

Table 6.14. Respondents' means of knowing about the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park (%)

FIND OUT	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	3	2	2,5
Television	10	10	10
Travel brochures	17	21	19
Word of mouth	40	36	38
Internet	16	14	15
Printed media	5	2	3,5
Tour operators	4	15	9,5
Hotels/motels/lodges	2	-	1
Environmental organisations	3	-	1,5

Forty percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 36% of the tourist respondents of Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park stated that they heard about the Parks through word of mouth (Table 6.14). Seventeen percent and 21% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that they found out about the Parks through travel brochures. Ten percent of the tourist respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park stated that they were informed about the Parks through television. Sixteen percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 14% of the tourist respondents of Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park stated that they were informed about the Parks via the internet. Five percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 2% of the tourist respondents of Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park stated that they found out about the Parks through the printed media. Four percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 15% of the tourist respondents of Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park stated that they heard about the Parks through tour operators. Two percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park stated that they found out about the Parks whilst staying at hotels, motels or lodges.

Two percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park stated that they found out about the Parks through environmental organisations. The experiences of visitors to the Parks are, therefore, important indices in determining whether the Parks are marketed positively or negatively to other potential visitors or tourists to the Parks.

Table 6.15. Number of times that respondents visited South Africa (%)

MANY TIMES	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	3	-	1,5
Once	22	15	18,5
Twice	2	5	3,5
Thrice	2	-	1
4 times	2	9	5,5
>4 times	4	-	2
Not applicable	65	71	68

For those that were foreign tourists, 22% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 15% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had visited South Africa once only. Two percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 5% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had visited South Africa twice. Two percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they had visited South Africa three times. Two percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 9% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had visited South Africa four times. Four percent of the tourist respondents had visited South Africa more than four times (Table 6.15).

Table 6.16. Respondents' intention on visiting South Africa again (%)

	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	2	-	1
Yes	26	25	25,5
No	1	-	0,5
Don't know	6	4	5
Not applicable	65	71	68

Of the tourists surveyed, 26% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 25% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they would visit South Africa again (Table 6.16). South Africa it seems is growing in status as an ecotourism destination. The satisfaction level of tourists is, therefore, an important factor in the economic development of South Africa. More foreign tourists means more foreign earnings and, hence, more opportunities for job creation.

Table 6.17. Number of times respondents visited the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP (%)

VISITED	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	2	-	1
Once	36	39	37,5
Twice	17	11	14
Thrice	10	8	9
4 times	11	17	14
>4 times	24	25	24,5

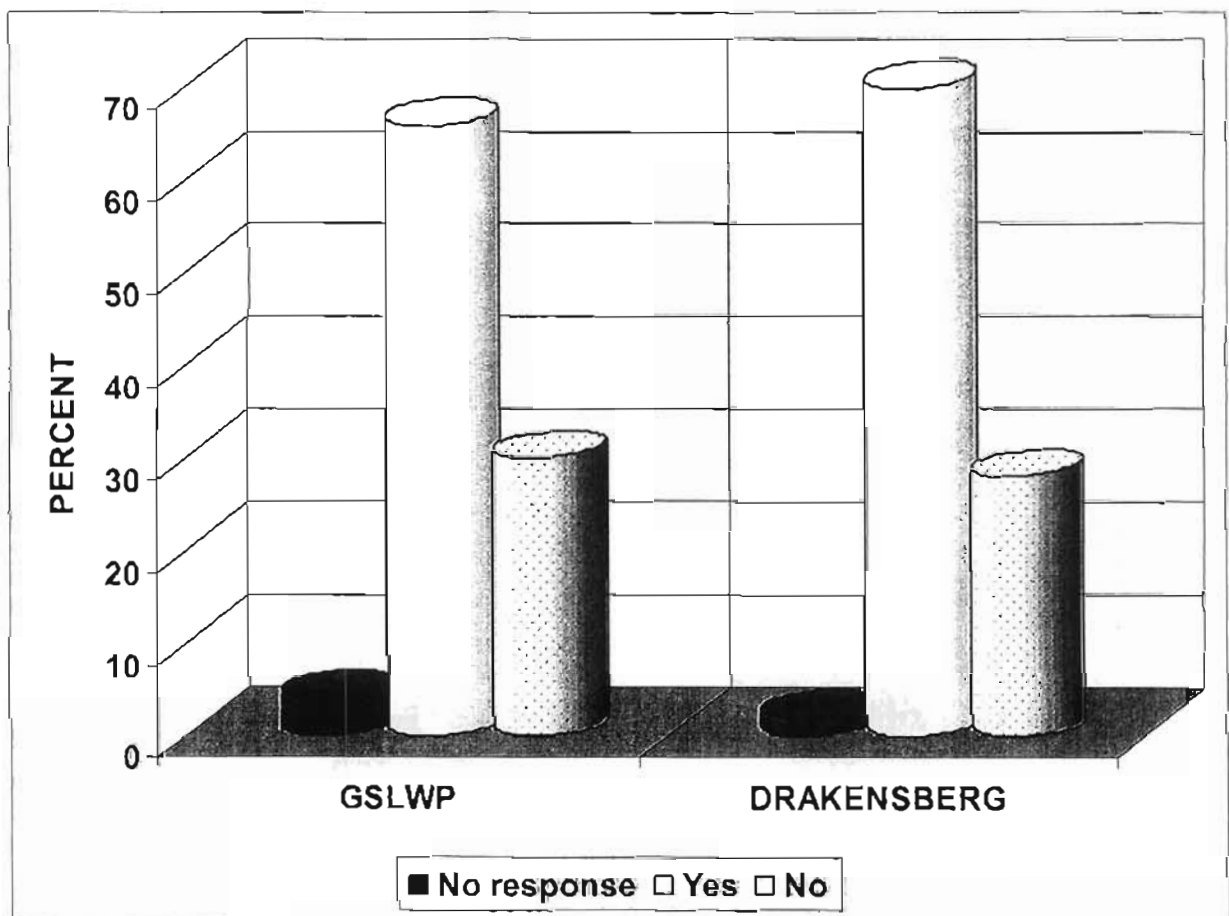
The majority (36% and 39%, respectively) of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had visited the respective Parks once. Seventeen percent of the tourists to the GSLWP and 11% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had visited the Parks twice. Ten percent of the tourists to the GSLWP and 8% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had visited the Parks three times. Eleven percent of the tourists to the GSLWP and 17% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had visited the Parks four times. Twenty four percent of the tourists to the GSLWP and 25% of the tourists to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had visited the Parks more than four times (Table 6.17).

Table 6.18. Respondents' intention on visiting uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP again (%)

FUTURE VISIT	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	4	2	3
Yes	68	71	69,5
No	4	3	3,5
Don't know	24	24	24

As to whether the tourist respondents would visit the respective Parks again, 68% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 71% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated yes (Table 6.18). The results indicate that the two World Heritage Sites do meet the demands of the visitors to the Park in so far as providing a relaxed environment.

Figure 6.4. Whether respondents visited natural Parks in other parts of the world (n=100 in each Park)



Sixty six percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 70% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had visited Parks internationally. Twenty eight percent of respondents of both Parks indicated that they had not visited Parks in other parts of the World (Figure 6.4).

Table 6.19: Respondents' rating of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP with Parks in other parts of the world (%)

RATE	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Best	28	33	30,5
Second best	27	30	28,5
Least best	14	9	11,5
Don't know	1	-	0,5
Not applicable	30	28	29

The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park was described as the best by 28% of the tourist respondents and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park was described as best by 33% of the tourist respondents (Table 6.19). The results indicate that KwaZulu-Natal's two world Heritage Sites fair well with Parks in other parts of the world. Such assets should be taken good care of and any threats to them should be identified and mitigated or eliminated.

Table 6.20. Duration of stay of respondents at the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park/ GSLWP (%)

HOW LONG	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	4	2	3
1 night	10	8	9
2 nights	31	15	23
3 nights	23	37	30
4 nights	6	13	9,5
5 nights	9	15	12
6 nights	3	4	3,5
7 nights	4	2	3
8 nights	1	4	2,5
9 nights	4	-	2
> 9 nights	5	-	2,5

Thirty one percent and 23% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they would be spending two nights and three nights, respectively, at the Park. Thirty seven percent of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they would be spending three nights at the Park. On average, respondents spent two nights at the GSLWP and three nights at the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (Table 6.20).

Table 6.21. Respondents' perceptions regarding satisfaction levels in relation to services (%)

SATISFACTION LEVEL-COST OF TRAVEL TO REGION	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	12	8	10
Excellent	6	16	11
Very good	12	8	10
Good	38	45	41,5
Satisfactory	24	17	20,5
Poor	8	6	7
EASE OF TRAVEL			
No response	13	12	12,5
Excellent	8	15	11,5
Very good	17	32	24,5
Good	47	24	35,5
Satisfactory	9	13	11
Poor	6	4	5
AVAILABILITY OF LODGING			
No response	14	11	12,5
Excellent	15	22	18,5
Very good	21	43	32
Good	32	18	25
Satisfactory	10	6	8
Poor	8		4
COST OF LODGING			
No response	13	11	12
Excellent	9	11	10
Very good	14	17	15,5
Good	32	37	34,5
Satisfactory	18	18	18
Poor	14	6	10

QUALITY OF LODGING			
No response	11	11	11
Excellent	7	9	8
Very good	18	43	30,5
Good	33	22	27,5
Satisfactory	21	12	16,5
Poor	10	3	6,5
AVAILABILITY OF INFORMATION			
No response	13	9	11
Excellent	15	11	13
Very good	22	27	24,5
Good	27	35	31
Satisfactory	19	14	16,5
Poor	4	4	4
LOCAL FOOD			
No response	14	17	15,5
Excellent	7	14	10,5
Very good	13	15	14
Good	28	27	27,5
Satisfactory	25	13	19
Poor	13	14	13,5
COST OF FOOD/DRINKS			
No response	14	16	15
Excellent	4	12	8
Very good	14	15	14,5
Good	33	32	32,5
Satisfactory	28	23	25,5
Poor	7	2	4,5
AVAILABILITY OF ARTS/CRAFTS			
No response	15	12	13,5
Excellent	15	7	11
Very good	20	31	25,5
Good	36	32	34
Satisfactory	11	10	10,5
Poor	3	8	5,5
COST OF ARTS/CRAFTS			
No response	16	16	16
Excellent	5	5	5
Very good	9	8	8,5
Good	40	45	42,5
Satisfactory	19	18	18,5
Poor	11	8	9,5

WILDLIFE VIEWING			
No response	10	20	15
Excellent	21	11	16
Very good	35	11	23
Good	27	33	30
Satisfactory	6	19	12,5
Poor	1	6	3,5
OPPORTUNITY TO MEET LOCALS			
No response	16	16	16
Excellent	8	12	10
Very good	11	20	15,5
Good	22	23	22,5
Satisfactory	20	13	16,5
Poor	23	16	19,5
NATURAL SCENERY			
No response	10	9	9,5
Excellent	31	70	50,5
Very good	34	19	26,5
Good	20	2	11
Satisfactory	4		2
Poor	1		0,5
FRIENDLINESS OF RESIDENTS			
No response	12	12	12
Excellent	9	34	21,5
Very good	21	37	29
Good	39	15	27
Satisfactory	12	2	7
Poor	7		3,5
GENERAL SERVICES			
No response	13	9	11
Excellent	10	23	16,5
Very good	16	29	22,5
Good	43	32	37,5
Satisfactory	12	5	8,5
Poor	6	2	4

Thirty eight percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 45% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the 'cost of travel to the region' was good. For western foreign tourists, a holiday in South Africa is relatively inexpensive given the exchange rates of the currencies such as the dollar, euro and the pound. South Africa, therefore, provides an opportune time for foreign tourists to be visiting. The current period provides the opportunity to develop the

South African economy from an ecotourism perspective. However, systems and mechanisms must be instituted such that the informal economy benefits as well. This calls for pro-poor tools within the ecotourism industry. Cost of travel within the region was described as good by 43% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 50% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (Table 6.21).

Ease of travel within the region was described as good by 47% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 32% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park as very good (Table 6.21). South Africa's road infrastructure is good in urban areas and poor in rural areas. For example, Plate 6.1 illustrates the road in Mtweni which is almost impossible to travel in during the rainy season. The macadamisation or tarring of roads requires that a minimum number of motor vehicles be utilising the road. Also, the cost of tarring rural roads has to be weighed against other development costs. The paradox of road infrastructure is that the roads leading up to the traditionally White establishments are tarred whereas the roads in rural areas are undeveloped or underdeveloped, even though they are in close proximity to each other. The tarring of roads is also contrary to the fundamental principles of ecotourism in that the natural environment is expected to be in its natural wilderness state. For many rural people, such thinking forms an obstacle to their development opportunities.

Thirty two percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the availability of lodging was good and 43% of the tourist respondents to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated the availability of lodging was very good. Cost of lodging was described as good by 32% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 37% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Quality of lodging was described as good by 33% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and as very good by 43% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Availability of information was described as good by 27% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia

Wetlands Park and by 35% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (Table 6.21).

Availability of information was described as good by 28% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 27% of the tourist respondents of Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (Table 6.21). The cost of food and drinks was described as good by 33% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 32% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The availability of arts and crafts was described as good by 36% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 32% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The cost of arts and craft were perceived to be good by 40% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 45% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The manufacture and sale of arts and crafts at the two World Heritage Sites may be categorised as belonging to two economies: one rich and White and the other Black and poor. The arts and crafts of the former economy are well packaged and sold at outlets that serve as safe havens for the tourists. The arts and crafts of the latter economy are poorly packaged and sold along roadsides to the two World Heritage Sites. The local people that sell these crafts have also been labelled as destroyers of the indigenous plants and trees. However, the sale of these arts and crafts is due to the demand created by the ecotourism industry.

Wildlife viewing was rated as very good by 35% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and as good by 33% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (Table 6.21). 2004 and 2005 saw the introduction of more wild animals into the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. With regards to meeting locals, the satisfaction levels was rated as good by 22% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 23% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The satisfaction level with regards to the natural scenery was rated as very good by 34% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and as excellent by 70% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Thirty nine percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park described the friendliness of residents as good and as

very good by 37% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The satisfaction levels of general services was described as good by 43% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 32% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Overall, tourists to the two World Heritage Sites were satisfied with the many aspects of goods and services. However, this should in no way indicate that the ecotourism sector should relax its services. On the contrary, the ability of the ecotourism sector to maintain a competitive edge is to have high service standards. The cultural aspects of ecotourism should be marketed much more vigorously such that the local people can market their cultural wares and such that cultural tourism and ecotourism become two sides of the same coin. Ideally, arts and crafts should be discouraged from being produced from indigenous plants and trees that are not in abundance.

Plate 6.1. The road to the Mnweni Tourism Centre is a difficult one

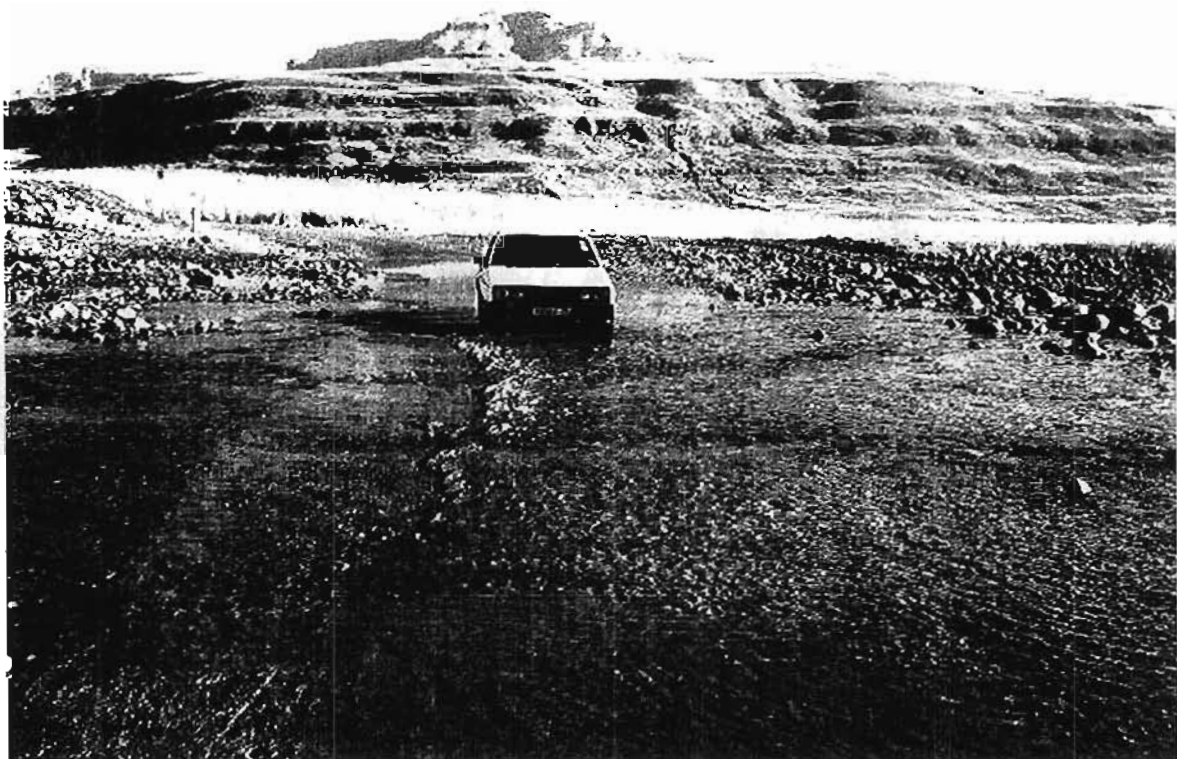


Table 6.22. Independent activities undertaken by respondents at the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP (%)

NATURE STUDY	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	28	28	28
Yes	34	20	27
No	38	52	45
TAKING PHOTOS			
No response	18	7	12,5
Yes	61	83	72
No	21	10	15,5
BOAT TRIPS			
No response	27	27	27
Yes	42	7	24,5
No	31	66	48,5
BIRD WATCHING			
No response	30	14	22
Yes	43	56	49,5
No	27	30	28,5
HIKING			
No response	27	8	17,5
Yes	45	78	61,5
No	28	14	21
FISHING			
No response	36	28	32
Yes	24	12	18
No	40	60	50
CAMPING			
No response	40	26	33
Yes	17	20	18,5
No	43	54	48,5

Independent nature study was undertaken by 34% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 20% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The independent taking of photos was undertaken by 61% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 83% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Independent boat trips were undertaken by 42% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 7% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (Table 6.22).

Independent bird watching was undertaken by 43% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 56% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Independent hiking was undertaken by 45% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 78% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Independent fishing was undertaken by 24% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 12% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The independent purchasing of arts and craft was undertaken by 37% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 38% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Independent camping was undertaken by 17% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 20% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (Table 6.22).

Table 6.23 illustrates that guided nature study was undertaken by 14% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 12% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The guided taking of photos was undertaken by 19% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 7% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The guided meeting of locals were undertaken by 13% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 15% of the tourist respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Guided boat trips were undertaken by 44% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 9% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Guided bird watching was undertaken by 18% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 15% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

Table 6.23. Guided activities undertaken by respondents at the uKhablamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP (%)

NATURE STUDY	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	42	27	34,5
Yes	14	12	13
No	44	61	52,5
TAKING PHOTOS			
No response	40	74	57
Yes	19	7	13
No	41	19	30
MEETING LOCALS			
No response	45	24	34,5
Yes	13	15	14
No	42	61	51,5
BOAT TRIPS			
No response	24	26	25
Yes	44	9	26,5
No	32	65	48,5
BIRD WATCHING			
No response	39	19	29
Yes	18	15	16,5
No	43	66	54,5
HIKING			
NO RESPONSE	39	11	25
YES	17	41	29
NO	44	48	46
FISHING			
No response	46	27	36,5
Yes	9	5	7
No	45	68	56,5
PURCHASING			
No response	45	25	35
Yes	9	10	10
No	46	65	55
CAMPING			
No response	46	25	35,5
Yes	9	13	11
No	45	62	53,5

Guided hiking was undertaken by 17% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 41% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhablamba-Drakensberg Park (Table 6.23). Guided fishing was undertaken by 9% of the tourist

respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 5% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The guided purchasing of arts and craft was undertaken by 9% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 10% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Guided camping was undertaken by 9% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 13% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Other guided activities were undertaken by 8% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 2% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Guided activity, as opposed to independent activity, is still undeveloped or of a lesser demand. Such as state of affairs has implications for the employability of future ecotourism guides. Authorities should factor in the specialised skills and knowledge of local guides within their marketing campaigns so that the demand for guides becomes much greater. The potential positive economic impact of ecotourism, in terms of job creation, is also increased.

Table 6.24. Respondents' choice of accommodation (%)

ACCOMMODATION	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	6	11	8,5
Day trip	5		2,5
Camping	7	15	11
Staying with family and friends	2	5	3,5
Hotel	12	11	11,5
Lodge	68	58	63

Lodges were used by 68% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 58% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. Seven percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 15% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg used camp accommodation at the Parks. Two percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 5% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg stayed with family and friends. Twelve percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 11% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg stayed at hotels (Table 6.24). Lodges are forms of

accommodation that is constructed of wood such that the accommodation is in keeping with the natural environment. However, whilst the structure is constructed of wood, many of the lodges are equipped with modern services such as electricity, fridges, televisions, etc. It seems that the ecotourism market is comprised of a range of different tastes and requests and it is only a select few that really embark on a truly ecotour, that is, a wilderness experience without the comforts of modern living.

Table 6.25. Whether respondents would recommend friends and family to visit the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP (%)

RECOMMEND	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (1000)	TOTAL (200)
No response	4	25	14,5
Yes	85	62	73,5
No	3	13	8
Uncertain	3	-	1,5
Don't know	5	-	2,5

Table 6.25 shows that eighty five percent of the respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they would recommend friends and relatives to visit the Park and 62% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they would recommend friends and relatives to visit the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. This is good news for those that rely on the World Heritage Sites for their livelihood.

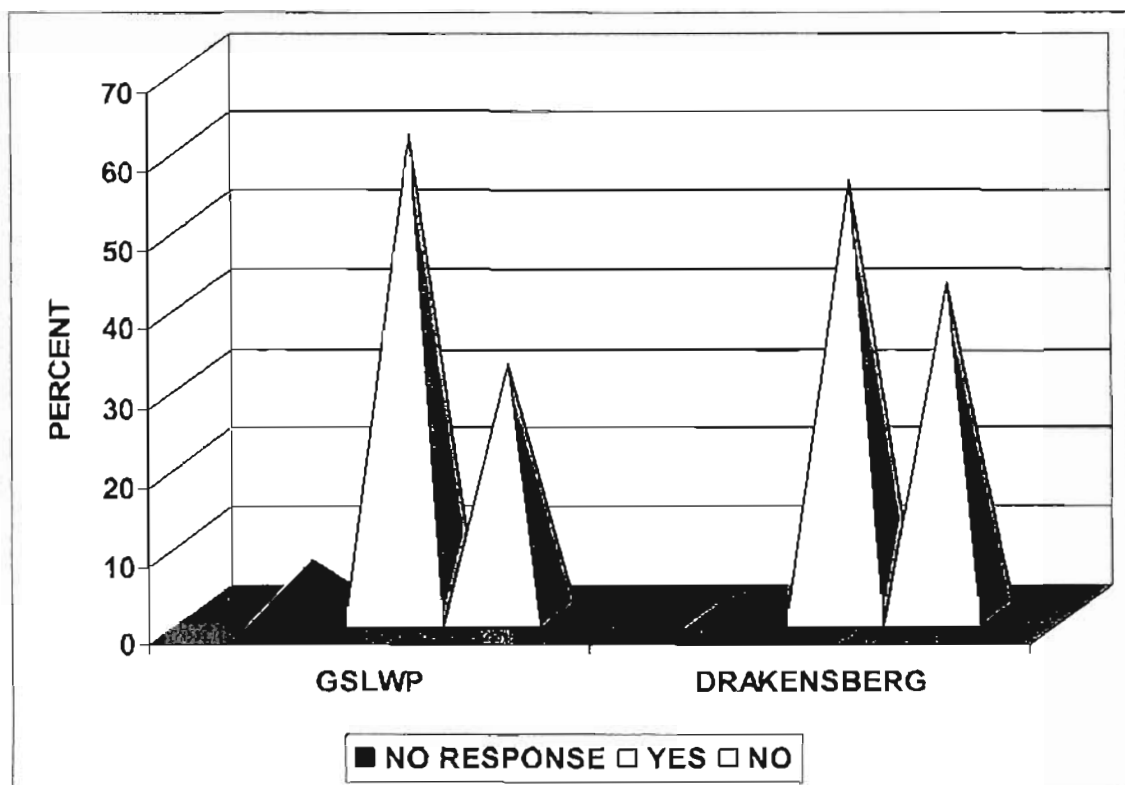
Table 6.26. Respondents' feelings towards uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP (%)

FEELINGS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	7	-	3,5
Very satisfied	69	89	79
Satisfied	20	8	14
Not satisfied	3	-	1,5
Don't know	1	-	0,5
Very unsatisfied	-	3	1,5

Sixty nine percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 89% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated

that their feelings towards the respective Parks could be described as very satisfied. Twenty percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 8% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that their feelings towards the respective Parks could be described as satisfied. Three percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they were not satisfied (Table 6.26).

Figure 6.5. Whether the respondents had met any of the local community whilst staying at the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP (%)



Sixty one percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 55% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had met members of the local community. Thirty two percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 42% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had not met members of the local community (Figure 6.5).

Table 6.27. Respondents' willingness to meet local people and learn about their cultures (%)

MEET AND LEARN	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	8	3	5,5
Yes	72	79	75,5
No	4	16	10
Don't know	16	2	9

Seventy two percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 79% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they were keen on meeting and learning about the local people and their cultures (Table 6.27). The ecotourism industry should develop and support cultural tours to the rural areas surrounding the two World Heritage Sites. Suffice to say there are many such projects throughout South Africa. However, such tours should begin to be integrated into the core of the ecotourism industry as opposed to be relegated to the periphery.

Thirty eight percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 34% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that hosts should set the limits on entry to households and sacred sites. Twenty six percent of the tourist respondents of both Parks 'strongly agreed' that hosts should set the limits on entry to households and sacred sites. Forty three percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 40% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that hosts should establish preferred or permitted tourist activities. Eighteen percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 13% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park 'strongly agreed' that hosts should establish preferred or permitted tourist activities (Table 6.28).

Table 6.28. Respondents' perceptions regarding community regulations on cultural tourism (%)

LIMITS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (1000)	TOTAL (200)
No response	15	27	21
Strongly agree	26	26	26
Agree	38	34	36
Strongly disagree	1	2	1,5
Disagree	5	5	5
Don't know	15	6	10,5
PERMITTED TOURIST ACTIVITES			
No response	16	33	24,5
Strongly agree	18	13	15,5
Agree	43	40	41,5
Strongly disagree	2	2	2
Disagree	7	9	8
Don't know	14	3	8,5
APPROPRIATE TIME			
No response	17	33	25
Strongly agree	23	27	25
Agree	35	34	34,5
Strongly disagree	10		5
Disagree	5	3	4
Don't know	10	3	6,5
LIMITS ON ACCESS			
No response	17	31	24
Strongly agree	16	19	17,5
Agree	29	17	23
Strongly disagree	11	5	8
Disagree	13	12	12,5
Don't know	14	16	15

Thirty five percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 34% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that hosts should indicate appropriate times for tourist access and use. Twenty three percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 27% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that hosts should indicate appropriate times for tourist access and use. Twenty nine percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park agreed and 17% of the tourist

respondents from the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that hosts should set limits on access to cultural knowledge and rituals. Sixteen percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 19% of the tourist respondents from the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park strongly agreed that hosts should set limits on access to cultural knowledge and rituals (Table 6.28).

Table 6.29. Perceptions of respondents with regards to ecotourism being used as a publicity and marketing tool by the tourism industry (%)

SUSTAINABLE TOURISM	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	17	15	16
Agree	34	47	40,5
Strongly agree	6	8	7
Neutral	22	13	17,5
Disagree	9	14	11,5
Don't know	12	3	7,5

Table 6.29 illustrates that 34% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 47% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed with the statement that 'ecotourism has been adopted by the tourism industry for economic, public relations and marketing reasons.' Six percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 8% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park strongly agreed with the statement that 'ecotourism has been adopted by the tourism industry for economic, public relations and marketing reasons.' Nine percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 14% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park disagreed with the statement that 'ecotourism has been adopted by the tourism industry for economic, public relations and marketing reasons.'

Table 6.30. Amount of money allocated by respondent for trip to South Africa (if foreign tourist) (%)

MONEY ALLOCATED	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
R5000-R8000	4	6	5
R9000-R12000	5	8	6,5
R13000-R16000	6	8	7
R17000-R20000	21	3	12
>R20000	1	4	2,5
Not applicable	63	71	67

Table 6.30 illustrates that 4% of the respondents to the GSLWP and 6% of the respondents to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park allocated between R5000 –R8000 for their trip to South Africa. Five percent of the respondents to the GSLWP and 8% of the respondents to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park allocated between R9000 –R12000 for their trip to South Africa. Six percent of the respondents to the GSLWP and 8% of the respondents to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains allocated between R13000 – R16000 for their trip to South Africa. Twenty one percent of the respondents to the GSLWP and 3% of the respondents to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains allocated between R17000 –R20000 for their trip to South Africa. The monetary allocation by the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park for the trip to South Africa ranged from five thousand rands to more than twenty thousand rands. The results indicate that the ecotourism industry does attract foreign currency and is, therefore, important in the economic development of South Africa.

Table 6.31. Percentage monies spent by respondents on different goods and services (if foreign tourist) (%)

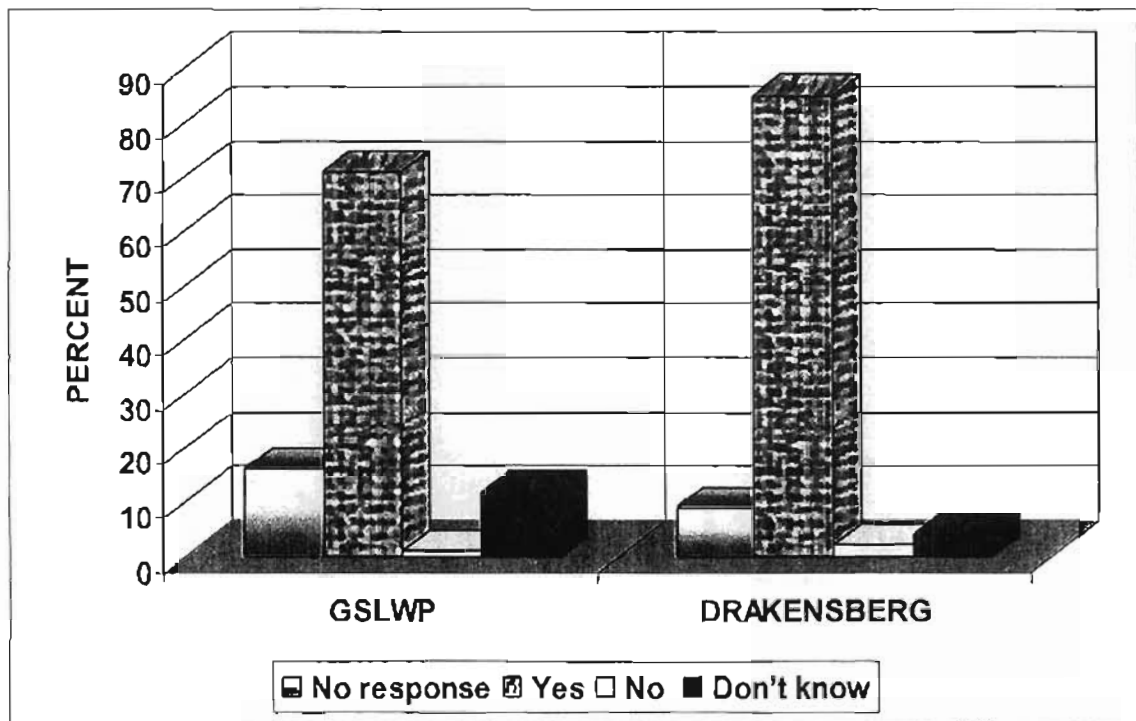
COST-TRANSPORT	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
6%-10%	3	5	4
11%-20%	12	8	10
21%-40%	13	2	7,5
41%-60%	9	8	8,5
61%-80%	-	3	1,5
81%-100%	-	3	1,5
Not applicable	63	71	67

COST- ACCOMODATION			
6%-10%	6	7	6,5
11%-20%	6	-	3
21%-40%	18	8	13
41%-60%	6	7	6,5
61%-80%	-	5	2,5
81%-100%	1	2	1,5
Not applicable	63	71	67
COST- SOUVENIRS			
1%-5%	37	29	33
6%-10%	-	-	-
11%-20%	-	-	-
41%-60%	-	-	-
Not applicable	63	71	67
COST-CLOTHING			
1%-5%	16	18	17
6%-10%	21	11	16
11%-20%	-	-	-
81%-100%	-	-	-
Not applicable	63	71	67
COST-TOURISM LEVIES			
1%-5%	37	29	33
6%-10%	-	-	-
11%-20%	-	-	-
21%-40%	-	-	-
Not applicable	63	71	67

Table 6.31 shows that for those travelling to South Africa, 12% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they spent between 11%-20% of their money on transport and 8% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba Drakensberg. As regards the ecotourism industry, South Africa does receive foreign exchange for the provision of accommodation to visiting tourists. The monies allocated for accommodation by the tourist respondents ranged from 6% to 100%. Thirty seven

percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park had spent between 6% and 10% of their budget on souvenirs. Twenty nine percent of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had spent between 6% and 10% of their tour budget on souvenirs. The percentage of monies spent on clothing by the tourist respondents ranged from 1% to 10%. Thirty seven percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 29% the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had spent between 1% and 5% of their budget on tourism levies.

Figure 6.6. Respondents' perceptions as to whether local communities should play a role in sustainable ecotourism (%)



Seventy one percent and 85% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, thought that local communities have a role to play in sustainable ecotourism (Figure 6.6).

Table 6.32. Respondents' reasons as to why local communities should play a role in ecotourism (%)

REASONS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
By showcasing their cultures	1	-	0,5
By supplying services, guides etc	-	1	0,5
Educate tourists about plants and animals	-	1	0,5
Everyone needs to make an effort to maintain tourism to increase and better the South African economy	-	1	0,5
For the future of the children	1	-	0,5
Getting more involved than the white people running all the business under black manager as a book cover	-	-	0,5
If the locals are not involved they become antagonistic towards tourists, if the locals are involved and informed they help enormously towards tourism becoming reliable and sustainable	-	-	0,5
In order to have more support for the projects and not to offend the local communities who have been established in the areas for a long time-additionally they will pass along particular local knowledge-very useful for ecotourism	1	-	0,5
It all started with the locals	1	-	0,5
It gives people a greater understanding of the natural and historical look about the place, which tourists come to see	-	1	0,5
It is up to the local community to maintain their region and not exploit it for monetary gains	-	1	0,5
It will provide means of earnings	-	1	0,5
Keep their environment tidy	-	1	0,5
Keep your areas clean, being locals you know your area best, so use discretion with regards to difficult issues and pressures	-	1	0,5
Local communities contain indigenous knowledge that is needed for sustainable ecotourism	1	-	0,5
Local communities have the knowledge, skill and ability to contribute to their environment, therefore they should be involved in ecotourism and consequently benefit and maintain local economy	-	1	0,5

Local communities must be involved in ecotourism, through education; the local community will have pride and knowledge of their surroundings-thus create job opportunities and respect for all.	-	1	0,5
Local community must also profit and see the benefits so they will support this and protect the environment	1	-	0,5
Local community must benefit from ecotourism, they know better the area, they can therefore guide foreign tourists who ignore how to deal with wild animals and so on	-	1	0,5
More of local communities must be trained as guides at a lower cost thus providing work	-	1	0,5
Most of the locals are selfish, on friendly and some racists, who just do what they want when they want including littering of the protected areas	-	1	0,5
Must be used as guides etc, should get finance to study, create small business etc,	1	-	0,5
Must buy into all projects	1	-	0,5
Need to be involved and understand purpose behind it	1	-	0,5
Not to destroy natural environment	-	1	0,5
One hand wash the other	-	1	0,5
Preserve the environment	1	-	0,5
So they can stop stealing	-	1	0,5
Take care of the natural environment	1	-	0,5
The area is well know to them	1	-	0,5
They are part of it, they can teach and preserve their culture uses and knowledge and we can teach them to sustain it. One without the other will not sustain anything	1	-	0,5
They are the reason that the heritage site exists apart from the biodiversity, they have been living in harmony for decades, so together it is important that they are involved in sustainable ecotourism	1	-	0,5
They can educate tourists about their cultures and their environment	-	1	0,5
They can exhibited/sell their beautiful crafts on the road side	-	1	0,5
They have a lot to teach tourists	-	1	0,5
They know the area best and would be able to help	1	1	0,5

They need to be involved in decision making	1	-	0,5
To become partners	-	1	0,5
To create a crime free areas, friendly towards to tourists, clean environment	1	-	0,5
To earn money	1	-	0,5
To sell crafts	-	1	0,5
To uplift communities in terms of economic growth since it belongs to the community	-	1	0,5
Upgrade local communities	-	1	0,5
Uplift the communities	-	1	0,5
With the participation of the local community it is possible to achieve a sustainable ecotourism	1	1	0,5
Without the local community we would not have services provided	1	-	0,5
Yes, as they have a good track record e.g. the Zulu nation in Kwa-Zulu was many, yet all the animal species and trees are still here but in the Cape where the Europeans landed, we are missing many species	-	1	0,5
Arts, crafts, scared sites, music etc	1	-	0,5
Be good role models to the tourists	-	1	0,5
Being good role model, rules/fines	-	1	0,5
Came to Africa to learn about other cultures	1	-	0,5
Can educate on issues of cultures and history	1	-	0,5
Employment with suitable training in the park, visit local village for overseas visitors, crafts	-	1	0,5
For creation of social development	-	1	0,5
I believe this to be the most satisfactory way to benefit the people, the earth and the tourists	1	-	0,5
If involved in as many aspects as possible-entrepreneurship would be encouraged, partnerships etc, thereby benefiting the community	1	-	0,5
Knowledge	-	1	0,5
Local communities can only feel included and feel relevance to them if they play an active part	-	1	0,5
Local input adds to the experience of the trip and keeps wealth in the region	1	-	0,5
Needed as guides etc-also help to prevent poverty and stop men from leaving rural villages to seek work in larger towns, thereby leaving women on their own-this encourages the spread of dieses from men when they return	-	1	0,5

home			
The way the people treat their environment impact strongly on it, people need to be held more responsible for their surroundings, if the communities were involved they could reap financial rewards and the country as a whole will prosper	-	1	0,5
They have a role because the definition of ecotourism is to benefit the local community and by this way the communities are responsible for ensuring sustainability of ecotourism	1	-	0,5
They should be part of the economic activities surrounding tourism should benefit from it	1	-	0,5
With their education on this subject and aid in developing their skills	-	1	0,5
Without their involvement it is by definition not sustainable	-	1	0,5
No response	72	69	70,5

The qualitative responses of the tourist respondents indicate the important and integral role that the local communities can play within the ecotourism industry. The main aspects emerging from the responses in Table 6.32 are: emphasising cultural tourism, involving the local communities within the ecotourism sector, environmental conservation, dealing with crime and creating employment. Plate 6.2 shows local boys selling crafts to passing motorists.

Table 6.33. Respondents' perceptions as to whether local communities should benefit from ecotourism to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP (%)

BENEFIT	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	14	13	13,5
Yes	74	79	76,5
No	4	3	3,5
Don't know	8	5	6,5

Seventy four percent and 79% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, thought that local communities should benefit from sustainable ecotourism to the Parks (Table 6.33).

Plate 6.2. Local boys selling arts and craft to passing motorists



Table 6.34. Respondents' views as to how and why local communities should benefit from ecotourism (%)

REASONS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Arts, crafts, scared sites, music etc	1	-	0,5
Be good role models to the tourists	1	-	0,5
Being good role models	1	-	0,5
Came to Africa to learn about other cultures	1	-	0,5
Can educate on issues of cultures and history	1	-	0,5
Employment with suitable training in the park, visit local village for overseas visitors, crafts	-	1	0,5
For creation of social development	-	1	0,5
I believe this to be the most satisfactory way to benefit the people, the earth and the tourists	-	1	0,5
If involved in as many aspects as possible- entrepreneurship would be encouraged, partnerships etc, thereby benefiting the community	-	1	0,5
Knowledge	-	1	0,5
Local communities can only feel included and feel relevance to them if they play an active part	1	-	0,5

Local input adds to the experience of the trip and keeps wealth in the region	1	-	0,5
Needed as guides etc-also help to prevent poverty and stop men from leaving rural villages to seek work in larger towns, thereby leaving women on their own-this encourages the spread of diseases from men when they return home	-	1	0,5
The way the people treat their environment impact strongly on it, people need to be held more responsible for their surroundings. If the communities were involved they could reap financial rewards and the country as a whole will prosper	-	1	0,5
They have a role because the definition of ecotourism is to benefit the local community and by this way the communities are responsible for ensuring sustainability of ecotourism	1	-	0,5
They should be part of the economic activities surrounding tourism, they should benefit from it	-	1	0,5
With their education on this subject and aid in developing their skills	-	1	0,5
Without their involvement it is by definition not sustainable	1	-	0,5
Creation of jobs	1	-	0,5
Economic benefit-through employment of sales of crafts and services	1	1	0,5
For being role models and making eco business	-	1	0,5
For creation of social development	1	-	0,5
Get money from eco business and by being good role models	1	-	0,5
If involved in as many aspects as possible-entrepreneurship would be encouraged, partnerships etc, thereby benefiting the community	-	1	0,5
If local communities input into tourism its only expected that they should benefit	1	-	0,5
If the local communities aid in the upkeep and preservation of the area ad there is an income to be made then all involved should benefit	-	1	0,5
Investments of profits (especially for education) in local communities	-	1	0,5
Involvement in eco tourism brings income, education	1	-	0,5

Local communities are part of the park and as a result they should benefit since tourism brings economic benefit which should bring returns to the locals in terms of development	1	-	0,5
Needed as guides etc-also help to prevent poverty and stop men from leaving rural villages to seek work in larger towns, thereby leaving women on their own-this encourages the spread of disease from men when they return home	-	1	0,5
Should a market cultural experience, etc be set up they would directly receives profits from their sales as well as the job creation derived from tourism and their employment	-	1	0,5
They must be involved	1	-	0,5
They should be part of the economic activities surrounding tourism, they should benefit from it	-	1	0,5
Through economic means: realistic and suitable employment for reimbursement for eco-related supportive activities on a sub contractual basis	-	1	0,5
Will increase their desire to sustain nature	-	1	0,5
No response	83	81	82

The qualitative responses of the tourist respondents indicate the unequivocal support for the involvement of the local people within the ecotourism industry. The main aspects emerging from the responses in Table 6.34 are: local economic development, empowering the local communities as important stakeholders within the ecotourism sector, dealing with diseases such as HIV/AIDS. One of the responses aptly sums up the relevance of the inclusion of the local people within the ecotourism industry: 'Without their involvement it is by definition not sustainable.'

Table 6.35. Respondents' perceptions of various forms of negative impacts on the natural environment (%)

	GLSWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
OVERCROWDING			
Yes	52	23	37,5
No	48	67	57,5
OVERDEVELOPMENT			
Yes	5	13	9
No	95	87	91
UNREGULATED RECREATION			
Yes	36	53	44,5
No	64	47	55,5
POLLUTION			
Yes	29	20	24,5
No	61	80	70,5
WILDLIFE DISTURBANCES			
Yes	63	11	37
No	27	89	58
VEHICLE USE			
Yes	82	95	88,5
No	18	5	11,5

Table 6.35 illustrates that 52% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 23% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had experienced overcrowding at the respective Parks. Five percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 13% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had experienced overdevelopment at the respective Parks. Thirty six percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 53% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had experienced unregulated recreation at the respective Parks. Twenty nine percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 20% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had experienced pollution at the respective Parks. Sixty three percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 11% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had experienced wildlife disturbances at the respective Parks. Eighty two percent of the tourist respondents of the

Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 95% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they had experienced vehicle use at the respective Parks. Plates 6.3. and 6.4. are illustrative of tourist disturbances in the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

Plate 6.3. Wildlife being disturbed as tourist boat approaches nearer: GSLWP

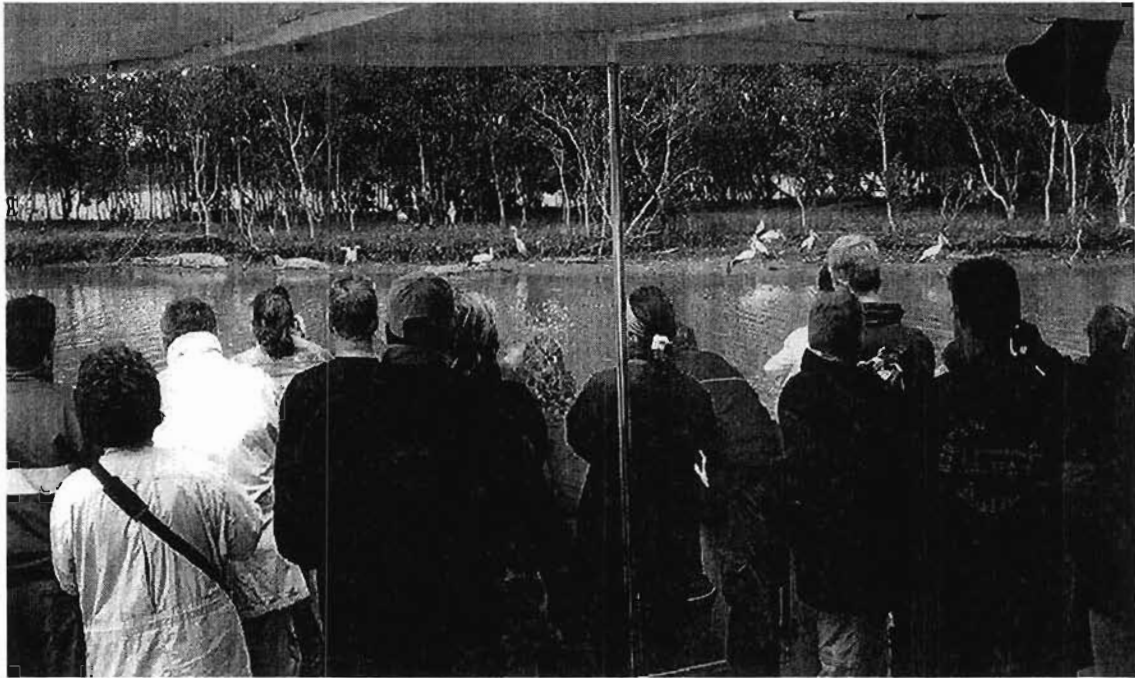


Plate 6.4. Boats contributing to noise pollution and animal disturbances

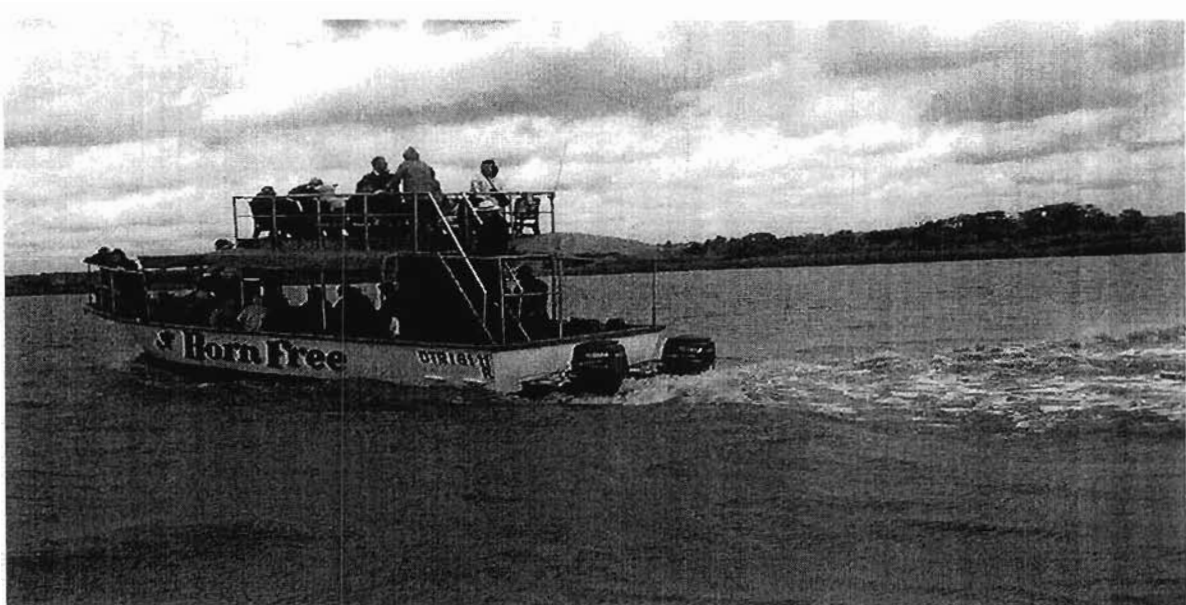


Table 6.36. Respondents' observations of environmental impacts at the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP (%): Multiple responses

NEGATIVE ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS	GLSWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Burning plastic at rubbish dump	-	1	0,5
Litter	29	20	24,5
Polluted rivers	32	20	26
Soil erosion of trails	-	67	33,5
Fire which damages vegetation	-	24	12
Too many tourists	52	23	37,5
Taunting of animals	63	11	37
Vegetation damage	23	32	27,5
Too many vehicles	82	95	88,5
Too much city-type recreation	31	25	28
Too much water use	-	23	11,5

Table 6.36 illustrates that the responses of the visitors indicate that they had observed various forms of environmental deterioration such as vegetation damage, soil erosion on trails, taunting of animals, litter and polluted rivers and watering holes. Too many tourists were perceived to be unappealing within a World Heritage Site setting. At the Zhangjiajie National Forest Park in China, visitor perceptions indicated that some spots within the Park were unacceptable. Visitor usage was found to be proportionate to trampling impacts. Also, the perceptions of visitors towards environmental degradation did not always coincide with the actual physical deterioration (Deng et al., 2003: 1). Whilst the economic pillar of sustainable development is being fulfilled (more tourists = more money) the environmental pillar of sustainability seems to be eroding. Whilst conservation organisations such as the Wildlife and Environment Society of South Africa (WESSA) and Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife strive to keep these protected areas intact, tour operators and accommodation businesses have increased as well as improved the marketing of the two World Heritage Sites to potential buyers both at home and throughout the world. This is indicative of the dilemma that many developing countries face: to conserve or to develop. Many of these countries are choosing the middle ground approach and are struggling to manage the marriage of two opposing partners (conservation and development).

