

**CONFLICTS IN SUSTAINABLE UTILISATION AND
MANAGEMENT OF RESOURCES INSIDE THE KRUGER
NATIONAL PARK.**

By

TSAKANI ELIZABETH KHOSA

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

**Masters of Arts
(Sociology)**

in the

**Faculty of Arts
University of the North**

June , 2000

*611990405
i1279143X*

Supervisor: Dr G.G. Hadjivayanis

Co -supervisor : Dr A. Kemp

(i)



229696

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my **Beloved** parents **Jim** and **Martha Khosa**, my brothers: **Chavani, Tshulani, Rhulani, Hlamalani** and **Khensani**.

DECLARATION

I declare that the thesis hereby submitted to the University of the North for the degree of Masters of Arts in Sociology has not been submitted by me for a degree at any University, that it is my own work in design and executive, and that all material contained therein has been acknowledged by means of complete references.

.....*E. Khosa*.....

TSAKANI ELIZABETH KHOSA

JUNE, 2000

* *

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I take this opportunity to acknowledge my gratitude to the following people and institutions.

My supervisors, **Dr G. Hadjivayanis** to whom I owe not only the benefit of scholarly guidance but also the stimulation to think about and say things in a scholarly manner. And **Dr Alan Kemp** for his encouragement and support.

The **National Research Foundation** in conjunction with the **Transvaal Museum**, in Pretoria for the financial assistance which enabled me to complete this study.

The **Social Ecology Staff** at Kruger National Park (**Skukuza**) who assisted me while conducting the study.

Mrs M. Mokone (Department of Social Work- UNIN) through whose assistance I was awarded the scholarship.

Prof B.C. Nindi (Head Sociology-UNIN) who recommended that I be granted the scholarship to further my studies.

Dr L. Kasanga (Department of English -UNIN), who edited the manuscript.

Research assistants, **Enos Munghemezulu** (a nature conservation student at Makuleke) who sacrificed his time to accompany me to Makahlule village about 5km from Makuleke village on foot, and assisted me during the field work. And **Robert Mashao** a nature conservation student at Kruger National Park.

Makuleke Tribal Authority for allowing me to conduct the study at Makuleke and Makahlule villages.

The **Participants** without whom the study would not have been possible.

My parents **Jim** and **Martha** for their love and support throughout the study.

My loving brothers **Chavani, Tshulani, Rhulani, Hlamalani** and **Khensani** for their encouragement, moral support and always believing in me.