Table 6.37. Respondents' perceptions on behavioural attitudes towards taking care for the natural environment (%)

	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
RECYCLING	24	12	18
No response	7	2	4,5
Never	16	6	11
Seldom	20	12	16
Sometimes	16	27	21,5
Frequently	17	41	29
Always			
ENVIRONMENTALLY FRIENDLY GOODS	24	12	18
No response	4	4	4
Never	20	5	12,5
Seldom	29	33	31
Sometimes	16	26	21
Frequently	7	20	13,5
Always			
MAKE DONATIONS	24	15	19,5
No response	13	5	9
Never	24	15	19,5
Seldom	26	32	29
Sometimes	5	19	12
Frequently	8	14	11
Always			
CONSERVE WATER	24	12	18
No response	5	3	4
Never	18	4	11
Seldom	27	19	23
Sometimes	16	37	26,5
Frequently	10	25	17,5
Always			
PUBLIC TRANSPORT	25	12	18,5
No response	31	40	35,5
Never	22	16	19
Seldom	11	5	8
Sometimes	7	13	10
Frequently	4	14	9
Always			

MINIMAL IMPACT PRACTICES	25	17	21
No response	15	9	12
Never	14	5	9,5
Seldom	26	10	18
Sometimes	10	24	17
Frequently	10	35	22,5
Always			
WRITE TO POLITICIANS	26	15	20,5
No response	29	38	33,5
Never	23	22	22,5
Seldom	14	10	12
Sometimes	4	6	5
Frequently	4	9	6,5
Always			

Table 6.37 illustrates that the recycling of bottles, cans, and newspapers by the tourist respondents ranged from never recycling (4.5%) to always recycling (29%). The responses of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park towards buying environmentally friendly products ranged from never (4%) to always (13.5%). The responses of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park towards making donations with the aim of taking care of the environment ranged from never (9%) to always (11%). The responses of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park towards conserving water with the aim of taking care of the environment ranged from never (4%) to always (17.5%). The responses of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park towards taking public transport with the aim of taking care of the environment ranged from never (35.5%) to always (9%). The responses of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park towards engaging in minimal impact practices in natural areas towards taking care of the environments ranged from never (12%) to always (22.5%). The responses of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park towards participating in local environment groups ranged from never (33.5%) to always (6.5%). The responses of the tourist

respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park towards writing to politicians with the aim of taking care of the environment ranged from never (33.5%) to always (6.5%).

The results indicate that the two World Heritage Sites attract visitors that are both conscious of their ability to make a positive impact on the natural environment as well as those who do not make an attempt to change their behaviour with regards to conservation. The respondents seem to be most apathetic and complacent around the issue of engaging their local councillors about the state of the natural environment. The respondents are both complacent as well as active participants with regards to environmental matters. Hence, whilst people seek out destinations of natural and cultural richness, they do not necessarily engage in behaviours that contribute positively towards the natural environment.

Fifty three percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 55% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did not find litter around the respective Parks to be a problem. However, 25% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 37% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did find litter around the respective Parks to be a slight problem. Fifty five percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 69% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did not find the size of groups at the respective Parks to be a problem. However, 18% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 23% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did find the size of groups at the respective Parks to be a slight problem. Fifty four percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 69% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did not find the overall number of people at the respective Parks to be a problem. However, 19% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 23% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did find the overall number of people at the respective Parks to be a slight problem (Table 6.38).

Table 6.38. Respondents' perceptions towards potential negative environmental impacts at the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park/GSLWP (%)

POTENTIAL IMPACTS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
LITTER			
No response	21	6	13,5
Not a problem	53	55	54
Slight problem	25	37	31
Serious problem	1	2	1,5
SIZE OF GROUP			
No response	21	8	14,5
Not a problem	55	69	62
Slight problem	18	23	20,5
Serious problem	6	-	3
NUMBER OF PEOPLE			
No response	21	8	14,5
Not a problem	54	69	61,5
Slight problem	19	23	21
Serious problem	6	-	3
DAMAGE TO THE NATURAL VEGETATION			
No response	19	6	12,5
Not a problem	50	53	51,5
Slight problem	22	37	29,5
Serious problem	9	4	6,5
EROSION ALONG WALK TRAILS			
No response	22	6	14
Not a problem	47	53	50
Slight problem	24	35	29,5
Serious problem	7	6	6,5
HEALTH CONDITIONS OF WILDLIFE			
No response	21	8	14,5
Not a problem	55	63	59
Slight problem	17	25	21
Serious problem	7	4	5,5

Fifty percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 53% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did not find damage to natural vegetation at the respective Parks to be a problem. However, 22% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 37% of the tourist

respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did find damage to natural vegetation at the respective Parks to be a slight problem (Table 6.38).

Forty seven percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 53% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did not find erosion along the walk trails at the respective Parks to be a problem. However, 24% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 35% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did find erosion along the walk trails at the respective Parks to be a slight problem. Fifty five percent of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 63% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did not find the health of the wildlife at the respective Parks to be a problem. However, 17% of the tourist respondents to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 25% of the tourist respondents to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did find the health of the wildlife at the respective Parks to be a slight problem (Table 6.38).

Plate 6.5. shows local boys performing for tourists while they wait to board a boat. This is an income generating opportunity. However, it is important to note that the boys were not attending school.

Plate 6.5. Tourists boarding a boat at Lake St Lucia whilst local boys perform



Table 6.39. Respondents' perceptions on suggestions to improve ecotourism experience (%)

EDUCATE ABOUT CONSERVATION	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	34	14	24
Strongly agree	13	43	28
Agree	33	23	28
Neutral	4	13	8,5
Disagree	1	-	0,5
Strongly disagree	15	7	11
LIMIT USE OF FOREST AREA			
No response	47	14	30,5
Strongly agree	11	20	15,5
Agree	17	37	27
Neutral	8	20	14
Disagree	5	5	5
Strongly disagree	12	4	8
LIMIT LENGTH OF STAY DURING PEAK PERIOD			
No response	50	14	32
Strongly agree	11	13	12
Agree	17	19	18
Neutral	6	25	15,5
Disagree	5	24	14,5
Strongly disagree	11	5	8
PROVIDE MORE VISITOR FACILITIES			
No response	48	14	31
Strongly agree	8	13	10,5
Agree	18	19	18,5
Neutral	10	25	17,5
Disagree	4	24	14
Strongly disagree	12	5	8,5
PROVIDE MORE STAFF			
No response	43	14	28,5
Strongly agree	9	10	9,5
Agree	26	26	26
Neutral	6	39	22,5
Disagree	5	9	7
Strongly disagree	11	2	6,5
LIMIT NUMBER OF VEHICLES			
No response	45	17	31
Strongly agree	10	16	13
Agree	19	36	27,5
Neutral	11	22	16,5
Disagree	6	7	6,5
Strongly disagree	9	2	5,5

Table 6.39 illustrates that 33% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park agreed and 43% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park strongly agreed that visitors to the Parks should be educated about conservation. Education of the natural environment, in general, and ecotourism, in particular, should be conducted by both the public as well as the private sector. However, the respondents also differed in their views with regards to education of visitors on conservations issues. As to whether the use of the forest areas of the respective Parks should be limited, 17% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 37% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed. As to whether visitors to the Parks should have the length of stay limited during peak periods, 17% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 19% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed. As to whether more visitor facilities at the Parks should be provided, 18% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park agreed and 25% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park remained neutral on the issue.

As to whether more staff should be provided at the Parks, 26% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park agreed and 39% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park remained neutral. As to whether the number of vehicles to the Parks should be limited, 19% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 36% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed. The respondents to the two World Heritage Sites were not unanimous in their views with regard to the utilisation of tools that would serve to lessen any potential impacts at the respective sites. The results clearly indicate the differing interests of the tourist respondents with regards to ecotourism destinations. The results are indicative of the different values that the tourists hold dear. Whilst some have the natural environment at heart, others are of the view that the provision of more facilities and vehicular use are important aspects for the enjoyment of their stay at the World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.40. Respondents' perceptions on the services rendered by the ecotourism industry (%)

SERVICES	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
GENERAL INFORMATION			
No response	23	19	21
Poor	7	2	4,5
Fair	13	15	14
Good	33	37	35
Very good	11	18	14,5
Excellent	13	9	11
INFORMATION PROVIDE BY GUIDES			
No response	26	28	27
Poor	3	2	2,5
Fair	10	18	14
Good	31	28	29,5
Very good	13	14	13,5
Excellent	17	10	13,5
PRESENTATION BY GUIDES			
No response	28	30	29
Poor	3	-	1,5
Fair	9	7	8
Good	30	36	33
Very good	16	12	14
Excellent	14	15	14,5
FRIENDLINESS/HELPFULLNESS OF GUIDES			
No response	27	30	28,5
Poor	4	2	3
Fair	10	7	8,5
Good	22	9	15,5
Very good	20	29	24,5
Excellent	17	13	20

The general information about the Parks was rated as good by 33% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 37% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The information about the natural environment provided by the guides was rated as good by 31% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and as good by 28% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The presentation style of guides was rated as good by 30% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and as

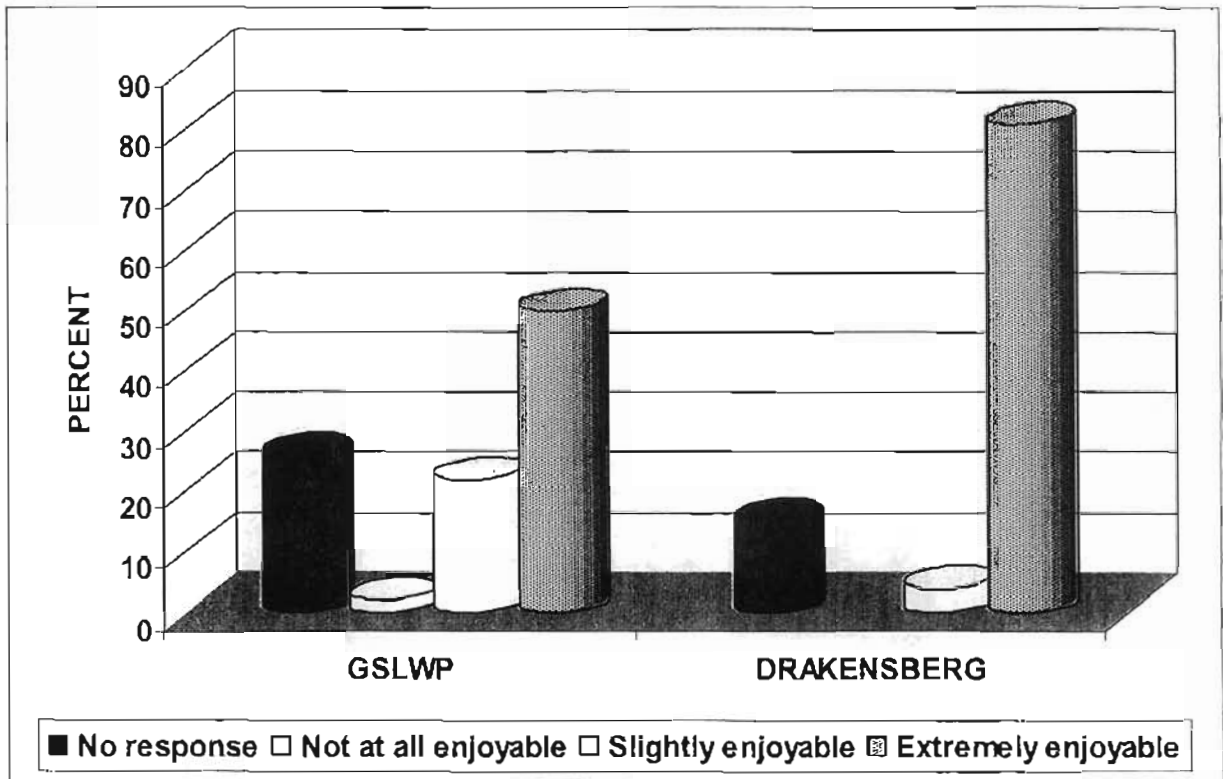
good by 36% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The friendliness/helpfulness of guides was rated as good by 22% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and as very good by 29% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (Table 6.40).

Table 6.41. Respondents' perceptions as to the influence of ecotourism on future attitudes and behaviours towards the natural environment (%)

ATTITUDE CHANGE	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	18	15	16,5
No	64	55	59,5
Yes	18	30	24
INFLUENCE VIEWS			
No response	19	15	17
No	54	54	54
Yes	27	31	29

Sixty four percent and 55% of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that their visit to the respective parks will not change their attitudes and behaviour either at home or at other natural areas. Fifty four percent of the tourist respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that their visit to the respective Parks will not change their views about conservation and related issues. The results indicate that visits to natural and cultural areas do not necessarily translate into positive attitudes and behaviour as regards environmental matters. It can be concluded that ecotourism does not necessarily result in more awareness of nature conservation as proclaimed by the ecotourism industry.

Figure 6.7. Respondents' over-all perceptions of their visit to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and GSLWP (%)



Fifty percent of the tourist respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 81% of the tourist respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park rated their enjoyment at the respective Parks as extremely enjoyable (Figure 6.7). The scenic attractions of conserved or protected areas are places for much of tourist enjoyment (Turner, 2001: 364). The goods and services of the ecotourism sector were well rated by the visitors to the two World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.42. Respondents' perceptions as to how government could promote ecotourism (%)

SUGGESTIONS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Acknowledge more heritage sites	1	-	0,5
Advertise more	1	-	0,5
By making tourism accessible to many people not only to rich people (cheaper hotel, restaurant), to involve local communities	1	-	0,5
Can stop going overseas and start looking after own country and people, use money -not increase their own pockets, train, train, train staff (also got attitude), power to the people	-	1	0,5
Crime prevention, local hospitality promotion, incoming tourism information, information seriously lacking although there are many offices	-	1	0,5
Enforce laws to help with conservation	-	1	0,5
Increase security, foot police on the beach or police patrols on beach	1	-	0,5
Integrated planning and development, research and development, education and public participation	1	-	0,5
Invest in consortium	1	-	0,5
Let the people decide what they can do and what not, just facilitate and make sure all procedures are followed when giving money	-	1	0,5
Limit numbers-no 4x4 on beaches etc, reduce holiday resorts-no Sun city type developments	-	1	0,5
Make ecotourism a subject in school so that tomorrow's generation is aware of all the problems that need to be addressed, education is a must for a country to go forward, the future generation need to know all about the environment and how to conserve water	-	1	0,5
Make laws that encourages environment awareness, promote South Africa internationally, make it easy and pleasant to gain information and access to the country	1	-	0,5
Make people more aware of environmental affairs, make provision to accommodate for environmental related issues	1	-	0,5
More eco-drives to communities in and around South Africa, introducing it to schools around	1	1	0,5

the world			
Open beach	1	-	0,5
Policies that prioritise conservation and tourism functions, govt should also direct funding into World Heritage Site	-	1	0,5
Promote programmes to enlighten the public on the various issues, regarding sustainable ecotourism, regulation of government policies efficiently, providing local communities with the knowledge of sustainable ecotourism	-	1	0,5
Raise funds	1	-	0,5
Raise funds for animals, create campaigns	1	-	0,5
Security, better and more parking	-	1	0,5
Split portfolio of tourism and environment, provide subsidies to educate learners	-	1	0,5
Sponsoring school and university field trips	-	1	0,5
They should use better adverts, make it more aware to the locals, make harsher laws on certain violations	-	1	0,5
Train and educate more people	1	-	0,5
Upgrade local Dukuduku, supply water and lights	1	-	0,5
Via the tourism industry and the visiting countries to South Africa, target the tourist that you want visiting your country	-	1	0,5
Education-issue of a pamphlet to each visitor, educate the locals since they have the greatest impact on the environment	-	1	0,5
Educational programmes	-	1	0,5
Encourage entrepreneurial activity by improving education in rural areas and providing basic infrastructure at subsidised rates	1	-	0,5
Enhance eco-business	1	-	0,5
Get sangomas to teach about plants, take people around and show sites	1	-	0,5
Get the local people involved, create jobs for the local people in the communities, give the local people a reason to want to protect and preserve the areas in question	1	-	0,5
Implement policies that have already been identified, spend more money on supporting community based organisation, involve more locals in planning and managing ecotourism sites, training and education	-	1	0,5

Internet, mass media	-	1	0,5
Involve local communities	-	1	0,5
Keep tight control of activities within these areas	1	-	0,5
Keep up the good work	1	-	0,5
Make booking process easier-regional offices, internet bookings, newsletters to recent tourists, discounts to locals	1	-	0,5
More advert, board with news	1	-	0,5
Provide good information and facilities	-	1	0,5
See implications from responses-targeted education, local community education/financial involvement, strict ruling to protect local environment	-	1	0,5
They could legislate to ensure questionnaires where short concise and applicable thus promoting conservation by saving tress	1	-	0,5
Training facilities for hospitality and tourism staff (e.g. in Kenya, they have training schools), all people employed in tourism must pass the service levels to world class which we need to be	1	-	0,5
No response	76	79	77,5

The main aspects emerging from the responses in Table 6.42 are the acknowledgement of more heritage sites, making ecotourism more accessible to poor people, the prevention of crime, making people aware of environmental conservation, tapping into the indigenous knowledge of the local people, job creation and skills training and development.

Table 6.43. Respondents' perceptions as to how the park's management could promote ecotourism (%)

SUGGESTIONS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
By involving local communities, sharing income, advertisement (newspapers V, radio)	1	-	0,5
Communities should participate in management of park, effective management from all conservation group, participation of Inkosi	1	-	0,5
Crime prevention, local hospitality promotion, incoming tourists information, information seriously lacking although there are many offices	1	-	0,5
Cut cost	1	-	0,5
Educate their customers with leaflets when entering the parks	1	1	0,5
Employ local settlers	-	1	0,5
Encourage schools to visit the park and learn as much as possible about the surrounding areas, enforce the law to its fullest, to combat crime and poaching	-	1	0,5
Holding seminars at Universities and schools, inviting guests from different parks to give talks on topics associated with problems affecting parks	-	1	0,5
Inform tourist more about the area	-	1	0,5
Involve locals, target schools	-	1	0,5
Offer more guided tours	-	1	0,5
Limit numbers of people to certain areas, make people aware that it is an environmental area, make the locals aware first before educating others because locals are selfish and ignorant	-	1	0,5
Maintain pristine state of coast, employ staff to collect debris on beach	1	-	0,5
More curios kiosks needed, more interaction with locals e.g. food, taverns, restaurants	1	-	0,5
More education about nature to local communities, residents as well as tourists, engage the community in planning of the park	1	-	0,5
Notices on beaches, interesting talks, come around beaches and inform people, have re-cycle bins available, close bins in camps (monkey proof them)	-	1	0,5
Open the estuary	1	1	1
Provide free leaflets	-	1	0,5

Provide info, guided tours	1	-	0,5
Public awareness, water minimisation, recycling, limiting nature disturbance	1	-	0,5
Take good care of the environment	1	1	0,5
To fight crime	-	1	0,5
Train staff, employ locals, inform tourists, promote local industry	-	1	0,5
Allocate an area for local population to distribute crafts e.g. tourists can watch production of wood carvings or taste local food, watch its preparation	-	1	0,5
Be a role model to tourists	1	-	0,5
Feed positively into above initiatives	1	-	0,5
Have camp rangers who know about the park, where have they gone? Used to be a feature of KZN wildlife -big loss	-	1	0,5
Internet, mass media, involve local communities more	-	1	0,5
Involve local communities	1	-	0,5
Involvement	-	1	0,5
Keep doing what they are already doing well	1	-	0,5
Keep tight control of activities within these areas	-	1	0,5
More wardens /rangers, better education of public, better usage	-	1	0,5
Put all the boys selling things on the street at one location where everybody can go and buy	1	-	0,5
Putting up large boards at a main entrance, brochures available at all parks, guided walks with a talk, educating the local communities	1	-	0,5
Role modelling	-	1	0,5
Training and more educational centres, engaging private corporations and the NGO sector, spending more money on maintained and overall infrastructures	-	1	0,5
No response	82	78	80

The main aspects emerging from the responses in Table 6.43 are the involvement of local communities, the prevention of crime, the conservation of the natural environment, promoting ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites and skills training and development.

Table 6.44. Respondents' perceptions as to how they themselves could promote ecotourism (%)

SUGGESTIONS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Abide by rules and regulations of parks and protected areas, public awareness and participation, responsibility	1	-	0,5
Always be responsible	-	1	0,5
Avoid littering and do not crowd areas that have been damaged e.g. by erosion		1	0,5
Be more conscious about the environment, not to litter, be ozone friendly	1	-	0,5
Be more conservative, make use of cleaning services, try to follow the conservation rules of the area, use your common senses about keeping the area clean	1	-	0,5
Behave more and conserve more especially in protecting sensitive areas, support tourism accommodation, support local craft and educate our friends.	1	-	0,5
By visiting, donations, educate children at home	-	1	0,5
Do not litter	-	1	0,5
Do not litter, do not damage the surroundings you are visiting	-	1	0,5
Do not drive on beach	-	1	0,5
Have timed showers to conserve water, buy local and recycled products, however totally exploiting the tourist is not the way forward either	1	-	0,5
Marketing for game reserves, I visited by inviting friends, good behaviour while visiting park and game reserves	1	-	0,5
No littering shall occur, provide more bins	-	1	0,5
Promote it back home	-	1	0,5
Promote programmes on sustainable and responsible ecotourism, provide education to the public on the need and responsible of ecotourism	1	-	0,5
Provide more bins, so there will not be so much litter	1	-	0,5
Recycle, be informed of my impacts on area, do not allow vehicles on beaches again	1	-	0,5
Report any behaviour that is not contusive to the success of retaining the safety and beauty of the park	1	-	0,5
Save driving	-	1	0,5

Save water, reduce water, use public transport	-	1	0,5
Support local initiatives, buy local products	1	-	0,5
Support locals, support the nature reserve	1	-	0,5
Talk to people	-	1	0,5
Tell all our friends overseas how wonderful it is to stay in South Africa	1	-	0,5
Throw litter in appropriate places, pass messages along to other members in the tourist group so you them set a good example, pay attention to tour group operators	-	1	0,5
To give as much information as possible to other visitors	1	-	0,5
To recycle	1	-	0,5
To support the local markets	-	1	0,5
Be aware	-	1	0,5
Behaving responsibly while in natural sites, participating more in environmental activities, purchasing locally available materials	1	-	0,5
By introducing a levy	1	-	0,5
By not damaging anything and acting in a responsible way	-	1	0,5
By supporting above initiatives and adopting conservative approaches to recycling and conservation of resources in the home environment	-	1	0,5
Do not smoke so much	1	-	0,5
Do not throw anything away	-	1	0,5
Follow the rules	1	-	0,5
Respect the environment, do your part, do not litter, do not interfere with the surroundings	-	1	0,5
Support activities, visit above areas which need to be conveniently situated and well advertised	1	-	0,5
T-shirts branding	1	-	0,5
Take good care of the nature, take care of your waste	1	-	0,5
Using information we have gained and pass it on to our children and other friends and family, applying that which we have learnt and know	1	-	0,5
Word of mouth	1	-	0,5
No response	76	82	79

Table 6.44 highlights the specific suggestions as to how ecotourism could be promoted to the two World Heritage Sites by the visitors. Some of the suggestions are to abide by the rules and regulations of the Parks, not littering, not driving on the beach, recycling of

waste, glass and paper, educating people about conservation issues and promoting South Africa overseas.

6.3. Tour Operators

Many tour operators are committed to responsible and ethical tourism. This is mainly so because of the judgement that is metered out by the media and by some of their clients (Jenkins et al., 2002). However, the majority of tour operators are the biggest perpetrators of irresponsible tourism (Goldstein, 2002).

6.3.1. Tour Operator Characteristics

The tables, figures and discussion that follow indicate the perceptions of the tour operators of the socio-economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

Figure 6.8. Respondents' perceptions of Duration of establishment of company (%) (N=10)

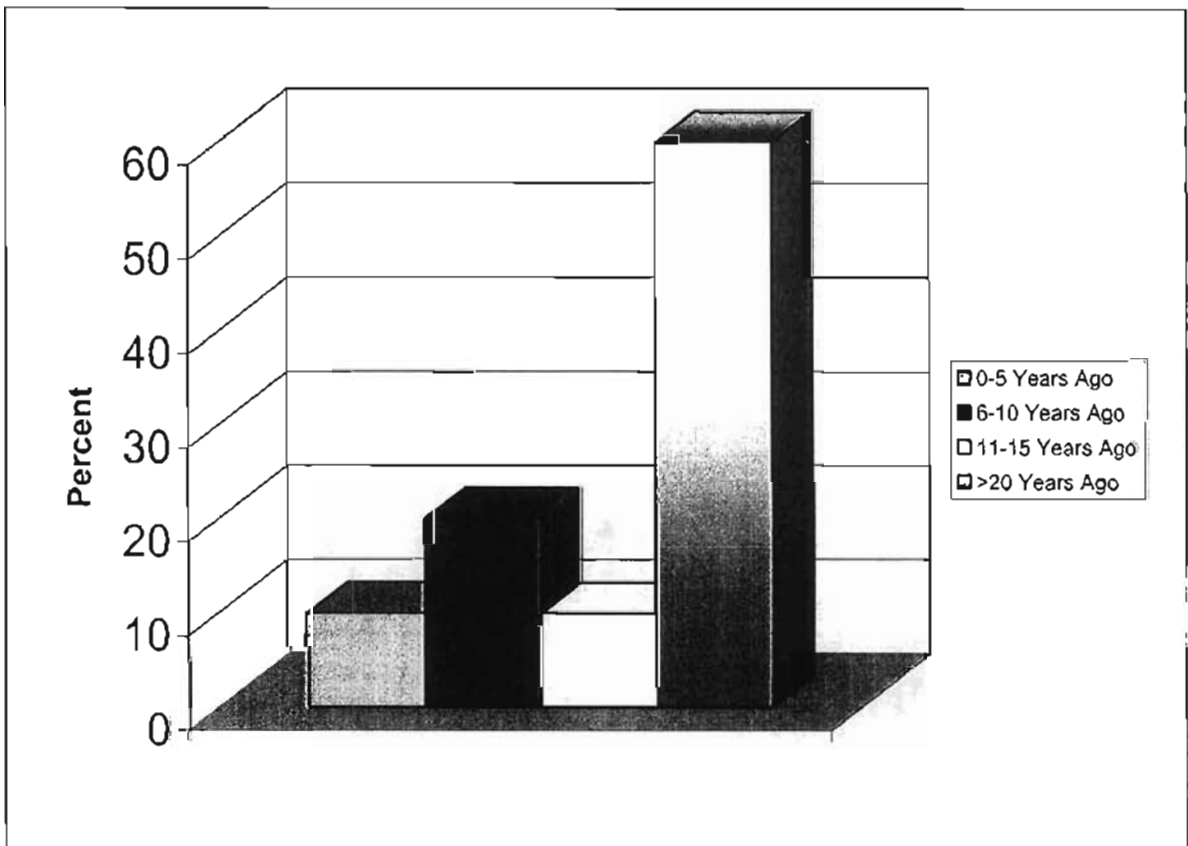


Figure 6.8 illustrates that sixty percent of the tour companies were in existence for more than twenty years. This statistic is indicative of the tourism industry being very much in operation in South Africa under the apartheid regime. Twenty percent of the tour companies were established between 6-10 years ago, 10% were established between 1-5 years ago and 10% were established between 11-15 years ago. The recent establishment of tour companies also reveals the developmental growth path of the tourism industry in South Africa. Under apartheid, the tourism industry was in White hands. The White population had, therefore, an unfair advantage within the tourism industry in so far as learning and understanding the workings of the tourism industry. The apartheid system also meant that Whites were able to consolidate their economic power through tourism. So as to provide some redress to such an abnormal system the democratic government of the day instituted an affirmative action policy and a broad-based black economic empowerment policy. Eleven years after the first democratic elections in South Africa, the BEE (Black Economic Empowerment) within the tourism industry was released. Both the affirmative action policy and BEE in tourism is meant to factor in the previously marginalised and majority black population into the tourism sector of the South African economy. The process and the implementation of these policies are not without problems as many White companies resort to fronting, Black people not understanding the workings of the tourism industry, information about opportunities not filtering to those that may have the acumen to embark on ecotourism ventures, culture of being employees, etc.

Figure 6.9. Number of people that are owners of the company (%) (N=10)

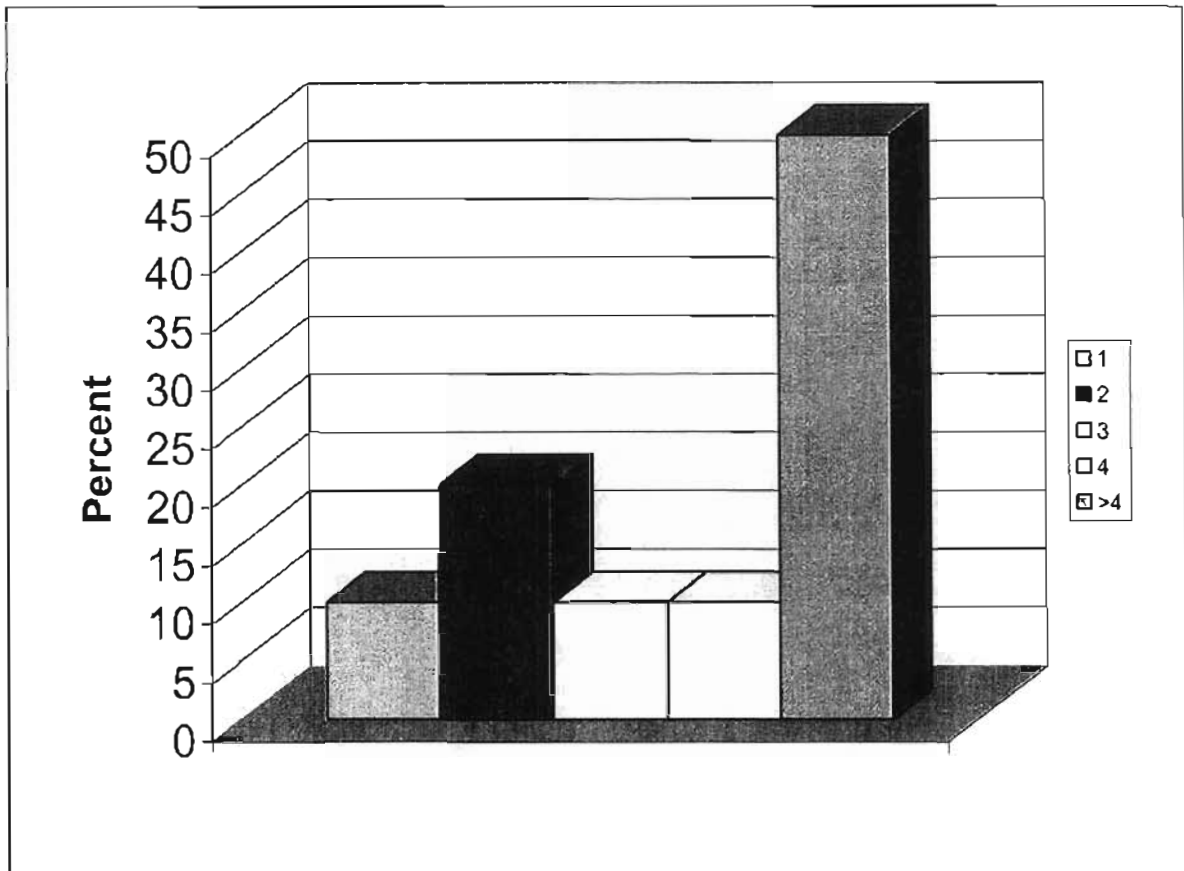


Figure 6.9 illustrates that fifty percent of the tour companies have more than four people that are part owners of the tour companies and 10% has two people that are part owners. Ten percent of the tour companies have three people as part owners and 10% has one person that is the owner. Twenty percent of the tour companies have two people as part owners. The results indicate both the collective as well as the individualistic nature of tour company ownership in South Africa. However, the collective nature of ownership does not reveal whether the owners are family members or business investors that could be reflective of the demographic as well as the socio-economic status of South African Society.

Figure 6.10. Respondents' perceptions as to the number of women owners of the company (%) (N=10)

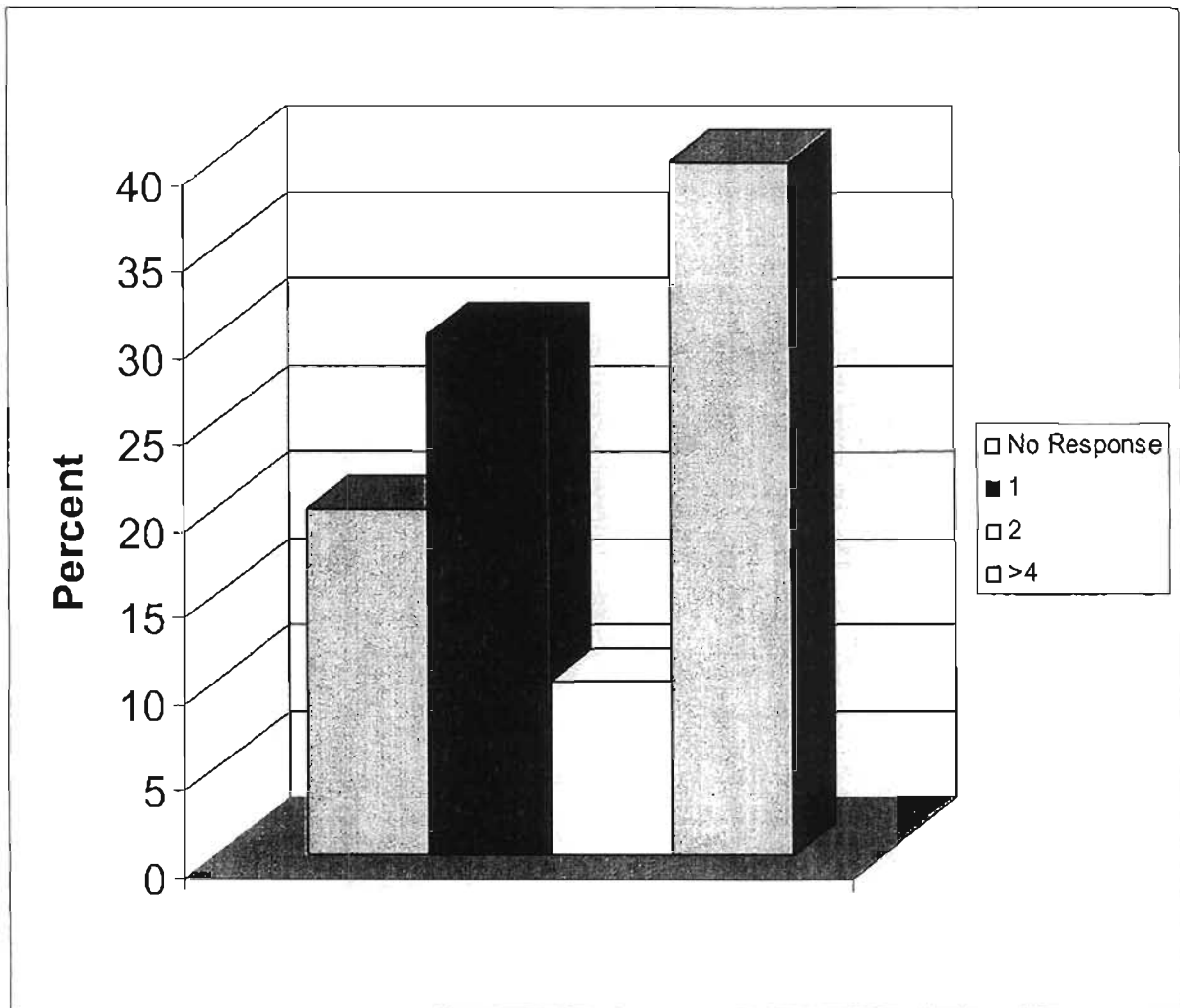


Figure 6.10 illustrates more than four women are owners or part owners of 40% of the tour companies. Thirty percent of the tour companies have one woman as owner and 10% has two women as owners or part owners. Twenty percent of the tour companies did not respond to the question. Whilst women make up an ownership component of the tour companies, the specific percentage or proportionate ratio to men is not known. Generally speaking, for a patriarchal society such as South Africa, the representation of women as owners is a good indication of women being leaders within the tourism sector.

Table 6.45: Race of owners of tour companies (%)

RACE OF OWNERS	PERCENT (N=10)
White	70
Black	30

Table 6.45 illustrates that seventy percent of the respondents indicated that the owners were White. Thirty percent of the respondents indicated that the race of the owners were Black. The system of Apartheid had ensured that segregation between the different races permeated through all aspects of South African life. The tourism industry was no exception. The tourism industry had excluded Blacks as tourists, operators or managers. There is a danger that this reflection of segregation within the tourism industry would perpetuate itself until a concerted effort is made to make the industry all-inclusive (Goudie et al., 1999). Ten years after the first democratic government came into power the tour company sector seems to be still saturated with Whites. To allow for redress within the tourism sector a Tourism BEE Charter and Scorecard was formulated.

Table 6.46. Race of male workers in the company (%)

MALE WORKERS	PERCENT (N=10)
White	60
African	30
Coloured	10

Table 6.46 indicates that White males are mostly featured as workers (60%), followed by African males (30%) and then Coloured males (10%). The Indian male is distinctly absent as workers within the tour companies. Even after eleven years of South Africa's first democratic elections, the tour company component of the ecotourism industry does not correctly reflect the demographic make-up of South African society. If South Africa is to cast of its shackles from the past and if it is to be truly non-racial then it is imperative that all aspects of South African society, the ecotourism component included, make concerted efforts to make their respective businesses reflective of the demographic make-up of South African society.

Figure 6.11. Number of workers employed by tour companies (%) (N=10)

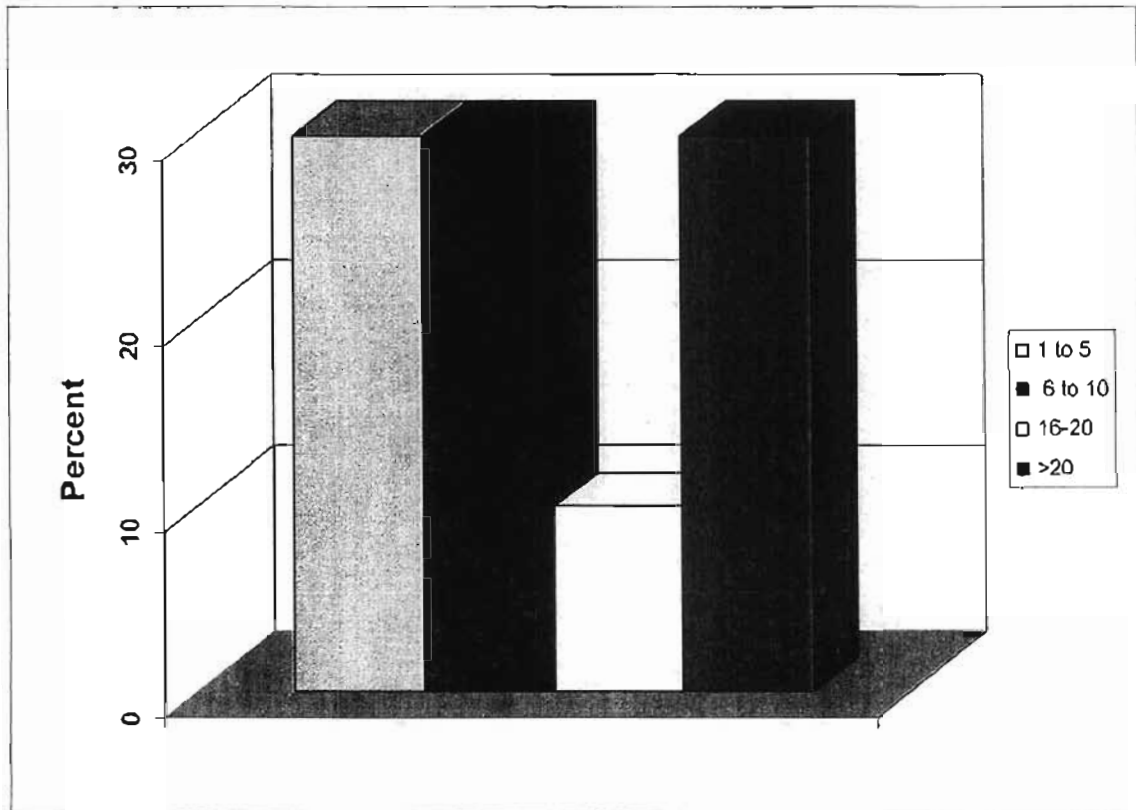


Figure 6.11 illustrates that thirty percent of the tour companies employ more than 20 workers, 10% employs between 16 and 20 workers, 30% employs between 6 and 10 workers and 30% employs between 1 and 5 workers. The results indicate that the tour company component of the tourism industry is an important contributor towards job creation in South Africa. Being a relatively young industry in South Africa, the ecotourism industry has the potential to grow the economy. Workers constitute an integral component of the South African industry, in general, and the ecotourism industry, in particular. Whilst other sectors of the economy such as the clothing industry and the mining industry are shedding jobs at an alarming rate, the ecotourism sector needs to absorb some of the negative impacts of globalisation by developing to its fullest potential. Such a goal requires the maximum support by government, the private sector, conservation bodies, local communities and the workers themselves. The South African President spoke of two economies in 2004, one that is poor and Black and other that is wealthy and White. The much expected job creation through the prospects of private

sector investment has been met with disappointment. The government's Public Works Programme and the Extended Public Works Programme was an attempt to create short term jobs where the private sector failed. Most of these jobs were to improve current infrastructure and to develop new infrastructure. Government is also looking at revising some of the labour laws that hope to give the private sector much more flexibility in hiring and firing of workers. Whether this would mean that the private sector would be more confident in absorbing some of the unemployed is yet to be seen.

Table 6.47. Race of female workers in the company (%)

FEMALE WORKERS	PERCENT (N=10)
White	60
African	10
Coloured	20
Indian	10

White females are featured as workers in 60% of the tour companies surveyed, African females also in 10% of the tour companies, Indian females in 10% and Coloured females in 20% of the tour companies (Table 6.47). Females, in general, and White females in particular, are much more represented as workers than males within the tour companies. The gender connotations about having more female workers within the ecotourism industry should not be ruled out. Again, there are huge disparities in the racial make-up with regards to female representation in the workplace of tour companies.

Table 6.48. Type of license that the company possesses (%)

TYPE OF LICENSE	PERCENT (N=10)
SATOUR	80
SATSA	20

Eighty percent of the tour companies possessed a SATOUR license and 20% possessed a SATSA licence (Table 6.48). The license granted to tour companies may be based entirely on the prospects for economic development. Placing emphasis on the economic pillar of sustainable development may not be entirely bad considering the high unemployment rate in South Africa. However, the ecotourism industry is solely reliant on the natural resource base that it sells to prospective clients both domestic as well as

foreign. Hence, any future granting of licenses should factor in the measures that tour companies would take to ensure that sustainable ecotourism does not only remain a philosophy but becomes a way of life. No doubt, the current global set up provides no or limited choice for a developing country like South Africa but to give impetus to the economic pillar of sustainable development albeit at the expense of the social and the environmental pillars. The status quo dictates that sustainable development can only be negotiated at the global level whereby concerns, policies, resolutions, etc. about sustainable development move beyond rhetoric to becoming the number one priority of the 21st century.

Table 6.49. Respondents' perceptions regarding accreditation or certification of tour companies (%)

ACCREDITED/CERTIFIED	PERCENT (N=10)
Yes	90
Don't Know	10

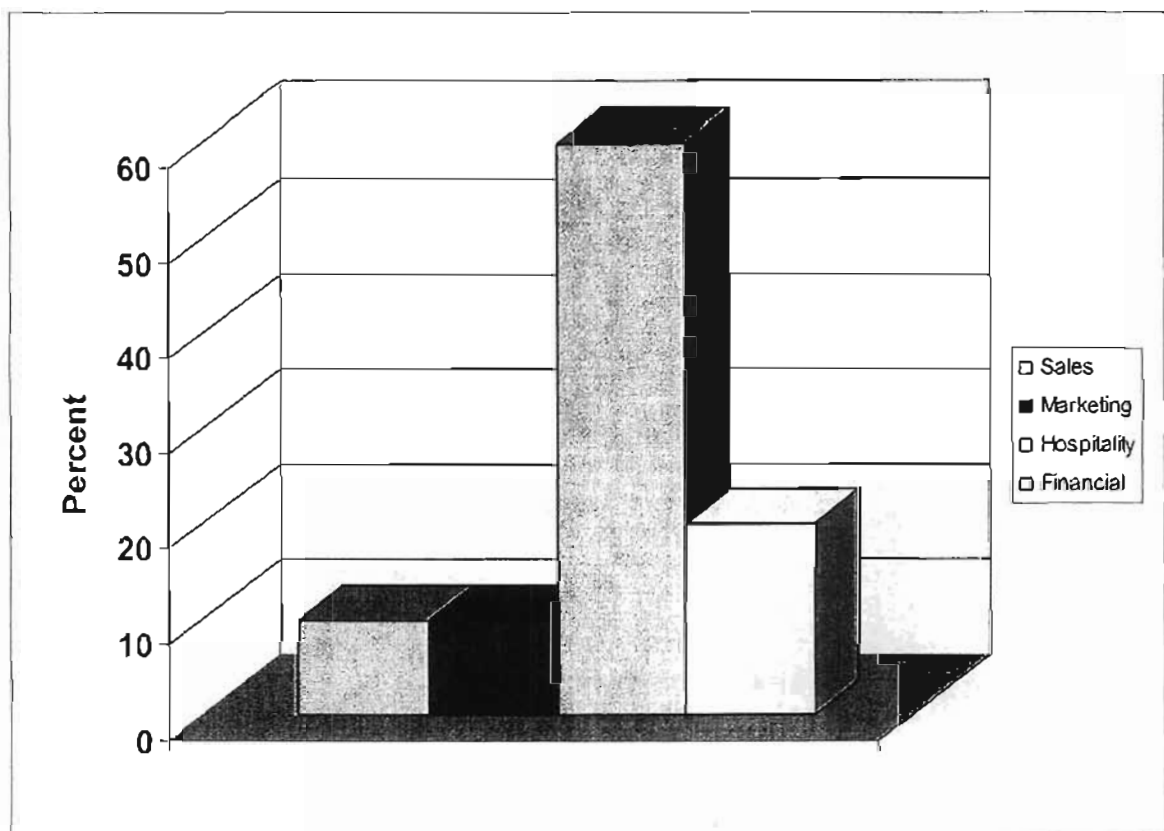
Table 6.49 illustrates that 90% of the respondents indicated that tour companies should be accredited or certified. This is a good indication of the respondents' receptiveness to accountability and good governance. Whereas business practices in other countries may be entrenched in so far as selfish interests are concerned, the above results indicate that there is a willingness on the part of the tour companies to be under some form of regulation as opposed to be given *carté blanche* on their business practices. This is especially so in the interest of sustainable development since the element of profit has been shown to be the main factor that is responsible for the irresponsible and uncaring manner in which environmental ethics as well as rules and regulations are constantly changing owing to the political and economic landscape. Whilst it would be the political and economic landscape that would ultimately dictate the boundaries that the tour companies would operate their tour businesses, accreditation and certification offers a symptomatic remedy and may instil a moral component of sustainable practices into the collective thinking of the tour company industry.

Table 6.50. Reasons for accreditation or certification (%)

ELABORATE	PERCENT (N=10)
Personalised Service	10
Professionalism	60
Reliability	20
Rules And Regulations	10

The reasons given in Table 6.50 as to why tour companies should be regulated were personalised service (10%), professionalism (60%), reliability (20%) and abiding by rules and regulations (10%). However, the reasons have business connotations (economic) as opposed to connotations to ecotourism principles with regards to environmental and social investment. The results are indicative of the dominant thinking of the economic aspect of development within the ecotourism sector. The social as well as the environmental aspects are absent or relegated to peripheral status under the guise and rhetoric of professionalism. Such technical results point the way forward for a debate that argues for a philosophical approach to sustainable development if sustainable development is to be truly a reality for the entire world.

Figure 6.12. Company's area of expertise (%) (N=10)



Sixty percent of the tour companies indicated hospitality as being their area of expertise. Ten percent indicated sales, 10% indicated marketing, and 20% indicated financial as being their area of expertise (Figure 6.12). The results indicate that the tour companies are in the business of making money and are not in the camp that focuses primarily on conservation and biodiversity issues. Whilst the ecotourism label purports to instil and map a path forward for sustainable ecotourism, the reality is that the ecotourism industry focuses on sales, marketing, hospitality and finance. The tour company component of the ecotourism sector is the component of stakeholders whose interest is selling the two World Heritage Sites to prospective clients and making a profit from that sale. There is nothing morally or illegally wrong with such a practice since it is the landscape on which they function. If one has to debate the morality or ethics of the operations of the tour companies then one must begin to debate the morality and ethics of the political and economic landscape on which the tour companies ply their business trade.

Table 6.51. Respondents' views regarding environmental and tourism studies (%)

ENVIRONMENTAL & TOURISM STUDIES	PERCENT (N=10)
University	10
Self Taught	90

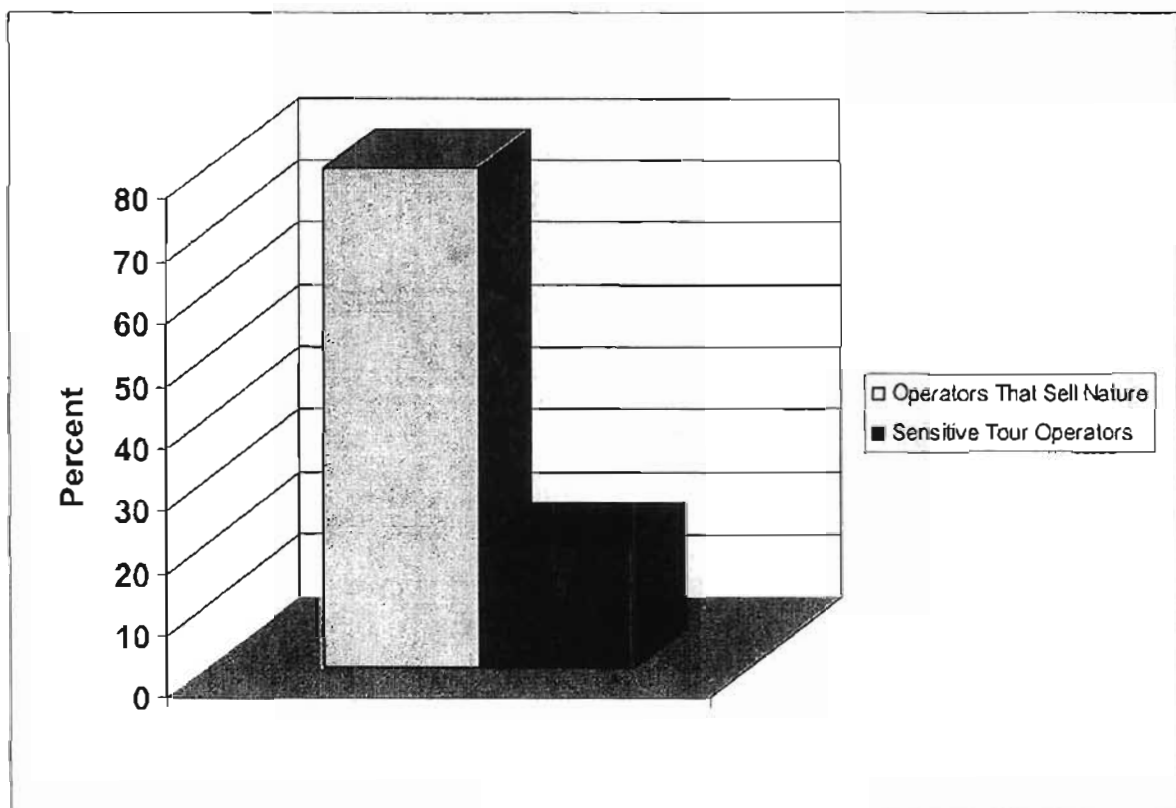
Table 6.51 illustrates that 90% and 10% of the tour company respondents were self taught and had a university qualification respectively, regarding environmental and tourism studies. This is indicative of a skewed relationship between the formal educational curriculum and the skills and knowledge that is required within the tourism sector. The results also indicate that ecotourism, for the tour operators, is a business venture as opposed to being a conservation project. Hence, the need for any prior formal education on the natural environment may not be a precondition for the operation of a tour company. It makes more sense to have a business or related qualification to run a tour company business, even though the business has to do with selling experiences in wilderness destinations.

Table 6.52. Respondents' views as to whether tour companies are members of a conservation organisation (%)

MEMBER	PERCENT (N=10)
Yes	20
No	80

Eighty percent of the tour companies indicated that they do not belong to any conservation, environment or outdoor recreation organisation (Table 6.52). Twenty percent of the respondents indicated that they belong to a conservation, environment or outdoor recreation organisation. Again, whilst the tour companies' existence as a business enterprise depends on the advocacy work of environmental organisations, their meaningful participation in conservation organisations is either minimal or non-existent. This, once again, indicates that the tour companies are in the business of generating profits and not being meaningfully occupied in the advocacy work of the natural environment. Whilst the role function of conservation organisations is to conserve the natural environment it is the job of the tour companies to transport people to these natural areas where the people begin to engage with the natural environment in many and varied ways.

Figure 6.13. Description of tour company (%) (N=10)



Eighty percent of the tour companies described their company as operators that sell nature (Figure 6.13). This reveals the exchange value of nature in that nature has taken on a commodity shape and form. Twenty percent of the tour operators described their companies as sensitive tour operators. For these tour operators the natural environment does not serve a use-value but serves as exchange value. It is the nature of tour companies to continuously engage in the exchange value form of transaction. This means that as long as tour companies are engaged in an exchange-value transaction then the natural environment will continuously be sold. The sale of the natural environment is premised much like that of a time-share. The buyers of the natural environment do not own a title deed although there are options for buyers to buy a piece of nature that will grant them their own title deed. This is not so with either of the two World Heritage Sites. In exchange for a sum of money the buyers may choose to 'own' a holiday for a weekend or more depending on the agreed upon transaction that takes place between the tour company and the client.

When businesses utilise the natural environment for exchange-value purposes the intention is to receive a surplus value or a profit. The profit motive becomes an end in itself whereby the businesses in the ecotourism industry continuously strive for more surplus value. Such pursuit results in a range of problems during the ecotourism journey as well as at the ecotourism destination. The negative impacts are in the form of overcrowding, increased solid waste disposal, increased plant and animal disturbances, etc. The multitude of sustainable development tools is testimony to the enormity of the negative impacts of ecotourism. The problems of the impacts become compounded when more businesses are motivated in accumulating as much surplus value or profit as their creativity and resourcefulness will allow. Such a state of affairs is not out of sync with what the globalised political and economic landscape dictates. Hence, if the negative impacts on the natural environment are to be perceived as an abnormal condition then the machinery (political and economical set-up) that gives it the impetus and momentum must also be perceived to be abnormal.

Table 6.53. Geographical operation of tour company (%): Multiple responses

LOCATION	PERCENT (N=10)
Internationally	90
Nationally	90
Locally	90

Table 6.53 illustrates that 90% of the tour companies surveyed indicated that their operations are local, national as well as international. Such a result is indicative of the interconnectedness of the tourism industry within the global arena. Whilst the two World Heritage Sites are situated in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, their use-value is marketed throughout the World. Whilst the natural resources are situated in South Africa, businesses in other parts of the world are also selling the two World Heritage Sites to prospective clients. Those businesses with more resources would be in a better position to market the two World Heritage Sites and will also be at a major advantage in so far as reaping the benefits from such a sale. This is especially in the light of businesses owning air transport, hotels, tour operators, etc. which make up the different components of the journey to the destination. Any proceeds that South Africa receives are from the expenditure of the tourists in South Africa and at the destination sites, if these business enterprises are South African-owned.

Table 6.54. Types of tours offered by tour company (%)

NATURE TOURS	PERCENT (N=10)
No Response	10
Yes	90
CULURE TOURS	
Yes	10
No	90
ADVENTURE TOURS	
No Response	30
Yes	70
OTHER TOURS (township, golf, beach)	
No Response	30
Yes	70

Table 6.54 shows that ecotourism or nature tourism was offered by 90% of the tour companies surveyed. The result indicates that ecotourism is high on the visitors' list of

demands. However, this statistic could indicate the high supply of ecotourism by tour companies. The tour companies surveyed did not only specialise in ecotourism. Their businesses practices were diversified to include other tourism products as well. These included township tourism, beach tourism, golf tourism, etc. Tours to the two World Heritage Sites were but one aspect of the itinerary depending both on demand and financial feasibility. Such a diversification is indicative of this stakeholder's vested interest within the ecotourism industry, the integral interest being that of profit generation. Such an acknowledgement is important if the issues and concerns regarding sustainable ecotourism are to be clearly understood. Only in this way would all concerned be able to map a path forward or work towards achieving sustainable development within the ecotourism industry.

Cultural tours were offered by 10% of the tour companies surveyed. The marked absence of the community component of ecotourism is evident. With regards to tours to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, the benefits from cultural tourism by the communities residing within and outside the Parks have not been fully realised. Cultural projects that form part of the tourism industry are mushrooming in current day South Africa. Whilst the demand may not be as great as wilderness tourism it does have the potential to grow in demand. This growth in demand may be accelerated through more injection of resources into the formation of such projects, marketing, and including it in the ecotourism itinerary. The supply of cultural tourism products may help to increase its demand and benefits may accrue to all stakeholders within the ecotourism industry.

Table 6.55. Respondents' views regarding age description of clients (%)

AGE	PERCENT (N=10)
41-50 Years	20
61-70 Years	80
PROFESSION AND INTERESTS	
Professional	10
Business Person	10
Retired	80

Eighty percent of the tour companies described their clients as being between the ages of 61 and 70 years of age (Table 6.55). The economic determinant for travel is quite evident. Access to either time or money or access to both time and money seem to be significant factors facilitating travel. This age category are people who are close to retirement or have retired. All of the tour companies stated the gender aspect of their clientele as being an equal distribution of both male and females. The tendency for retired people (80%) to travel with their spouses is very much evident. Eighty percent of the tour companies described their clientel  as retired, 10% as professional, and 10% as business persons (Table 6.53). Money power is the most important means that allow people who wish to go on ecotours to do so. Whilst money provides the resource for ecotourism travel to be carried through, it is not the determining factor for embarking on ecotours. The determining factor of ecotourism travel seems to be the unrelaxed lifestyles that people are exposed to at their places of residence or work. Where time and money does not pose a constraint for those who wish to escape their unrelaxed lifestyles the journey to ecotourism destinations is made possible.

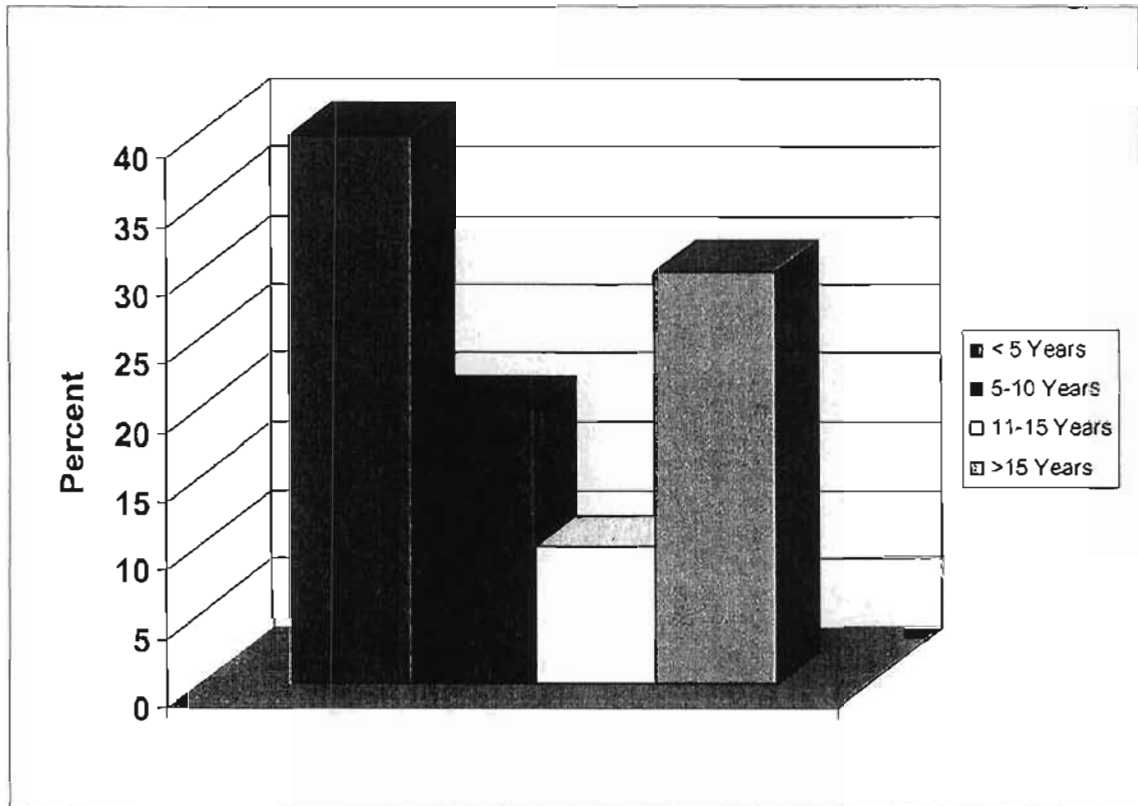
Table 6.56. Means of marketing (%)

INTERNATIONAL	PERCENT (N=10)
No Response	10
Travel Brochures	30
Word Of Mouth	30
Internet	30
NATIONAL	
No Response	20
Word Of Mouth	80

Table 6.56 illustrates that 80% of the tour companies surveyed used word of mouth for marketing their tour companies nationally. International marketing was operationalised through word of mouth (30%), travel brochures (30%), and the internet (30%). The results imply that the economic success of the two World Heritage Sites will depend on the positive experiences of those tourists that visit these sites. The quality of their stay, therefore, depends on the quality of services and goods that they receive from those that are service providers at the two World Heritage Sites. Hence, standards and quality assurance must be a common feature of all service providers within the ecotourism

industry. The livelihoods of all stakeholders are dependent on maintaining and raising standards of services and goods.

Figure 6.14. Duration of operation of tour company (%) (N=10)



Forty percent of the tour companies have been embarking on tours to either one or both of the Parks for a period spanning less than 5 years. Thirty percent of the tour operators conducted tours to one or both of the World Heritage Sites for more than 15 years (Figure 6.14). The tourism business seems quite lucrative as well as sustainable for many tour operators.

Figure 6.15. Respondents' views regarding determining factor for company's existence (%) (N=10)

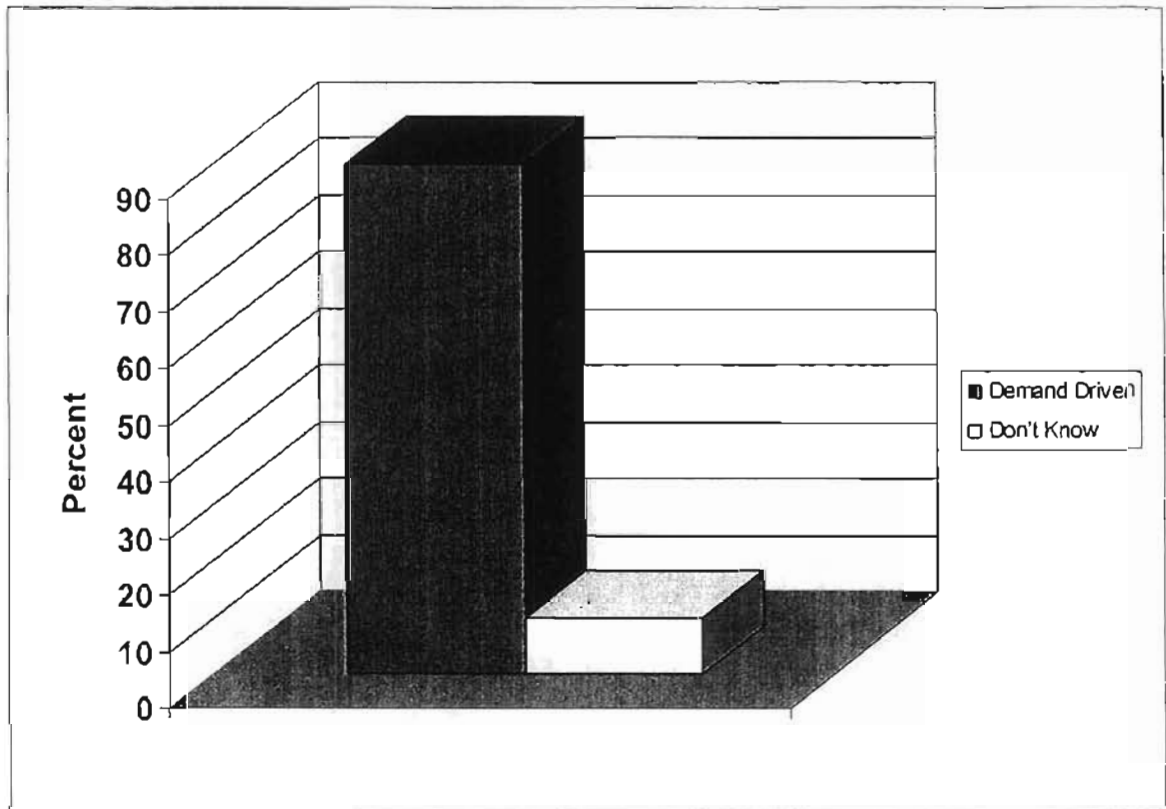


Figure 6.15 illustrates that ninety percent of the tour companies indicated that their businesses are in operation because of the demand by people for the tourism product or experience. Many tour companies have used the ecotourism label regardless of whether their activity is motivated by conservation and preservation or not. Also, no due attention has been given to that of tourism demand with the exception of few writers (Liu, 2003: 462). Ecotourism ventures allow people to immerse themselves in nature in ways that their urban existence does not allow (Reid, n/d: 29). The results indicate that people have a desire (if not a need) to be closely in touch with the natural environment. Visits to the two World Heritage Sites offer a temporary respite from a locked-in relationship with the money economy that have got people continuously labouring to meet their needs and wants. The supply of facilities and services (for a fee) serves to cater for the tourists' demands to the two World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.57. Respondents' views regarding requirement of license or permit (%)

LICENSE OR PERMIT	PERCENT (N=10)
Yes	60
No	20
Don't Know	20

Sixty percent of the tour companies indicated that a license is required to operate their tour company. Twenty percent indicated that a license is not required whilst 20% indicated that they did not know whether a license was required or not (Table 6.57). The issuing of or withdrawal of an ecotourism license could be factored into the quest for sustainable development within the ecotourism industry. This should be considered once all stakeholders discuss and debate the issue of ecotourism licenses. Minor violations of sustainable ecotourism principles could result in fines or suspension of licenses for different periods of time. The major violation of ecotourism principles could entail more severe penalties. However, such measures are negative motivations for upholding ecotourism principles and should be only implemented after considering more positive motives as a means to an end.

Table 6.58. Number of trips per month conducted by tour operators (%)

NUMBER OF TOUR TRIPS	PERCENT (N=10)
<5	30
5-10	20
>15	50

Of the tour operators surveyed, 30% indicated that they conducted less than 5 trips per month and 20% indicated that they conduct between 5 and 10 trips per month. Fifty percent of the respondents indicated that they conduct more than 15 trips per month (Table 6.58). Besides visitors travelling to the two World Heritage Sites on their own, tour companies seem to be a popular or a preferred means of travelling to these natural destinations. Obviously, the declaration of the two World Heritage Sites offers a good product for tour companies to sell to prospective buyers. The economic impact for these tour operators is clearly positive.

Table 6.59. Problems experienced in the tour business (%)

PROBLEMS	PERCENT (N=10)
Exchange rate	40
New reservation system at South African National Parks problematic	60

Regarding some of the problems that are experienced by the tour companies, 60% indicated problems about the new reservation system at South African National Parks and 40% indicated that the new exchange rate is a problem (Table 6.59). Interestingly the tour companies have not stated problems of an environmental or a social nature. The nature of the stated problems is indicative of the nature of the tour companies' interest and it is one of commerce. A stronger rand would mean that the foreign exchange received would be less. The motive for the existence of tour companies is that of profit generating. Such an analysis is an important one if one is to make a sober judgement on the way forward for sustainable development within the ecotourism industry. Hence, the tour company component is an integral stakeholder within the ecotourism industry and their stake in the industry is primarily of an economic nature.

Table 6.60. Respondents' views regarding tours to surrounding community (%)

SURROUNDING COMMUNITIES	PERCENT (N=10)
Yes	10
No	90

Tours to communities that reside within and outside the Parks were conducted by 10% of the tour companies surveyed. Ninety percent of the tour companies indicated that they did not conduct tours to surrounding communities (Table 6.60). Only one tour company interviewed is conducting tours to surrounding communities. It is imperative that more tours take place if cultural tourism and, hence, community benefits are to be maximised. Cultural tourism is beginning to feature prominently on the South African tourism landscape. So as to reap the maximum benefits from such endeavours, communities could begin to diversify their cultural products as opposed to them being standardised. The staidness of watching or experiencing the same cultural product would be done away if cultural tourism offers different and varied products. The packaging and marketing of

such products is also important in arousing the curiosity of potential tourists. Supplying cultural tourism to the tourist market may up the demand thereby forcing tour operators to re-engineer their tour operations and consider community tours where cultural tours are on offering.

Figure 6.16. Respondents' views regarding level of interaction between tour company and the community (%) (N=10)

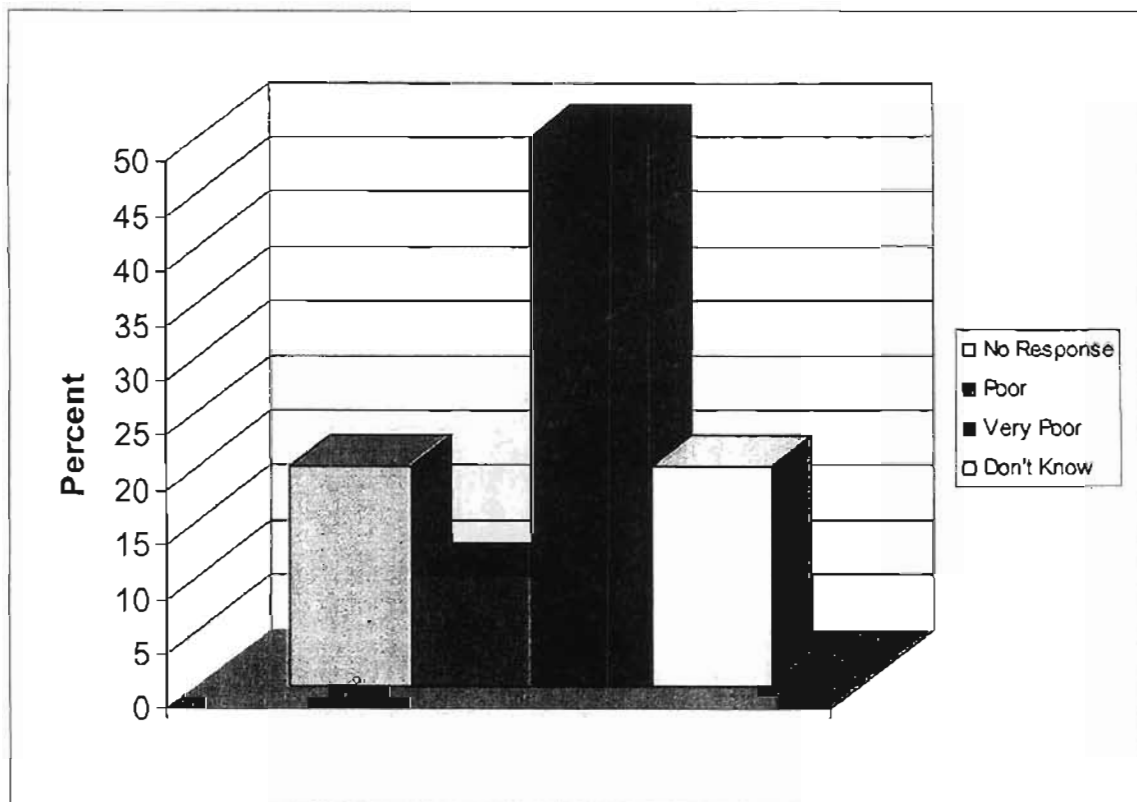
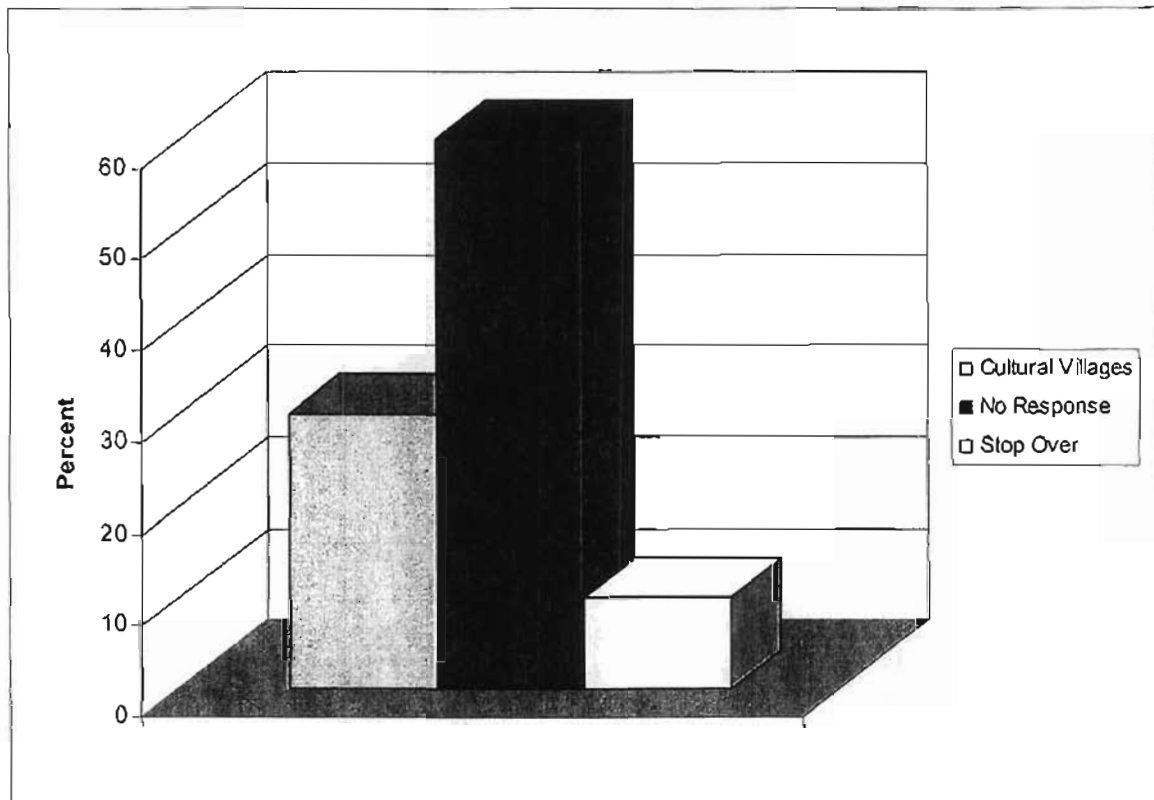


Figure 6.16 illustrates that the level of interaction between the tour companies and the communities was described as poor by 10% of the tour companies and as very poor by 50% of the tour companies. Relationships between tour companies and the community cannot be forced but will rather depend on any shared interests that they might have. Any interaction or relationship should be on the principle of shared benefits and shared responsibilities. Also, communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites are heterogeneous in their makeup. Power relations amongst community members are based on gender, age, political leanings, and economic power. Hence, any interactions will not negate these demarcation lines that are part of the rural community make-up. The 'poor'

interaction between the tour companies also indicates the negation of the local communities as initial custodians of the natural areas that form part and parcel of the tour company livelihoods.

Figure 6.17. Respondents' views regarding reasons for interaction (%) (N=10)



The reasons for the interaction between the tour companies and the community was given as 'cultural' by 30% of the tour companies and as 'stopovers' by 10% of the tour companies surveyed (Figure 6.17). The results indicate that any types of interactions between the local communities, the tourists and the tour company are based on the needs of the latter two groups as opposed to the needs of the local communities. This implies that the ecotourism and cultural tourism industry has been shaped and formed to satisfy the needs of those that have access to money. The needs of the local community are incidental within the broader scheme of things.

Table 6.61. Respondents' views regarding opportunities for visitors and hosts to meet on an equal basis (%)

MEET ON EQUAL TERMS	PERCENT (N=10)
No	90
Yes	10

Ninety percent of the tour companies surveyed indicated that there were no opportunities for visitors and the community to meet on an equal basis (Table 6.61). This result indicates that the ecotourism industry has not evolved to allow for the tourist and the local people to meet as equals but to act as agents for the industry in so far as they possess something that the other desires.

Table 6.62. Respondents' views regarding encouragement of natural values among local people (%)

PROMOTING AND ENCOURAGING PRESERVATION	PERCENT (N=10)
Yes	10
No	90

Ninety percent of the tour operators indicated that they were not promoting and encouraging the preservation of traditional values among the local people (Table 6.62). Therefore, it cannot be expected of the tour operators to uphold and sustain the social component of sustainable ecotourism. The tour operator as a stakeholder is an important component of the ecotourism industry since it is the component that transports tourists to natural areas. Hence, any ambition in so far as ensuring that the sustainable development within the ecotourism industry is adhered to is heavily reliant on the tour operator as key stakeholders of sustainable ecotourism.

Table 6.63. Respondents' views regarding contribution to local economic development (%)

PERCENTAGE OF PROFITS	PERCENT (N=10)
No	90
Don't Know	10

Table 6.63 illustrates that ninety percent of the tour companies surveyed indicated that they do not earmark any of their profits towards local ecotourism projects that focus on community development. Again, the economic development of the local communities surrounding the two World Heritage Sites does not form part of the agenda of the tour companies. It is not the nature of a business whose primary intention to maximise profits to be concerned about the economic development of local communities if they themselves do not benefit in some way. Such a fact of business life has been realised and acknowledged by the South African government. Hence, any form of development that is in the interest of the local communities is appealed through the Corporate Social Investment (CSI) policy of the private sector. Such investment is recognised in the form of tax and other incentives. Hence, any form of local economic development by tour operators should be appealed through the CSI of tour companies. Development could extend to offering learnerships to unemployed youth within the various sectors of the ecotourism industry.

Table 6.64. Respondents' views regarding peak season of tours (%)

SEASON	PERCENT (N=10)
May-July	20
Aug-Oct	40
Nov-Dec	40

Twenty percent of the tour operators indicated that their peak periods were from May to July. Forty percent of the tour operators indicated that their peak periods were from August to October. Also, 40% of the tour operators indicated that their peak periods were from November to December (Table 6.64). From the perspective of the tour companies there seems to be no specific peak period but rather different tour companies experience different peak periods. This augurs well for any type of income generation into South

Africa as a drawn out peak period may ensure a more constant flow of income into the country, even if it a relatively small percentage. A long-drawn out peak period also means more pressure on the natural environment in so far as the increased use of fossil fuel to access one or both of the World Heritage Sites, more solid waste disposal within the Parks, more disturbances to animal and plant life, etc. is concerned. Only if there are indicators to say how much income generation into South Africa and how much of energy utilisation is sufficient will there be some dissipation of the clouds that hang over sustainable ecotourism.

Table 6.65. Respondents' views regarding support for local development initiatives (%)

LOCAL DEVELOPMENT INITIATIVES	PERCENT (N=10)
Yes	30
No	70

Thirty percent of the tour companies surveyed indicated that they supported local development initiatives (Table 6.65). Clearly, in so far as the tour company component of the ecotourism industry is concerned, the support seems to be rhetorical.

Table 6.66. Respondents' views regarding types of support for development initiatives (%)

TYPES OF INITIATIVES	PERCENT (N=10)
Educational	30
Not Applicable	70

Thirty percent of the tour companies indicated that their support for local development initiatives were educational in nature (Table 6.66). It has not been ascertained whether the tour companies have contributed tangibly to any educational initiatives in the local communities. None of the tour companies surveyed had any local persons on their employ. The tour company component of sustainable ecotourism has not contributed to economic development in the form of creating employment for the local inhabitants. The theme of 'Benefits Beyond Boundaries' by the IUCN 5th World Congress in Durban in 2003 has not materialised from the perspective of job creation for the local inhabitants

within the tour company sector. Hence, the economic pillar of sustainable development seems to be sustainable for the tour companies and not for the local populace.

Table 6.67. Respondents' views of willingness of tourists to contribute to local environmental and social causes (%)

WILLINGNESS	PERCENT (N=10)
Somewhat willing	50
Don't know	50

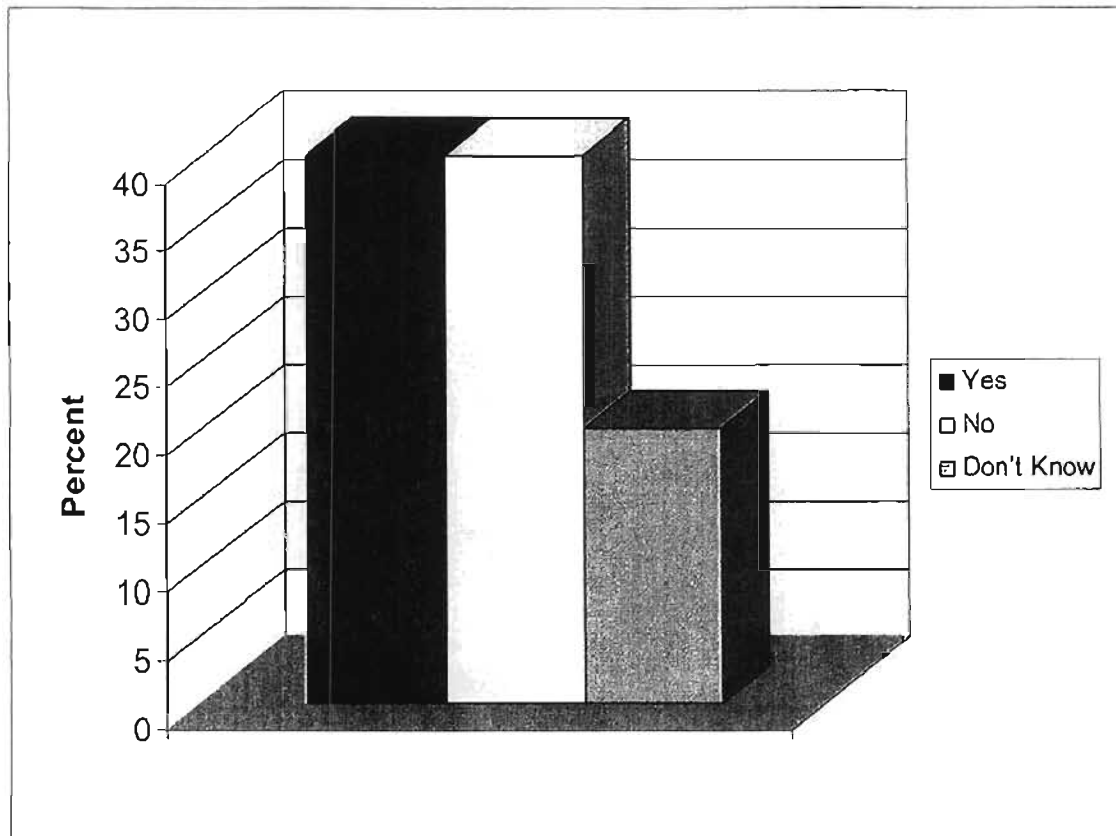
Table 6.67 shows that 50% of the tour companies perceived visitors to be somewhat willing to contribute money to local environmental and social causes. If the Greater St Lucia Wetlands and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains are ecotourism destinations then the results indicate that not all of the tourists that visit these destinations are ecotourists. This is evident by the reluctance, from the perspective of the tour companies, of the tourists to contribute financially towards the conservation of the natural environment and the local communities. On the other hand the tourist may feel that they are already paying enough to middle business people in the ecotourism industry to visit the two World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.68. Respondents' views regarding uses of donations to local development initiatives (%)

LOCAL ECONOMY	PERCENT (N=10)
Cultural Villages	40
Not Applicable	50
Research has to be carried out in this field	10

Forty percent of the tour companies indicated that the contributions (money) are channelled into the development of cultural villages. Ten percent of the tourist respondents indicated that more research has to be carried out with regards to how visitor contributions (usually money) are utilised (Table 6.68).

Figure 6.18. Respondents' views regarding development initiatives at the Parks (%) (N=10)



Forty percent of the tour companies indicated that some form of development had taken place at either or both the Parks over the last 5-10 years (Figure 6.18). The two World Heritage Sites as sites of conservation have witnessed creeping development both within its Park borders as well as outside of its borders. The developments are mostly of an infrastructural type. Such infrastructure includes roads, communications and electrification. Accommodation is also a huge component of development initiatives at the two World Heritage Sites. It seems that the last vestiges of untransformed natural areas have not escaped the clutches of modernisation and its related mores. The setting aside of these natural and cultural destinations as protected areas is being threatened by the very system that they were protected from in the initial instance. The gap between intention and reality do not begin to have any meeting points.

Table 6.69. Respondents' views regarding types of development at Parks (%)

NATURE OF DEVELOPMENTS	PERCENT (N=10)
Not Applicable	60
Upgrading of lodges	40

Forty percent of the tour company respondents indicated that the development comprised the upgrading of lodges (Table 6.69). The creation of lodges allows for the accommodation of paying tourists but not for shelter of indigenous or local people. Hence, the idea or notion of Parks without people is actually meant to be Parks without local indigenous people.

Table 6.70. Types of development preferred by respondents (%)

NATURE OF DEVELOPMENTS	PERCENT (N=10)
Happy with no development since a natural experience is wanted	30
Infrastructure development	10
No response	30
Not applicable	30

As to the preferred development (if any) by the tour company respondents, 30% indicated that they would prefer no development and 10% preferred infrastructure development (Table 6.70). That 30% of the tour operators indicated that they would be happy with no development taking place at the two World Heritage Sites is refreshing. Such a viewpoint can only mean well for the natural environment. However, the research with regards to development at World Heritage Sites, protected areas and natural areas indicate that development always follows conservation measures. Whether the two World Heritage Sites can be developed on a sustainable path remains to be seen.

Table 6.71. Respondents' views regarding environmental matters (%)

ENVIRONMENTAL MAGAZINES	PERCENT (N=10)
Rarely	50
Frequently	30
Always	20
CONSERVATION ORGANISATIONS	
Yes	10
No	90
CODE OF ETHICS AND CONDUCT	
Yes	90
No	10

Fifty percent of the tour company respondents indicated that they rarely read environmental literature, 30% frequently and 20% always (Table 6.71). Whilst natural areas form the basis of the tour companies ecotourism operations, not much effort is invested by the majority of tour companies surveyed with regards to reading up on environmental issues. That ecotourism is supposed to contribute to the conservation of biodiversity is not quite evident in the attitudes and behaviour of tour company operators. Ninety percent of the tour companies surveyed indicated that they do not belong to any conservation, environment or outdoor recreational organisation. The results indicate that the tour operators that transport tourists to the two World Heritage Sites are not specialist ecotourism operators. Rather, ecotourism forms but one of the many products that they offer to would-be clients. Also, the results indicate that the tour operators are not very active as stakeholders that contribute to sustainable ecotourism. Ninety percent of the tour companies surveyed indicated that they do have a code of conduct for both their employees and tourists to the two World Heritage Sites (Table 6.71).

Table 6.72. Respondents' views regarding number of nights spent at a locality (%) (N=10)

NUMBER OF NIGHTS	PERCENT
1 Nights	70
2 Nights	30

Seventy percent of the tour companies indicated that tour groups spent one night at any or both of the World Heritage Sites. Thirty percent of the tour companies indicated that the tour groups spend two nights at any or both of the World Heritage Sites (Table 6.72). It seems that the stay at any one of the two World Heritage Sites is part of a broader tour schedule. Clearly, the time-tables followed by the tour companies to natural destinations are not much or at all different from that followed in so-called modernised societies. The results also indicate that the tourists are constrained by conditions back home and any form and duration of interaction at the natural areas is actually conditioned by factors back home than by the factor of free-choice. Any form of relaxation that the tourist experiences in the one or two nights that are spent at the natural destinations are in small doses. It is clear that the market has succeeded in commodifying the experience of relaxation. What was once supposed to be a natural state of mind and body has been transformed into a much sought after commodity.

Figure 6.19. Respondents' perceptions regarding the restriction of visitors (%) (N=10)

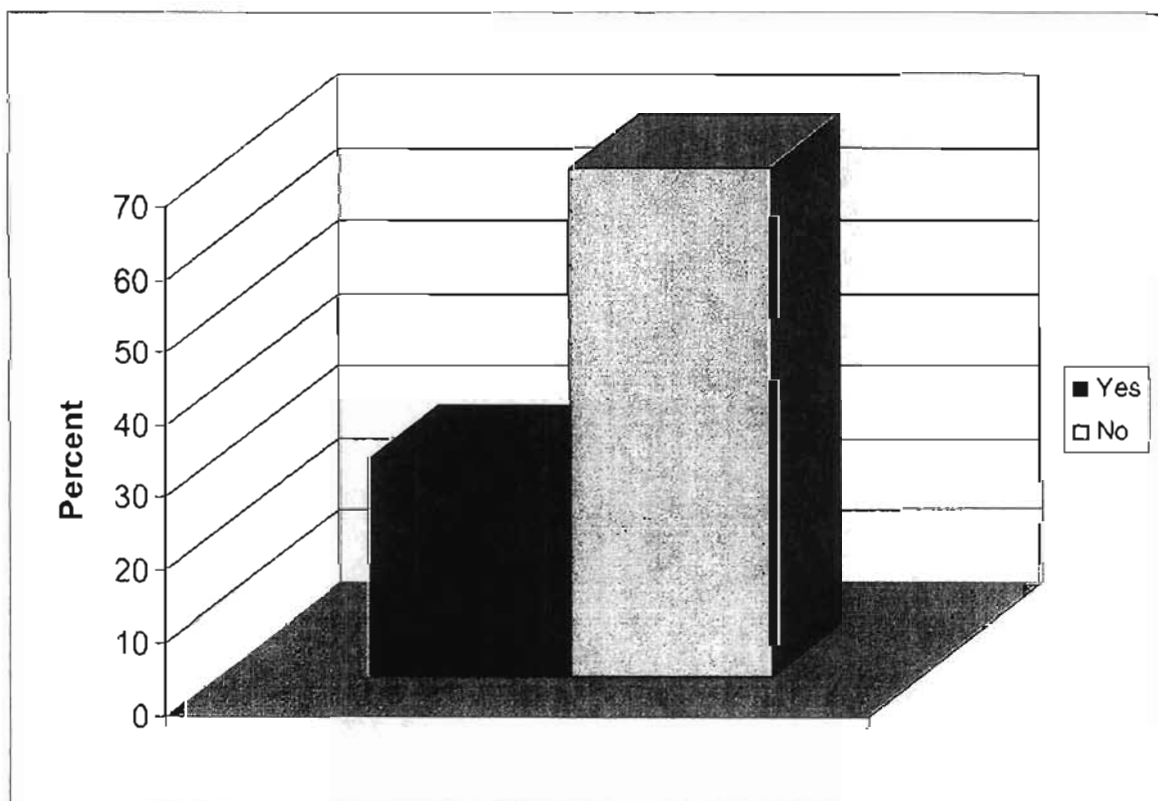


Figure 6.19 illustrates that seventy percent of the tour operators surveyed indicated that tourist numbers should not be restricted to the two World Heritage Sites. Clearly, the interest of profit-generation supersedes the interest of the natural environment. Whilst the majority of tour companies indicated that the two World Heritage Sites should remain as untransformed as possible, they also indicate that restriction of visitors to the Parks should not be enforced. Hence, any form of carrying capacity regulation that attempts to mitigate any potential negative impacts on the natural environment is resisted by the tour companies. Such responses are contradictory and inconsistent. The demand by would-be clients is for natural areas without much development. The strength of the economic pillar of those that dominate the ecotourism industry is in sharp contrast to the weaknesses of the social and environmental pillars of sustainability. As long as this condition remains, sustainability will always be on shaky grounds. The challenge, therefore, is to strengthen the pillars of social and environmental sustainability. All of the tour companies surveyed indicated that they do not restrict or limit tour group sizes to either or both of the World Heritage Sites.

The declaration of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains as World Heritage Sites is relatively recent. The South African Government has made it mandatory that Natural Heritage Sites be managed by different stakeholders that then constitute an Authority. That there are no mechanisms in place to reduce any potential negative impacts on the natural environment by instituting a carrying capacity limit seems unusual. South Africa is a developing country and, hence, the pressure is on to accelerate the pace of economic development through all possible vehicles. The ecotourism industry has been identified as one such vehicle. From this perspective it is logical to not institute any constraints such as a limited carrying capacity regulation that attempts to curb the economic development of the industry.

Table 6.73. Respondents' views as to the minimum number of people required for tours to take place (%)

NUMBER OF PEOPLE	PERCENT (N=10)
21-25	70
>25	30

Seventy percent of the tour companies surveyed indicated that the minimum number of people that is required for a tour to go ahead is between twenty one and twenty five. Thirty percent of the tour companies surveyed indicated the requirement for a tour to take place is more than twenty five people (Table 6.73). Such a criteria indicates that the tour companies have identified a threshold at which the economic sustainability of their business is ensured. It is also the business of the tour companies to negotiate with the necessary stakeholders so as to maximise their interests.

Table 6.74. Media utilised for ecotourism education (%) (N=10)

SLIDE SHOWS	PERCENT
Yes	10
No	90
PAMPHLETS	
Yes	20
No	80
LECTURES	
Yes	10
No	90
DISCUSSIONS	
Yes	100
INTEPRETATION	
Yes	10
No	80
Don't Know	10

Discussions around ecotourism issues were conducted by all of the tour companies surveyed (Table 6.74). The use of slide shows for ecotourism education was utilised by 10% of tour companies surveyed. Pamphlets and lectures were used by 20% of tour companies for ecotourism education. Interpretation, as an ecotourism management tool, was utilised by 10% of the tour companies surveyed. All of the tour operators surveyed indicated that they had not observed any negative environmental impacts in the form of

vegetation damage, polluted rivers, noise pollution and soil erosion. Ten percent of the tour operators indicated that they have observed litter at the Parks.

Table 6.75. Environmental education mechanisms of by tour company (%) :
Multiple responses

MECHANISMS	PERCENT (N=10)
Adequately staffed	100
Stress learning opportunities	60
Study nature	20
Offer and enforce guidelines	100

All of the tour companies indicated that their companies were adequately staffed to permit attentive leadership and personalised service. Sixty percent of the tour companies indicated that they stressed learning opportunities, knowledge and sensitivity to the environment and local people. Twenty percent of the tour companies indicated that their brochures do contain educational information about nature. All of the tour companies indicated that their companies offer and enforce guidelines for visitor field behaviour (Table 6.75).

Table 6.76. Respondents' perceptions regarding conservation attitudes of tour company (%): Multiple responses

PRACTICES	FREQUENCY (N=10)	PERCENT (N=10)
Recycle	Always	70
Buy environmentally friendly products	Always	70
Conserve water	Always	60
Donations to environmental organisations	Frequently	50
Public transport	Never	100
Minimal impact practices	Frequently	80
Environmental groups	Never	90
Write to politicians	Never	100

Seventy percent of the tour companies surveyed indicated that they always recycle and 70% indicated that they always bought environmentally friendly products (Table 6.76) Fifty percent indicated that they always made donations to environmental organisations.

All of the respondents indicated that they never use public transport that they never write to politicians or attend meetings concerning environmental issues. Whilst the tour companies should be commended for their micro commitment to the natural environment in terms of recycling, buying environmentally friendly products, etc. their macro commitment in terms of being part of conservation bodies and trying to influence policies is lacking. This may imply that environmental issues are not the integral concerns of tour companies although their businesses' sustainability is dependent on the conservation of the natural environment. Hence, the long term sustainability of the natural environment may still be under threat as long as attitudes towards conservation remain unchallenged.

Table 6.77. Respondents' views regarding stakeholders' role in ecotourism (%)

GOVERNMENT	PERCENT (N=10)
Educating the nation about conservation	20
No response	40
Reduce crime	20
Split the portfolio to tourism and environment	20
MANAGEMENT	
Adverts	20
Educate locals	10
Invest in the building of schools	20
Keep the tranquillity	20
No response	30
TOURIST	
Adhere to South African National Park rules	20
No response	50
Support financially	30
COMPANY	
Educating and discussing with tourists	40
No response	30
Supporting local schools	30

Table 6.77 illustrates that as to their views on the role of government in ecotourism development, 20% of the tour companies indicated that the nation should be educated about conservation, 20% indicated that crime should be reduced and 20% indicated that DEAT (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism) should be split into The Department of Tourism and The Department of Environment. South Africa has not experienced a better time for the entrenchment of environmental legislation,

environmental education and institutionalising policies, rules and regulations governing the natural environment. The reduction of crime implies that South Africa should be made almost crime-free so that more tourists would feel safe to visit. That is perfectly acceptable. However, the emphasis is clearly on the potential for income to be generated. From the perception of the tour companies, the perception of ecotourism is heavily biased in favour of economic impacts over that of conserving the natural environment. The comments about splitting the Environmental Affairs and Tourism portfolio could mean that business should be separated from issues of conservation. This could indicate either a concern for the natural environment or for ecotourism to have carte' blanche over the natural environment.

As regarding the role of the Parks in ecotourism development, 20% of the tour companies surveyed indicated that ecotourism could be promoted through more advertising, 10% felt that the locals needed educating, 20% thought that more schools should be build and 20% indicated that the tranquillity of the Parks should be kept intact (Table 6.77). The above results indicate a commitment towards positive economic impacts, positive social impacts and positive environmental impacts. If such a view could permeate throughout the entire tour company industry, and if effort, time and resources could be committed towards realising these views, then sustainable ecotourism may be achieved. Twenty percent of the tour companies surveyed indicated that visitors should adhere to South African National Park rules and 30% felt that visitors could promote ecotourism through financial support. As to their role in ecotourism development, 40% felt that education and discussions with visitors were important. Thirty percent thought that local schools should be supported. It is encouraging to note that there is commitment by a percentage of the tour companies to support social investments in the form of supporting local schools. There is also a commitment to educate the tourists about ecotourism. However, it may also be that the tour companies themselves may have to undergo workshopping, if they already have not done so, on ecotourism. Only then will they be in a better position to be good teachers and practitioners of ecotourism.

6.4. Accommodation Personnel

Accommodation is an important and integral component of the tourism experience. It is the demand of the tourists that determines the nature of the accommodation. Preferences of accommodation range from luxury accommodation to all-inclusive type of accommodation to accommodation that supplies the bare necessities. Road and transport infrastructure have resulted in the proliferation of resort-type development, motels and bed and breakfast type accommodation facilities (Bennet et al., 2005).

6.4.1. Accommodation Personnel Characteristics

Accommodation management and personnel make up a component of the stakeholders within the ecotourism industry. The section that follows will look at the perceptions of the management and personnel of the accommodation in and around the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

Table 6.78. Respondent's position at the accommodation establishment (%)

POSITION	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	-	20	10
Owner	50	20	35
Manager	40	60	50
Worker	10	-	5

Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were owners and 40% of the accommodation personnel respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were managers. Sixty percent of the respondents of the accommodation personnel at the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains described themselves as managers and 10% percent of the respondents described themselves as workers (Table 6.78).

Table 6.79. Respondent's gender (%)

GENDER	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Male	20	50	35
Female	80	50	65

As regards the gender of the respondents, 20% and 80% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were male and female, respectively and 50% and 40% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were male and female, respectively (Table 6.79).

Table 6.80. Respondent's age (%)

AGE	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
0-21	-	10	5
22-30	30	30	30
30-40	60	50	55
41-50	10	-	5
51-60	-	10	5

Sixty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 50% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were between the ages of 30 and 40 years. Thirty percent of respondents for both Parks were between the ages of 22 and 20 years of age. Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region were between the ages of 51 and 60. The majority of the respondents (owners, managers and workers) are relatively young (22-40 years) (Table 6.80). The results indicate that the accommodation component of the ecotourism industry seems to be attractive to people from most age categories. In South Africa, the age group that is most susceptible and most affected by the HIV/AIDS pandemic are the 14-35 years age category. No doubt, there will be impacts within the ecotourism industry. Hence, the ecotourism industry should embark on pro-active measures in so far as educating workers about the pandemic and supporting those that do have HIV/AIDS. Responsible and sustainable ecotourism is dependent on such a social investment as well.

Table 6.81. Respondent's marital status (%)

MARITAL STATUS	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Single	40	30	35
Married	60	70	75

Sixty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 70% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were married (Table 6.81).

Table 6.82. Respondent's level of education (%)

EDUCATION	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENS BERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Level 4 (standard 10)	40	30	35
Level 5 (diploma)	40	30	35
Other (short courses)	20	40	30

Forty percent and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, had obtained a level four education. Also, 40% and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, had obtained a level five education (Table 6.82). The results indicate that the respondents have at least a level four qualification. The economic development of South Africa will depend largely on the development of the skills and knowledge base of the previously disadvantaged sector of the society. The re-aligning of the education sector with the current economic trends is the structural response towards meeting the need for skills and knowledge base development. The intensive Publics Work Programme and the learnership programme are the more specific tools that government is utilising in order to accelerate the skills and knowledge base development. The ecotourism sector should also embark upon offering learnerships to unemployed youth. Sharing of skills and knowledge is instrumental in building a thriving ecotourism industry and, hence, a successful South Africa.

Table 6.83. Respondent's historical race classification (%)

RACE	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
African	-	10	5
White	100	80	90
Indian	-	10	5

All of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 80% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were White (Table 6.83). The results indicate the skewed demographic make-up of the accommodation component of the ecotourism industry. Clearly, there are large disparities, in terms of race representation within the sector and Whites dominate the accommodation component of the ecotourism industry.

This concern is recognised by the BEE Charter and Scoreboard (2004: 1):

Furthermore, we recognise that the legacy of Apartheid remains apparent in some of the Tourism Sector's associations and bodies and we therefore acknowledge the need for transformation within these associations, so that they may become truly representative and reflective of our society.

Whilst the political landscape had changed in 1994, the legacy of White privilege still remains. The response to the status quo within the tourism industry was, therefore, in the form of the Tourism BEE (Black Economic Empowerment) Charter and Scorecard of 2004. Hence, the objectives as set out in Broad-based Black Economic Empowerment Act no. 53 of 2003 is relevant to the accommodation (hostels, resort properties and timeshare, bed and breakfasts, guesthouses, game lodges and backpackers) component of the ecotourism industry as well.

All of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park were South African. Foreign owners, managers, and workers do not feature in the accommodation component of the ecotourism component. The proposed development within the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park is said to comprise 25% foreign ownership. Traditionally, the tourism industry has

been known to import foreign skills for its operations. Such a phenomenon has not been detected within this study. This situation should, ideally, remain. Domestic skills should be harnessed and developed. Although this is a social calling, it may not be in the interests of those that are solely on a profit seeking venture. Hence, the global picture needs to be considered as well as the needs of the country. However, the needs of the country may not dovetail with the needs of the private sector of the ecotourism industry. Hence, some form of regulation needs to be embarked upon such that a balance is reached in so far as the needs of all stakeholders are concerned. Such a request will ultimately be determined by the economic policies that are the order of the day. For now the South African economic policy favours business.

Table 6.84. Respondent's home language (%)

LANGUAGE	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
English	70	60	65
Zulu	-	10	5
Afrikaans	30	30	30

Seventy percent and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park spoke English and Afrikaans, respectively. Of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, 60% spoke English, 10% spoke Zulu and 30% spoke Afrikaans (Table 6.84). English speaking persons feature mostly within the accommodation component of the ecotourism industry; followed by Afrikaans speaking persons and then Zulu speaking persons. The Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, has indicated that English would be an optional language at schools. The idea being that no language should have a dominant role in South Africa. At some time in the future, the ecotourism industry must begin to reflect the other official languages in South Africa. The ecotourism industry is also patronised by domestic tourists. The economic development of the African people, most of whom speak an indigenous language, will allow them to embark upon ecotours as well and, hence, their language preference should be catered for as well. All of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had no disability. However, the result is also indicative of the lack of representation of

disabled persons, whether as owners, managers or workers within the accommodation component of the ecotourism industry. Disabled people have been severely disadvantaged in that they were not allowed to participate in the social, political and economic aspects of South African life. People with disabilities require specific strategies of support and assistance to ensure that they have adequate access and opportunities to participate fully in the ecotourism sector of the economy.

Table 6.85. Whether respondents live within the surrounding communities (%)

LIVE	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	-	5
Yes	70	100	85
No	20	-	10

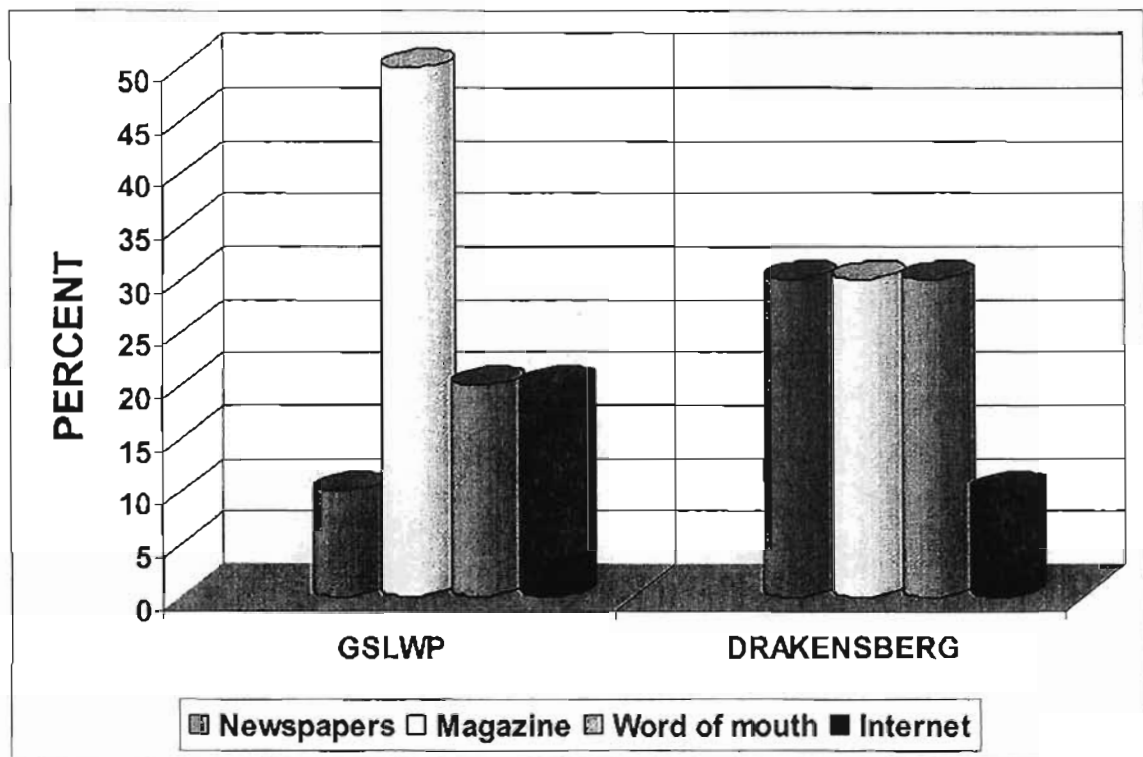
Seventy percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 100% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they reside close by or within the Parks (Table 6.85). The communities surrounding the Parks are divided along lines of class, race and location (urban and rural). Hence, whilst the respondents do reside in close proximity to the two World Heritage Sites they may be residing in areas with quite contrasting social, cultural and economic dynamics. Black people are relatively poor and live in mostly rural areas. The White people are relatively rich and reside in areas that are well developed.

Table 6.86. Respondent's place of residence (%)

NAME OF AREA	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	30	-	15
St Lucia	70	-	35
Amazisi	-	20	10
Drakensberg	-	30	15
Ledges guest farm	-	10	5
Manzana area	-	20	10
Putterill Valley (Northenberg)	-	10	5
Vereneging	-	10	5

Table 6.86 illustrates that seventy percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they live in the town of St Lucia. The town St Lucia is a growing tourist town with lots of homes being converted into guest houses. The town has a good physical infrastructure and the residents have access to most, if not all, services. The accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park are, more or less, equitably distributed within six areas in the Drakensberg Region. Of the six areas Amazisi and Manzana are rural areas characterised by relatively high poverty conditions.

Figure 6.20. Respondents' views of the main marketing means of the UKDP and GSLWP (%)



Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that their main means of marketing their resorts are through magazines (Figure 6.20). Other media (newspapers, word of mouth and internet) are also utilised by the accommodation of one or both of the World Heritage Sites. The Mweni Tourism and Cultural Centre lack the communications infrastructure because of its rural setting. The

communication of the centre and its services to potential tourists are fraught with difficulties and time delays. Anyone wanting to make a booking has to leave a message on the voicemail of the manager of the centre. He only accesses these messages when he walks a few kilometres to the top of a hill where he is able to receive reception. Such infrastructural problems are detrimental to any economic ventures that the rural people wish to embark upon. Upon the last visit to the Mnweni Tourism and Cultural Centre it was learnt that electricity is being connected to the centre.

Table 6.87. Respondent's description of visitors to the UKDP and GSLWP (%)

TOURIST	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Mostly foreigners	60	20	40
Mostly local	20	30	25
Even distribution of foreigners and locals	10	50	30
Don't know	10	-	5
RACE COMPOSITION			
Mostly Whites	80	60	70
Even distribution of Blacks and Whites	10	40	25
Don't know	10	-	5
GENDER COMPOSITION			
Even distribution of males and females	100	90	95
Mostly males	-	10	5

Tourists to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were described by 60% of the accommodation respondents as being mostly foreigners. Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents described the tourists to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park as being mostly local and 50% also described the tourists as an even distribution of both foreigners and locals (Table 6.87). The results indicate that the accommodation personnel perceived that the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park is more popular as a tourist destination amongst foreigners than the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains. According to them, the demand for natural areas seems to be greater amongst foreigners than the domestic people. The lack of money for such luxuries may be beyond

the reach of most South Africans. Also, the relative close proximity of most South Africans to natural areas does not create the artificial need for South Africans to get away from it all and to escape into the bush or mountains. However, it is interesting to note that the majority of the visitors interviewed were domestic tourists. This trend is also noted in the literature in terms of the importance of domestic tourism in South Africa. Of concern is that accommodation establishments who are more likely to believe that tourists are generally foreigners, will cater for their needs rather than that of domestic tourists.

Eighty percent and 60% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that the tourists to their respective resorts were mostly White. Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 40% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that an even distribution of Blacks and Whites visited the two respective World Heritage Sites (Table 6.87). However, the results are clearly indicative of more Whites travelling to ecotourist destinations than Blacks. This scenario is not surprising upon knowing that Whites, in South Africa generally, have more economic power and, hence, more leisure time than Blacks. Also, more Blacks, especially in South Africa, are already living close by to nature and may not feel the need to go away. All and 90% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that the tourists to their respective Parks were an even distribution of males and females. Males as well as females seek out tourist destinations in almost equal measure. The results are indicative of the almost equitable gender balance of visitors to the two World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.88. Respondents' views as to the number of times that do tour operators transport tourists to the resort per month (%)

TOUR OPERATORS	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	-	5
<5 trips	10	80	45
6-10 trips	20	-	10
>15 trips	60	20	40

Sixty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that tour groups are brought more than fifteen times per month to the Park by tour operators. Eighty percent and 20% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that tour groups are brought to the Park less than five times and more than fifteen trips, respectively, per month by tour operators (Table 6.88). The carrying capacity at both the World Heritage Sites is a biodiversity conservation tool but is not one that is implemented at the Parks and is indicative of the emphasis on ecotourism as opposed to conservation. Plate 6.6. shows vehicles and buses at Lake St Lucia.

Plate 6.6. Vehicles and tour buses at Lake St Lucia



Table 6.89. Carrying capacity of respondent's accommodation (%)

CAPACITY	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
no response	10	-	5
16-20 beds	10	30	20
21-25 beds	-	10	5
26-30 beds	20	10	15
>40 beds	60	50	55

The carrying capacity of the accommodation at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, in terms of the number of beds, ranged from sixteen to more than forty beds (Table 6.89). With the advent of democracy South Africa is now a recognised country in world affairs. This has meant that it is growing in its reputation as a sought after tourist destination. Also, the declaration of the two World Heritage Sites in KwaZulu-Natal and its expected marketing campaign have seen major developments proposed for these sites of cultural and natural beauty. Besides infrastructural development (roads, electricity, communication, etc.), the number of beds, that would cater for the increasing volume of tourists is an integral component of the planned proposals. Such planning is indicative of the growing demand for ecotourism destinations. Therein lies the contradiction. The natural landscape has to be cleared for any form of human development. Hence, biodiversity conservation and economic development are often conflicting objectives.

Table 6.90. Accommodation average occupancy rate during peak season and off-peak season (%)

PEAK SEASON	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	-	5
0-10 beds	10	10	10
16-20 beds	-	30	15
26-30 beds	20	30	25
36-40 beds	-	10	5
>40 beds	60	20	40
OFF-PEAK SEASON			
No response	10	-	5
0-10 beds	10	10	10
11-15 beds	10	30	20

16-20 beds	10	10	10
21-25 beds	10	-	5
26-30 beds	30	30	30
>40 beds	20	20	20

Table 6.90 illustrates that sixty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the average occupancy rate of their resort during peak season was more than forty beds. Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that their average occupancy rate during peak season was between sixteen and thirty beds.

Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the average occupancy rate of their resort during off-peak season was between twenty six and thirty beds. Thirty of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that their average occupancy rate during off-peak season was between eleven and fifteen beds and between twenty and thirty beds (Table 6.90).

Table 6.91. Respondent's perceptions as to the average number of vehicles that enter their premises per day (%)

VEHICLE	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	-	5
1-5	10	30	20
6-10	30	10	20
11-15	20	30	25
16-20	-	10	5
21-25	-	20	10
>25	30	-	15

Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the number of cars entering their premises per day was between six and ten and 30% also indicated that more than twenty five vehicles enter their premises per day. Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that between one and five vehicles entered their premises per day. Thirty percent also indicated that between eleven and fifteen vehicles entered their premises per day (Table 6.91). The impact of carbon monoxide and other gases from

vehicles on the natural environment has not been measured. However, more road infrastructure (new and rehabilitation of old roads) is part of the planning process.

Table 6.92. Respondents' perceptions as to their understanding of the ecological issues (%)

BIODIVERSITY	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
General	60	10	35
Good	30	10	20
Detailed	10	50	30
Vague	-	30	15
PROTECTED AREAS			
General	50	50	50
Good	10	10	10
Detailed	40	40	40
WORLD HERITAGE			
General	40	-	20
Good	20	70	45
Detailed	40	30	35
ECOTOURISM			
General	50	30	40
Good	10	30	20
Detailed	40	40	40
CONSERVATION			
General	40	30	35
Good	20	30	25
Detailed	40	40	40
SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT			
Vague	30	30	30
General	30	10	20
Good	10	20	15
Detailed	30	20	25

Table 6.92 illustrates that as to their understanding of biodiversity, 60% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated a general understanding and 50% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated a detailed understanding. However, the general or detailed understanding of biodiversity is not necessarily translated into ensuring that the biodiversity is not threatened, at least not at the level of eliminating the determining

factor of environmental degradation. As to their understanding of protected areas, 40% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated both a general as well as a detailed understanding. Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated both a general as well as a detailed understanding of world heritage principles. Seventy percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated a good understanding of world heritage principles. Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated a general understanding of ecotourism. Forty of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated a detailed understanding of ecotourism. Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated both a general as well as a detailed understanding of conservation. Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated a detailed understanding of conservation. Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated both a vague as well as a general understanding of sustainable development. Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated both a vague and 20% indicated a detailed understanding of ecotourism.

Table 6.93 illustrates that forty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park strongly agreed as well as agreed that ecotourism entails minimising negative impacts to the environment and the local people. Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that ecotourism entails minimising negative impacts to the environment and the local people. Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park strongly agreed and 60% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that ecotourism entails minimising negative impacts to the environment and the local people. The accommodation respondents perceived ecotourism to be synonymous with conservation efforts. On the contrary, the

creation of protected areas is a response to a creeping industrialisation and the subsequent destruction of vast expanses of biodiversity.

Table 6.93. Respondents' specific perceptions of ecotourism principles (%)

MINIMISE NEGATIVE IMPACTS	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	10	20
Strongly agree	40	20	30
Agree	40	50	45
Disagree	-	10	5
Don't know	10	10	10
AWARENESS			
No response	10	10	10
Strongly agree	50	30	40
Agree	40	60	50
CONSERVATION MANAGEMENT			
No response	10	10	10
Strongly agree	80	30	55
Agree	10	60	35
LOCAL PEOPLE			
No response	80	30	55
Strongly agree	10	10	10
Agree	10	50	30
Don't know	-	10	5
ECONOMIC			
No response	10	30	20
Strongly agree	50	-	25
Agree	10	70	40
Disagree	10	-	5
Don't know	20	-	10
OPPORTUNITIES			
No response	10	10	10
Strongly agree	50	10	30
Agree	30	60	45
Disagree	10	10	10
Don't know	-	10	5

The enveloping of all aspects of life on earth by the economic system, that has come to be known as capitalism, has not bypassed the opportunity to convert protected areas into commodities. The difference being that the use of protected areas for exchange value seems to be more palatable and socially acceptable than other forms of environmental

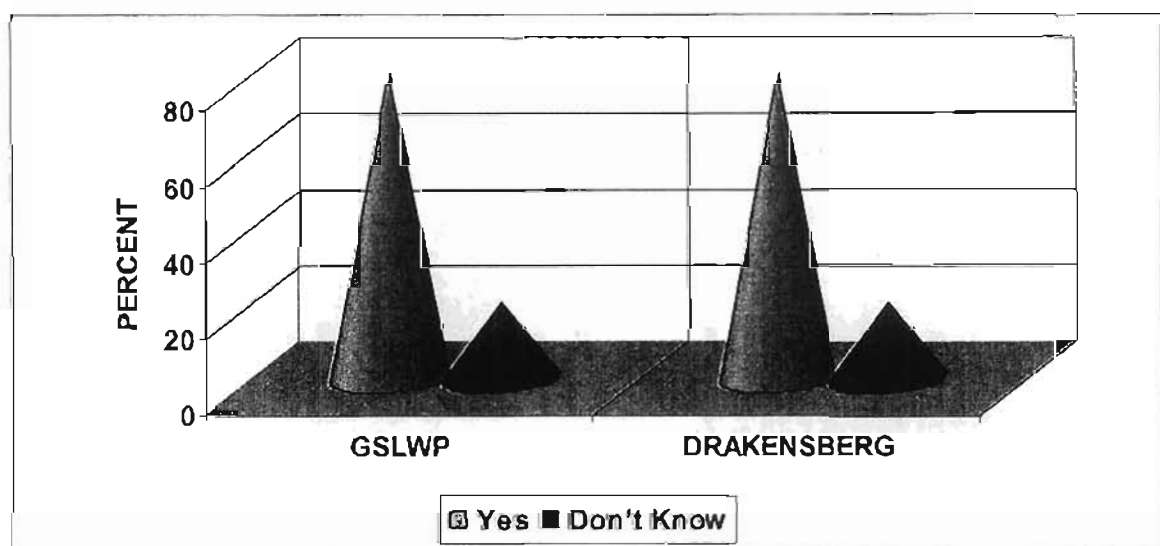
degradation such as mining. It must be clear that ecotourism is a business operation and like all businesses its objective is to create surplus value in the form of money. Conservation is the protection of species from industries that wish to convert the natural resources into money. Education of the natural environment is the acquiring or dissemination of knowledge with the purpose of understanding the natural environment and its importance in the world. Understanding the natural environment may have as its underlying purpose the objective of conservation. However, possessing knowledge of the natural environment may not necessarily translate into active conservation efforts. No doubt, the ecotourism industry is dependent on the protected areas for its lifespan and, therefore, it seems logical that the protected areas are kept intact. However, the reality indicates otherwise.

Eighty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park strongly agreed and 60% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that ecotourism entails the conservation and management of legally protected and other natural areas. Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park strongly agreed and 50% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that ecotourism entails maximising 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. In relation to all other aspects of ecotourism, the involvement of local people in the decision-making processes yielded the highest 'no response' (80%) from the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park strongly agreed and 70% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that ecotourism entails the direct economic as well as other benefits to local people (Table 6.93). The accommodation respondents of both the World Heritage Sites were, generally, in favour of local people benefiting directly from any ecotourism.

Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park strongly agreed and 60% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern

uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park agreed that ecotourism entails the provision of special opportunities for local people and natural tourism employees to utilise and visit natural areas and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see (Table 6.93). Whilst there was no overwhelming support as to the aims and objectives that ecotourism should strive towards, there was general agreement by the accommodation respondents of the two World Heritage Sites that ecotourism should be about providing special opportunities for local people and natural tourism employees to utilise and visit natural areas and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see, direct economic and other benefits to local people, maximising 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; contributing to the conservation and management of legally protected and other natural areas; the awareness and understanding of an area's natural and cultural systems and the visitors involvement in issues affecting those systems; and a type of use that minimises negative impacts to the environment and to the local people.

Figure 6.21. Respondents' perceptions regarding interaction between tourists and the local community (%)



Eighty percent and all of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that there is interaction between tourists to the resorts and the local communities (Figure 6.21).

Table 6.94. Respondents' perceived rating of relationship (%)

RELATIONSHIP	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	-	5
Excellent	-	30	15
Very good	-	10	5
Good	50	30	40
Satisfactory	30	30	30
Poor	10	-	5

Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park described the relationship between tourists to the Parks and local communities as good. Also, 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park described the relationship as satisfactory (Table 6.94).

Table 6.95. Respondents' description of perceived relationship (%)

DESCRIPTION	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Open air markets are supported such as fruit, vegetable and crafts markets	10	-	5
St Lucia is a White run town with minimal involvement with the local communities	10	-	5
There are various tours that make this interaction possible	-	10	5
Community levies (money) that is put back into local communities has not made an impact as yet, schools and youth need to benefit from communities levies	-	10	5
Very good attitudes because Park is owned by communities and benefit	-	10	5
We provide them with employment	10	-	5
When interacting with the community, management and staff are always greeted by strangers and those known. Assistance is happily given even in the odd delicate matters involving the police	10	-	5
No response	60	70	65

Ten percent of the respondents of the GSLWP stated that the support of open air markets was evidence of there being a relationship between the local people and the ecotourism sector. Ten percent of the respondents of the GSLWP also stated that there was little involvement of the local people within the ecotourism sector. The majority of the respondents (60% and 70% respectively) of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did not describe the nature of the relationship between the ecotourism sector and the local communities (Table 6.95). The relationship described portrays the local community as passive recipients as opposed to being active participants within the framework of such a relationship. The power relations between the local people and the touring visitors seem to be one of inequality and patronisation. Also, the responses indicate the economic nature and not the social and cultural nature of the relationship between the local inhabitants and the tourists to the two World Heritage Sites. The local people, as dependants (funds, benefits, jobs, money and assistance) are clearly evident.

Table 6.96. Respondents' perceptions as to the extent (if any) of the local communities involvement in the activities and decision-making of the Parks (%)

ACTIVITIES/ DECISION-MAKING	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Somewhat involved	70	40	55
Highly involved	10	20	15
Don't know	30	40	35

Seventy percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 40% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the local people are somewhat involved in the decision-making of the Parks (Table 6.96).

Table 6.97. Respondents' perceptions of community's involvement (%)

	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENS BERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Building of new sites	-	10	5
Decisions that involve the Park are taken/made by the SDI, rarely do they consult the community	10	-	5
Community Nkosi (tribal authorities) are involved in local boards and when causal staff are employed for poverty relief programmes i.e. funding sought from DEAT	10	-	5
Local community is constantly assisted by the resort but we are not aware of how involved the community is in decision-making of the Park	-	10	5
Park owned by communities, that is why they are making decisions	10	-	5
No response	70	80	75

Table 6.97 illustrates that the majority (70% and 80%, respectively) of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park did not identify aspects of community involvement. The accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park did not think that the local communities were equal partners when it came to decision-making relating to ecotourism development. The results indicate that unless the community as a collective owns or has an equal stake in any ecotourism development than the involvement in decision-making is relegated to the periphery as opposed to the core of partnership dynamics.

Table 6.98. Respondents' views with regards to the attitudes of the local communities towards the resort management and staff (%)

ATTITUDES	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Excellent	-	30	15
Very good	-	60	30
Good	50	-	25
Poor	-	10	5
Don't know	50	-	25

Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the attitudes of the local communities towards the management and staff of

the resort was good and 60% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated a very good attitude of the local community members towards the management and staff of the resort (Table 6.98).

Table 6.99. Respondents' reasons for attitude descriptions (%)

REASON	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENS BERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
The resort employs a large amount of people from the community and the owner is the local doctor	10	-	5
Community levies (money) that is put back into local communities has not made an impact as yet. Schools and youths need to benefit from communities levies	-	10	5
Very good attitudes because park is owned by communities and benefits	-	10	5
We provide them with employment	10	-	5
When interacting with the community, management and staff are always greeted by strangers and those know. Assistance is happily given even in the odd delicate matters involving the police	10	-	5
No response	70	80	75

The majority of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (70% and 80%, respectively) did not provide reasons for the description of attitudes of accommodation personnel towards the local communities (Table 6.99). Ten percent implied that the relationship must be good because the resort employs a large amount of people from the community and the owner is the local doctor. The reasons provided by the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park for the very good relationship between the local community and the accommodation management and staff revolves around jobs as well as ownership and assistance in various forms. The qualitative responses are indicative of the fact that it is the material relationship between the local community and the accommodation management and staff that determines the social relationship between the local community and the accommodation management and staff. Hence, in order to secure the social relationship of the local community and the accommodation

management and staff it is necessary to secure the economic interests of the local community.

Figure 6.22. Respondents' perceptions as to the attitudes of the local communities towards the tourists visiting the UKDP and GSLWP (%)

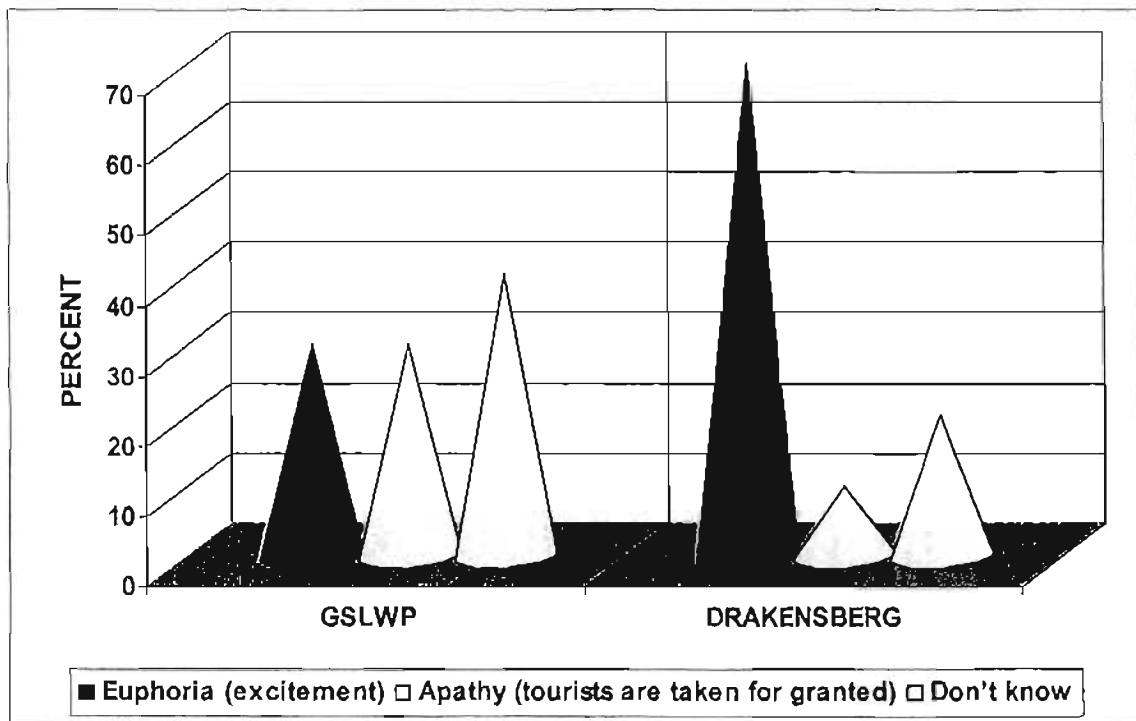


Figure 6.22 illustrates that thirty percent and 70% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park respectively indicated that the attitude of the local community towards the tourists was one of euphoria. Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park also felt that the attitude of the local community towards the tourists was one of apathy.

Table 6.100. Respondents' perceptions regarding key aspects such as a code of conduct for tourists, tour company code of conduct etc. (%)

TOURIST CODE OF CONDUCT	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENS BERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	-	5
Yes	10	40	25
No	80	40	60
Don't know	-	20	10
TOUR COMPANY CODE OF CONDUCT			
No response	10	-	5
Yes	-	40	20
No	90	40	65
Don't know	-	20	10
CRIME			
Yes	100	50	75
No	-	30	15
Don't know	-	20	10
LOCAL COMMUNITY			
No	100	80	90
No response	-	10	5
Don't know	-	10	5
HUNTING OF WILDLIFE			
Yes	90	60	75
No	10	40	25
OVER-RELIANCE			
Yes	60	60	60
No	40	30	35
No response	-	10	5
CULTURE ACTIVITIES			
Yes	10	-	5
No	90	80	85
No response	-	10	5
Don't know	-	10	5

Eighty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that there was no code of conduct with regards to the interaction of tourists and the local community. Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that there was a code of conduct and 40% also indicated that there was no code of conduct with regards to the interaction between the tourists and the local community. Ninety percent of the accommodation respondents of

the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 40% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that there was no code of conduct with regards to the interaction between the tour companies and the local company. Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park also indicated that there was a code of conduct with regards to interaction between tour companies and the local company (Table 6.100).

Table 6.100 further illustrates that all of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 50% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that crime hinders tourism to their respective Parks. Whilst crime may hinder ecotourism, it simply cannot be done away with without looking at the causative and determining factors of crime. Issues around poverty and joblessness must be addressed in order to, firstly, halt the crime wave and, secondly, to reverse it. The results indicate that issues of crime is more worrying amongst the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park (100%) than the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region. The promise of the ecotourism industry to provide many jobs for those residing alongside the borders of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park is an important factor in the general equation of poverty alleviation through job creation and, hence, an attack on crime.

All of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 80% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the presence of the local community does not hinder tourism to their respective Parks (Table 6.100). This sentiment, it seems, is fine as long as the local community does not live within the boundaries of the Parks. How else does one explain the removal of indigenous people from conservation areas that are destined to become ecotourism destinations? Also, indigenous people that have claims to land within the Parks may own the land but are not permitted to live on the land. Hence, it seems that the results indicate that the ecotourism industry is not hindered by the local people only if they reside outside the boundaries of the Park as well as pushed further by what is known as a buffer zone.

Ninety percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 60% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the hunting of wildlife by the local community does hinder tourism to their respective Parks (Table 6.100). The results indicate that wild animals are a sought after resource for the local community as well as for ecotourists to the Parks. Therein is the source of conflict between indigenous people and conservation proponents. The hunting of wild animals may occur as a form of subsistence living for the local community. These animals may also be used for muti (traditional medicine) purposes. Therefore, the challenge for government, conservation bodies, the private sector and other stakeholders is to map a way forward as to how both these needs could be met. The solution or solutions has or have to be comprehensive and move beyond a superficial partnership between and amongst the various stakeholders. The partnerships can only be justified if it considers the material benefits of all stakeholders, equally.

Sixty percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park as well as the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the community's reliance on natural resources does hinder tourism to their respective Parks (Table 6.100). Again, natural areas serve as places of tranquillity and relaxation for visitors to the two World Heritage Sites. The conservation of these natural resources deprives the local community of a subsistence lifestyle. The unsustainable use of these natural resources will deprive the visitors to the Parks of the opportunity to relax and unwind from the stresses of modern living. The reliance of the indigenous community on natural resources within the Parks are for livelihood and medicinal purposes. Where local people cannot be provided with jobs, they must be provided with land so as to maintain a livelihood through subsistence farming. The removal of both forms of livelihoods (jobs and land) is a recipe for mass poverty.

Ninety percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 80% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the local community's unique culture does not hinder tourism to their respective Parks. Fourteen percent of the accommodation respondents indicated that the

unique culture of the local people hinders tourism to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park (Table 6.100). Hence, instead of culture being perceived as a hindrance to tourism it is very much an attraction and should be marketed much more vigorously.

Table 6.101. Respondents' views as to whether the presence of the local community promotes tourism to the UKDP and GSLWP (%)

PROMOTION OF TOURISM	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENS BERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Yes	90	90	90
No	10	-	5
No response	-	10	5
SUSTAINABLE USE OF NATURAL RESOURCES			
Yes	40	30	35
No	60	40	50
No response	-	30	15
ASSIST IN TOURISM DEVELOPMENT			
Yes	70	30	50
No	20	40	30
No response	10	30	20

Table 6.101 illustrates that ninety percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park as well as the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the presence of the local community promotes tourism to their respective Parks. All of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park as well as the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the unique culture of the local community promotes tourism to their respective Parks. Post 1994 has witnessed an increase in demand for cultural tours. Together with natural areas, cultural tourism is very much on the itinerary of many visitors that travel to developing countries. The culture of the Zulus, the culture of the Indians in South Africa, the culture of the Afrikaner people, etc. should all be provided with the opportunity to be showcased via the ecotourism industry. Sixty percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 40% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the local community's use of natural resources does not promote tourism to their respective Parks. However, 40% and 30% of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and

the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that the sustainable use of natural resources does promote tourism to the respective Parks. Seventy percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated 'yes' and 40% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated 'no' with respect to the willingness of the local community to assist in the promotion of tourism development to the respective Parks (Table 6.101).

Table 6.102. Respondents' perceptions with regards to accommodations' social investment in the local community (%)

PROJECTS	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENS BERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	40	60	50
No	10	-	5
Yes	-	10	5
Don't know	50	30	40
CLINICS			
No response	40	30	35
No	10	10	10
Yes	-	10	5
Don't know	50	50	50
SCHOOL			
No response	10	10	-
No	10	10	-
Yes	30	30	-
Don't know	50	50	-
TRUST FUNDS			
No response	40	40	40
No	10	10	10
Don't know	50	50	50
HOUSING			
No response	40	30	35
Yes	10	10	10
No	-	10	5
Don't know	50	50	50
BUSINESS VENTURES			
No response	10	30	20
Yes	50	30	40
No	-	10	5
Don't know	40	30	35

SPORTS FACILITIES			
No response	40	30	35
Yes	-	30	15
No	10	10	10
Don't know	50	30	40
ANY EVENTS			
No response	-	30	15
Yes	60	30	45
No	-	10	5
Don't know	40	30	35
GARDENS			
No response	40	60	55
No	10	-	5
Don't know	40	40	40

Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that their business had invested in projects within the local community. Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the accommodation business had not invested in any projects in the local community. Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the accommodation business had invested in a clinic within the local community (Table 6.102). However, the only clinic that is available to the Obanjaneni community of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region is a mobile clinic. The Mnweni community has a permanent health station.

Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the accommodation business invested in schools within the local community. Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park as well as the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the accommodation business did not invest in educational trusts within the local community. Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park as well as the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they did not know whether the accommodation business had invested in housing development within the local community. Fifty percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern

uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the accommodation business had invested in housing development within the local community. Also, 40% of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they did not know whether the accommodation business had invested in housing development within the local community. Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the accommodation business had invested in sports facilities within the local community. Sixty percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the accommodation business had invested in events within the local community. Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 40% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they did not know whether the accommodation business had invested in any community gardens within the community (Table 6.102).

Clinics, schools, educational trusts and sports facilities add to the social capital of communities. The absence or deficiency of these entities results in the social and health degradation of communities. The results indicate that there are minimal or no positive impacts with regards to the accommodation businesses and social investment within the community. The results are indicative of a clear motive of the accommodation businesses. They exist in relation to making a profit. Any other relation is incidental and not integral to their operations. The post-1994 South African government has acknowledged that the private sector has lots of financial as well as technical resources and, hence, their partnership is instrumental in reconstructing and developing South Africa and all of its people. The policy on Corporate Social Investment is an attempt by the South African Government to develop a partnership with business, with the hope that business would invest in the social uplift of communities. Learnerships that would give unemployed youth and unemployed graduates working experience form a component of the Corporate Social Investment plan. In turn, businesses that are embarking on Corporate Social Investments would be incentivised through tax rebates. Appeals should

be made to the accommodation businesses operating within and around the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park to leverage their corporate social investment arm to invest in the social and health uplift of the neighbouring rural communities. Plate 6.7. shows community members waiting for hours for a clinic.

Plate 6.7. Community members waiting for hours for the mobile clinic



Table 6.103. Respondents' perceptions as to the potential negative social impacts of ecotourism (%)

PRESENCE OF CASINOS	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENS BERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	-	10	5
Yes	10	-	5
No	90	90	90
LOWERED TRADITIONAL VALUES			
No response	30	-	15
Yes	60	30	45
No	10	70	40
FEELING NEGATIVE ABOUT LOCAL CULTURE			
No response	30	10	20
Yes	20	-	10
No	40	90	65
Don't know	10	-	5

Table 6.103 illustrates that ninety percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park as well as the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that ecotourism has not resulted in more casinos within the area. As to whether tourism has resulted in the lowering of traditional values, 60% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated yes whereas 70% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated no. As to whether tourism has resulted in the local community feeling negative about their culture, 40% and 90% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated no.

Table 6.104. Respondents' perceptions as to whether any relationship exists between the community management/staff of the UKDP/GSLWP (%)

OTHER IMPACTS	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	-	5
Yes	10	70	40
No	30	-	15
Don't know	50	30	40

As to whether there was a relationship between the community and the management of the Parks, 10% of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park accommodation respondents and 70% of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park accommodation respondents indicated yes (Table 6.104).

Table 6.105. Respondents' description of the relationship (%)

DESCRIBE RELATIONSHIP	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	-	5
Excellent	-	30	15
Very good	-	10	5
Good	-	20	10
Average	10	10	10
Not applicable	80	30	55

Ten percent of accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park described the relationship as average. Also, 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park described the relationship as excellent (Table 6.105).

Table 6.106. Number of years respondent is working at the UKDP and GSLWP (%)

HOW LONG WORKED?	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	10	10
<5 years	20	30	25
5-10 years	50	30	40
11-15 years	10	20	15
>15 years	10	10	10

The majority (50%) of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park has worked at the resort for 5 to 10 years. Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park had worked at the resort for less than 5 years and 30% had worked for 5 to 10 years (Table 6.106).

Table 6.107. Respondent's income in rands per month (%)

INCOME PER MONTH	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	30	10	20
R1000-R3000	-	30	15
R3000-R5000	-	30	15
R7000-R9000	70	20	45
Not applicable	-	10	5

As regards this income per month, 70% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they earn between seven thousand and nine thousand rands per month. Twenty nine percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they earn between one thousand and three thousand rand per month. Also, 29% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they earned between three thousand and five thousand rand per month (Table 6.107).

Table 6.108. Respondents' views as to the ownership of the Parks (%)

OWNS ECO-TOURISM	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	10	10
Government	70	50	60
Private business	20	30	25
The community	-	10	5

Seventy percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 50% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the Parks are owned by the South African government. Also, 20 % of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 30% of accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the Parks are owned by private business. Fourteen percent also indicated that the community owns the Park. Whilst the Parks are public goods they, in reality, serve the profit interests of the private sector and the relaxation needs of the visitors to the Park (Table 6.108).

Table 6.109. Respondents' perceptions as to partnerships with the community (%)

PARTNERSHIP	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	-	5
The Nkosi/ chief	30	-	15
Community-based organisation	10	-	5
Selected members of the community	-	20	10
Don't know	50	80	65

As to whether anybody was approached to be partners in the business, 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the Chief was approached and 80% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they did not know if any member or members of the community were approached.

Table 6.110. Respondents' views as to the nature of the relationship with the local community (%).

NATURE OF PARTNRSHIP	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	100	80	90
Bed and breakfast and overnight experience	-	20	10

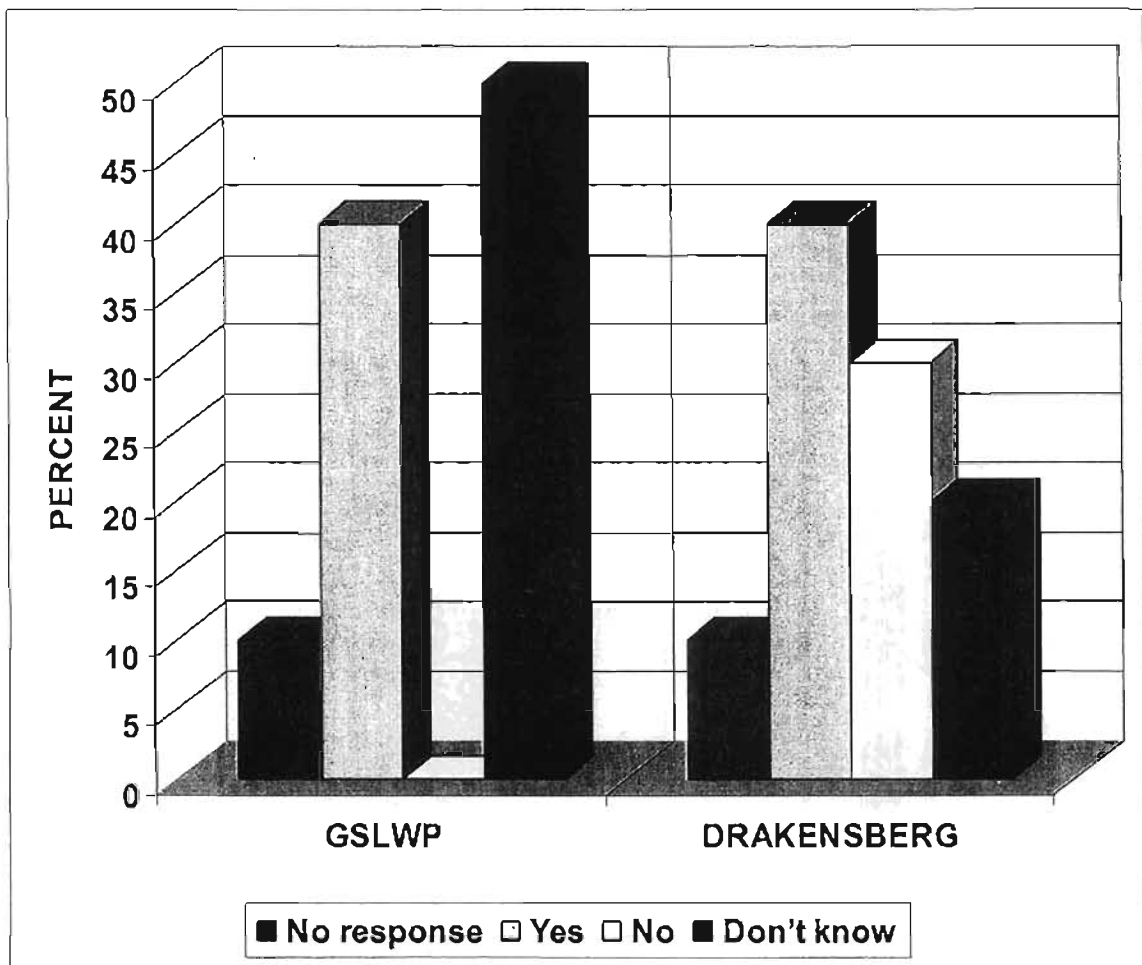
Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the nature of the partnership was to develop a bed and breakfast facility (Table 6.110).

Table 6.111. Respondents' views as to the recipients of funds (%)

FUNDS	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	30	70	50
Councillor	10		5
Community-based organisation	10	-	5
Community trust fund	-	20	10
Don't know	50	10	30

As to the recipients of funds from the partnership, 10% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they were the councillor and community-based organisation. Twenty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that monies from the partnership went into a community trust fund (Table 6.111).

Figure 6.23. Respondents' views as to whether any members of the community serve on the management of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park (%)



Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park as well as the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that members of the community were represented on the management board of the respective Parks. Also, 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the community was not represented on the board of management of the Park (Figure 6.23).

Table 6.112. Respondents views as to whether local communities should benefit from tourism to the UKDP and GSLWP (%)

COMMUNITY SHOULD BENEFIT	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	70	10	40
Yes	30	80	55
Don't know	-	10	5

Thirty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the local communities should benefit from ecotourism to the Park and 80% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park did not respond to the question (Table 6.112). The results indicate that the ecotourism industry is much more guarded and protected at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park than the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. It seems that the notion of the community setting up ecotourism enterprises poses a threat to the majority of accommodation businesses at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park perceived there to be a link between the community and the ecotourism industry. Ten percent of the accommodation respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park associated the involvement of the local communities in the ecotourism industry with pride (Table 6.113). The main aspects emerging from Table 6.113 are job creation, the inclusion of the local communities in the ecotourism sector and the conservation of the natural environment.

Table 6.113. Respondents' description of potential benefits (%)

ELABORATE	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENS BERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	70	10	40
Job creation, initiative for small business opportunities, teaching foreigners about local cultures, foreigners bring in money but they must not exploit it	10	-	5
Only way to feel proud is to be involved	-	10	5
Their area by heritage, involve communities, less crime, more jobs, confidence, profit	-	10	5
We all should benefit	-	10	5
By being offered employment on merit, by being offered education about nature, co-existence, health and tourism	-	10	5
Communities must have respect for the importance of the park, which will only be fostered if the park is valuable to them	10	-	5
They benefit from park in job opportunities, capacity building, to get different ideas, learn about importance of conservation, to promote their culture, life skills, learn to preserve heritage site	10	-	5
Enlistment and empowering of communities are vital	-	10	5
Don't know	-	40	20

Table 6.114. Respondents' perceptions as to whether UKDP and GSLWP charge a tourism levy (%)

CHARGE LEVY	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	-	10	5
Yes	60	60	60
No	10	30	20
Don't know	30	-	15

Sixty percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park as well as the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that tourists are charged a tourism levy (Table 6.114).

Table 6.115. Respondents' views as to the use of tourism levies (%)

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	40	30	35
Yes	10	40	25
Don't know	50	30	40
OPERATING COSTS			
No response	-	70	35
Yes	30	30	30
No	30	-	15
Don't know	40	-	20
PARK DEVELOPMENT			
No response	40	70	55
Yes	10	-	5
Don't know	50	30	40

As to whether the monies generated from tourism levies were used for community development, 10% and 40% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park respectively indicated yes. As to whether the monies generated from tourism levies were used for the Parks' operating costs, 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park respectively indicated yes. Also, 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated no. As to whether the monies generated from tourism levies were used for the Parks' development, 10% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated yes (Table 6.115).

Table 6.116 illustrates that eighty percent of the accommodation respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park as well as the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that there is a code of conduct with regards to tourists and the environment. Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 80% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that there was a code of conduct with regards to the tour companies and the environment.

Table 6.116. Respondents' views as to whether they possess a code of conduct concerning environmental issues (%)

TOURIST CODE OF CONDUCT	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Yes	80	80	80
No	10	10	20
No response	-	10	5
Don't know	10	-	5
TOUR COMPANIES			
No response	40	10	25
Yes	40	80	60
No	10	10	10
Don't know	10	-	5

Table 6.117 illustrates that the concern of depleting wildlife at both the Parks was indicated as 'high' by 70% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and by 60% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The immediate concern of the diminishing plant and tree life at the respective Parks was indicated as 'high' by 70% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the by 60% Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The immediate concern of the excessive soil erosion at the respective Parks was indicated as high by 30% and 70% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively. The immediate concern about litter at the respective Parks was indicated as 'high' by 70% and 50% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively.

The immediate concern of pollution of the water spots at the respective Parks was indicated as high by 80% and 30% of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively. Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 50% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated a moderate concern, respectively, with regard to infrastructure

development at the Parks. Forty percent of the accommodation respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 10% of the accommodation respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated a high concern response, respectively, with regard to increasing numbers of tourists to the Parks.

Table 6.117. Respondents observation of environmental degradation at the UKDP and GSLWP

DEPLETING –WILD LIFE	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENSBERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
No response	10	10	10
High	70	60	65
Moderate	10	-	5
Low	10	30	20
DIMINISHING PLANT/TREE LIFE			
No response	10	10	10
High	70	60	65
Moderate	10	20	15
Low	10	10	10
EXCESSIVE SOIL EROSION			
No response	50	10	30
High	30	70	50
Moderate	10	10	10
Low	10	10	10
LITTER			
No response	-	10	5
High	70	50	60
Moderate	30	30	30
Low	-	10	5
POLLUTION-WATER SPOT			
No response	-	30	15
High	80	30	55
Moderate	10	10	10
Low	10	30	20
INFRASTRUCTURE DEVELOPMENT			
No response	50	10	30
High	40	10	25
Moderate	10	50	30
No concern	-	30	15
INCREASING NUMBER			
No response	40	30	35

High	40	10	25
Moderate	20	10	15
No concern	-	50	25

Plate 6.8. shows solid waste from tourist consumption at the Mnweni Tourism Centre.

Solid waste management linked to tourism has emerged as a serious problem in the community.

Plate 6.8. Solid Waste from tourist consumption at the Mnweni Tourism Centre



Table 6.118. Respondents' perceptions as to how stakeholders could contribute towards economic development of surrounding communities (%): Multiple responses.

LIST WAYS-UDKP/GSLWP CONTRIBUTE POSITIVELY	GSLWP (10)	DRAKENS BERG (10)	TOTAL (20)
Bring back local tourists, open the beaches for 4x4	1	-	0,5
Create community based projects, accommodation in the local areas utilising culture	-	1	0,5
Involve them in tourism in any way, they must earn their money, let them know how important tourists are to the area, they must realise crime does not pay	1	-	0,5

Involvement in Park activities, give responsibility	1	-	0,5
Offering the community the option to develop their businesses before bringing in outside developers, using the community for job options, assisting the community to use their resources to the best of their ability	-	1	0,5
Allow community development levy to be more accessible	-	1	0,5
By creating work opportunities	-	1	0,5
Educate communities, creating job opportunity, promote infrastructure	1	-	0,5
People from the community to be trained as guides, fees charged, community uplifted, engage the community to help clear alien plants, receive a remuneration	1	-	0,5
Strict moral conduct of all personnel emphasising their dedication to the cause, educating the community away from poaching and over grazing	-	1	0,5
Become aware of conservation concerns, become involved, take responsibility for their actions, clean up their surrounding	-	1	0,5
Do not exploit foreign trade, use the resources available, promote the Park with a positive attitude	-	1	0,5
Involve them in tourism in any way, they must earn their money, let them know how important tourists are to the area, they must realise crime does not pay	1	-	0,5
Community sell grass baskets, hand woven curios etc. Grass that is cut should be given to the community to make mats and baskets, etc.	1	-	0,5
Develop accommodation system, to not commit crime, welcome the visitors, to know importance of conservation in the area, good hospitality, market the Park	1	-	0,5
Respect the purpose of the Park (conservation), keep cattle off, stop poaching of fauna and flora	-	1	0,5
Rewarding homesteads with holidays within the Parks for conservation.	-	1	0,5
Advertising, delegations to foreign countries, marketing, letting South Africans discover the beauty of their country	1	-	0,5
Better international border control with Lesotho to minimise dagga trading, the traders hassle	-	1	0,5

overnight hikers and over use passes and remote areas within the park			
Fees and levies should be reasonable, guest should feel secure in the environment	1	-	0,5
Financially	1	-	0,5
Funding ecotourism, promote infrastructure and communication system, promote capacity building, to assist in terms of promoting ecotourism	-	1	0,5
Advertising, delegations to foreign countries, marketing, letting South Africans discover they beauty of their country	-	1	0,5
Park, community involvement	1	1	1
Constant contact with the youth in school projects	1	-	0,5
More community education, incentive projects regarding conservation, visitors do not want to just visit a Park, they want a well conserved Park which increases visitors and in turn benefits the neighbouring communities from passing trades	1	-	0,5
Roads should be in good condition, basic commodities should be easily available and clinics should be in close proximity	-	1	0,5
To apply for funding from government and to private company, to be responsible in ecotourism promotion, to promote conservation in the Park	-	1	0,5
By respecting the Parks and the surroundings areas, they can help by purchasing products that are made locally, not to promote crime	-	1	0,5
Education by park, tours to communities, get involved in programmes to aid communities	-	1	0,5
By responding positively to organised, controlled eco-friendly sales personnel	1	-	0,5
Obey the Park rules	1	-	0,5
Responsible behaviour towards community members, wildlife, fauna and flora, cultural heritage such as rock art	1	-	0,5
To visit ecotourism areas, promote and support ecotourism by voicing their concerns, comments and expectations	1	-	0,5

The accommodation respondents of both Parks emphasised the inclusion of the local community within the ecotourism industry. Different types of involvement are suggested

with the intention of developing the local economy from an ecotourism perspective. Whilst the results of the tourists' respondents show diverse opinions as to how indigenous or local people could contribute towards local economic development, their opinions revolve around the theme of conservation. The tourists' responses also imply that indigenous people are not new to conservation measures. The historical co-existence of the Parks and the indigenous people are testimony to the fact that, unlike other sectors of modern society, the indigenous people have been exemplary custodians of the environmental and natural areas that they were once part of. The accommodation respondents indicated that domestic ecotourism should be promoted by government. Aggressive overseas marketing has also been suggested. Issues around security for the visitors to the Park and environmental concerns due to dagga trafficking have been raised. Community involvement is seen as integral to sustainable and responsible ecotourism. Infrastructure and communication development is also perceived to be important for sustainable and responsible ecotourism. The responses by the accommodation respondents of the two World Heritage Sites indicate that sustainable and responsible ecotourism development is comprehensive and is dependant on community involvement, conservation, infrastructure development, community upliftment, and social and health investment. The education of tourists about conservation issues is integral to biodiversity conservation. Supporting the local economy will lead to the economic and, hence, the social upliftment of the local community. Tourist input is indicated as important to sustainable and responsible ecotourism. The non-interference of the natural and cultural heritage by tourists underpins sustainable and responsible ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites.

6.5. Local Communities Residing Alongside the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park

One definition of ecotourism requires that it be environmentally and socially responsible travel, generate funds and support for conservation efforts, and provide benefits to local host communities. Forms of nature-based tourism, such as ecotourism, have emerged in recent years as a popular means for integrating Parks and people in rural developing regions. However, Park establishment alters the local economic base and has often

resulted in reduced access to resources for local people (Stone et al., 2004). Hence, this section examines the level of community participation and involvement in ecotourism initiatives in the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

The communities alongside the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park that were surveyed were the Obanjaneni community and the Mnweni community. The communities alongside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park that were surveyed were Khula Village and the Dukuduku Forest communities.

Table 6.119. Gender of respondent (%)

GENDER	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBURG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Male	40	48	44
Female	60	52	56

Forty percent of the respondents residing outside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were male and 60% were female (Table 6.119). With regards to the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, 48% of the respondents were male and 52% were female. Mnweni and Obanjaneni are rural communities just outside the World Heritage Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains. The results indicate that women outnumber the men in the communities of both the Parks. In South Africa, rural Black women are worst affected by poverty. Patriarchy and gender discrimination contribute to the daily burden that women in rural areas have to endure. The addressing of issues around gender discrimination and patriarchy may help the social progression (development of human and social capital) of the communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. The presence of more women within the communities and the unlocking of their potential, thereof, could mean a stronger foundation for the developmental agenda of the communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites.

Figure 6.24. Age of community respondent (in %)

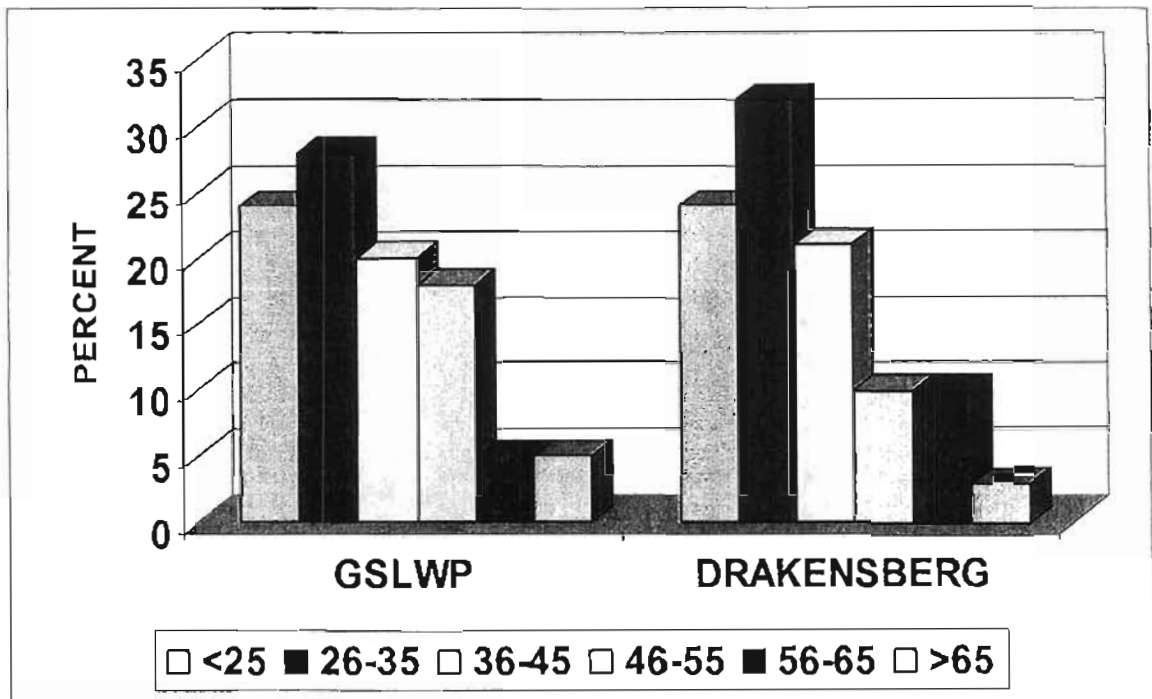


Figure 6.24 illustrates that twenty four percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, were below the age of 25 years. Twenty eight percent and 32% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region were between the ages of 26 years and 35 years, respectively. Twenty percent and 21% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region were between the ages of 36 years and 45 years, respectively. Eighteen percent and 10% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region were between the ages of 46 years and 55 years, respectively. Five percent and 10% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region were between the ages of 56 years and 65 years, respectively. Five percent and 3% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region were over the ages of 65 years. The percentage of respondents tapers off over the ages of 35 years. Such a statistical pattern could indicate that there is a conspicuous absence of persons that are over the ages of 35 years. This

could mean that those over the ages of 35 years did make themselves available or were unavailable to respond to the survey, that the life-span of the persons within the surveyed communities has been shortened or that they may have migrated. If the latter is the reason then issues around productive health must be addressed. An ailing populace adds to the social and economic burden of a community. In South Africa, patriarchy, gender discrimination, HIV/AIDS, productive health, illiteracy rates and unemployment levels are inextricably linked. Hence, addressing any one or more components is bound to positively impact on the other components that make up the rural maze in South Africa, in general, and the surveyed communities, in particular. All the respondents were African for both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region. This is reflective of the social engineering policies of the apartheid regime. More importantly, this result is indicative of no change in the demography of people residing alongside or just within the boundaries of the Parks after ten years of South Africa's democratic elections.

Table 6.120. Home language of community respondent (%)

LANGUAGE	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
English	-	1	0,5
Zulu	100	99	99,5

All of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park spoke Zulu at home. Ninety nine percent and 1% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region spoke Zulu and English, respectively (Table 6.120). Different levels of Language programmes (especially English) may assist the surveyed rural communities to function much more efficiently and economically within the many and varied sectors of South Africa. Language development is an integral component of the broad developmental agenda of South Africa. Tourists (both foreign and domestic) could do well to learn basic isiZulu prior to visiting the two World Heritage Sites of KwaZulu-Natal.

Table 6.121. Disability status of Community Respondent (%)

DISABILITY	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	1	-	0,5
Yes	8	9	8,5
No	91	91	91

Table 6.121 illustrates that eight percent and 9% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, had some form of disability. Since 2003 the South African government has introduced free health services to people with permanent, moderate and severe disabilities (South African Yearbook, 2004). The disabled people of the surrounding rural areas of the two World Heritage Sites (8% and 9%) will require specific strategies of support and assistance to ensure that they have adequate access and opportunities to participate fully within the ecotourism sector. The reconstruction and development of South Africa, in general, and the ecotourism sector, in particular, must reflect the disabled sector as well.

Table 6.122. Education level of community respondent (in %)

EDUCATION	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	3	1	2
No education	19	16	17,5
Level 1 (preschool, ABET)	17	12	14,5
Level 2 (Std 6, trade certificate)	14	21	17,5
Level 3 (Std 8, professional Qualifications)	23	24	23,5
Level 4 (Std 10)	18	23	20,5
Level 5 (diploma or degree)	6	3	4,5

Nineteen percent and 16% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, had undergone no formal education (Table 6.122). Just 2% of the respondents of both the Parks had a level five education. Parker (1994) asserts that a high percentage of illiteracy in Black communities is an additional barrier to Black participation in the tourism industry. The economic development of these rural areas will begin to ensure that highly and appropriately skilled labour remains within the region. Education and economic development are inextricably

linked. The economic development of these areas could do well to factor in the indigenous knowledge of the respective areas.

Table 6.123. Marital status of community respondent (%)

MARITAL STATUS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Currently married	28	38	33
Divorced	44	11	27,5
Widowed	4	4	4
Separated	2	1	1,5
Living with partner	22	12	17
Single	-	34	17

Twenty eight percent and 38% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, were married. Forty four percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 11% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region were divorced. Four percent of the respondents of both Parks were widowed. Thirty four percent of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region were single. The results indicate that the two rural areas surrounding the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park have a higher percentage (44%) of divorced people in comparison to the two rural communities surrounding the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region (Table 6.123). The less traditional make-up of Khula Village could be the underlying reason for the significant difference in the rate of divorce between the two sets of communities residing alongside the Parks. Twenty two percent of the community respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 12% of the community respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains are living with their partners. The difference could be attributed to community respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Parks having lesser resources (especially land) to raise cattle and exchange them as lobola for their bride.

Table 6.124. Occupation of community respondent (%)

OCCUPATION	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Unemployed	75	71	73
Domestic	2	-	1
Labourer	5	5	5
Business owner	3	4	3,5
Manager	-	1	0,5
Professional	-	2	1
Pensioner	15	17	16

Table 6.124 illustrates that the unemployment rate of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region of 75% and 71%, respectively, is extremely high. The skill levels of the respondents of both Parks are low. A low 3% and 4% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, are business owners. Two percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 13% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region rely on government pensions. Prior to the colonial period there were no poor people in South Africa (Makhanya and Ngidi, 1999: 44). The extended family system ensured that the needs of the less fortunate were attended to.

The unemployment and poverty levels of the rural areas surrounding the two World Heritage Sites is linked to past disparities in land distribution, colonialism and migrant labour, racial legislation, and the power relations between the colonists and the indigenous farmers. Within the current economic context, the challenge for the surveyed communities is to meet their needs through subsistence farming as well as selling of their labour to private as well as public buyers. This can only be done if there are plentiful private and public buyers of labour. The ecotourism sectors of both the World Heritage Sites have not (yet) addressed the unemployment challenge of these communities. The Vth IUCN World Park Congress's (Durban, 2003) theme of 'Benefits Beyond Boundaries' is yet to realise itself within the unemployment maze of the communities residing alongside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The Durban Action Plan (Vth IUCN World Parks Congress, 2003), in

order to realise the theme of the Congress calls for action at different and many levels: international action, regional action, national action, local action, and protected area authority action. The Durban Action Plan (2003: 3) states:

too often protected areas are governed in the absence of a system of shared objectives, values and principles; and increasing levels of poverty result in degradation of natural resources.

The promotion of empowerment and development of historically disadvantaged communities in and adjacent to protected Parks is fixed in law (GSLWP IMP, 2004). As yet, the ecotourism sectors operating in both of the World Heritage Sites have not resulted in a significant positive impact in terms of reducing the unemployment rates of the communities surrounding the two World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.125. Number of people living in community respondent's household (%)

NUMBER	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
One	2	1	1,5
Two	2	2	2
Three	9	7	8
Four	9	8	8,5
Five	18	10	14
Six	11	15	13
Seven	13	12	12,5
Eight	11	15	13
Nine	13	-	6,5
Ten	12	12	12
More than ten	-	18	9

The number of occupants residing in a household varies from one person to more than 10 persons. Seventy eight percent and 64% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region respectively, have between 5 and 10 occupants living in the same homestead. Eighteen percent of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region have more than 10 occupants living in the same homestead (Table 6.125). The high unemployment level and the high occupancy rates of the homesteads contributes to a high dependency ratio and the poverty conditions within these communities. Also, different members of the

household may contribute their labour towards alleviating hunger (Makhanya and Ngidi, 1999). The high occupancy rate of homesteads could indicate the lack of access to information and products of reproductive health. Integrated Planning Services found that the Mnweni area has an average of 6.6 persons per hut. An increasing population also leads to greater pressures on the land since the demand for food and other resources increases incrementally (IPS, 1998). An integrated approach, that includes family planning and reproductive health, should inform the developmental agenda of the rural areas that are situated within the Okhahlamba Municipality. Family planning should be in consultation with the local leadership, men, women, government, and other interested and affected parties and should also take into consideration the impact of the HIV/AIDS pandemic on the local population.

Table 6.126. Community households' source/s of monthly income (%)

INCOME	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	18	-	9
Pension	25	21	23
Remittances	1	-	0,5
Wages	15	14	14,5
Informal income	22	16	19
Farm-harvest	-	13	6,5
Disability grants	2	3	2,5
None	17	33	25

Table 6.126 illustrates that 25% and 21% of the households interviewed of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, receive government pensions as a source of monthly income. Formal employment means that 15% of the households of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 14% of the households of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region receive a wage as a source of monthly income. Seventeen percent of the households of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region rely on farm harvests for income generation whilst 28% of the households of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region receive no income. For the rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites, income is generated from various sources: pension (23%), remittances (0,5%), wages (14,5%), informal (19%), farm-harvest (6,5%) and disability grants (2,5%). Thirty eight percent of the

households surveyed indicated that they do not receive any income. The relatively high pension income (23%) indicates the households' dependency on government for income and survival. No or very little access to land may be the reason for the community households of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park not being able to derive an income from farm harvest. Whilst the community households of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park derive 13% of their income from farm harvest, it is a relatively small surplus and may be due to a major percentage of the produce being used for subsistence purposes or that the market for any surplus produce is a, relatively, small one. The challenge, therefore, is for the rural communities residing alongside the Parks to be equipped with plenty of natural and other resources in order to produce enough surplus as well to create markets for these surplus produced. The formation of cooperatives so that resources, skills and responsibilities could be shared may serve as a means of increasing surplus produce with the intention of generating income. Support for the formation of SMMEs must be intensified within rural areas. However, such support should extend to the identification and creation of markets for the goods that will be produced by the rural communities. The government's Public Works Programme, the Extended Public Works Programme and learnerships support should be extended to and intensified within rural communities.

Table 6.127. Households' land-ownership (%)

OWNERSHIP	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	1	-	0,5
Yes	13	82	47,5
No	86	18	52

Thirteen percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they own land whereas 82% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region stated that they own land. Eighty six percent of the respondents of Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park stated that they do not own any land (Table 6.127). Colonialism had ensured that most Black people were dispossessed of their land. The imposition of the tax system on the indigenous people of South Africa coerced the men to offer their labour to the mining and other industries that were beginning to mushroom

(Makhanya and Ngidi, 1999). The reeling in of the indigenous people from a subsistence economy into the money economy began to gain momentum. The legacy of the policy of land dispossession was intensified under the rule of the apartheid regime. The ensuing result is that many rural communities find themselves oscillating between a subsistence economy and the money economy. Land dispossession for the purposes of protecting and conserving biodiversity further squeezes the rural communities into the money economy where the element of unfair competition, low or no skills, language barriers, race discrimination, gender discrimination, and ignorance on the workings of the money economy leave them exposed to a life of poverty and misery. The responses of the communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites indicate a glaring anomaly between the two sets of communities with respect to land ownership.

The history of both these communities is, therefore, paramount if one wants to understand the current situation. The rural communities of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region (82% own land) comprises the Amangwane Tribe and the Amazize Tribe. Whereas the Amazizi were resident of the Drakensberg Area around the 16th century, the Amangwane migrated from what is today known as Swaziland to the Drakensberg region around the 19th century and displaced lots of Amazizi people (IPS, 1998: 22). The communities (86% now do not own land) residing alongside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were forcibly removed from the Wetlands Park by the apartheid government between 1950 and 1970. The land was then utilised for military (missile testing base) and later for forestry purposes (Sunday Tribune, 22nd February 2004: 11). At the 5th IUCN World Parks Congress (2003: 63), it was acknowledged that:

Many protected areas of the world encroach and are found within and overlap with lands, territories and resources of indigenous and traditional peoples. In many cases the establishment of these protected areas has affected the rights, interests and livelihoods of indigenous peoples and traditional peoples and subsequently resulted in persistent conflict.

Table 6.128. Number of years that community respondent has been living in area (%)

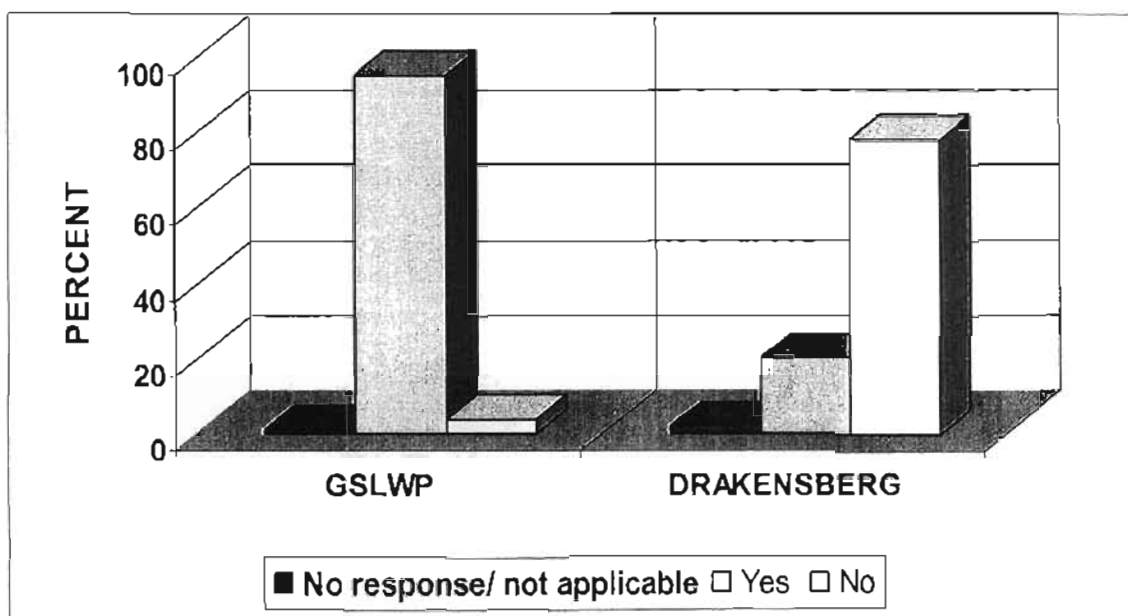
TIME SPAN LIVED	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Less than 5 years	42	4	23
6-10 years	41	9	25
11-15 years	16	1	8,5
16-25 years	1	13	7
More than 25 years	-	73	36,5

Table 6.128 illustrates that with regards to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, 42% of the respondents have been residing just outside the boundaries of the Park for less than five years. However, 73% of the respondents have been residing within the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region for more than twenty five years. Human settlement has been more stable alongside the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region than just outside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. The profit motive in the form of commercial forestry was the reason for the eviction of the indigenous people from the Eastern Shores of Lake St Lucia during the 1950s. The mining industry also staked a claim to the area and Kingsa Extension and Tojan leases were provided for mineral rights in 1976. Richard Bay Minerals also applied for mining rights in 1989 (EIA Report, 1993). The proposed inextricable link between tourism and conservation was made in 1966 by the Kriel Commission:

Lake St Lucia is a unique environment with great potential for conservation and tourism.
(EIA Report, 1993: 20).

As opposed to the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains, the moving in of industries into the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park area seemed to have forced or 'pushed' people out of their land.

Figure 6.25. Respondents' previous place of residence (%)



Ninety five percent of the respondents residing outside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park stated that they had lived elsewhere previously, whereas 20% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region stated that they had lived elsewhere previously (Figure 6.25). The respondents from the rural areas alongside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park comprise community members from Khula Village and Dukuduku Forest. The Dukuduku Forest was inhabited before the rule of Shaka. With the introduction of forestry, timber and sisal plantations in the 1960s, the indigenous people (Ncube Tribe), who lived alongside the forest, were forced into smaller plots of land. Around the 1980s, the invasion of the forestry sector into their portions of the land compelled them, to in turn, invade the forest itself. 1994 saw the establishment of Khula Village and the 'voluntary' relocation of 565 families from Dukuduku Forest to Khula Village. Land near Monzi was initially identified for the relocation of the indigenous peoples of Dukuduku Forest but was met with fierce resistance by the White farmers in the area.

The respondents from the rural areas alongside the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park comprise community members from the areas of Obanjaneni and Mnweni. Just 20%

of the respondents from these areas indicated that they had relocated to their respective areas as opposed to the high (95%) percentage of the rural communities residing alongside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. The economic value of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region may not be as high as that of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and may be the determining factor for more human and other destabilisations around and within the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park than within and around the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region.

Table 6.129. Reason for moving to current area (%)

REASON	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response/ Not applicable	5	80	42,5
Forceful removal	34	8	21
Better prospects	61	12	36,5

Sixty one percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the perceptions and promises of better prospects was the reason for moving to the current location (Table 6.129). Better prospects were in the form of better housing, better sanitation and improved sources of water and are specific to the residents of Khula Village. Hence, the movement of the local inhabitants from Dukuduku Forest to Khula Village was based on the premise of better prospects as promised and planned by government. Thirty four percent and 8% of the community respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, have indicated that they were forced out of the land.

Table 6.130. Access to land for grazing (%)

ACCESS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response/ Not applicable	2	5	3,5
Yes	54	82	68
No	44	13	28,5

Fifty four percent and 82% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, stated that they have access

to land for grazing. Forty four percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park stated that they do not have access to grazing land (Table 6.130). Cattle ownership and, hence, grazing lands are important to the communities of Obanjaneni, Mnweni and Dukuduku Forest. The resettled community of Khula village occupy small plots of land and it may, therefore, be difficult or impossible for them to keep and rear cattle. Land and cattle form an important part of African culture and a deficiency in one or the other has a ripple effect on other forms of traditional living such as the lobola system, use of cow dung for manure, etc. Hence, the inaccessibility of land may lead to the disintegration of the traditional way of living and the absence of skills and jobs further erode the social and cultural values that are integral to the social capital of these rural communities.

Table 6.131. Access to land for cultivating (%)

ACCESS-CULTIVATING	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	2	4	3
Yes	91	47	69
No	6	48	27
Don't know	1	1	1

Table 6.131 illustrates that ninety one percent and 47% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, stated that they do have access to land for cultivation purposes. Land for cultivation purposes occurs on a larger scale within the rural communities of the Drakensberg Region than within the rural communities of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. The values, perceptions, and relations to land seems to be different for those communities that are more immersed in a subsistence economy than those that are incrementally being absorbed into the money economy. With regards to the communities alongside the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains, the homesteads in Mnweni are scattered whereas the households in Obanjaneni are close to each other. With regards to the rural areas alongside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, the homesteads in Dukuduku Forest are dispersed whereas the houses in Khula Village are close to each other. Historically, inaccessibility to land for cultivation purposes has forced indigenous

people to commodify their labour for survival (meeting their basic needs). Once their labour is locked into the money economy, the need for land for agricultural purposes diminishes. Whilst Obanjaneni (uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region) and Khula Village (GSLWP) share similar spatial characteristics, the money economy is more pronounced around the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park than around the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region. Hence, the need for land for agricultural purposes may be greater for the people of Obanjaneni than for the peoples of Khula Village. Interestingly, during the ranking exercises, the Obanjaneni community ranked jobs as the highest priority. The ranking exercise in Khula Village indicated that land was the second highest priority.

Table 6.132. Quality of land for cultivation (%)

QUALITY-CULTIVATION	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response / Not applicable	4	9	6,5
Poor	74	11	42,5
Satisfactory	15	17	16
Good	7	49	28
Excellent	-	14	7

Seven percent and 49% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, stated that the quality of land for cultivation was of a good quality. Seventy four percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the quality of land for cultivation purposes were poor (Table 6.132). Where land is of a poor quality, soil tests should be conducted so as to make a correct diagnosis of the situation such that a correct response could be administered. Where soils are deficient in fertilisers and other nutrients, these could be provided by government. The private sector could contribute to the rehabilitation of poor soils through their Corporate Social Investment Policy such that the land becomes productive. Learnerships on soil management could be provided for the unemployed youth of the rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. Such learnerships would help in developing the skills base of the rural communities with respect to soils management and productivity. NGOs, CBOs, ward committees; etc. should help facilitate these processes towards soils management and productivity.

Table 6.133. Distance of homestead from Park (%)

RESIDE	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response/not applicable	3	1	2
Within the park	11	34	22,5
1-5 km radius from the park boundary	67	37	52
6-10 km radius from the park boundary	7	28	17,5
11-15 km radius from the park boundary	11	-	5,5
16-20 km radius from the park boundary	1	-	0,5

Eleven percent and 34% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, indicated that they reside within the boundaries of the Parks. Sixty seven percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they reside within 1-5 km of the boundaries of the Park and 37% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they reside within 1-5 km of the boundaries of the Park (Table 6.133). The results indicate random responses with regards to the factor of distance of residing from the Park boundaries. The Park boundary seems to be more pronounced (67%) in the communities residing within the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park Region than within the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region. The concept of boundaries in relation to land is a colonial introduction and may not be so understood within the mindset of the rural communities situated alongside the two World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.134. Expected removal of homesteads from the Park (%)

MOVE OUT	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response/not applicable	66	1	33,5
Yes	4	10	7
No	12	81	46,5
Don't know	18	8	13

Of those that stated that they reside within the boundaries of the Park, 4% and 10% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, indicated that they were expected to relocate from the

Parks (Table 6.134). The fears and concerns of respondents that have indicated that they may be expected to vacate their land are understood given the history of dispossession of land by the colonial governments in South Africa and the historical impact of biodiversity conservation on human resettlement. Eighty one percent of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains indicated that they were not expected to move from their current land. In an informal discussion, a year later, it was learnt that there was a plan to move people from the Mnweni community to another area.

Table 6.135. Distance to be relocated from the park (%)

RELOCATED	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	71	2	36,5
1-5km radius from the park boundary	1	4	2,5
6-10km radius from the park boundary	1	-	0,5
11-15km radius from the park boundary	-	1	0,5
16-20km radius from the park boundary	1	2	1,5
>20km radius from the park boundary	2	2	2
Not applicable	24	89	56,5

Respondents from both Parks differed in their perceptions as to how far away from the Parks that they would be located. Since designated natural areas, almost always, causes local inhabitants to be forcibly removed from their land, there remains the moral obligation for the local people to have a stake in the ecotourism industry (Wallace et al., 1996). The creation of buffer zones around protected areas and World Heritage Sites pushes local inhabitants further from the Parks and its boundaries. The National Environmental Management Protected Areas Act allows for buffer zones to be declared as a protected environment.

Table 6.136. Compensation for those perceived to be removed (%)

COMPENSATED	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	71	1	36
Money	3	5	4
Another piece of land	2	4	3
No compensation	-	1	0,5
Not applicable	24	89	56,5

For those respondents that indicated they would be asked to leave, compensation was perceived to be in the form of money or another piece of land.

Figure 6.26. Land claims of community respondents (%)

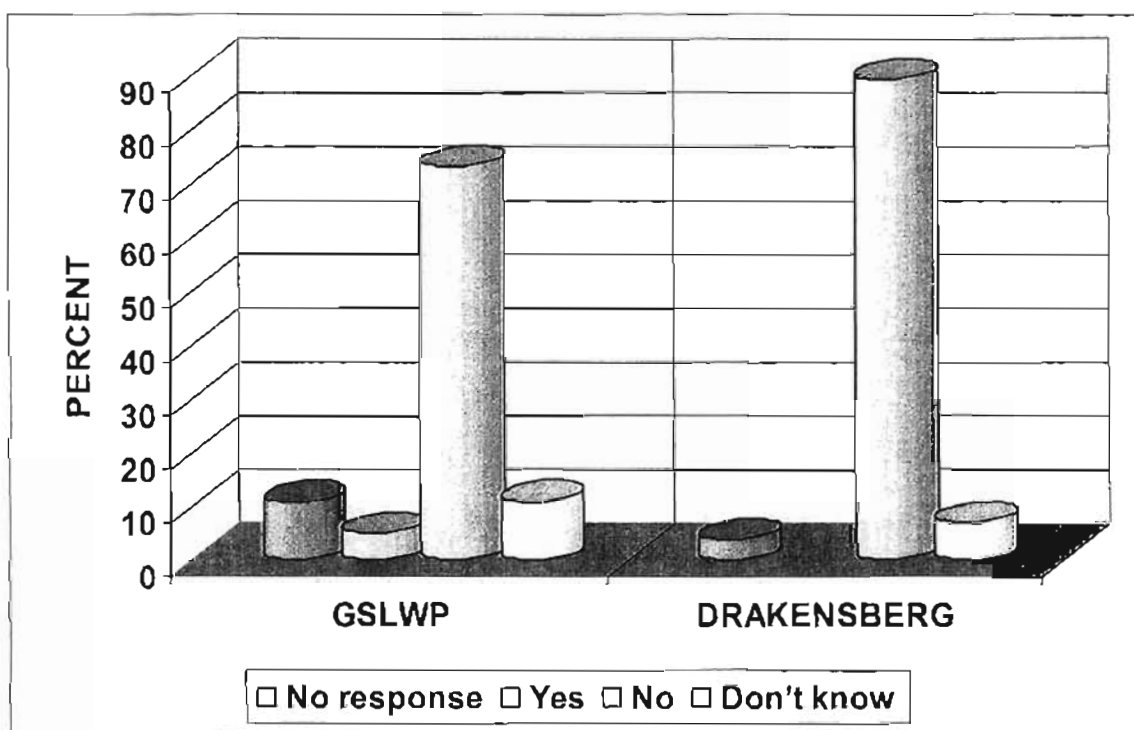


Figure 6.26 illustrates that seventy three percent and 89% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, indicated that they have no claim to land within the Parks. Five percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they did have claims to land within the Park. The South African Land Claims Commission has indicated that they have a number of land claims in protected areas. The private sector, operating within

these areas, has mostly resisted the restitution process. The private sector encouraged the money for land principle. However, an agreement has been reached whereby land claimants would own the title deed to the land without occupying the land (DLA Annual Report, 2003: 8).

Table 6.137. Settlement of land claim (%)

LANDCLAIM-SETTLED	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	18	4	11
Not	9	2	5,5
Not applicable	73	94	83,5

With regards to the settlement of claims, 73% and 94% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, indicated that the issue was not applicable to them. Nine percent and 2% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, respectively, indicated that the claims with respect to land, has not been settled (Table 6.137). In the case of the Bhanghazi community that were forced of their land, the success of their land claim has resulted in them developing an ecotourism lodge within the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. This is an indication of past wrongs being redressed by providing at least some parts of the community to own a stake in the ecotourism industry.

Table 6.138. Problems experienced because of living next to the park (%)

PROBLEMS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	-	2	1
Yes	21	26	23,5
No	75	69	72
Don't know	4	3	3,5

Table 6.138 illustrates that twenty one percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they were experiencing problems because of residing next to the Park. Twenty six percent of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they were experiencing problems because of residing

next to the Park. Seventy five percent of the community respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 69% of the community respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that they were not experiencing any problems because of residing next to the World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.139. List of problems experienced by community respondents (%): Multiple responses

PROBLEMS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Animals escape from Park	5	-	2,5
Brother died because he was attacked by hippopotamus	1	-	0,5
Dangerous animals like hippopotami and elephants	5	-	2,5
It is like we are not living next to the Park because we are not allowed to go in anyway	9	-	4,5
Our Park is located near the game reserve so we are not safe and we are not allowed to hunt	8	-	4
The animals are eating our plants	25	-	12,5
No electricity , hospitals and clinics	30	23	26,5
No job opportunities	32	30	26
No money	18	25	30,5
No work, no infrastructure such as electricity and bridges.	26	25	25,5
Not allowed to visit tourists in the park	3	-	1,5
Not having sufficient land for grazing, ploughing and getting firewood	17	-	8,5
Restriction of grazing, people who hunt are arrested and hunting dogs are shot dead	12	-	6
When you want to bath you need to pay	1	-	0,5
Workers are overworked and underpaid	17	-	8,5

The responses by the communities indicate an array of problems that they are faced with. The problems are mainly of a social and economic nature. Issues around conflict between indigenous peoples and wildlife, lack of access to natural resources, insufficient grazing and agricultural land, poor infrastructure, lack of jobs, etc. correlate highly with the communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites.

Table 6.140. Community respondents suggested solutions to the perceived problems (%): Multiple responses

SOLUTIONS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Anything that can lock those monkeys away	5	-	2,5
By making sure everyone does everything to his/her satisfaction	1	-	0,5
Do not know	4	8	6
Keep the monkeys well fenced	6	-	3
Must allow us to cut trees and hunt	10	16	13
Take away the Park	8	-	4
The Park must be destroyed and the owner must take all the animals	18	-	9
The Park must collect all animals that are dangerous and fence them with electrical wires	6	-	3
There should be more security in the Park	4	-	2
They should remove the animals away from people	2	-	1
To allow me to eat meat	1	-	0,5
We must be protected by removing the Park	6	-	3
By communication with our councillor to go to the government	5	-	2,5
By the Park moving way from tribal lands	4	-	2
Community committees should be elected to try to address the problems	12	6	9
Government must provide money to build bridges and create jobs	14	14	14
Negotiation between community and Park manager should take place to build relationships	9	8	8,5
No way to solve the problem because the Park is owned by Whites	3	-	1,5
Park must provide money to build night schools	3	-	1,5
Park officials should be confronted	6	-	3
Parks should provide jobs	5	30	17,5
Payment for entrance should be abolished	8	4	12
Permission should be granted for hunting	9	24	16,5
To allow the community to have a free bath in the centre	-	14	7
To be compensated with land equal to previously owned land	16	-	8
To improve infrastructure and development	8	30	17

The key aspects emerging from Table 6.140 are the perceived conflict between rural communities and the Parks, the poor conditions of the rural communities, the danger that the animals pose to the local communities and general breakdown in communication amongst the different stakeholders. The proposed suggestions by the respondents residing alongside both Parks indicate the desperate conditions that they find themselves in. Stakeholders of protected areas have acknowledged the integral and essential links among local communities, other interested and affected parties and the wider natural environment beyond the boundaries of these areas (The Durban Accord-IUCN, 2003). Proponents of ecotourism have realised that the involvement of the indigenous people is paramount for sustainable tourism development (Reid, n/d). The interests of the state, the private sector, the workers at the Parks and the local community should be weighted equally. Where any one or more of these constituencies have an unfair advantage in terms of ownership of the Park, then the other constituencies should be compensated accordingly and with the element of sustainability being the underlying principle.

Table 6.141. Type of dwelling before 1994 (%)

DWELLING-BEFORE 1994	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	7	-	3,5
Own formal house	34	11	22,5
Own traditional hut	35	85	60
Shack/informal shelter	12	2	7
Formal farmhouse	10	2	6
Employer provided house	2	-	1

Prior to 1994, 34% and 35% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park had their own formal house and their own traditional hut, respectively. Eleven percent of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region own a formal house and 85% live in a traditional hut. Plate 6.9 shows a traditional homestead in Mnweni.

Plate 6.9. Traditional Homestead in Mnweni Valley (Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region)

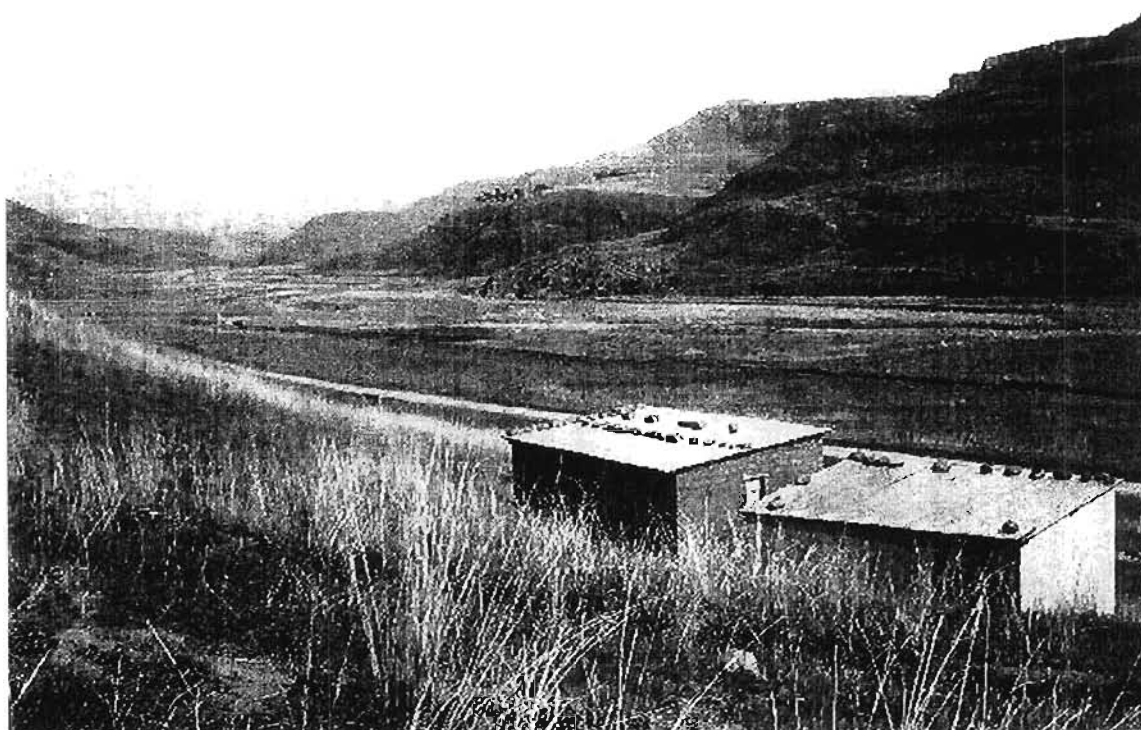


Table 6.142. Type of dwelling post 1994 (%)

DWELLING- POST 1994	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Own formal house	62	11	36,5
Own traditional hut	13	84	48,5
Shack/informal Shelter	12	2	7
Formal farmhouse	12	3	7,5
Employer provided house	1	-	0,5

After South Africa's first democratic elections of 1994, 62% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park lived in formal housing. Eighty four percent of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region still lived in traditional huts. The resettlement of the indigenous people of Dukuduku Forest in state subsidised houses accounts for an increase in the occupation of formal housing from 34% to 62%.

Table 6.143. Type of sanitation pre 1994 (%)

SANITATION – PRE 1994	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	8	-	4
Flush toilet	7	1	4
Chemical toilet	2	-	1
Pit latrine	69	69	69
Bucket toilet	1	-	0,5
None	21	30	25,5

Prior to 1994, 69% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region used a pit latrine for sanitation purposes. Twenty one percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 30% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region had no form of sanitation.

Table 6.144. Type of sanitation post 1994 (%)

SANITATION- POST 1994	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	1	-	0,5
Flush toilet	1	1	1
Chemical toilet	8	-	4
Pit latrine	69	69	69
None	21	30	25,5

Post-1994, 69% of the respondents of both Parks rely on pit latrines for sanitation purposes. Post 1994 saw a decline in the sanitation conditions of the community alongside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

Table 6.145. Main Sources of Domestic Water Pre 1994 (%)

WATER- PRE 1994	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	2	1	1,5
Tap water in dwelling	4	2	3
Tap water on site	10	3	6,5
Public tap	12	5	8,5
Communal bore- hole	64	8	36
Flowing stream	2	14	8
Dam/pool	6	-	3
Rain water tank on site	-	2	1
Well communal	-	4	2
Spring communal	-	61	30,5

Prior to 1994, 64% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park sourced their primary supply of water from a communal borehole. Sixty one percent of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region sourced their primary supply of water from a communal spring. The results are indicative of the apartheid regime's policy of not servicing the rural and Black people in terms of water provision.

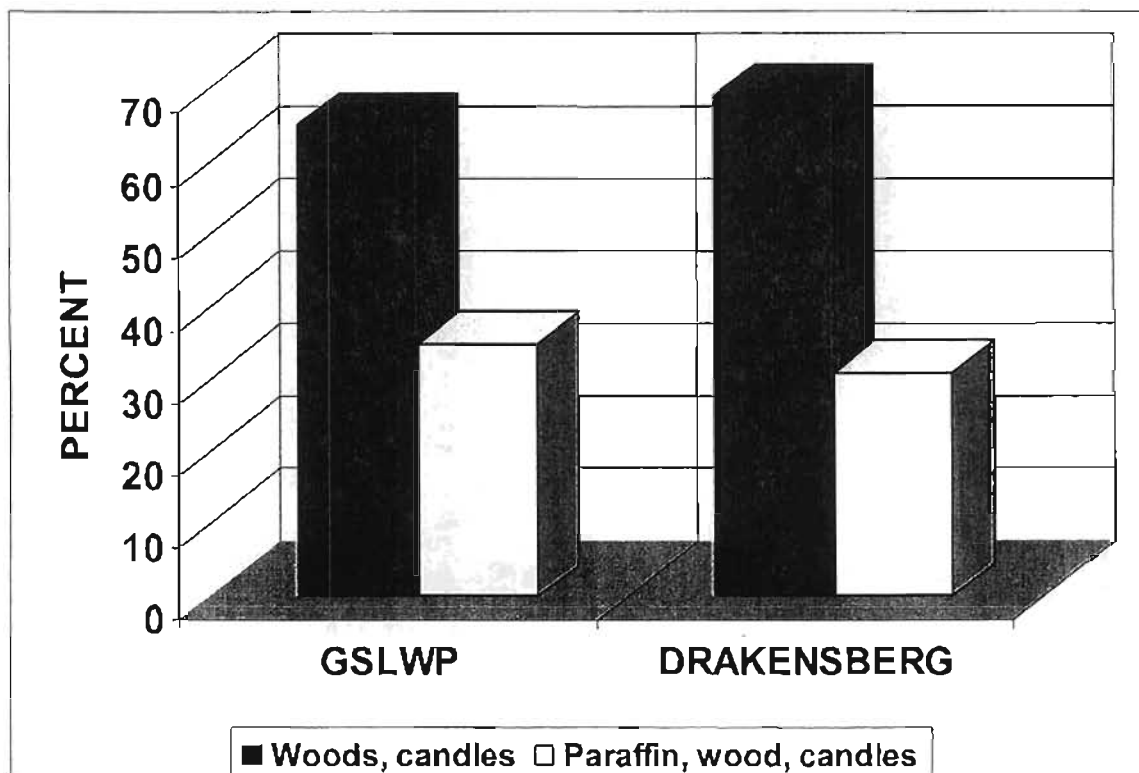
Table 6.146. Main sources of domestic water post 1994 (%)

WATER-POST 1994	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	1	-	0,5
Tap water in dwelling	8	3	5,5
Tap water on site	42	10	26
Public tap	11	7	9
Communal bore-hole	37	8	22,5
Flowing stream	1	13	7
Rain water tank on site	-	2	1
Well communal	-	4	2
Spring communal	-	53	26,5

Post-1994, 37% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park rely on community boreholes as a primary source of water supply and 42% of the respondents had a reticulated tap on their site. Fifty three percent of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region sourced their water from a communal spring and 10% of respondents sourced water from on-site taps. There has been an improvement (10% to

42%) with regards to water provision by the current South African government to the community residing alongside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. With regards to the rural community of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region there was a slight improvement (of 7%) with regards to the provision of water on site. This improvement may be attributed to individual household improvement as opposed to government intervention with regards to this type (water on site) of water service. For the rural communities of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region a communal spring is still the main source of water (53%) post apartheid. Water provision to the rural areas should at least be developed (where it is not) to the 'public tap' level. Such a provision should form part of the broader physical infrastructural development of the rural areas surrounding the two World Heritage Sites. Such developments have commenced in some parts of the rural areas surrounding the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

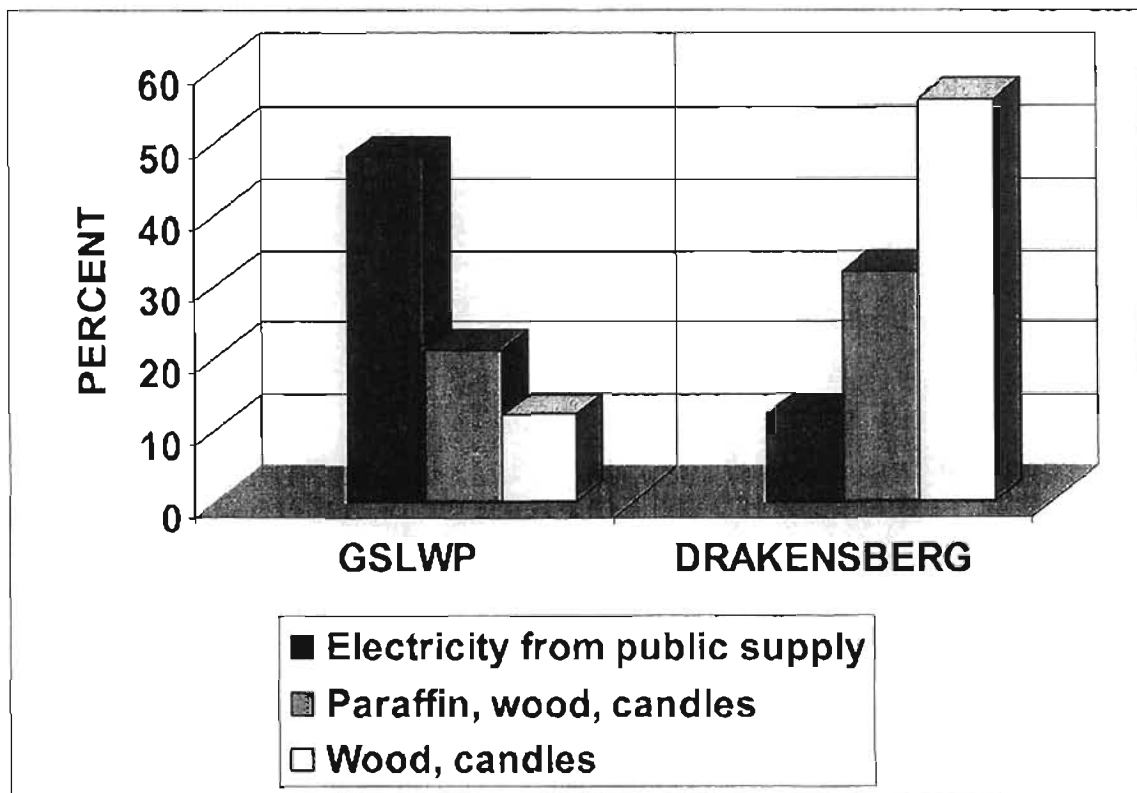
Figure 6.27. Sources of energy (%)



The main sources of energy for both sets of communities residing alongside the Parks, prior to 1994, were paraffin, wood and candles. During apartheid times the policy of

exclusion of Blacks, in general, and Africans in particular from all aspects of South African life, except that of cheap labour, resulted in the rural black population not being provided with proper services in the form of electricity. Political exclusion was the first barrier preventing the rural community from having access to cheap electricity and the second barrier that prevented the rural communities from purchasing electricity from government was an economic one.

Figure 6.28: Main sources of energy/ fuel post 1994 (%)



Post-1994, 48% of the respondents from the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park had access to a public supply for energy in the form of electricity. Only 12% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region were able to access electricity from the public supply. Twenty one percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 32% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region still relied on paraffin, wood and candles as sources of energy (Figure 6.28). Whilst the political landscape in South Africa is all inclusive, rural communities still find it difficult to purchase electricity from government because of the high unemployment rate and

limited access to income. An integrated development plan that factors in energy provision in many forms (electricity, solar, etc.) should gradually be phased in within rural areas that are lacking such forms of energy. However, this should form part of the broader economic development of these rural areas such that the purchasing of such forms of energy is sustainable.

Table 6.147. Respondents' knowledge of ecotourism (%)

ECOTOURISM	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Yes	73	58	65,5
No	28	41	34,5
VISITING			
No response	41	13	27
Yes	31	45	38
No	22	37	29,5
Don't know	6	5	5,5
VACATION			
No response	41	13	27
Yes	31	45	38
No	22	37	29,5
Don't know	6	5	5,5

Seventy three percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 58% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they have heard of ecotourism. Thirty one percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 45% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region agreed with the statement that ecotourism entails people visiting a place because of the plants and animals. As to whether respondents agreed with the statement that ecotourism entails that people are on vacation, 31% of the respondents from the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 45% of the respondents from the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated yes (Table 6.147).

Table 6.148. Community relationship with management and staff of the Park (%)

RELATIONSHIP	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Yes	20	59	39,5
No	20	27	23,5
Don't know	60	14	37
DESCRIPTION			
No response	1	3	2
Excellent	-	7	3,5
Very good	2	23	12,5
Good	15	24	19,5
Average	16	24	20
Bad	6	5	5,5
Don't know	60	14	37

Twenty percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 59% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that a relationship exists between the community and the management and staff of the Parks. Two percent and 7% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the relationship was very good. Twenty three percent and 24% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the relationship was, respectively, very good and good (Table 6.148).

Table 6.149 illustrates that the rural communities residing alongside the Greater St Lucia Wetlands and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region have qualified the types of benefits that they have access to as a result of the relationship that they have with the respective Park authorities. The results indicate that the benefits that they accrue from the Parks signify a dependency relationship of the community members for small jobs, money, etc. on the Parks. Some members have also indicated a lack of consultation on the part of the councillor, the Park Authorities and the chief. Within the South African context, it is necessary for Black people, in general, and the rural poor, in particular, to be factored into the economic development agenda of government. Currently, the Black Economic Empowerment policy of government tends to enrich a minority of Black people. The subsequent labelling (Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment) is an attempt to cast the economic empowerment net over more Black people. With regards to

ecotourism, projects in the surrounding rural communities have been supported and implemented. Many projects involving rural communities are currently underway. The Mnweni Tourism and Cultural Centre in the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park as well as Khula Village Lodge in the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park area are projects that are indicative of government's will to include the rural communities in ecotourism ventures.

Table 6.149. Description of relationship (%)

REASON	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Allowed parking for our cars, allowed accommodation and showers	-	4	2
Are allowed to cut fire wood, thatch grass and hunt in certain seasons	6	16	11
Community allows staff of the Parks to utilise the land without any problems	4	-	2
Community are allowed to socialise in the Park	-	-	-
Community are assisted with location of cattle when cattle wonder into Park	2	-	1
Community get job opportunities	7	24	15,5
Community members are expected to pay upon entering the Park	-	14	7
Community unhappy with Parks procedures-relating to grazing, hunting, cutting thatch grass, fire-wood	1	16	8,5
Most of the Park workers are from outside of community	2	-	1
Not applicable	60	14	37
Tourism development brings hope to the people because it creates job opportunities	6	10	8
We do everything they tell us to do	3	-	1,5
We hear the importance of conservation	4	2	3
When a family member dies the community is assisted with wood	5	-	2,5

Plate 6.20 shows tourists being exposed to traditional Zulu dancing.

Plate 6.10. Tourists Enjoying Traditional Zulu Dancing at Khula Village (GSLWP)



Table 6.150. Respondents' views of positive social impacts of ecotourism (%)

CLINICS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	6	7	6.5
Yes	2	4	3
No	40	75	57.5
Don't know	52	14	33
SCHOOLS			
no response	6	7	6.5
Yes	11	4	7.5
No	36	75	55.5
don't know	47	14	30.5
EDUCATION PROGRAMMES			
No response	7	9	8
Yes	10	1	5.5
No	33	76	54.5
Don't know	50	14	32
HOUSING			
No response	6	8	7
Yes	3		1.5
No	42	78	60
Don't know	49	14	31.5
SMALL BUSINESS			
No response	8	7	7.5
Yes	5	7	6
No	34	73	53.5
Don't know	53	13	33
SPORTS			
No response	7	7	7
Yes	4	5	4.5
No	38	73	55.5
Don't know	51	15	33
EVENTS			
No response	9	6	7.5
Yes	8	6	7
No	34	76	55
Don't know	49	12	30.5
COMMUNITY GARDENS			
No response	6	9	7.5
Yes	7	4	5.5
No	37	75	56
Don't know	50	12	31

Table 6.150 illustrates that two percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 4% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the Park had invested in clinics in the community. Eleven percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 4% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the Park had invested in schools in the community. Ten percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 1% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the Park had invested in educational trusts in the community. Three percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the Park had invested in housing development in the community. Seventy eight percent of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the Park had not invested in any housing development in the community.

Five percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the Park had invested in small and medium types of business development in the community and 7% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the Park had invested in small and medium types of business development in the community. Four percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that the Park had invested in sports facilities in the community and 5% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the Park had invested in sports facilities in the community. Eight percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 6% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the Parks had invested in any sponsoring of events in the community. Eight percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 4% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the Parks had invested in community gardens in the community. Any positive social impacts of the ecotourism industry on the surrounding rural communities are non-existent or at an extremely small-scale in so far as the responses of the community members indicate. Also, it is important to understand the dynamics around the World Heritage Parks.

The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains are highly contested terrains. The many constituencies that have an interest in the Parks are government, the private sector, environmental groups, the local communities, tourists to the Parks, businesses in and around the Parks, tour operators, international organisations, etc. The Parks themselves are natural environments with rich biodiversity and cultural heritage. The many and different constituencies have a stake and, hence, a vested interest in the Parks. For the private sector the vested interest is one of profit maximisation; for the local community the vested interest is that of access to land for subsistence living, social and cultural reasons; for government the vested interest is that of maintaining the integrity of the Parks such that it serves as a tool of political, social and economic balance; for the environmentalist the vested interests is that of the preservation of the rich biodiversity and for the tourists the vested interests is that of an environment that contributes towards a state of relaxation.

These vested interests manifest itself in the literal, social and economic carving out of the Parks such that the vested interests of the respective constituencies are maximised. In the process, some constituencies are short-changed. Whilst trade-offs are encouraged, mainly through government intervention, the imbalance in the social and economic structure results in imbalances in the power relations among the many constituencies. The result of this imbalance is that some constituencies, such as the local communities, take on the role of recipients of positive social impacts as opposed to themselves having the social and economic power to contribute meaningfully towards these impacts. The local communities, and sometimes government, become dictated to by those constituencies that have the economic as well as the social power to eat into the interests of the former constituencies. This microcosm is reflective of the broader political and economic set-up at the national level as well as the global level. Hence, in so far as being active contributors to the positive social impacts within their communities, the local communities have been disarmed through coerced movement from their land, very little or no economic power and very little or no skills or knowledge about the modern economic system. They have, therefore, been relegated to the status of dependents of ecotourism impacts. Even as dependents the positive social impacts of ecotourism is non-

existent or negligible. Such a state of affairs is not surprising when one understands the nature of the different constituencies that have a vested interest in the World Heritage Sites.

The history of South Africa is also integral to the state of affairs surrounding the two World Heritage Sites. Black people have never been considered as equal to their White counterparts since the first colonialist set foot on South African soil. This inequality manifested itself in every aspect of South African life. The recent hard-won democratic transition has witnessed the formation of laws and policies that are based on equality and redress. Also, the ruthless system of inequality amongst people meant that the private sector was able to harness and consolidate huge amounts of economic power. It is, therefore, not uncommon to hear of people speaking of the two economies of South Africa: the one rich and White and the other poor and Black. In trying to forge and weld a nation, the South African Government is appealing to the private sector, through the Corporate Social Investment Policy, to invest in the social upliftment of communities. Hence, for the surrounding rural communities of the two World Heritage Sites, the challenges are two-fold: the first is that the ecotourism industry should contribute towards their social upliftment and the second challenge is for the rural communities to empower themselves to be active participants in the ecotourism industry. Some of the tools designed by government for such purposes are in place and are being implemented in many rural communities around South Africa. These tools include the redistribution of land, the encouragement of and growth of SMMEs, the Public Works and Extended Public Works Programme; democratic governance of World Heritage Sites and the passing of the 2005 Co-operatives Bill.

Table 6.151. Respondents views of social impacts of ecotourism (%)

MEET TOURISTS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Yes	81	81	162
No	19	19	38
APPROVE OF TOURISTS			
No response	5		5
Yes	65	95	160
No	17	4	21
Don't know	13	1	14
GAMBLING			
Yes	11		11
No	47	93	140
Don't know	41	6	47
No response	1	1	2
TRADITIONAL VALUES			
No response	1	1	2
Yes	11	5	16
No	63	79	142
Don't know	25	15	40
NEGATIVE FEELINGS ABOUT CULTURE			
Yes	12	2	14
No	68	86	154
Don't know	20	10	30
No response		2	2

Eighty one percent of the respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they do meet tourists visiting the Parks. Sixty five percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 95% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they approve or like tourists visiting the Parks. Eleven percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park thought that casinos and other forms of gambling have resulted because of the ecotourism industry (Table 6.151). The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains have been declared as World Heritage Sites in 1999. However, these sites have been frequented by tourists for many decades. The declaration of these sites as World Heritage Sites together with the South African Government's Reconstruction and Development Programme has witnessed

many projects being planned and implemented in and around the World Heritage Sites. The private sector has not wasted any opportunity in recognising this economic niche' for profit maximisation. However, the researcher has not observed any casinos in and around the two World Heritage Sites. Eleven percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 5% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, thought that tourism to their respective Parks has resulted in the lowering of the community's traditional values.

The traditional set-up of the rural communities in the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region is more or less intact. However, the traditional power structure co-exists with the new structure of democratic governance. Such a situation is a by-product of the new democratic transition as opposed to the impacts of ecotourism. Nonetheless the growth and development of the ecotourism industry is as a direct result of the macro-economic agenda of the South African Government. The impacts of the conservation efforts (and hence, ecotourism) on the communities surrounding the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park is more pronounced. Subsistence living is very much a traditional way of life and such a lifestyle has been affected in a major way through the creeping in of the money economy. The historical movement of indigenous people from the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park has resulted in the destabilisation of people's traditional ways of life. The traditional lifestyle of people within the Dukuduku Forest, for example, is more or less intact but they are under constant threat to locate. Khula Village, which is a settlement place for those that lived in Dukuduku Forest, is not traditionally set-up. Houses occupy smaller land spaces. Subsistence living is on a small scale or non-existence. Through its inextricable link with conservation areas, the ecotourism industry has and is having a negative impact on the traditional make-up and lifestyles of the rural communities surrounding the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. The Obanjaneni Community, just outside the Royal Natal National Park of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains, is also losing its traditional physical set-up. Sixty eight percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 86% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region, respectively, indicated that tourism did not lead to them having negative feelings about their culture.

Table 6.152. Description of negative impacts of ecotourism (%): Multiple responses

IMPACTS-NEGATIVE	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Nothing changes	1	-	0,5
People are going to lose their land, they are not well educated and are selling their food	12	16	14
People are losing their land without having a say - if they claim for money it takes ages to get it	8	-	4
They do not allow us to hunt animals for food or fishing, they do not allow us to cut plants	30	-	15
They do not give us enough sites	16	-	8
They do not invest their money in the community and do not employ the people permanently	25	15	20
They need to remove this Park in order for us to have more sites	9	-	4,5
We are not getting enough sites because the White people are selling the sites to the rich people	5	-	2,5
We end up living in small sites which is difficult because we require more space	12	18	15
Community feels negative when they are forced to leave their place	16	24	20
Community members are not allowed to fetch firewood from some protected areas	12	27	19,5
Creates a bad relationship between authorities and communities which occupies such areas	7	5	6
Do not know what World Heritage means	-	3	1,5
Forceful removals can take place, certain procedures can be imposed on the community by authorities	3	16	9,5
People are not allowed to enter certain areas	5	7	6

For those community members that responded, the negative impacts of residing next to the Parks were related to fears of being forced of their land, inaccessibility to certain areas in the Parks, occupying small plots of land and unable to hunt animals (Table 6.152).

Table 6.153. Outline of respondents perceived positive impacts of ecotourism (%): Multiple responses

IMPACT-POSITIVES	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
For job opportunities	12	4	8
People are getting trained in order to find work in this industry	8	-	4
The tourists that visit the World Heritage Site can give sponsors towards the community	3	-	1,5
They let us know about dangerous animals and animals that have lived before	34	-	17
No positive impacts	35	42	38,5
No response	53	62	57,5

For some (8%) community respondents the positive impacts were having jobs. Some (38,5%) community members felt that there were no positive impacts because of living next to a World Heritage Site. The 2003 IUCN Worlds Parks Congresses' Theme was "Benefits Beyond Boundaries." The theme was intended to serve as a platform for the delivery of tangible benefits to the neighbouring rural communities. This was in response to the notion of the existence of mass poverty amongst natural plenty around conservation areas. However, 35% of the respondents of the GSLWP and 42% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that there are no positive impacts from the ecotourism sector on the local community (Table 6.153).

Table 6.154 illustrates that sixty two percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 34% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region thought that the World Heritage Parks are owned by government. Twenty six percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 19% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region thought that the World Heritage Parks are owned by private businesses. Whilst the two World Heritage Sites are public goods they do serve as a commodity which the private sector sells to both domestic as well as international buyers.

Table 6.154. Respondents' perceptions as to ownership and economic potential of Parks (%)

OWNERSHIP	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	3	6	4,5
Government	62	34	48
Private business	26	19	22,5
The Nkosi/chief	1	4	2,5
Other	3	2	2,5
Don't know	5	1	3
The community		34	17
GENERATED			
No response	6	14	10
0-R1000	2	12	7
R1000-R10 000	11	36	23,5
R 10 000-R50 000	15	21	18
R50 000-R100 000	24	4	14
R10 000-R500 000	18	3	10,5
>R500 000	20	1	10,5
Don't know	4	9	6,5
PARTNERSHIP			
No response	12	19	15,5
Yes	6	13	9,5
No	24	28	26
Don't know	58	40	49
MONIES TO NKOSI/CHIEF			
No response	12	22	17
Yes	20	23	21,5
No	12	17	14,5
Don't know	56	38	47
MONIES TO COUNSELOR			
No response	16	21	18,5
Yes	7	16	11,5
No	22	25	23,5
Don't know	55	38	46,5
MONIES TO COMMUNITY			
No response	15	13	14
Yes	5	17	11
No	25	25	25
Don't know	55	45	50

Thirty four percent of the community respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that the Park is owned by the community. Communities do have claims to land within the Park boundaries. The Obanjaneni Community have indicated that they possess land within the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park and it is their plan to utilise the land for ecotourism purposes (Plate 6.11). There were varying thoughts as to the amounts of money that was generated by the Parks, in general, and the resorts, in particular. The results indicate that the community members are not aware as to the economic potential of the ecotourism industry. The Maloti Drakensberg Transfrontier Project, together with Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife is responsible for the management of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains. The income that the project generates is for the management of the Park, development as well as conservation. On the other hand, the private businesses that are located around the Park derive their income from 'selling' the Park as an ecotourism destination. However, the above results indicate the perceptions of the community members on the amount of monies generated by the Park and the private sector. The perceptions do not reflect the actual amount of money generated by the Park and the private sector.

On the assumption that a partnership existed between Parks and the community, 6% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 13% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region perceived that monies were awarded to a community trust fund. On the assumption that a partnership existed between Parks and the community, 20% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 23% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region believed that monies were awarded to the Nkosi or Chief. On the assumption that a partnership existed between Parks and the community, 7% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 16% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region believed that monies were awarded to a councillor. On the assumption that a partnership existed between Parks and the community, 5% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 17% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region believed that monies were awarded to a community-based organisation. The above reveals that there is lack of clarity about the way in which

monies accruing to the community (if there is money) is transferred, who has access and authority over the funds, and how monies are used. This situation is likely to lead to conflicts and tensions within the communities.

Plate 6.11. Obanjaneni community member pointing to land within the Park that is owned by the community and is to be used for ecotourism purposes



Table 6.155 shows that 14% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 2% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region thought that the Nkosi/ Chief was approached with regards to developing a partnership with the Parks. Twenty percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 29% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region thought that selected members of the community were approached with regards to developing a partnership with the Parks. Eight percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 23% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region thought that community-based organisations were approached with regards to developing a partnership with the Parks. Seven percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 16% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-

Drakensberg Region thought that the local councillor was approached with regards to developing a partnership with the Parks.

Table 6.155. Respondents' perceptions regarding partnerships of stakeholders (%)

NKOSI/CHIEF APPROACHED	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	30	30	30
Yes	14	2	8
No	12	43	27,5
Don't know	44	25	34,5
SELECTED MEMBERS APPROACHED			
No response	19	23	21
Yes	20	29	24,5
No	18	24	21
Don't know	43	24	33,5
COMMUNITY ORGANISATION APPROACHED			
No response	30	17	23,5
Yes	8	23	15,5
No	19	37	28
Don't know	43	23	33
COUNSEL APPROACHED			
No response	32	18	25
Yes	7	16	11,5
No	17	42	29,5
Don't know	44	24	34

The results indicate the apparent lack of information dissemination with regards to partnership development and income generation in the ecotourism sector of the two World Heritage Sites. The results are very much indicative of the heterogeneous character of the rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. Also, some community members may seem to have access to information whilst others may seem not to with regards to ecotourism partnership and development. Whilst there are attempts at the two World Heritage Sites to integrate the rural communities, the ecotourism sector tends to attract those members of the community that are articulate, that have access to information, that occupy positions of power (either traditional or political) and that are mostly male. So whilst there are development committees in the

rural areas the information about income generation and ecotourism partnership is either not part of the agenda or that the information is not disseminated to the wider community.

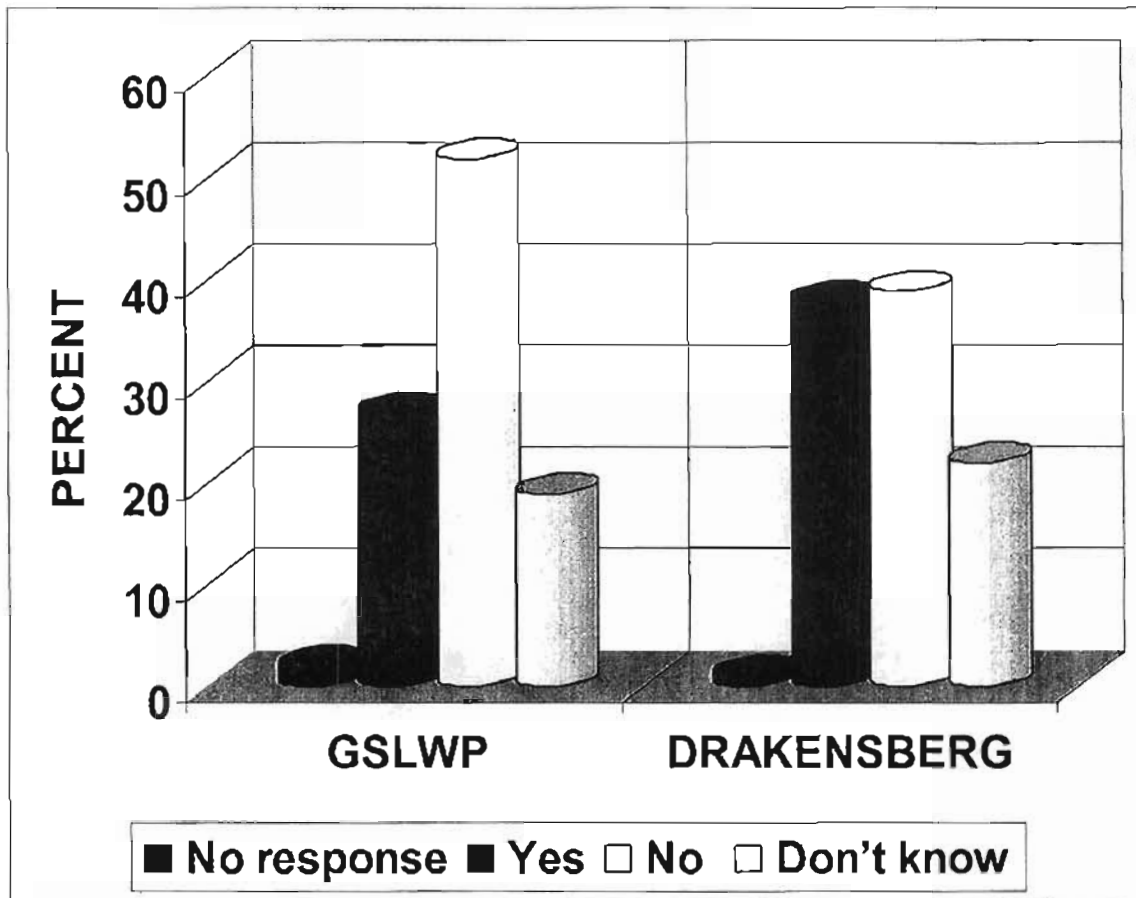
Table 6.156. Family members of respondents working at the Parks (%)

	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	1	-	0,5
Yes	8	28	18
No	91	72	81,5

Eight percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 28% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that at least one member of the household works at the Park. Ninety one percent of the community respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 72% of the community respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that no members of the household work at the ecotourism Parks (Table 6.156). From the perspective of the household unit, the economic impacts of ecotourism in terms of job creation, is that tourism generally and ecotourism, in particular, will not be able to address alone massive rural poverty.

Twenty seven percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 38% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they know of at least one community member that was on the management board of the Park (Figure 6.29). The new democratic dispensation in South Africa has created conditions for the democratic governance of all aspects of South African life, except for the private sector. The two World Heritage Sites also functions on the principles of democratic governance and, therefore, are inclusive of community representation. However, whilst democratic governance involves all stakeholders in the management of the Parks it does not necessarily entail that equal benefits and/ or power would necessarily accrue to the respective stakeholders. Again, the results indicate that lack of awareness amongst the general population in terms of their community's representation on the management structures of the respective Parks.

Figure 6.29. Knowledge as to whether community members are on the Parks' management team (%)



The respondents described a range of jobs that community members were involved in (Table 6.157). Some of these jobs were tourist guides, security, house keeping, cleaners, managers, etc. The results for the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicate a low employment rate of community members within the tourism industry. Also, the jobs that the community members were in were of a menial type. The respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park indicated that respective community members were involved in a variety of jobs and many or most of the jobs were of a low skill type. Goudie et al. (1999: 22) state:

for many communities there is the sad reality that the promised benefits of tourism seldom amount to more than mundane, low-paid, and seasonal service jobs instead of real empowerment.

Table 6.157. Respondents' views of jobs held by community members (%)

TYPE OF JOB	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Admin clerk	1	-	0,5
Cashier	1	-	0,5
Operator	1	-	0,5
Security	1	-	0,5
Bar	-	1	0,5
Catering	-	3	1,5
Chef	-	2	1
Cleaner	-	1	0,5
Community liaison officer	-	1	0,5
Gardener	-	1	0,5
Horse riding	-	1	0,5
House keeper	-	1	0,5
In charge of office	-	1	0,5
Maintenance staff	-	2	1
Manager	-	4	2
Receptionist	-	1	0,5
Road work	-	1	0,5
Security	-	3	1,5
Thatching	-	1	0,5
Tourist guide	-	8	4
Waiter	-	1	0,5
Not applicable	96	67	81,5

Table 6.158. Respondents' that work in the Parks, salary per month (%)

SALARY	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	-	4	2
<R1000 00	4	22	13
R1000- R3000- 00	-	7	3,5
Not applicable	96	67	81,5

Four percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park indicated that they receive a salary of less than one thousand rands per month and 7% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they receive a salary of between one thousand and three thousand rands per month (Table 6.158). Twenty two percent of the workers of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park earn less than one

thousand rands per month. The places of employment for the workers surveyed of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park were privately owned. The places of employment for the workers of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg were both privately and publicly owned. Whilst there are many workers within the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region that earn less than one thousand rands per month there are also workers that earn between one thousand and three thousand rands per month. This result may indicate that workers benefits are better under public than private ownership of services and facilities. Aylward (2003: 24) states:

It is reported that the wages earned by those in the public-sector reserves are substantially higher than those in the private-sector, reflecting the policies of KZN Wildlife as a parastatal body and the employment rules and wage schemes it must follow.

Workers are the backbone of the ecotourism industry. The sustainability of the ecotourism industry depends very much on the sustainability of the workforce of the ecotourism industry. In its plan to build the economy and to alleviate poverty, the South African government has identified vehicles such as public-private partnerships, public works programme, the extended public works programmes, small to medium and micro enterprises, co-operatives and community-owned services and facilities. In the transition to a more social and equitable society these vehicles for poverty alleviation may co-exist with private enterprises that directly and indirectly serve the ecotourism industry. In the final analysis and in the interest of the ecotourism industry, the environment, the workers and sustainable development it is essential that the South African government take a more central role in so far as regulating the ecotourism industry.

Table 6.159. Nature of jobs (%)

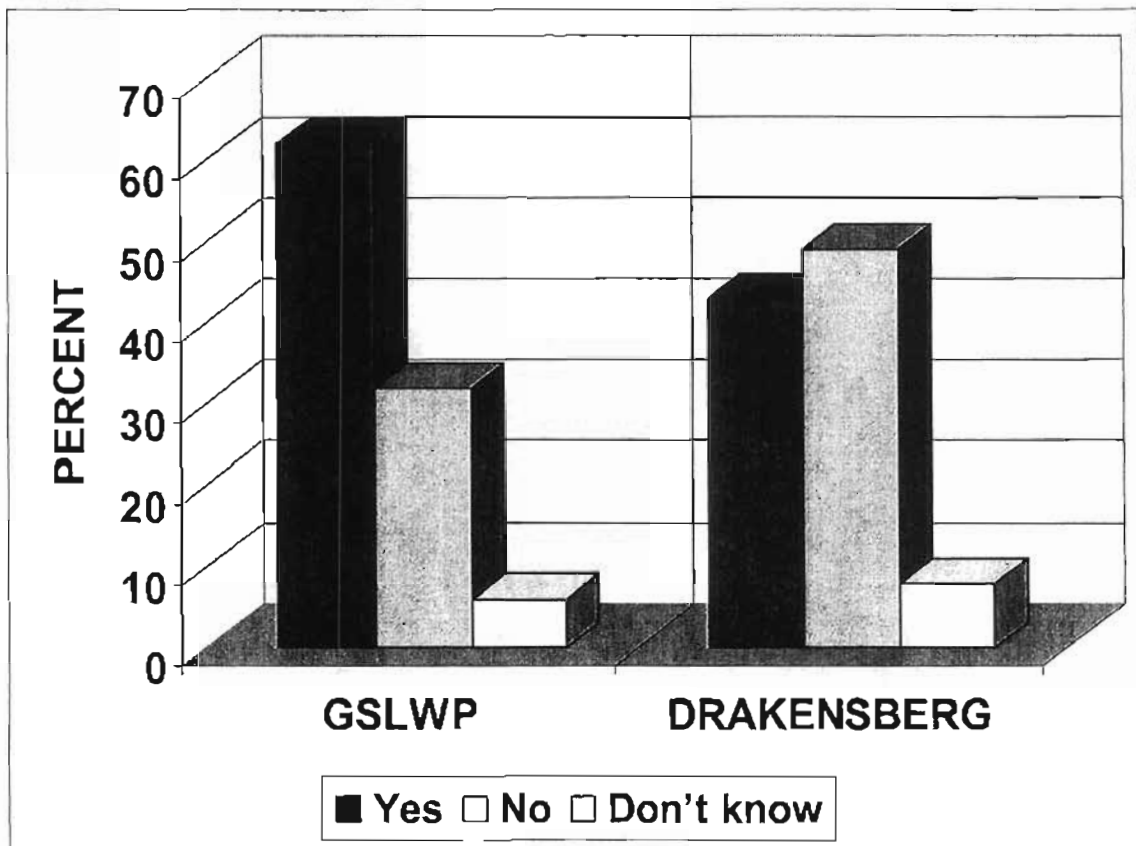
NATURE OF JOB	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	-	3	1,5
Permanent job	4	18	11
Seasonal job	-	4	2
Casual job	-	9	4,5
Not applicable	96	66	81

Four percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 18% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the jobs held by household or community members were permanent (Table 6.159). Four percent and 9% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that the jobs were also seasonal and casual jobs, respectively. Hence, 4% of the community respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 18% of the community respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park do have stability in terms of jobs that they have within the ecotourism sector. For 13% of the community respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park job stability is non-existent. Plate 6.11. shows thatch workers at the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

Plate 6.12. Thatch workers at the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park



Figure 6.30. Respondents' knowledge of Black-owned ecotourism businesses (%)



Sixty two percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 43% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they knew of Black-owned tourism businesses (Figure 6.30). The results indicate the gradual inclusion of Blacks within the ecotourism sector. This is due to the current political climate that seeks to redress past imbalances in South Africa, in general, and the ecotourism industry, in particular. However, the rate at which the process of economic integration is occurring could be described as relatively slow. The reasons for the relative slow pace of integration could be ascribed to lack of capacity and expertise within municipalities to implement national policies, politicking at the Provincial level, disagreements between traditional leaderships and the modern democratic set-up, time-delays in environmental rules and regulations governing development, corruption regarding tender processes, time delays regarding land claims, reactionary parties that wish to stall development, fronting by White-owned businesses, etc.

Table 6.160. Respondents' knowledge of types of Black-owned businesses (%)

TYPE OF BUSINESS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	2	1	0,5
Resort	1	12	6,5
Tour operator	28	6	17
Arts and crafts	18	17	17,5
Community accommodation	15	8	11,5
Not applicable	36	56	45,1

Respondents of both parks indicated that the Black-owned tourism businesses comprised resorts, tour operators, arts and crafts, and community accommodation (Table 6.160). Black-owned businesses at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park seem to be mostly of an informal nature and occur on a micro scale. Plate 6.12. shows a Black-owned tour operator at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

Plate 6.13. Black-owned tour operator at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park



Table 6.161. Respondents' views on ecotourism facilities in their communities (%)

TOURIST-FACILITIES	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	1	-	0,5
Yes	67	78	72,5
No	15	13	14
Don't know	17	9	13

Sixty seven percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 78% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they would be keen to have tourist facilities in their communities (Table 6.161). The results indicate that the local communities are not averse to the ecotourism industry at the two World Heritage Sites. Where they have expressed dissatisfaction were around the issues of the negative impacts of the industry on different aspects of their lifestyles and where they have not been granted equal status within the ecotourism sector and its related dynamics.

Table 6.162. Respondents' views on types of facilities (%): Multiple responses

TYPE –TOURIST FACILITIES	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Arts and craft centres	14	32	23
Casino	4	1	2,5
Community accommodation	31	43	37
Hotels	6	3	4,5
Grounds, park-like orchards	8	-	4
Information centre	23	19	21
Internet café and restaurant	12	7	9,5
Shops that sell Zulu attire	-	1	0,5
Markets	15	8	11,5
Taverns and bars	3	-	1,5
Tennis courts and sports ground for children	1	-	0,5
Bush camp	13	9	11
Car wash	5	-	2,5
Cultural tourism that sells Zulu attire	27	13	20

Fourteen percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 32% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park wished to have arts and craft centres. Four percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 1% of

the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park wished to have casinos in their communities. Thirty one percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 43% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park wished to have casinos in their communities. Six percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 3% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park wished to have hotels in their communities. Twenty three percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 19% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park wished to have information centres in their communities. Twelve percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 7% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park wished to have an internet café and restaurant in their communities. Fifteen percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 8% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park wished to have markets in their communities. Thirteen percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 9% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park wished to have bush camps (Table 1.162).

The responses of the community respondents indicate the kaleidoscope of perceptions that the community members have about the ecotourism industry. Such a perception is a huge diversion from the traditional definition of ecotourism. Interestingly the two World Heritage Sites, whilst striving to maintain their conservation status within the Park boundaries, are being earmarked for infrastructure development both within and outside of its boundaries. The conversion of homes in proximity to the Parks into places of accommodation is testimony to the demand for the ecotourism sites. The mushrooming of shops, tour operators, lodges, etc. are indicative of the modern infrastructure set-up chasing hard on the heels of ecotourism principles. Hence, the perceptions of the community respondents are not very different from the reality that seems to cloud the ecotourism industry. The facilities and services that they desire are no different from that of the White businesses that are in operation because of the ecotourism industry. Therefore, the requests of the community members should be factored into the development agenda of the emerging South African economy.

Plate 6.14. Crèche' sponsored by Ezemvelo KZN Wildlife to Khula Village

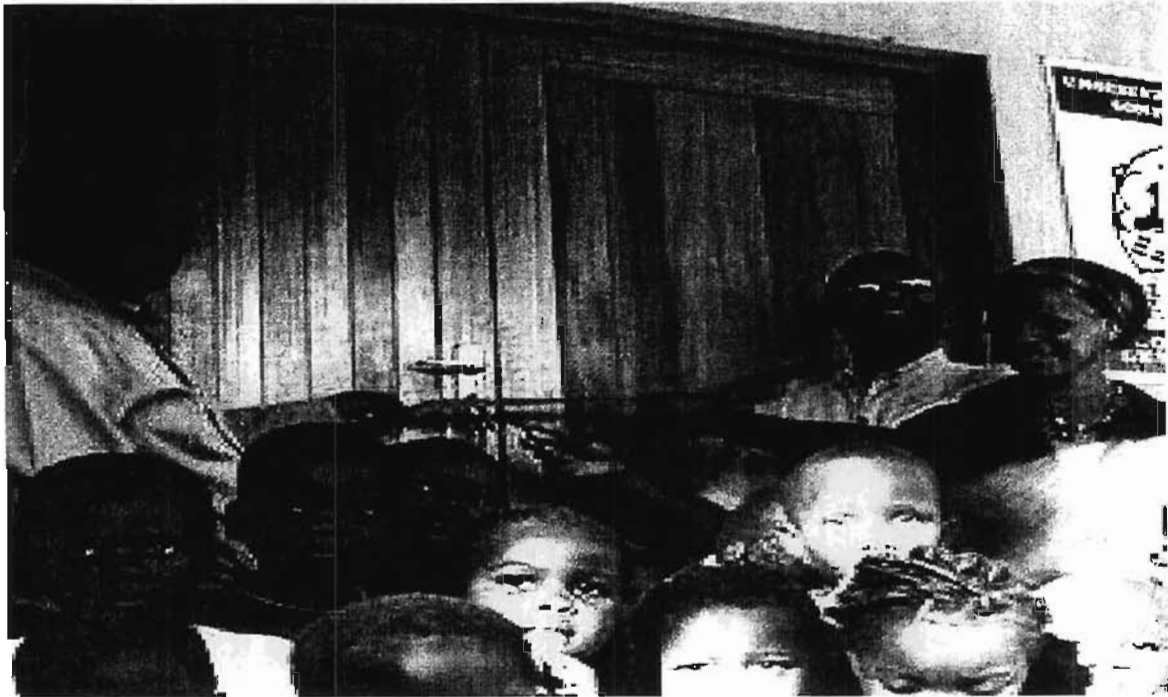


Table 6.163. Respondents views on their input into developing facilities (%):
Multiple responses

ASSIST-FACILITIES	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
By making art and crafts	32	34	33
By promoting the facilities from the info centre	23	19	21
Can make traditional things	7	9	8
Leading the group of Zulu dancers	9	12	10,5
Supply labour	25	23	24
Ask counsellor to help get expertise from white owned business	3	1	2
By growing indigenous plants	1	-	0,5
By forming a structure that will be able to focus on tourism development	17	9	13
Crime prevention	12	2	7
To consult tourism experts to develop a plan and to involve people who have experience in culture	1	1	1

The responses of the community members provide an insight as to why they have requested for facilities that are not synonymous with the theoretical understanding of ecotourism. Clearly, their main need is that of survival and the money economy dictates that for survival the precondition is that of the exchange of labour for money. The precondition for such an exchange is the development of markets (shops, hotels, tour companies, etc.) where this exchange can take place. The current global set-up has created the demand for ecotourism destinations. As long as this set-up remains and grows, the demand for ecotourism destinations and its surrogate infrastructure development will increase. Hence, within the current global set-up it makes perfect sense for the rural communities of the two World Heritage Sites to be requesting infrastructure development that will help absorb their labour, thereby allowing them to generate income and improve options.

Table 1.164 shows that 39% of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 67% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they rely on natural sources from the Parks. The principles of conservation, the tourists demand for an undisturbed natural area and the indigenous peoples' reliance on natural resources from the Parks are fundamentally opposed to each other. The key towards managing this fundamental contradiction is to understand that each constituency has a stake in the Park and that the survival of the respective constituencies is to understand this difficult relationship and then work towards implementing the principle of shared benefits together with shared responsibilities. The apt theme of the IUCN 5th World Parks Congress of "Benefits Beyond Boundaries" has as its underpinning the principle of shared benefits as well as shared responsibilities. One percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 56% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they depend on water from the Parks. Water is a relatively scarce commodity for many rural communities. Rural communities commit themselves to a lot of time and effort to access water. The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains forms part of the important natural phenomena in terms of providing water for a significant proportion of the South African population. Hence, whilst just 1% of the rural community may be reliant on accessing water directly

from the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, the intricate connection amongst the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the rural communities, in terms of water, is ever present.

Table 6.164. Respondents' dependence on natural resources within Parks (%)

NATURAL RESOURCES	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	1		0.5
Yes	39	67	53
No	60	33	46.5
WATER			
No response	35	3	17
Yes	1	56	28.5
No	5	11	8
Not applicable	59	30	44.5
WOOD			
No response	19	3	22
Yes	22	60	82
No	1	7	8
Don't know	1		1
Not applicable	57	30	87
PLANT-FOOD/MEDICINE			
No response	19	7	26
Yes	22	52	74
No	1	11	12
Don't know	1		1
Not applicable	57	30	87
LAND/SEA CREATURES			
No response	26	7	33
Yes	13	52	65
No	2	11	13
Don't know	1		1
Not applicable	58	30	88
ANCESTRAL WORSHIP			
No response	38	45	83
Yes	2	2	4
No	1	22	23
Don't know	3	1	4
Not applicable	56	30	86

Twenty two percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 60% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they depend on wood from the Parks (Table 6.164). Wood serves two purposes for the rural communities of the two World Heritage Sites, that of fuel and raw material for arts and craft. Both purposes are important in relation to rural communities. The status of the Parks as protected areas and World Heritage Sites means that access to the Parks for natural resources is under strict control and regulations. The paradox of such a dilemma manifests itself in the form of 'poverty amongst natural plenty'. The challenge is for those that declare these sites as World Heritage Sites to provide alternate forms of energy and livelihood strategies for those communities that depend on natural resources from such sites.

Twenty two percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 52% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they depend on plants for food and medicine from the Parks (Table 6.164). Thirteen percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 52% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they depend on land or sea creatures for food or medicine from the Parks. Two percent of the respondents of both the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that they require access into the Parks for reasons related to ancestral worship. Ancestral worship has been and is an integral component of African culture. The connection between the dead, the land that the dead are buried in and the living forms an important thread that permeates throughout African culture. However, such a connection is absent with regards to the local communities and the two World Heritage Sites.

The results indicate that the rural communities residing alongside the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park are more dependent on the Park for natural resources than the rural communities at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. The physical set-up, the socio-cultural make-up and the type of economy governing the rural communities of the Northern uKhahlamba Drakenseberg Park is more tribal and traditional in nature than Khula Village which is situated at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. However,

Dukuduku forest, which is situated at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, is traditionally rural and has a subsistence economy.

Table 6.165. Respondents views regarding access to the Parks (%): Multiple responses

CONDITIONS-ACCESS IS GRANTED	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Allowed only for a certain period of time and you have to pay	39	37	38
The people who own the park do not like the idea of people moving around their territories	14	17	15,5
They do not allow us into the park because we are not paying like tourist and we do not have any money	29	28	28.5
We are not allowed to go inside the park. We will be arrested or killed by the animals	36	-	18
Apply to the parks authorities-must follow necessary procedures	29	-	14,5
By putting in request from manager of park. Allowed in certain seasons	24	-	12
To get firewood in winter when animals are not pregnant or having calves	-	58	29

The main aspects emerging from Table 6.165 are restriction of access into Parks (39% and 37%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Parks) and not allowed into the Parks (29% and 28%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Parks). For rural communities living amongst the wide variety of biodiversity, the natural environment is a source of life in terms of providing sustenance, provides medicinal remedies for the different ailments, forms the spiritual and cultural context and is a source of material for the construction of basic homes. In comparison to other forces in society that have wiped out large tracts of biodiversity, the co-existence of rich biodiversity and the indigenous people is evidence of the non-threatening relationship of such a co-existence. Hence, the removal of the indigenous people from conservation areas or the setting up of constraints that make access to these Parks for natural resources difficult is based on an incorrect analysis of the relationship between indigenous people and the natural environment. The perception of indigenous people as barbaric and destroyers of the natural environment needs to be

dispelled such that a new social construct is conceived and one that better and correctly portrays the mutual relationship between indigenous people and wilderness areas. Suffice to state, the local communities do have regulated access to the natural resources that are located within the Park boundaries. The system of regulated access is necessary within an economic system that vociferously encourages material accumulation. An economic system, with such an insatiable appetite, poses a constant threat to both the natural environment as well the local communities.

Table 6.166. Respondents perceptions of ecotourism impacts on the natural environment (%)

PLANT AND TREE DESTRUCTION	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENSBERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	4	2	6
Yes	6	2	8
No	81	61	142
Don't know	9	35	44
WATER POLLUTION			
No response	4	2	6
Yes	5	1	6
No	80	68	148
Don't know	11	29	40
AIR POLLUTION			
No response	5	2	7
Yes	4	1	5
No	81	69	150
Don't know	10	28	38
VANDALISM OF ARTEFACTS			
No response	8	3	11
Yes	4	2	6
No	67	60	127
Don't know	21	35	56
DECREASE IN ANIMAL POPULATION			
No response	14	5	19
Yes	3	2	5
No	65	60	125
Don't know	18	33	51

Eighty one percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 61% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that ecotourism has not resulted in plant and tree destruction in the Parks (Table 6.166). Eighty percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 68% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that tourism has not resulted in water pollution. Eighty one percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 69% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that tourism has not resulted in air pollution. Sixty seven percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 60% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that tourism has not resulted in vandalism of artefacts. Sixty five percent of the respondents of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and 60% of the respondents of the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region indicated that tourism has not resulted in the reduction of animal numbers. The results indicate that in general communities do not perceive ecotourism to have negative environmental impacts.

Table 6.167. Respondents' perceptions on the different forms of environmental impacts (%): Multiple responses

DIFFERENT FORMS- ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
No response	60	-	30
Less animals on the mountains	-	23	11,5
People and animals use the same river e.g. children swim in the river	-	16	8
People damage the rock paintings	-	36	18
There are many dead animals in the water Also many people are smoking	-	9	4,5
They urinate on the tree when they are visiting. They cause accidents on the roads	-	12	6
Water gets polluted because if they are on the mountain they wash with different types of soap	-	11	5,5
Camping zones	25	13	19
They destroy trees for building accommodation	25	17	21
Tourists that are riding horses are eating the vegetation at home-they are not fenced	-	5	2,5

The main aspects emerging from 6.167 are lesser animals in the mountains (23% of respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park), water pollution (11% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park), the erection of camping zones (25% and 13%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park) and the destruction of trees for building accommodation (25% and 13%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park). The responses of some of the community members indicate concerns for the different forms of pollution of the natural environment.

The main aspects emerging from Table 6.168 relating to the strengths of the communities are arts and crafts (23% and 19%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park), fighting crime (34% and 9%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park), donga rehabilitation (35% of the respondents of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park) and the people themselves (23% of the respondents of the GSLWP). The community respondents are positive in their outlook. Their responses are indicative of their sense of community, their pride in the projects that they are involved in, their commitment to rid their areas of crime and their hard work in working their lands.

Table 6.168. Respondents perceived strengths of the community (%): Multiple responses

STRENGTHS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
Arts and crafts	23	19	21
Fighting against crime	34	9	21,5
Organising projects	17	13	15
Plant and soil-because we are cultivating the land, getting food for the children	-	26	13
Small business	14	-	7
Soccer and running	-	5	2,5
The biggest strength in community is the people-there are so many parks but no jobs for the people	23	-	11,5
Active youth co-operation	12	-	6
Agricultural activities and live stock	14	27	15,5
Building our own roads	-	13	6,5

Co-operation with the development committees, active health workers, voluntary workers, traditional activities	18	11	14,5
Community base care, gospel music, craft-making, sport and dancing	7	9	8
Conservation , sewing and women's club	4	-	2
Culture, preventing crime, building roads, youth are active in counselling the others about HIV/AIDS	18	-	9
Donga rehabilitation projects	-	35	17,5
Improving roads, electricity, capacity building and cleaning	19	-	9,5
Sports, environmental education (schools), conservation, traditional activities (cultural food) farming	3	-	1,5
Traditional activities	7	4	5,5
Very organised community with community based organisations that helps the community in many ways	17	10	13,5
When there are jobs people work hard	12	-	6
Working together during tap making	-	15	7,5

Plate 6.15. Rural people heading to their households after a hard day's work



Table 6.169. Respondents' perceived problems within the community (%): Multiple responses

BIGGEST PROBLEMS	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
High crime rate	23	12	17,5
HIV/AIDS	45	29	37
Lack of community hall	26	19	22,5
Lack of clinics	27	25	26
Lack road	34	23	28,5
Lack of sport grounds	9	16	12,5
Lack of welfare	3	-	1,5
Lack street lights	7	-	3,5
Lack of electricity	12	26	19
Lack of tap water on site	-	17	8,5
Not satisfied with government regarding building our houses-they have moved us away from our homes for nothing	38	-	19
Absence of roads, bridges, crèches, schools	21	13	17
Abortion	6	-	3
Get abused by soldiers and police	-	15	7,5
Lack of grazing land	38	-	19
Poverty	25	11	18

Table 6.169 illustrates that the problems experienced by the communities are HIV/AIDS (45% and 29%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park), high crime rate (23% and 12%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park) and poverty (25% and 11%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park). Lack of infrastructure was indicated as a major problem that the community faces. The problems that plague the rural communities surrounding the two World Heritage Sites are many. They comprise health problems, social problems, infrastructural problems and economic problems. The problems experienced by the rural population residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites are historical in nature.

Table 6.170 illustrates the suggestions forwarded by respondents pertaining to what the Park authorities do towards the economic development and social upliftment of the

communities. They include creating employment opportunities (31% and 21%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park), building bridges (25% and 19%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park) and working together (12% and 16%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park). Job creation is the number one priority for the communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. The expectations of the community members on the ecotourism industry, to alleviate their poverty conditions, seem high and are indicative of a dependency relationship. However, the Integrated Development Plans of the respective municipalities are frameworks that maps out development on the economic, social as well as the environmental fronts. The ecotourism industry is one component of the economic arm of the Integrated Development Plans and is reliant on the infrastructural development of the ecotourism destination sites. In the interim, the dominant stakeholders of the two World Heritage Sites could begin to accelerate deliverable benefits to the rural communities alongside its borders and buffer zones.

Table 6.170. Respondents' perceptions as to how the parks can contribute towards economic development of the community (%): Multiple responses

PARKS-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
By allowing community to sell the crafts to the tourists	13	4	8,5
By building bridges and hiring community members	25	19	22
By creating employment opportunities for the community	31	21	26
Promote and sponsor small business, arrange nature programmes for community	7	-	3,5
Develop skills, create job, economic growth, improve water conservation	-	14	7
Encourage conservation, cultural recreation, creating jobs, creating small business programmes	17	5	11
Park can help by giving clean water and preventing soil erosion	-	27	13,5
To help in attaining 24 hour clinics, by helping to protect nature	9	2	5,5

By building sport grounds, gardens for the community, especially for those who have HIV/AIDS	3	5	4
Sponsoring events like HIV-AIDS awareness day, funding organisation in helping people with HIV/AIDS and orphans	3	-	1,5
To allow tourists to come into the community to buy goods	2	-	1
To work together	12	16	14

Table 6.171 illustrates the communities' views as to how they believe that they could contribute towards local economic development. They include communicating with the Park authorities (23% and 17%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park), engaging in craft work (29% and 32%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park), forming stakeholder forums (20% and 14%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park) and by fighting crime (28% and 23%, respectively, of the respondents of the GSLWP and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park). The community members indicated a wide range of efforts that they are willing to embark upon so as to uplift themselves economically, morally and socially. However, such efforts can only be maximised if the constraints that lock the rural population within the material and social poverty are removed by those that occupy the upper echelons of political as well as economic power in South Africa.

Table 6.171. Respondents' views as to how the community can contribute towards local economic development (%): Multiple responses

COMMUNITY-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT	GSLWP (100)	DRAKENS BERG (100)	TOTAL (200)
By communicating with the parks	23	17	15
By making hand work (craft work), cultural activities	29	32	30,5
By not killing animals and not cutting down of trees	19	25	22
By working together	15	12	13,5
Community can help by informing other communities about the park	12	9	10,5
Community must stop stealing animals	16	3	9,5

(entering the park without permission), they must not rob the tourists			
Fight against crime	28	23	25,5
If they do not discriminate against us, we can work together with them	1	-	0,5
They must expose themselves by doing local projects	17	15	16
Businessmen can participate by donating to security companies	1	-	0,5
By forming stakeholder forums	20	14	17
By keeping land clean and beautiful, good relationship with park management and community, to maintain peace.	7	10	13,5
By not vandalising facilities in the park, taking care of tourists	12	-	6
Communities must protect our areas and mountains against fire	-	14	7
Tribal Nkosi can work together with Park authorities, having a committee representing local communities	-	5	2,5

6.5.2. Participatory Approaches

This study also utilised participatory approaches towards understanding the communities and also their relation to the ecotourism industry (Plates 6.16 and 6.17). Participatory approaches and methods have evolved in response to the commonly encountered shortcomings of conventional scientific methods of data gathering (such as the questionnaire survey) in social science research. The limitations relate to the fact that the scientific method is often superficial and not flexible enough to capture all of the dynamics within the communities (Sebego et al., 2005). The analysis of the participatory approaches allowed for the almost complete depth or true picture of social phenomena or problems that were experienced by the communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites.

Plate 6.16. Participatory group of Mweni Village (uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park)

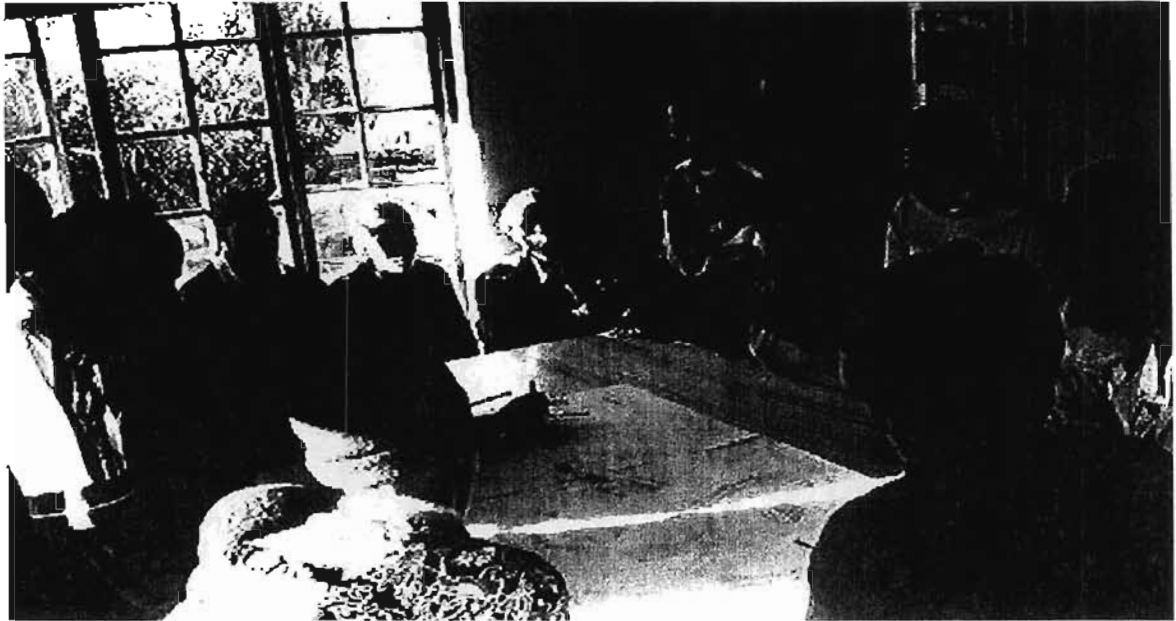


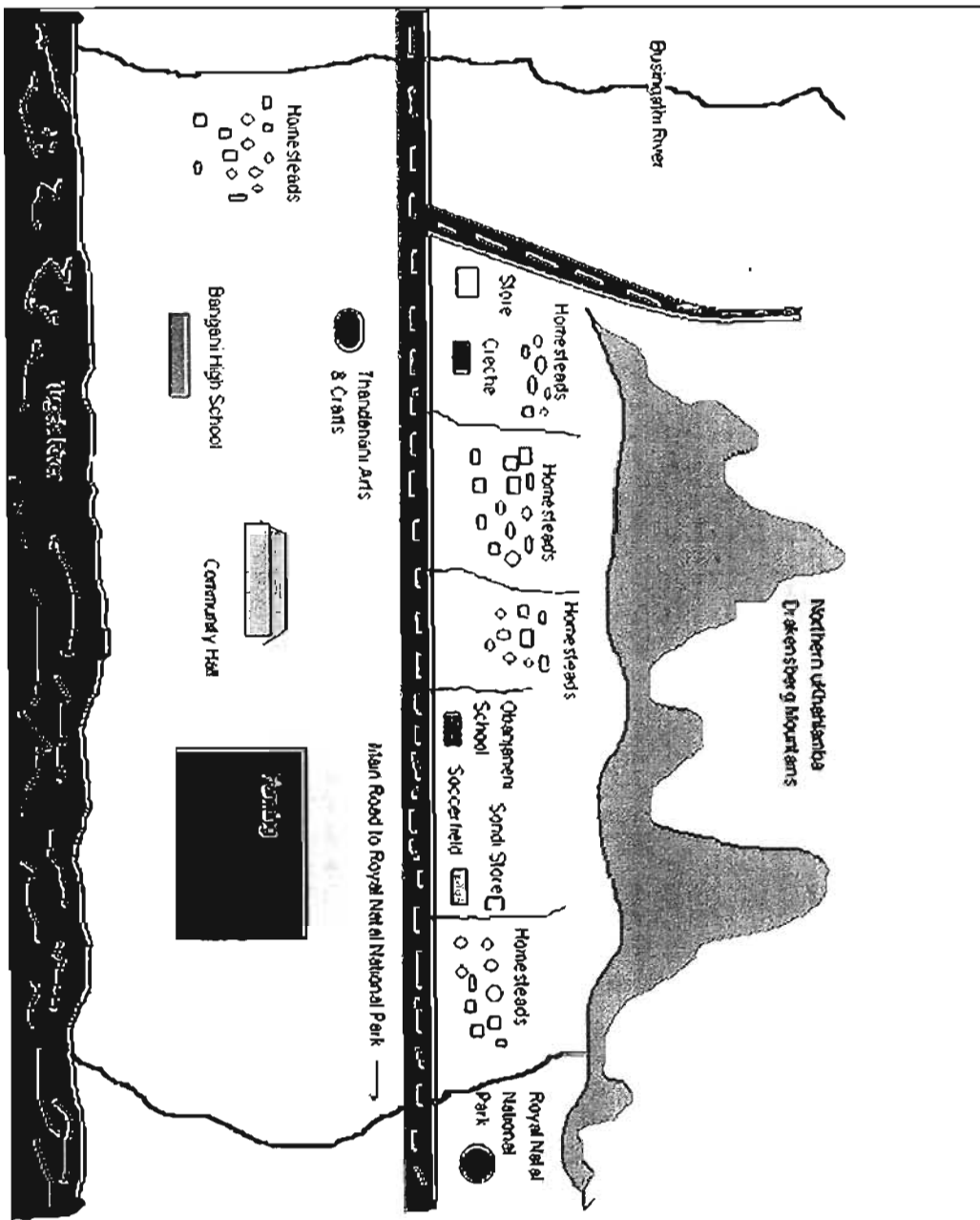
Plate 6.17. Participatory group of Khula Village (GSLWP)



6.5.2.1. Limitations of the Participatory Approaches

Participatory type exercises were carried out in three of the four communities that were surveyed. Whilst the household questionnaire survey was conducted in all four of the communities, the participatory approaches could not be conducted in Dukuduku Forest which is a community that resided just outside of the Great St Lucia Wetlands Park. The reason being that the researcher, interpreters and fieldworkers were believed to be police spies thereby leading to a tense and almost violent situation. This situation arose at the latter part of data collection from the individual household within Dukuduku Forest. Dukuduku Forest was earmarked to be incorporated into the World Heritage Site Status. However, the refusal of the rural communities inside Dukuduku Forest to move to Khula led to a stand-off between government, environmental bodies and the occupants of Dukuduku forest. Hence, researchers and 'others' are treated suspiciously by the Dukuduku Forest occupants.

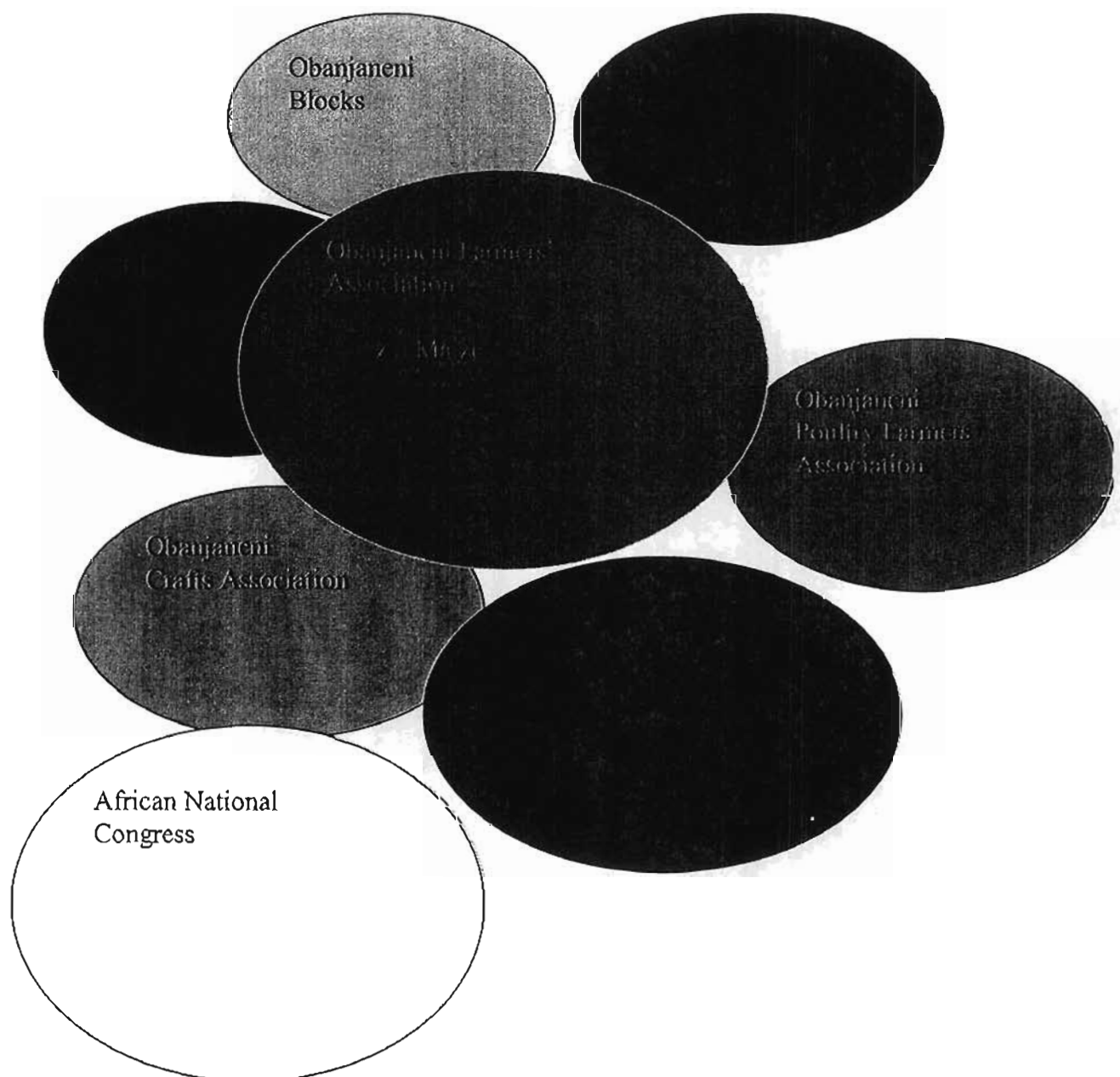
Figure 6.31. Mental map of Obanjaneni



The map drawn by the Obanjaneni community indicates their spatial cognitive perception of their geographic location. The map shows a tarred road within a predominantly rural area. However, the tarred road serves the needs of the tourism resorts instead of the rural community. On the contrary, the tarred road is in conflict with the social and cultural lifestyles of the community since cars travelling at high speeds pose a threat to the

livestock of the community. The map also depicts basic amenities in Obanjanenei such as schools, a community hall, soccer field and shops.

Figure 6.32. Obanjaneni Venn Diagrams



The venn diagram participatory exercise of the Obanjaneni community indicates that the community has formed organisations and associations that have added to the social capital of the community. Maize is the staple diet of the Obanjaneni community. The social and cultural life of the Obanjaneni community revolves around maize production and consumption. The Obanjaneni Farmers Association seems integral to the management of maize crop production. Associations and organisations have also been formed around block making, irrigation farming, craft making, sowing and poultry farming. The Obanjaneni community have also organised themselves around two political parties, namely the African National Congress and the Inkatha Freedom Party. It seems that the two parties are valued equally in the community. The associations and organisations present within the Obanjaneni community may wish to transform themselves into co-operatives.

The harnessing of one's own strength and the organisation of human resources for the realisation of livelihood strategies, income generation and job creation could be realised through the vehicle of co-operatives. The principle of co-operatives is that of "shared responsibilities and shared benefits". The Co-operatives Bill of 2005 aims to address all the problems or shortcomings of the Co-operatives Act, Act No 91 Of 1981, thereby creating a suitable vehicle for the creation of co-operatives with principles such as Black Economic Empowerment. A co-operative is defined as an autonomous association of persons united voluntarily to meet their common economic and social needs and aspirations through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise organised and operating on co-operative principles. The objects of the Bill can be summarised as follows: the promotion of the development of sustainable co-operatives, to encourage people who subscribe to co-operative principles to register as such; to promote equity and to facilitate the provision of support programmes for co-operatives, especially those that create employment or benefit disadvantaged groups.

Table 6.172. Obanjaneni Community Ranking Matrix

	E	W	T	R	D	J	C	S	CB	DC	TI	AJ	CR	HI	SW	SF	H	PS
E	•	W	T	R	E	J	C	S	E	DC	TI	AJ	E	HI	SW	SF	H	PS
W	•	•	W	R	W	J	C	S	W	W	W	AJ	W	HI	W	SF	W	W
T	•	•	•	R	D	J	C	S	T	T	TI	AJ	T	T	SW	SF	T	T
R	•	•	•	•	D	J	C	S	R	R	TI	AJ	R	R	SW	SF	R	R
D	•	•	•	•	•	J	C	S	D	DC	TI	AJ	C	HI	SW	SF	H	PS
J	•	•	•	•	•	•	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J	J
C	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	S	C	C	C	AJ	CL	C	SW	SF	C	C
S	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	S	S	S	AJ	S	S	SW	SF	S	S
CB	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	DC	TI	AJ	C	HI	SW	SF	H	PS
DC	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	DC	AJ	DC	HI	SW	SF	DC	DC
TI	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	AJ	TI	HI	SW	SF	H	TI
AJ	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	AJ	AJ	AJ	AJ	AJ	AJ
CR	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	C	SW	SF	CR	C
HI	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	SW	SF	HI	HI
SW	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	SF	SW	SW
SF	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	SF	SF
H	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	PS
PS	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•
PO	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

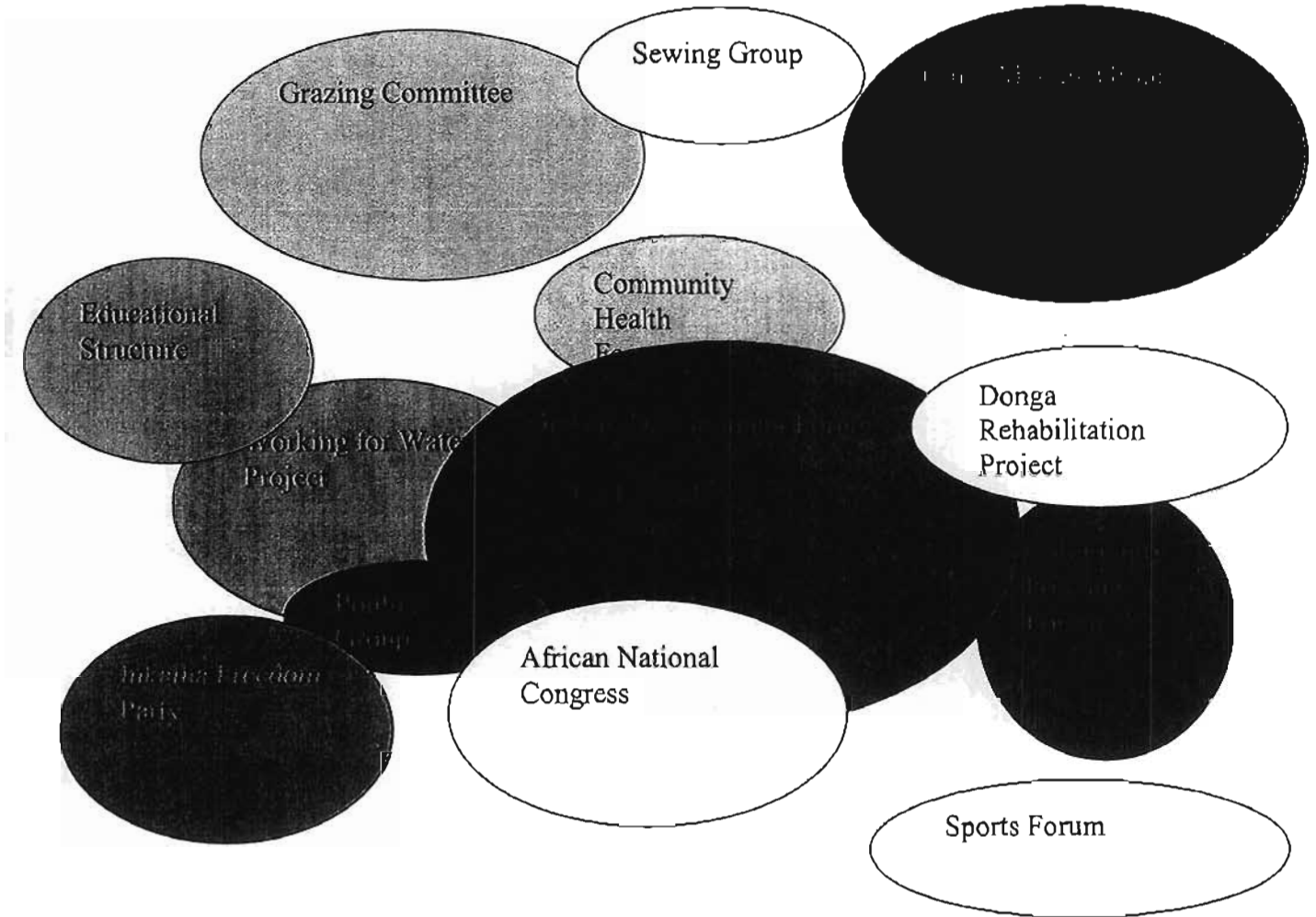
Table 6.173. Obanjaneni Community Ranking Matrix

	SCORING	RANKING
ELECTRICITY (E)	3	12
WATER (W)	11	6
TOILETS (T)	8	9
ROADS (R)	10	7
DONGAS (D)	3	12
JOBS (J)	18	1
CLINICS (C)	12	5
SCHOOLS (S)	14	4
CAMP BED & BREAKFAST (CB)	0	13
DISABILITY CRECHE (DC)	8	9
TERTIARY INSTITUTIONS (TI)	8	9
AGENCIES FOR JOBS (AJ)	17	2
CRIME (CR)	7	10
HIV/AIDS (HI)	9	8
SOCIAL WELFARE (SW)	14	4
SPORTS FACILITIES (SF)	16	3
POOR HOUSING (H)	4	11
NO POLICE STATION (PS)	5	10
NO POST OFFICE (PO)	4	11

The lack of jobs was ranked as the highest priority for the community of Obanjaneni. The lack of agencies for job creation was ranked as second followed by the shortage of sports facilities, social welfare, schools and clinics. The reliance of the community on the money economy is clearly evident. It also indicates a rural society that is in transition from a subsistence way of life to one of wage labourers. The question is: how does one begin to create jobs for a community that was once engaged in a subsistence way of life? The theory is that where investments are not forthcoming it is now upon the community

to become creators of their own wealth. Micro-business enterprises could be encouraged around the ecotourism industry. An audit of the natural environment could be undertaken and its economic potential unleashed. The challenge is for the community to firstly provide food security for themselves and then adopt both indigenous as well as modern technology to try and produce a surplus. Support services by government should assist the community in finding markets for their surplus produce.

Figure 6.34. Mnweni: Participatory Activity Using Venn Diagrams



The participatory exercises of the Mnweni community indicate huge capacity social capital around many projects and programmes. Political affiliation seems to be the defining line for the Mnweni community. The venn diagrams indicate that the Mnweni community have the organisational capacity to embark on forms of sustainable development.

Table 6.174. Mnweni Community Ranking Matrix

	U	PI	W	S	E	ST	P	F	HIV
U	•	PI	U	U	E	U	U	U	U
PI	•	•	PI	PI	E	PI	PI	PI	PI
W	•	•	•	W	E	W	W	F	W
S	•	•	•	•	E	ST	P	S	HIV
E	•	•	•	•	•	E	E	E	E
ST	•	•	•	•	•	•	ST	ST	ST
P	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	P	HIV
F	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	HIV
HIV	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

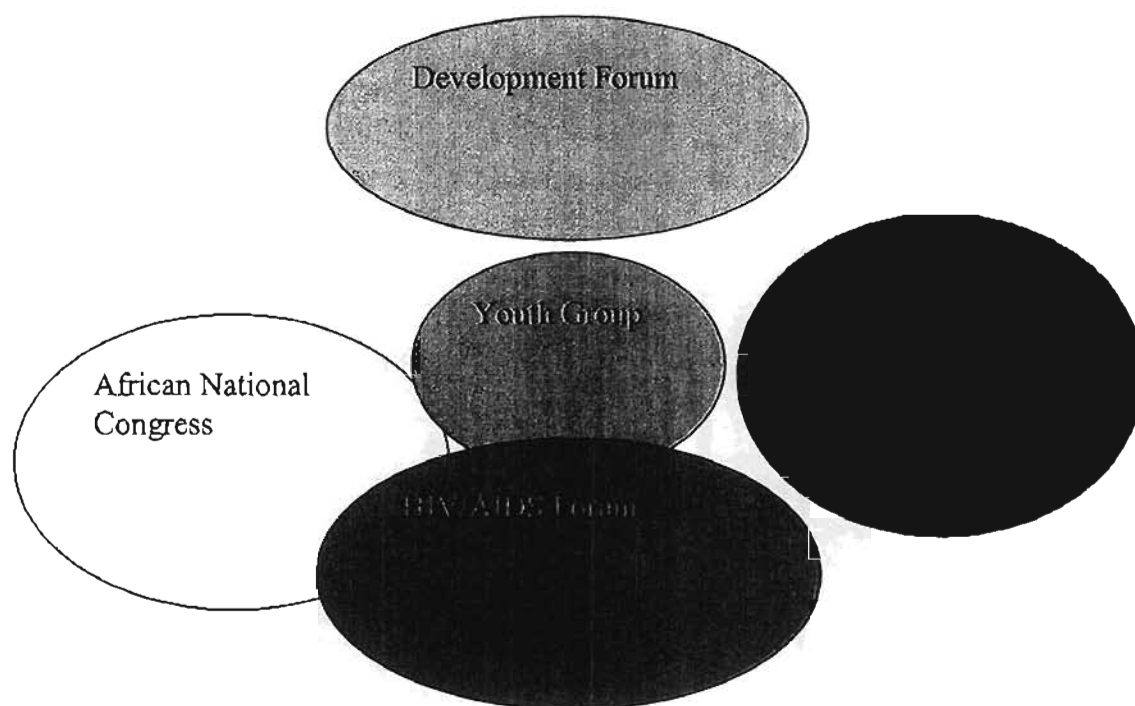
Table 6.175. Mnweni Community Ranking Matrix

	SCORING	RANKING
UNEMPLOYMENT (U)	6	3
POOR INFRASTRUCTURE (PI)	7	2
LACK OF CLEAN WATER (W)	4	4
POOR SANITATION (S)	1	7
LACK OF EDUCATION (E)	8	1
STOCK THEFT (ST)	4	4
POLICE RAIDS (P)	2	6
LACK OF FACILITIES (F)	1	7
HIV/AIDS (HIV)	3	5

The Mnweni community are more traditional in all aspects of their lives. Their primary economy is very much of a subsistence nature. Their highest priority seems to be that of a

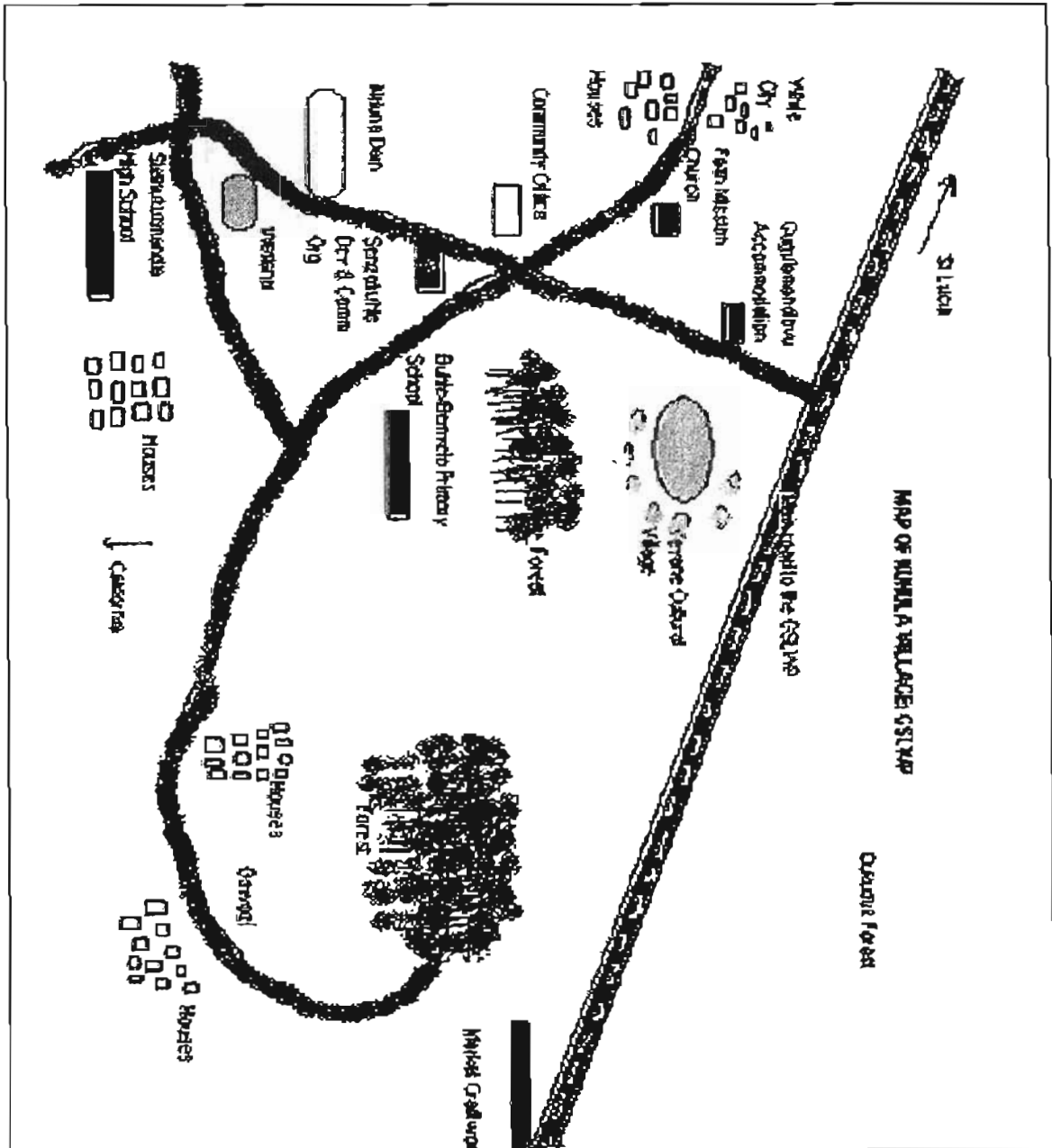
lack of formal education. Poor infrastructure and unemployment came in second and third, respectively. Stock theft by supposedly people from neighbouring Lesotho was a concern as well. So were the impacts of HIV/AIDS, lack of clean water and police raids in the community. The police raids are because of the growing of *Cannabis* in the region. Tourists visiting the area are perceived as a threat to those growing and possibly dealing in *Cannabis*. The ecotourism industry and the business of *Cannabis* may be in conflict with each other.

Figure 6.35. Khula Village: Participatory Activity Using Venn Diagrams



The venn diagrams of the Khula Village community indicate a low level of organisational capacity. Political alliance features strongly in the participatory exercise. However, the venn diagrams indicate that tools of participatory democracy are present within Khula Village.

Figure 6.36. Mental Map of Khula Village



The spatial perceptions of the Khula Village community indicate the bias toward the ecotourism industry by the presence of a tarred road. Clearly, the road infrastructure favours the tourists with the motorised vehicles. The participatory map is indicative of the conflicting goals of the ecotourism industry and the rural community.

Table 6.176. Khula Village Ranking Matrix

	NJ	FAC	C	R	H	L	CH	HIV	P	LA
NJ	•	NJ	C	NJ	NJ	L	NJ	HIV	NJ	NJ
FAC	•	•	C	R	FAC	L	FAC	HIV	FAC	LA
C	•	•		R	C	L	C	HIV	C	LA
R	•	•	•	•	R	L	R	HIV	R	LA
H	•	•	•	•	•	L	CH	HIV	H	LA
L	•	•	•	•	•	•	L	HIV	L	L
CH	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	HIV	CH	LA
HIV	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	HIV	HIV
P	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	LA
LA	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	•

Table 6.177. Khula Village Scoring of Ranking Matrix

	SCORING	RANKING
NO JOBS (NJ)	6	3
NO FACILITIES (FAC)	3	5
CRIME (C)	5	4
NO ROADS (R)	5	4
NO HOUSING (H)	1	7
NO LAND (L)	8	2
NO CHURCHES (CH)	2	6
HIV/AIDS (HIV)	9	1
GSLWP (P)	0	8
UNPAID LABOUR (LA)	6	3

Participating community members of Khula Village stated in no uncertain terms that there were no good things for them in relation to ecotourism to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. However, a tourism community project (Simunye Community Tourism Association) in the form of an information office was sponsored by Daimler-Chrysler. The centre serves as an information and booking centre for tourists. A cultural village that will be owned by the community is also on the cards (Wetlands Wire, 2004-2005: 8). On top of the list of problems facing the community was the problem of no jobs. In the ranking exercises, no land was ranked as number one (1), HIV/AIDS was ranked as number two (2) and no jobs was ranked as number three (3). Judging from the community's responses they are plagued with many problems ranging from lack of physical infrastructure (no or badly constructed roads, shortage of schools, etc.) to social ills (crime) to health concerns (HIV/AIDS). The ranking matrix participatory exercise of the Khula Village community indicates that HIV/AIDS is one of the biggest challenges faced by the community. No access to agricultural lands, lack of jobs and not being paid for labour services rendered were also high on the list of priorities of the Khula Village community. Neither access to land nor jobs mean that the community, in general, is disengaged from both a subsistence economy and the money economy. Such a state of affairs may lead to people resorting to risky types of behaviours for survival purposes.

6.5. Conservation Organisations

Conservation bodies or organisations exist on behalf of the natural environment. The natural resource base is the most important component of ecotourism. Ecotourism and the conservation of the natural resource base are inextricably linked. Hence, for ecotourism to take place it is a priority that natural resource base is conserved (Mathison and Wall, 1993).

This study has surveyed the perceptions of two Conservation bodies in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. They are the Wild Life and Environment Society of South Africa (WESSA) and Ezemvelo-KZN Wildlife. In relation to whether local communities adjacent to the Parks benefit from ecotourism, both respondents stated that there were limited benefits. The main institutional or other mechanism in place for local communities to benefit from ecotourism was identified as the selling of crafts.

The interview with Ezemvelo-KZN Wildlife took place at the Royal Natal National Park which is situated at the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains. The Ezemvelo-KZN Wildlife representative indicated that there are major challenges with regards to balancing ecotourism and conservation principles. Infrastructure, for the provision of electricity and water, have been laid underground. The representative indicated that there are high demands from visitors to the Park for more modern facilities such as restaurants, satellite TV, etc. The Royal Natal National Park is also embarking on projects and programmes in collaboration with the surrounding rural communities. Some of the projects are job creation through recycling, arts and crafts projects, training of guides and rangers, etc.

In response to the questions on how park entrance fees should be structured and should differential pricing be used (in particular, should foreign visitors be charged more), respondents stated that foreign tourists should pay at least twice the fees as domestic tourists. In terms of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, respondents were asked whether sand dune mining could occur side by side with ecotourism. The respondents indicated that mining and ecotourism cannot occur side by side. Richards Bay Minerals (RBN) is

about the best when it comes to environmental investment. However, RBM cannot recreate nature. Mining sucks up a huge amount of water with a resultant water shortage. Mining would undoubtedly lead to the degradation of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. Any developments should be along the periphery and not in ecologically sensitive areas of the Park.

The positive impact of globalisation on the ecotourism industry in South Africa was more tourists visiting South Africa. However, a concern was raised that ecotourism is not really understood and the environment is “used” rather than “appreciated”. The negative impact of globalisation on the ecotourism industry in South Africa was that foreigners are getting a Western idea of ecotourism rather than an African experience. The ecotourism industry is money/ materially orientated. The environmental concern with regard to ecotourism development was that the incremental increase in economic development may occur at the expense of the environment. One respondent stated that “we could be killing the goose that lays the egg.” The social concerns with regard to ecotourism development were that a few get richer and there is little trickle down effects, especially to poor communities. The economic concerns with regard to ecotourism development were that surrounding communities are not brought on board and trained, exit of money overseas and as economic imperatives drive the industry profit motives will dominate.

The respondents agreed that although there are small pockets of change, the ecotourism industry has not transformed significantly to address past imbalances in South Africa. The constraints the ecotourism industry faces in relation to addressing past imbalances were that it is a relatively new industry and that it lacks adequate and appropriate resources. The respondents again reiterated the concerns that “money rules” the industry. One respondent stated:

Ecotourism entails wilderness trails, inclusion of local people, education of the natural ecological principles of life systems and the peculiarity of the destination. It is not ecotourism when there are luxury hotels built on a wetland or on sand dunes, sunbathing and watching animals from a car.

6.6. Government

Together with the private sector, government also generates revenue from ecotourism. Government revenue occurs both directly and indirectly from ecotourism. Direct income is in the form of income tax from businesses and operators involved in ecotourism and VAT on goods bought by tourists and operators. Indirect income is in the form of bed taxes, airport taxes, etc. Other ecotourism generating income is from tourists using health services, communications infrastructure, etc. (Bennet et al., 2005).

A representative of the National Ministry of Environmental Affairs and Tourism stated that there are many ecotourism operations established all over the country with new ones emerging every day and others closing. No national cost-benefit analysis has been done to our knowledge to determine the net benefits of the ecotourism or nature based tourism economy. As to whether local communities benefit from ecotourism, he stated that they do benefit to a greater or lesser degree from ecotourism. Ways to increase these benefits would be through implementation of responsible tourism principles, fair trade in tourism practice, BEE and measuring of these by applying the tourism scorecard once finalised. As to the positive impacts of globalisation on the ecotourism industry in South Africa the representative outlined the following: improved positioning of South Africa as an important global ecotourist destination; exposing ecotourism (including culture products and attractions) to foreign demand; improved local awareness of the importance of responsible ecotourism planning, development and management; strengthening of the local ecotourism sector's economic base; creation of job opportunities; increase in opportunities for especially SMME entrepreneurs and reduction in local economic leakage.

6.7. Conclusion

The profile of the stakeholders of the ecotourism industry reveals distinct disparities in terms of race and class. South Africa is often said to have two distinct economies, one rich and White and the other poor and Black. That is the current profile of South Africa. The analysis indicates that the ecotourism industry reflects such a state of affairs. With regard to the stakeholders that are involved in the ecotourism industry generally, those that are Black are poor and those that are White are rich. Hence, the ecotourism industry is a microcosm of South Africa. The stakeholders within the ecotourism industry are, therefore, not equal partners. The communities' awareness as to the economic impacts and the economic potential of the ecotourism industry could be described as being at a low level but they have very high expectations. The money economy and its workings within the ecotourism industry seems a hazy body of information to the rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. With regards to the foreign tourists, monies were allocated for transport, visas, accommodation, food and drinks, travel in and around host country, clothing, tourism levies. Hence, the ecotourism tourism industry is also linked to the transport industry, the hotel and hospitality industry, the food industry and the clothing industry. The Wild Life and Environment Society of South Africa (WESSA) stated the following with regards to the potential impacts of the ecotourism industry at the two World Heritage Sites: 'incremental increase in economic development may occur at the expense of the environment. We would be killing the goose that lays the golden egg. Money will rule-not genuine ecotourism as practiced in the Galapagos Islands or on the Seychelles.' The stakeholders felt that the ecotourism industry could contribute to the social upliftment of the community by assisting with various projects and programmes.

CHAPTER SEVEN

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

7.1. Introduction

South Africa's democratic transition has witnessed the advancing, deepening and strengthening of democracy into all spheres of South African life. The same is true of the governance of the two World Heritage Sites of KwaZulu-Natal. Various stakeholders have been brought on board to oversee the Great St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. An integral role-function of the Park Authorities was to see how to balance conservation efforts with local economic development. The setting aside of the two Parks as World Heritage Sites has emphasised the conservation of these Parks. With regards to local economic development, ecotourism has been earmarked as a vehicle for job creation and poverty alleviation primarily for the local communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. However, the ecotourism sector at the two World Heritage Sites, the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, is fraught with contradictions and is, no doubt, a contested terrain by big business, conservation and preservation groups, land claimants, the rural elite, the rural poor, tourists and the workers. Within the two World Heritage Sites, the contradictions manifests itself along racial as well as gender lines. The South African economy is underpinned by principles of macroeconomics with limited state intervention in the form of the public and extended public works policy and programmes.

Colonialism and colonialism of a special type (apartheid) has created a South Africa that reflects two distinct and unusual economies: the first economy that comprises the rich and mostly White people and the second economy, which comprises the poor and mostly Black people. The ecotourism landscapes of the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park reflect such a state of affairs. The Bill of Rights, Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) policies and affirmative action policies are helping to catapult some Black people into the middle class of predominantly White people. Such is the case in respect to the ecotourism sector in relation to the two World Heritage Sites. As yet, the various components of the ecotourism sector in relation to the

two World Heritage Sites do not reflect the desired demographic make-up of the country, let alone the province. Whilst the racial lines within the ecotourism industry in relation to the two World Heritage Sites are not as distinct as they were under apartheid, class lines seem to be sharpening with the entrenchment of macro-economic policies. The ecotourism sector, hence, is serving to further entrench capitalism and is doing so by ejecting the rural poor from both a subsistence way of life and from the mainstream of the economy as well.

Also, many tools have been designed and adopted by governments, academics, conservation bodies and Park management to try and manage the pressures that protected areas are exposed to. No doubt, site specific pressures have to have site specific tools to begin to address these pressures. However, the matrix or the inextricable connectedness of the natural environment dictates that pressure systems elsewhere will have to have the necessary tools to be able to contain those pressures that inevitably cascades onto protected areas. Hence, the reasons as to why the demand for natural areas are increasing, thereby causing undue pressure on both the natural environment and the local communities, need to be identified and understood. Only then will the compounding impacts (social, economic and environmental) be ably managed and, therefore, sustainable. Whilst local people have been evicted from the Parks, the reality is that people are staying in these Parks on a daily basis. Hence, the idea of wilderness areas without people is a myth. The idea of “Benefits Beyond Boundaries” as espoused by the Worlds Park Congress of 2003 seems to be rhetoric in the face of the high unemployment rate of the rural communities that reside alongside the two World Heritage Sites.

7.2. Summary

7.2.1 Profile of Stakeholders

The Mnwani, Obanjani, Dukuduku Forest and Khula Village communities are but four of the many rural communities that reside alongside the two World Heritage Sites in the province of KwaZulu-Natal in South Africa. Whilst, the four communities have an overall rural make-up, there are aspects that are similar and aspects that are different between and amongst all of the four communities. However, all four communities are

predominantly Black Africans, Zulu-speaking, have a low level of formal education and are relatively poor. Tourists that visit the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region and the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park comprise both domestic tourists and foreign tourists. However, the two World Heritage Sites attract more domestic tourists than foreign tourists. Overall, the tourists to the two World Heritage Sites were White. Black South Africans, as visitors to the two World Heritage Sites, were few. Tourists were mostly White, relatively wealthy, had good formal educational qualifications and had good jobs. Most of the visitors to the two World Heritage Sites stated that their knowledge about environmental matters was gained through self-teaching and most of them considered themselves to be environmentalists of some kind. They also have enough money-power to visit natural areas many times a year and their primary reason for visiting natural areas was to experience a state of relaxation. Owners of accommodation for tourists visiting the two World Heritage Sites were predominantly White and of South African nationality. Respondents possessed a relatively good formal education. Owners of the tour companies were all White. Most were self-taught about environmental issues, marketed their operations nationally as well as internationally and described their operations as 'businesses that sell nature'.

7.2.2. Stakeholder Perceptions of Social Impacts of Ecotourism

There were mixed responses as to whether ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites translated into tangible benefits for the communities in the form of schools, clinics, educational trusts, housing, sports facilities, sponsoring of events, establishment of community gardens, or any other form of social investments. With regards to these social institutions, ecotourism had not resulted in these developments and establishments. The community members also indicated ecotourism has not resulted in the lowering of traditional values, casinos in the area, the proliferation of sex workers, etc. Upon closer scrutiny, though, the comments about the impacts of ecotourism to the parks were: people are going to lose their land, people are losing their land without having a say and if they claim for money it takes a long time to get it, they are not allowed to hunt animals or to fish, they are not allowed to cut plants, that the Park needed to be removed in order for them to have more sites, they are not getting enough sites because the White people are

selling the sites to the rich people, they end up living in small sites, communities should set limits and other standards in the event of cultural tourism, and that they did not know what World Heritage meant. The responses in general raise concerns pertaining to access, ownership and the sharing of benefits.

The majority of tourists surveyed indicated that they have met people from the local community and that they would also like to meet people from the local community and learn about their culture and their way of life. There were mixed responses as to whether ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites had resulted in more gambling and more sex workers in the area, the overwhelming majority indicated that this was not the case. The overwhelming majority of the tourist accommodation personnel indicated that there is interaction between tourists to the resorts and between the local communities. However, the quality of the relationship ranged from excellent to poor. The attitudes of the local people towards tourists were described as both euphoric as well as apathetic.

There were mixed responses to the statements that 'ecotourism entails maximising 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' and that 'ecotourism entails the provision of special opportunities for local people and natural tourism employees to utilise and visit natural areas and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see.' Some of the qualitative descriptions of the interaction given were: St Lucia is a White run town with minimal involvement with the local communities; community levies that is put back into local communities has not made an impact as yet; schools and youth needed to benefit from community levies; when interacting with the community, management and staff are always greeted by strangers and those known; assistance is happily given even in the odd delicate matters involving the police, etc.

With regards to decision-making and stakeholder involvement it was unclear as to what was the degree of community involvement. Some of the comments were that decisions that involve the Park are made by the SDI (Spatial Development Initiative) organisation and rarely are the community consulted and the community Nkosi (that is, tribal

authorities) are involved on local boards. The overwhelming majority of the respondents indicated that crime in the area is an obstacle to ecotourism development.

The level of interaction between the tour companies and the local communities was described as poor. Any reasons for the interaction were on a needs basis and mostly involved embarking on cultural tours and making stopovers. However, all of the tour companies did not perceive ecotourism to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park to be resulting in negative social impacts such as more sex workers, more casinos, lowering of traditional values and negative feelings about local cultures. The social impact of the ecotourism industry on the lives of local people was described as: 'Few get rich and there is very little trickle down effect.' With regards to tangible social infrastructure, a crèche for pre-schoolers was constructed using gate-takings from the Greater St Lucia Wetland Park and it is thought to provide a permanent and safe place for the children. A soccer field situated within the Royal Natal National Park is made accessible to the Obanjaneni community residing just outside the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park.

The ecotourism industry is relatively new in South Africa. However, that being the case it is attempting to change the way that rural people residing alongside the Parks interact with the parks. In so far as the ecotourism industry seeking to disengage the indigenous people from their land and from their way of life, it is impacting negatively on the social lives of the rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. That said, the ecotourism industry is doing very little to contribute towards the social capital of local communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. On the contrary, the ecotourism industry has introduced disruptions of various kinds into the lives of the rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites. So if the principle of the 'activity does not harm the social structure of the community where it is located or damage its culture' is the benchmark against which the impacts of ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites are to be measured then the conclusion can be made that the social impacts of ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites are overwhelmingly negative.

7.2.3. Stakeholder Perceptions of Economic Impacts of Ecotourism

The economic impacts of ecotourism to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park are positive as well as negative. They are highly positive for the tour companies and the well resourced accommodation sector. These two components of the ecotourism industry are mostly White-owned enterprises. The economic impacts are satisfactorily positive for the up and coming Black-owned enterprises such as Khula Village Tourism and Cultural Centre and the Mnweni Tourism and Cultural Centre and highly positive for a small percentage of Black Economic Empowerment Companies in so far as they were granted a percentage share in developments, especially within the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. They are positive in so far as providing jobs for a few people from the surrounding rural communities. They are positive in so far as providing a market for local people to peddle their wares such as arts and crafts, cultural items, etc. The economic impacts of ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites are positive in so far as trying to address the race question and its skewed representation within the ecotourism industry.

The economic impacts of the ecotourism industry at the two World Heritage sites are negative in so far as accelerating the pace of the local communities into the money economy thereby leaving them unprepared, unskilled and under-resourced to function within the ecotourism industry. They are negative in so far as increasing the gap between rich and poor and between Black and White. The economic impacts of the ecotourism industry at the two World Heritage sites are negative in so far as providing jobs that are of seasonal and low-skilled types, especially for Black people and negative in so far as providing jobs that are of low wage, especially for Black people. They are negative in so far as creating and deepening the class divided within the ecotourism industry. If the economic pillar of the Triple Bottom Line, which states that the 'activity should not simply begin and then rapidly die because of bad business practices; more importantly, it contributes to the economic well-being of the surrounding community,' then it can be concluded that the economic impacts of the ecotourism industry is positive for the business stakeholder component of the ecotourism industry and it is negative for the

overwhelming majority of the surrounding rural communities living just outside the two World Heritage Sites.

7.2.4. Stakeholder Perceptions of Environmental Impacts of Ecotourism

Ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites is resulting in negative impacts of the natural environment. The impacts are both site specific as well as peripheral. The forms of the negative environmental impacts are accommodation and related infrastructure development, animal disturbances, noise pollution, litter along trails, rock art vandalism, erosion of trails, concretising of trails and dumping of solid waste into the natural ground. The Royal Natal National Park in the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park has had electricity and reticulated water constructed within the Park so as to cater for the tourists to the Park. The concretising of trails and the creation of a concrete wheelchair path to the river at the bottom of the mountain is not in keeping with the philosophy of ecotourism. Litter was observed along the trails. The creation of artificial run-offs from trails is supposed to mitigate the soil erosion of the main trail on rainy days. However, the many trails that have been constructed may lead to soil erosion along these many smaller run-offs. Evidence of tourists forming their own trails so as to shorten the distance also meant that barbed wire fencing was erected as a deterrent.

The barbed wire fence, in a World Heritage Site, was unsightly. Animals, except baboons, at the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park shy away from tourists. They seek a more protected environment within the Park. Hence, it is a case of wild animals seeking a protected space within an already protected area. The demand, by tourists, for more goods and services has resulted in talks of further developments within the Park. The declaration of the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park as a World Heritage Site has resulted in developments such as Didima. Accommodation in and around the Park are expanding their businesses. The environmental impacts are, therefore, potential in nature. The thousands of years old Bushmen paintings, at the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, have been vandalised by tourists. Vandalism was in the form of graffiti and sculpturing over the rock art. Graffiti on rocks was a common feature in the Park. The Mnweni Tourism and Cultural Centre is situated in a catchment area and is one

of the few untransformed areas within the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. However, there is already evidence of negative environmental impacts of ecotourism.

The Mnweni Tourism and Cultural Centre at the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park disposes of solid waste by digging a hole in the ground and throwing the solid waste into the hole. Besides the site being aesthetically displeasing, the immediate and long-term impacts of such a system of solid waste disposal will have negative impacts on the natural environment. With more tourists visiting the Centre, solid waste will increase together with the demands on solid waste management. Solid waste will impact negatively on the soil, the ground water, the produce that grows from the soil, the animals that feed off the produce and the rural community and others that depend on the produce from the soil.

Vandalism of rock art at Mnweni is also evident. Ecotourism to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park is resulting in negative environmental impacts. Bird and animal feeding and resting life are constantly disturbed by tourists eager to take photos and by boat operators moving in closer. Noise from boat engines is evident.

7.3. Recommendations

7.3.1. Recommendation for Social Impacts

The use-value of the social and cultural capital of the rural communities residing outside the two World Heritage Sites will eventually be eroded within a capitalist or a market-driven economy. Hence, recognising the incentive nature of the capitalist economy, it is therefore appropriate that the social and cultural resources of the local community be incentivised so as to motivate certain components of the rural community to keep their culture. Cultural products such as music, dance, dress, languages, etc. should be commodified and serve as products for exchange value.

Local communities had been coerced into moving out of the now Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. The community of Dukuduku Forest are under constant pressure of moving out of the forest. Khula Village has been designated as a resettlement area. The

Obanjaneni communities were once inhabitants of the now Royal Natal National Park. An informal discussion with a community member of the Mnweni Cultural and Tourism Centre revealed a plan to resettle the communities of Mnweni. Conservation and its bed partner, ecotourism, have and are drastically changing the social lives of the local communities around the two World Heritage Sites. The communities that once owned land in the now Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park, may accept financial compensation for their land or they may own the title deed to the land they have rights to but they may not occupy the land. Such measures serve to compensate a people that were treated unjustly. Some communities have decided to utilise their land for ecotourism development. However, the measures of resettlement and compensation do not allow for a sustainable way of life for all of the community members that were evicted. Also, the owners of these title deeds are now expected to compete in a system that requires capital, skills, business acumen, etc. such that they may practise some form of livelihood generating activities. That being the case, these communities must be supported in all ways to function within a capitalist system. Support, in the form of skills training for the ecotourism industry, financial support, capacity building, etc. should be given to the owners of the title deeds of the land such that they would be able to compete within a market economy.

The Mnweni Tourism and Cultural Centre has earmarked upon engaging the services of households within the community in terms of accommodation, meals, cultural exchange, etc. Such households may be said to form satellite components of the Mnweni Tourism and Cultural Centre. In this way, households may remain within the Parks and be of exchange value for the tourists and of use value for the inhabitants. In this way, any social impacts, whereby the households are forced to leave, from ecotourism could be minimised and appropriately managed. Such a partnership has as its underlying premise the principle of shared benefits as well as shared costs. With regards to the provision of schools, clinics, crèches, old age homes, sports facilities, etc. it is naïve to believe that the ecotourism industry will, out of their goodwill, invest in such projects within the rural community. Within a capitalist system, it is the primary responsibility of government to perform such a task. If the ecotourism industry does embark upon such a venture it is through the policies and regulations that are set down by the different stakeholders that

create a moral environment for the ecotourism industry to invest socially. Hence, all companies in South Africa are requested to have a Corporate Social Investment (CSI) policy. Again, the CSI policy is linked to tax benefits and other incentives. The motivation is again economical! However, if such a mechanism ensures that the desired results are achieved, it has, somewhat, served its purpose. Therefore, appeals should be made to the CSI component of the ecotourism industry to begin churning out schools, clinics, crèches, old age homes, sports facilities, etc.

The ecotourism industry does serve a clientele base that seeks the services of sex and related services at areas surrounding the two World Heritage Sites. Such social engagement could be supported by decriminalising the sex worker industry such that the sex workers are given the same legal and political protection as the animals, plants and trees within the two World Heritage Sites. Both are, after all, attempting to meet a demand. Both should, therefore, be provided with the support resources and political will that allows them to bargain through fair labour practices. To support one industry and relegate the other to the periphery is hypocrisy at its worst. HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted diseases; verbal, physical and sexual abuse; police harassment, etc. should be challenged by existing institutions under a climate that is not governed by fear and hypocritical moralising. The education of both client and service provider will be better supported through donors and other stakeholders that are concerned about the devastating impacts of HIV/AIDS, crime, unemployment, etc. Hence, political advocacy is integral for any expected positive impacts or the reduction of negative impacts on behalf of the so-called negative impacts of the ecotourism industry.

The social fabric of South Africa has been devastated because of undemocratic policies that witnessed race relations at its worst. The legacy of such a policy is still evident within the ecotourism industry. No doubt, race matters and it matters even more when resources are at stake. Such a state of affairs must be dealt with if the negative impacts of the legacy of such a policy are to be minimised and eventually eroded. Hence, the recommendations, as set out in the Black Economic Empowerment (BEE) Tourism Charter and Scoreboard must be vigorously implemented and sustained. The Broad-

Based Black Economic Empowerment policy is intended to include women, the disabled and youth vital for any form of social stabilisation within the South African economy, in general, and the ecotourism industry, in particular. Also, the education of the constituencies of the different stakeholders could serve as a proactive tool in ensuring that the positive social impacts of the ecotourism industry are maximised and that the negative social impacts of the ecotourism industry are minimised. Dialogue amongst the different stakeholders and their respective constituencies is vital for any attempt at sustainable development within the ecotourism industry.

7.3.2. Recommendation for Economic Impacts

The ecotourism industry at the two World Heritage Sites reflects the inherent contradictions of an industry that functions within a capitalist economy. That being the case, the acknowledgement of a widening gap between the rich and the poor will ensure that the appropriate tools are utilised to begin to address such an anomaly. The absorption of the Black majority into the distinctive classes that make up the capitalist system should be enhanced and constraints to their inclusion should be identified and challenged. Tools for such absorption are the policies of affirmative action (taking into consideration both gender and race) and Black Economic Empowerment. The Tourism Black Economic Empowerment Charter and Scoreboard is a tool that is committed towards furthering transformation and Black Economic Empowerment within the tourism sector, in general, and the ecotourism sector, in particular. The key areas focused on by the Charter are ownership, management, employment equity, skills development, preferential procurement, enterprise development and corporate social investment. The creation of Black-owned and Black-empowered small, medium and micro enterprises within the ecotourism sector should receive specialised support from government. Their flourishing should take place within the ambit of the Black Economic Empowerment policy. Their development should, ideally, begin to absorb some of the labour from the unemployed pool. The creation of capitalists, middle managers and workers within the ecotourism industry should be encouraged. The Broad Based Black Economic Empowerment Policy strives to ensure the economic empowerment of not only Black people but women, the disabled and the youth as well.

Any infrastructure development, for ecotourism development, that requires the injection of government resources should utilise the Public Works Programme and the Extended Public Works Programme as a vehicle for such development. Unemployed labour from the surrounding rural communities should be utilised for such infrastructure development. The rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites have utilised their social capital and have organised themselves around associations such as arts and crafts association, maize farmers, women's groups, block making committees, etc. These groups can now transform themselves into co-operatives. The harnessing of one's own strength and the organisation of human resources for the realisation of livelihood strategies, income generation and job creation could be the vehicle of co-operatives.

The principle of co-operatives is that of shared responsibilities and shared benefits. A co-operative is a legally and institutionally supported vehicle that strives to ensure that the economic and social needs and aspirations, through a jointly owned and democratically controlled enterprise organised and operating on co-operative principles, of members are met. The objectives of the Co-operative Bill of 2005 are: to promote the development of sustainable co-operatives; to encourage people who subscribe to co-operative principles to register as such; to promote equity and to facilitate the provision of support programmes for co-operatives, especially those that create employment or benefit disadvantaged groups. In terms of the management of the co-operatives, the Bill states that a board of directors, the number of which is determined by the constitution of the co-operative, must manage the affairs of a co-operative. The performance of their duties is subject to the provisions of the Bill as well as the constitution of the co-operative.

Furthermore, the Bill states that only members may be appointed as directors and that the constitution of the co-operative must state under which conditions a board of directors may delegate their functions to a director or committee or manager. The Bill furthermore sets out the procedure in terms of which a director or manager must disclose any interest in a material contract or transaction. It seems as if there is a great measure of control by the members in that only members may be directors and the board of directors may only consist of directors. Thus the only time where there could possibly not be control by the

members will be when functions are delegated to managers and/ or committees. In all other instances actual members of the co-operative will exercise control, whether in the form of the board of directors and/ or a single director. Hence, the rural communities residing alongside the two World Heritage Sites should transform their already existing committees and organisations into co-operatives and develop new co-operatives for other economic and social ventures whether these ventures are building schools and clinics, producing arts and craft, running a tour company or a lodge, etc.

Ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites, alone, is not able to provide sustainable livelihoods to the rural communities residing alongside the Parks. The mining option at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park was shelved because of the intention of conserving the natural biodiversity of the Park. Ten sites have already been earmarked for ecotourism development within the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. Hence, the development at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park is one of ecotourism as opposed to conservation. Where conservation was once integral, it has now become incidental. Also, it is not the industry *per se* that is the offender for any form of unsustainable development but rather the nature of the industry or the political and economic principles that govern the industry. Also, the ecotourism industry is part of the broader industrial make-up of the globalised world and is linked to the transport industry, the clothing industry, the food and drinks industry, the services industry, the arts and crafts industry, etc. Hence, allowing the ecotourism industry *carté blanche* at the two World Heritage Sites is preferential treatment and tantamount to the monopolisation of Third World resources. Hence, the mining option at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park should be considered in so far as addressing the plight of the many poor and unemployed people that have been made to believe that they would be rescued by ecotourism to the two World Heritage Sites.

For those that are not employed by any industry, in general, or the ecotourism industry in particular, the means for subsistence living must be ever-present. The primary means for subsistence livelihood is land and, hence, such communities should always have access to land for their livelihoods. To disengage the indigenous communities from a nature or a

subsistence economy with the promise of jobs is a recipe for social disaster. The choice between a nature-based economy and a money economy must always present themselves as options for the custodians of the natural resources that reside alongside the two World Heritage Sites as opposed to false promises and unsustainable livelihood strategies. In a developing country such as South Africa, the nature-based economy and the money economy should be allowed to co-exist. Hence, the assurance of tangible means for a sustainable livelihood should underpin any negotiations around resettlement, especially for the people of Mnweni in the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Mountains and the people of Dukuduku Forest at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park.

7.3.3 Recommendation for Environmental Impacts

Environmental impacts at the two World Heritage Sites should be mitigated or avoided through legislation, EIAs, monitoring and evaluation, interpretation and education. Other and more specific tools for the mitigation and monitoring of environmental impacts at the two World Heritage Sites are consumer (education, fines), suppliers (education, fines), regulation of industry (education, carrying capacity of destination areas, carrying capacity of tour operators, certification), environmental policies and environmental management. All tools are important for managing the contradictions of sustainable development, within a capitalist system, but they gradually lose their impact unless the foundation layer (economic regulation on both a national and global scale) is regulated. With regards to protected areas, we must ask the question from what or from whom are we protecting these Parks? Are these areas protected from natural disasters, indigenous people, tourists, the middle class, the capitalist class or the working class?

Ecotourism at natural area destinations takes place on the terms of the tour operator and the tourists. So as to minimise the environmental impacts ecotourism should take place on the terms of the fauna and flora that is found at these destinations. For example, instead of tourists driving about in wilderness areas to view wildlife, impacts may be lessened if animal sighting spots be designated within the Parks at less sensitive areas. If animals do come to these spots then it is a bonus for the tourists. If they don't then the rights of those animals should be respected. In this way the ecotourism industry will be

operating, to some degree, on the terms of a part of the natural environment. Such regulation will prevent tourists and their guides from stopping at almost nothing to get a look at wild life.

Solid waste as a by-product of the ecotourism industry at the two World Heritage Sites is a reality. Parks have dealt with this environmental hazard in various ways - from placing bins alongside trails, to digging holes in the earth and to engaging the services of the local municipality to redistribute the waste. The Royal Natal National Park at the Northern uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park sorts out their solid waste. Such sorting is done by the local community. Hence, there are economic spin-offs from taking care of the natural environment. Recycling solid waste forms an integral part of the environmental management plan of the Royal Natal National Park. Negotiations are under way with the soft drinks company to take away glass bottles. The Mnweni Cultural and Tourism Centre and other service providers should import some of these ideas into their operations such that environmental impacts may be mitigated.

Demand for accommodation within and around the two World Heritage Sites is growing very rapidly. The two World Heritage Sites are also on an aggressive marketing campaign to attract more visitors, especially foreign visitors, to their destinations. The Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park is even embarking on a name change so as not to confuse its destination with that of the famous and popular St Lucia destination in the Caribbean. Accommodation and infrastructure development is bound to lead to major environmental degradation. The supply of accommodation and related goods to meet such a demand is a distinct reality, especially within a capitalist system. The Mnweni Tourism and Cultural Centre, in the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park, has embarked upon engaging the services of households within the community in terms of accommodation, meals, cultural exchange, etc. Such households may be said to form satellite components of the Mnweni Tourism and Cultural Centre. This form of shared partnership with the existing community and the bigger accommodation businesses should be explored more fully. The transformation of many homes near the two World Heritage Sites into bed and breakfasts lessens the environmental impacts of further development. Hence, instead of further

developments within the two World Heritage Sites, the big businesses should consider partnering with the already existing houses in the area such that the visitor demand for accommodation at the two World Heritage Sites is met.

Specific resource and energy-utilisation costing at the two World Heritage Sites should be explored and debated. Service providers at the two World Heritage Sites provide different pricing systems for different packages, for example, accommodation may or may not include meals. Hence meals may be purchased under different pricing systems. The use of certain forms of entertainment such as adult movies, DSTV, etc. is costed on the basis of client utilisation and is priced specifically. The extension of this principle to energy (electricity) and resource (water) use should be explored. The specific pricing of these commodities is bound to make the tourists make more conservative use of natural resources such as energy and water. A pre-paid card for water and energy use at the two World Heritage Sites could be considered.

However, the social, economic and environmental recommendations suggested are tantamount to focusing on the tree and losing sight of the forest. These recommendations merely attend to the symptoms instead of administering an antidote to the problem. As long as the ecotourism industry is enveloped by a system that is motivated by profit-maximisation, all forms of endeavours, are bound to become, themselves, tools for profit-maximisation. Within the ecotourism industry, the threats to the sustainability of conservation measures are met with sustainable measures such as EIAs, carrying capacity, interpretation, etc. They are necessary to measures to begin to address the threats posed to natural areas. However, whilst they are measures they are reactive in nature. The issue of sustainable ecotourism is an indication that there is something inherently unsustainable about ecotourism. Hence, whilst finding reactive measures is acceptable they do not begin to address the underlying issues of why the industry is unsustainable in the first instance. Sustainable ecotourism measures, thus far conceptualised, are technocratic measures that are constrained by lack of funding, lack of capacity, etc. Hence, a more apt tool is required to deal with the contradictions of the ecotourism industry that is wrapped in a capitalist cloth.

7.3.4. Recommendations for Further Research

Ecotourism in South Africa is relatively underdeveloped and will still have to undergo several stages of development towards maturity. Hence, the findings of similar studies that may be conducted in future will be of interest to all stakeholders that are involved in the ecotourism industry. Similar studies in the future could reveal general as well as specific trends within the ecotourism industry. The impacts of ecotourism may be more pronounced as the industry undergoes maturation and, therefore, further research on the social, economic and environmental impacts of ecotourism at World Heritage Sites is suggested. The researcher also suggests that more detailed research be conducted on the specific components of sustainable development such that more concrete findings could lead to more specific recommendations for sustainable ecotourism, especially in developing countries. With regards to best practices in ecotourism planning and sustainability, it is suggested that research also be conducted into stakeholder networking, policy and planning issues, implementation of plans and duration and frequency of stakeholder meetings.

7.4. Conclusions

In spite of the many challenges, the ecotourism landscape in relation to the two World Heritage Sites is producing a growing business sector, a ballooning middle class and various layers of workers. Within the short space of time of the Parks being declared World Heritage Sites, the ecotourism industry is ensuring that the economic benefits are being maximised whilst at the same time attempting to subscribe to the rehabilitative policies, plans and programmes of the South African Government. In its effort to gain a stranglehold on the Parks the ecotourism industry has eliminated other economic activities such as mining and forestry at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park. Not surprisingly, ecotourism activities are underpinned by the same motive as the forestry and mining activities- one of profit. The painful irony of the declaration of these World Heritage Sites is that whilst they have become places for the rest of the World to enjoy they have also become places of limited and difficult access for the thousands of the local and mostly Black people. The paradox is that the very people that have not tampered with their natural environment for the purpose of exchange value have in numerous articles,

media, fora and discussion circles been branded as destroying their natural environment. It is time that those that do have empirical evidence of such destruction ask why instead of what are they destroying.

“Pro-poor tourism” is a reality only in a “pro-poor” economy. Also, the idea that the natural environment can be conserved in a capitalist economy is a misnomer. That is, the conservation of the natural environment and a market-led economy is a contradiction in terms. Hence, the conservation of the natural environment necessitates that the economy is conserved. Tourism destinations have become privatised and have, hence, been absorbed into the money economy. When visitors stay at a destination for a specified period of time, they have exchanged their money for brief ownership of the destination. That is, a purchase and sale has occurred. Just what is that purchase? It is consumptive in nature. The nature of globalisation must move from a parasitic relationship to a symbiotic and mutual relationship. Only when the interconnectedness of the environment to the millions of poor people in the South and the rich North is acknowledged and not pushed to the backburner can there be real debate around issues of sustainability. Until then the idea of “pro-poor” and sustainable ecotourism is but a fleeting illusion to be pursued but never attained in a “pro-rich” economy. As long as the ecotourism industry rests on a political and economical landscape that is fraught with contradictions (race, class, gender; etc.) it would almost always reflect those contradictions. Such a situation is emerging at the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park and the uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park. The ecotourism sector is entrenching the stranglehold of big capital and, hence, the three pillars of sustainable development, social; economic and environmental are and will be in constant competition with each other.

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APPENDIX 1

SCHOOL OF EARTH SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF
ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF THE ST. LUCIA AREA AND THE
UKHALAMBA DRAKENSBERG REGION IN SOUTH AFRICA.

TOURIST SURVEY

TOURIST PROFILE

1. What is your nationality?

South African	German	British	American	French
Australian	Dutch	Taiwanese	Canadian	Other (specify)

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	

3. Gender

1. Male	
2. Female	

4. Age

1. 0-21	
2. 22-30	
3. 30-40	
4. 41-50	
5. 51-60	
6. >60	

5. Marital Status

1. Single	
2. Married	
3. Separated	
4. Divorced	
5. Widowed	

6. Education

1. Primary	
2. Secondary	
3. Tertiary	
4. Other (specify)	

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)	

8. Income in rands per month

1. 0-10,000	
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	

9. How would you describe your group?

1. Alone	
2. Family	
3. Friends	
4. Tour group	
5. Business colleagues	
6. Other (specify)	

10. Why did you visit South Africa?

1. Holiday	
2. Business	
3. Visit family and friends	
4. Other (specify)	

GENERAL UNDERSTANDING OF ECOTOURISM

11. What environmental studies have you done?

1. None	3. School	5. University
2. Self taught/reading	4. Technical	6. Other (specify)

12. How often do you read environmental, nature or wildlife magazines?

1. Never	2. Sometimes	3. Frequently	4. Always
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13. Do you belong to any conservation, environment, or outdoor recreation organizations?

1. Yes	2. No
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14. Where would you place yourself on the following scale?

1. Not an environmentalist	2. Slightly environmentalist	3. A strong environmentalist
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15. How would you describe your understanding of the following concepts? (Please insert the number)

(Scale: 1=none 2=vague 3=general 4=good 5=detailed)

1. Rainforest ecology		4. Ecotourism	
2. Conservation of natural areas		5. Sustainability	
3. Biodiversity		6. World Heritage	

16. 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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17. Please rank the following from 1-10 with regards to sustainable ecotourism.

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	

18. What is/are your reason/s for visiting the uKhahlamba/ Gr. St. Lucia Park?

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)	

18.1. Which is the most important reason for visiting the uKhahlamba/ Gr. St. Lucia Park?

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)	

19. How did you travel to uKhahlamba/GSLWP?

1. Aeroplane	3. Own Vehicle	5. Conducted Tour
2. Bus	4. Hired Vehicle	6. Other (specify)

20. How often do you travel?

1. Rarely	2. Frequently	3. Always
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21. How did you find out about uKhahlamba/ Gr. St. Lucia Park?

1. Television	
2. Travel brochures	
3. Word of mouth	
4. Internet	
5. Printed media	
6. Tour operators	
7. Hotels/motels/lodges	
8. Environmental organisations	
9. Other (specify)	

22. How many times have you visited South Africa?

1. once	
2. twice	
3. thrice	
4. 4 times	
5. Other (specify)	

23. Will you visit South Africa again?

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

24. How many times have you visited uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Parks?

1. once	
2. twice	
3. thrice	
4. 4 times	
5. Other (specify)	

25. Will you visit the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Parks again?

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

26. Have you visited natural parks in other parts of the world?

1. Yes	
2. No	

26.1. If yes, how would you rate the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park amongst the other parks?

1. Best	
2. 2 nd best	
3. 3 rd best	
4. Least best	
5. Don't know	

27. How long will you be spending at uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Parks?

1 night	2 nights	3 nights	4 nights	5 nights
6 nights	7 nights	8 nights	9 nights	Other (specify)

28. Did you engage in any of the activities INDEPENDENTLY at the uKhahlamba/ Gr. St. Lucia Park?

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

29. Did you engage in any of the following GUIDED activities at the uKhalamba/Gr. St. Lucia Wetlands Park?

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

30. What type of accommodation are you using?

1. Day trip	3. Family and friends	5. Lodge	7. Caravan
2. Camping	4. Hotel	6. Camp	8. Other (specify)

31. How would you rate your satisfaction levels in terms of the following activities/services?

1. Cost of travel to region	
2. Cost of travel within region	
3. Ease of travel within region	
4. Availability of lodging	
5. Cost of lodging	
6. Quality of lodging	
7. Availability of information	
8. Availability of local food	
9. Cost of food and drink	
10. Availability of arts and crafts	
11. Cost of arts and crafts	
12. Wildlife viewing	
13. Opportunities to meet locals	
14. Natural scenery	
15. Friendliness of residents	
16. General service	

CODES:

1=excellent	2=very good	3=good
4=satisfactory	5=poor	

32. Would you recommend friends and relatives to visit the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park?

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

33. During your visit, did you report a problem that you experienced?

1. Yes (if yes please answer question G)	
2. No	

33.1. Was this problem resolved to your satisfaction?

1. Yes	
2. No	

34. Your feelings towards the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park can best be described as:

1. Very satisfied	
2. Quite satisfied	
3. Satisfied	
4. Not satisfied	
5. Very unsatisfied	
6. Don't know	

35. 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	
6. Don't know	

SOCIAL IMPACTS

36. Have you met any of the local community whilst staying at the Park?

1. No	
2. Yes	

37. Would you be keen to meet and learn about the local people and their cultures?

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

38. 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 tourist 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
5 Don't know

39. Have you as a tourist to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park/ uKhahlamba Region engaged in any of the following activities in the surrounding communities:

Soliciting of local people for sexual favours	
Gambling	
Drunken behaviour	
Prejudice	
Don't know	
Other (other)	

ECONOMIC IMPACTS

40. State your response to the following statement: **The term sustainable tourism has been adopted by the tourism industry for economic, public relations and marketing reasons:**

1. Agree	
2. Strongly agree	
3. Neutral	
4. Disagree	
5. Strongly disagree	
6. Don't know	

41. How much money have you allocated for the trip to South Africa? (If foreign tourist)

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)	

42. What %age of the cost was spent on:

1. Transport	
2. Visa	
3. Accommodation	
4. Food and Drinks	
5. Travel in and around host country	
6. Souvenirs	
7. Clothing	
8. Tourism levies	
9. Community development	
10. Other (please specify)	

CODES

1. 1%-5%	1
2. 6%-10%	2
3. 11%-20%	3
4. 21%-40%	4
5. 41%-60%	5
6. 61%-80%	6
7. 81%-100%	7

43. Which of the commodities in question 8 are not indigenous to South Africa?

1. Transport	
2. Visa	
3. Accommodation	
4. Food and Drinks	
5. Travel in and around host country	
6. Souvenirs	
7. Clothing	
8. Tourism levies	
9. Community development	
10. Other (please specify)	

44. Do you think that the local communities have a role to play in sustainable ecotourism?

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

45. If yes, please elaborate.

46. Do you think that the local communities should benefit from tourism to the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Parks?

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

46.1. If yes, please elaborate.

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

47. Did you experience the following at the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park?

1. Overcrowding	
2. Over-development	
3. Unregulated recreation	
4. Pollution	
5. Wildlife disturbances	
6. Vehicle use	
7. Other (please specify)	

48. Which negative environmental impacts have you observed at uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park?

1. Vegetation damage	
2. Polluted rivers and watering holes	
3. Taunting of animals	
4. Too many tourists	
5. Soil erosion of trails	
6. Litter	
7. Other (specify)	

49. Which of the following do you **FEEL** have the **POTENTIAL** to affect the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park in general and your **EXPERIENCES** as a tourist/visitor, even if they have no obvious effect at the **PRESENT TIME**?

	Yes	No	Don't know
1. Litter around accommodation			
2. Erosion in Park/Reserve			
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)			

50. Please indicate how often you do any of the following things with the aim of taking care of the environment (insert appropriate number 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	

51. How do you **PERCEIVE** the following statements regarding uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park?

(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/reserve	
5. Litter around accommodation facilities	
6. Damage to natural vegetation	
7. Erosion along walk trails	
8. Health/condition of wildlife	

52. How do you rate the following measures to make your visit more enjoyable? (Please insert number)

1. Educate visitors more about conservation	
2. Limit the overall number of visitors	
3. Limit the use of "forest area."	
4. Limit the length of stay during peak periods	
5. Provide more visitor facilities	
6. Provide more staff	
7. Limit the number of vehicles to the Park	
8. Other (specify)	

53. How would you rate the following aspects of your stay? (Please inset number)
(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	

54. Has this visit made you think about changing something that you do at home or when you visit natural areas in the future?

1. No	2. Yes (specify)
-------	------------------

55. 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. No	2. Yes (specify)
-------	------------------

56. Overall, how would you rate your enjoyment of your visit to uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park?

1. Not at all enjoyable	2. Slightly enjoyable	3. Extremely enjoyable
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SUGGESTIONS

57. List ways in which the government can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

58. List ways in which the management of the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

59. List ways in which you as a tourist can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

THE END

APPENDIX 2

SCHOOL OF EARTH SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

**THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF
ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF THE ST. LUCIA AREA AND THE
UKHALAMBA DRAKENSBERG REGION IN SOUTH AFRICA.**

TOUR OPERATOR SURVEY

COMPANY PROFILE

1. Name of Tour Company (head office).....
2. When was the company established?
3. How many people own the Company? _____
4. How many women are owners of the Company? _____
5. Could you please state the race of the owner?

Black	White	Indian	Coloured
-------	-------	--------	----------

6. How many workers does the Company employ? _____

7. Please write the number of workers employed by the Company.

1. White men	
2. White women	
3. African men	
4. African women	
5. Indian men	
6. Indian women	
7. Coloured men	
8. Coloured women	
9. Don't know	

8. What are some of your areas and expertise?

1. Strategic planning	
2. Management	
3. Sales	
4. Marketing	
5. Hospitality	
6. Environmental Matters	
7. Community Coordinator	
8. Financial	
9. Other (specify)	

GENERAL

1. What environmental and tourism studies have you done?

1. None	
2. School	
3. Self-taught (reading and experiencing)	
4. Technical	
5. University	
6. other (specify)	

10. How does the company operate?

1. Internationally	Yes	No	Don't Know
2. Nationally	Yes	No	Don't Know
3. Locally	Yes	No	Don't Know

11. What types of package tours do you offer to the uKhahlamba/St Lucia Park?

1. Nature	Yes	No	Don't Know
2. Culture	Yes	No	Don't Know
3. Adventure	Yes	No	Don't Know
4. Other (specify)	Yes	No	Don't Know

12. How would you describe most of your clients?

1. Local	
2. Foreign (specify nationality)	

13. 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
------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-------	-----

14. How would you describe your clients in terms of gender?

Mostly male	Mostly female	Equal distribution
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15. 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)	

16. How do you market your business internationally?

1. Television	
2. Travel brochures	
3. Word of mouth	
4. Internet	
5. Printed media	
6. Other (specify)	

17. How do you market your business nationally?

1. Television	
2. Travel brochures	
3. Word of mouth	
4. Internet	
5. Printed media	
6. Other (specify)	

18. For how long have you operated your tours to the uKhahlamba/St Lucia Park?

1. < 5 years	
2. 5-10 years	
3. 11-15 years	
4. > 15 years	

19. Is your company "supply" or "demand-driven?"

1. Supply driven	
2. Demand driven	
3. Don't know	

20. Do you require a license or permit to operate your company to the uKhahlamba/St Lucia Park?

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

21. What is the average number of tour trips do you make per month to the uKhahlamba/St Lucia Park?

1. <5	
2. 6-10	
3. 11-15	
4. >15	

SOCIAL IMPACTS

22. 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	

23. 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 tourist 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
5 Don't know

24. Do you think that tourism to the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park/ uKhahlamba Region has resulted in any or more of the following with regards to the surrounding communities:

More sex workers in the area	
More casinos in the area	
Lowering of traditional values	
Feeling negative about your culture	
Don't know	
Other (other)	

ECONOMIC IMPACTS

25. How would you describe your company with regards to the following descriptions?

1. Supply driven	
2. Demand driven	

26. What is the average price of the package tours do you offer to the uKhahlamba/St Lucia Park?

1. Nature	
2. Culture	
3. Adventure	
4. Other (specify)	

27. Which months do you run your tours at peak level?

Jan-March	April-June	May-July	Aug-Oct	Nov-Dec	
-----------	------------	----------	---------	---------	--

28. Does your company support local development initiatives?

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

29. If yes, please state what type/s of initiatives:

30. How many (if any) of the local people are employed by your company?

1. None	
2. 1-3	
3. 4-6	
4. Other (specify)	

31. Which statement do you most agree with:

1. The needs of the tourist 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 tourists.	
3. There should be an equal balance	
4. None of the above	

32. How willing are tourists to donate money to local environmental and social causes?

1. Very willing	
2. Somewhat willing	
3. Not interested or willing	
4. Don't know	

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

33. How often do you read any environmental, nature or wildlife magazines?

1. Never	2. Rarely	3. Frequently	4. Always
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34. Do you belong to any conservation, environment or outdoor recreation organizations?

1. Yes	2. No
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35. Does your company have a stated code of ethics and conduct for both the employees and for the visitors?

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

36. 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)

37. Which other Parks and Reserves in KwaZulu-Natal do you visit besides Drakensberg and GSLWP?

1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	
6.	
7.	
8.	

38. What number of tours/trips per month do you make to the Drakensberg and the GSLWP?

1. 0-5	3. 11-15	5. 21-25
2. 6-10	4. 16-20	6. >25

39. Do you think that tourist numbers should be limited to the St. Lucia/ uKhahlamba Drakensberg Parks?

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

40. Do you intentionally limit tour group sizes?

1. Yes	
2. No	

40.1. If yes, could you rank the reasons for limiting tour size?

1. To minimize environmental impacts	
2. To ensure privacy	
3. Ease of handling smaller groups	
4. Safety reasons	
5. Based on capacity of lodges	
6. Allows use of smaller vehicle to access remote areas	
7. Smaller sizes equals a more genuine experience	
8. Manageable, yet profitable size	
9. To minimize cultural concerns	
10. Other (specify)	

40.2. 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 (please specify)	

41. Which of the following means do you use to educate visitors about wildlife, history and culture of the area?

1. Slide shows	
2. Pamphlets	
3. Lectures	
4. Discussions	
5. Interpretation	
6. None	
7. Other (please specify)	

42. Which negative environmental impacts have you observed at uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park?

1. Vegetation damage	
2. Polluted rivers and watering holes	
3. Taunting of animals	
4. Too many tourists	
5. Soil erosion of trails	
6. Litter	
7. Other (specify)	

SUGGESTIONS

43. List ways in which the government can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

44. List ways in which the management of the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

45. List ways in which you as a tourist can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

47. List ways in which your company can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

THE END

APPENDIX 3

SCHOOL OF EARTH SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF THE ST. LUCIA AREA AND THE uKhahlamba-Drakensberg REGION IN SOUTH AFRICA.

ACCOMMODATION PERSONNEL SURVEY

PERSONNEL PROFILE

1. What position do you hold at the St. Lucia/ uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park?

1. Owner	
2. Director	
3. Manager	
4. Worker (specify)	
5. Other (specify)	

2. Gender of respondent

1. Male	
2. Female	

3. Age of respondent

1. 0-21	
2. 22-30	
3. 30-40	
4. 41-50	
5. 51-60	
6. >60	

4. Marital Status of respondent

1. Single	
2. Married	
3. Separated	
4. Divorced	
5. Widowed	

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	

6. Race Classification

African	
White	
Coloured	
Indian	
Other	

7. Nationality

South African	
Nigerian	
Zimbabwean	
Mozambiquan	
Other	

8. Home Language

English	
Zulu	
Xhosa	
Afrikaans	
Other	

9. Disability

Yes	
No	

10. Do you live in the surrounding communities?

1. Yes	
2. No	

10.1. If yes, please state the name of the area.

11. What is the main marketing means of the resort (Drakensberg/ GSLWP) internationally?

1. TV	
2. Radio	
3. Newspaper	
4. Magazine	
5. Word of Mouth	
6. Pamphlets	
7. Internet	
8. Billboards	
9. Other (specify)	

12. What is the main marketing means of the resort (Drakensberg/ GSLWP) nationally?

1. TV	
2. Radio	
3. Newspaper	
4. Magazine	
5. Word of Mouth	
6. Pamphlets	
7. Internet	
8. Billboards	
9. Other (specify)	

13. How would you describe the tourists to the resort (Drakensberg/ GSLWP)?

1. Mostly foreigners	
2. Mostly local	
3. Even distribution	
4. Don't know	

14. How would you describe the race composition of tourists to the resort (Drakensberg/GSLWP)?

1. Mostly White	
2. Mostly Black	
3. Even distribution	
4. Don't know	

15. How would you describe the Gender composition of tourists to the resort?

1. Mostly Male	
2. Mostly Female	
3. Even distribution	
4. Don't know	

16. How often do tour operators bring tourists to the resort per month?

1. <5 trips	
2. 6-10 trips	
3. 11-15 trips	
4. >15 trips	

17. What is your resort'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 (please specify)	

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 (please specify)	

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 (please specify)	

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)	

GENERAL UNDERSTANDING OF ECOTOURISM

21. How would you describe your understanding of the following concepts?

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

22. With which of the following statements do you most associate ecotourism?

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 and visit natural areas and learn more about the wonders that other visitors come to see.	

SOCIAL IMPACTS

23. Is there interaction between tourists to the resort and the local communities?

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

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

1. Excellent	
2. Very good	
3. Good	
4. Satisfactory	
5. Poor	
6. Very Poor	

23.2. Give reasons for you choice above

24. To what extent (if any) are the local communities involved in the activities and decision making of the Park?

1. Not involved	
2. Somewhat involved	
3. Highly involved	
4. Don't know	

24.1. Explain the reasons for the above answer.

25. What are the attitudes of the local communities towards the resort owner/management and staff/

1. Excellent	
2. Very good	
3. Good	
4. Satisfactory	
5. Poor	
6. Very Poor	
7. Don't know	

25.1. Give reasons for you choice above

26. What are the attitudes of the local communities towards the tourists to the resort?

1. Euphoria (excitement)	
2. Apathy (tourist are taken for granted)	
3. Annoyance (misgivings about tourism)	
4. Antagonism (openly displayed irritations)	
5. Don't know	

27. Do you have a code of conduct for tourists concerning interaction with the local community?

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

28. Do you have a code of conduct for tour companies concerning interaction with the local community?

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

29. What, in your opinion, are the negative types of behaviour (if any) of the community that hinders or hinders tourism to the (Drakensberg /GSLWP)?

1. Crime	Yes	No	Don't know
2. Their presence in the area	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Their hunting of wild-life	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Their over-reliance on natural resources	Yes	No	Don't know
5. Their unique cultural activities	Yes	No	Don't know
6. Other (specify)	Yes	No	Don't know

30. What, in your opinion, are the types of behaviour of the community that promotes tourism to the (Drakensberg /GSLWP)?

1. Their presence in the area	Yes	No	Don't know
2. Their unique culture	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Their sustainable use of natural resources	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Their willingness to assist tourism development	Yes	No	Don't know
5. Other (specify)	Yes	No	Don't know

31. What projects has the Park invested in the community?

None	Yes	No	Don't know
Clinics	Yes	No	Don't know
Schools	Yes	No	Don't know
Educational trusts	Yes	No	Don't know
Housing	Yes	No	Don't know
Small business ventures	Yes	No	Don't know
Sports facilities	Yes	No	Don't know
Events	Yes	No	Don't know
Community gardens	Yes	No	Don't know
Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Other	Yes	No	Don't know

32. Do you think that tourism to the (Drakensberg /GSLWP) has resulted in any or more of the following with regards to the surrounding communities?

More sex workers in the area	Yes	No	Don't know
More casinos in the area	Yes	No	Don't know
Lowering of traditional values	Yes	No	Don't know
Feeling negative about your culture	Yes	No	Don't know
Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Other (other)	Yes	No	Don't know

33. Is there a relationship between the community management/staff of the Parks?

Yes	
No	
Don't know	

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

Excellent	
Very good	
Good	
Average	
Bad	
Very bad	

34.1. Give a reason for your choice of answer.

ECONOMIC IMPACTS

35. How long have you worked at the resort (Drakensberg/ GSLWP)?

1. < 5 years	
2. 5-10 years	
3. 11-15 years	
4. > 15 years	

36. 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	

37. Who owns the eco-tourism parks?

Government	
Private business	
The Nosy/Chief	
The community	
Other (specify)	

38. How much income do you think is generated by the resort per month?

0-R1000	
R1000-R10 000	
R10 000- RR50 000	
R50 000- R100 000	
R100 000-R500 000	
>R500 000	

39. Who, if anybody, has the resort approached to develop a partnership with?

Nobody	
The Nkosi/Chief	
Selected members of the community	
Community Based Organisation	
The counsellor	
Don't know	
Other	

39.1. If yes, could you outline the nature of the partnership?

39.2. If a partnership exists, monies are given to:

Community trust fund	
The Nkosi/Chief	
Counsellor	
Community based organisation	
Don't know	
Other	

40. Are any members of the community on the management of the Parks?

Yes	
No	
Don't know	

41. Do you think that the local communities should benefit from tourism to the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Parks?

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

41.1. If yes, please elaborate.

42. Does the Greater St Lucia Wetlands Park/ uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Park charge a tourism levy?

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

42.1. If yes, what is/are the monies used for?

1. Community development	Yes	No	Don't know
2. Park's operating costs	Yes	No	Don't know
3. Park development	Yes	No	Don't know
4. Other (specify)	Yes	No	Don't know
5. Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know

ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS

43. Do you have a code of conduct for tourists concerning Environmental issues?

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

44. Do you have a code of conduct for tour companies concerning Environmental issues?

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

45. Please rank the immediate concerns (if any) of the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park 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)				

SUGGESTIONS

46. List ways in which you think the Parks can contribute positively towards the economic development of the community.

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



48. List ways in which the government can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

49. List ways in which the management of the uKhahlamba/ St. Lucia Park can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

50. List ways in which you as a tourist can promote sustainable and responsible ecotourism:

THE END

APPENDIX 4

SCHOOL OF EARTH SCIENCES

UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

THE SOCIAL, ECONOMIC AND ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM: CASE STUDIES OF THE ST. LUCIA AREA AND THE UKHALAMBA DRakensBERG REGION IN SOUTH AFRICA.

A. COMMUNITY PROFILE

1. Respondent's Personal Details

1.1. Gender

Male	
Female	

1.2. Age of Respondent

<25 yrs	26-35 yrs	36-45 yrs	46-55 yrs	56-65 yrs	>65 yrs
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1.3. Race Classification

African	
White	
Coloured	
Indian	
Other	

1.4. Nationality

South African	
Nigerian	
Zimbabwean	
Mozambiquan	
Other	

1.5. Home Language

English	
Zulu	
Xhosa	
Afrikaans	
Other	

1.6.Disability

Yes	
No	

1.7.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	

1.8. Marital status

Currently married	
Single	
Widowed	
Separated	
Living with partner	
Single	

1.9. Occupation

Unemployed	
Domestic	
Labourer	
Business owner	
Technician	
Manager	
Artisan	
Professional	
Pensioner	
Other	

2. Background information of respondent

2.1. Number of people living in your house-hold?

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

2.2. Sources of monthly income

Sources	Amount in rands
Pensions	
Remittances	
Wages	
Informal income	
Farm-harvest	
Disability grants	
Other state grants	

2.3 Type of dwelling

Type of house	Pre 1994	Post 1994
Own formal house		
Own traditional hut		
Shack/informal		
Formal farmhouse		
Employer provided house		

2.4. Type of sanitation

	Pre 1994	Post 1994
Flush toilet		
Chemical toilet		
Pit latrine		
Bucket toilet		
None		

2.5. Main sources of domestic water

	Pre 1994	Post 1994
Tap water in dwelling		
Tap water on site		
Public tap		
Bore-hole communal		
Rainwater tank on site		
Flowing stream		
Well communal		
Dam/pool		
Spring communal		

2.6. Main sources of energy/fuel for this household

	Pre 1994	Post 1994
Electricity from public supply		
Gas		
Paraffin		
Wood		
Coal		
Candles		
Other		

2.7. Does your household own any land

Yes	1
No	2

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

	Yes	No
Grazing		
Cultivation		

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

Land	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent
Grazing				
Cultivation				

3. HISTORICAL INFORMATION

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

> 5 years	
6-10 years	
11-15 years	
16-25 years	
> 25 years	

3.2. Have you or your family lived elsewhere previously?

Yes	
No	

3.3. If Yes to 3.2 above, why did you move here?

Forced removal	
Better prospects	
Other	

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

	Yes	No
Grazing		
Cultivation		

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

Land	Poor	Satisfactory	Good	Excellent
Grazing				
Cultivation				

B. THE COMMUNITY AND THE ECO-TOURISM PARKS

1. General

1.1. Have you heard of ecotourism to the St. Lucia Area /The uKhahlamba-Drakensberg Region?

Yes	
No	

1.2 . If yes, could you tell me what you understand by eco-tourism?

People visiting to see plants and animals	Yes	No	Don't know
Vacation			
Don't know			
Other (specify)			

C. THE COMMUNITY AND THE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM

1.1. Is there a relationship between the community management/staff of the Parks?

Yes	
No	
Don't know	

1.1.1 If yes, how would you describe this relationship?

Excellent	
Very good	
Good	
Average	
Bad	
Very bad	

1.1.2. Give a reason for your choice of answer.

1.2. Do you depend on any natural resource from the park?

Yes	
No	

1.3. Has the Park invested in any of the following projects in the community?

None	Yes	No	Don't know
Clinics	Yes	No	Don't know
Schools	Yes	No	Don't know
Educational trusts	Yes	No	Don't know
Housing	Yes	No	Don't know
Small business ventures	Yes	No	Don't know
Sports facilities	Yes	No	Don't know
Events	Yes	No	Don't know
Community gardens	Yes	No	Don't know
Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Other	Yes	No	Don't know

1.4. Do you meet the tourists that visit the Parks?

Yes	
No	

1.5. Do you think that tourism to your community has resulted in:

More sex workers in the area	Yes	No	Don't know
More casinos in the area	Yes	No	Don't know
Lowering of traditional values	Yes	No	Don't know
Feeling negative about your culture	Yes	No	Don't know
Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Other (other)	Yes	No	Don't know

D. THE COMMUNITY AND THE ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF ECOTOURISM

1. Who do you think owns the eco-tourism parks?

Government	
Private business	
The Nkosi/Chief	
The community	
Other (specify)	

2. How much income do you think is generated by the Eco-tourism Parks per month?

0-R1000	
R1000-R10 000	
R10 000- RR50 000	
R50 000- R100 000	
R100 000-R500 000	
>R500 000	

3. If a partnership exists, monies are given to:

Community trust fund?	Yes	No	Don't know
The Nkosi/Chief?	Yes	No	Don't know
Counsellor?	Yes	No	Don't know
Community based organisation?	Yes	No	Don't know
Don't know?	Yes	No	Don't know
Other (specify)?	Yes	No	Don't know

4. Who, if anybody, has the Park approached to develop a partnership with?

Nobody	Yes	No	Don't know
The Nkosi/Chief	Yes	No	Don't know
Selected members of the community	Yes	No	Don't know
Community Based Organization	Yes	No	Don't know
The counsellor	Yes	No	Don't know
Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Other	Yes	No	Don't know

5. Do you or any of the house-hold members work at the tourism park?

Yes	
No	

6. Are any members of the community on the management of the Parks?

Yes	
No	
Don't know	

6.1. If yes, complete the ffg. Table.

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

Codes

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

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

Yes	No	Don't know
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7.1. 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)	

D. THE COMMUNITY AND THE NATURAL ENVIRONMENT

1. Do you depend on any natural resource from the park?

Yes	
No	

1.1. If yes, do you depend on any of the following natural resource that is within or close to the Park?

None	Yes	No	Don't know
Water	Yes	No	Don't know
Wood (building, fuel)	Yes	No	Don't know
Plants (food, medicinal)	Yes	No	Don't know
Animals (food, muti)	Yes	No	Don't know
Ancestral worship at specific site	Yes	No	Don't know
Other (specify)			

2. Do you think that tourism to your community has resulted in:

Plant and tree destruction	Yes	No	Don't know
Water pollution	Yes	No	Don't know
Air pollution	Yes	No	Don't know
Vandalism of artefacts	Yes	No	Don't know
Animal depletion	Yes	No	Don't know
Don't know	Yes	No	Don't know
Other (specify)	Yes	No	Don't know

2.1. If yes, could you please elaborate?

SUGGESTIONS

1. List ways in which you think the Parks can contribute positively towards the economic development of the community.

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

THE END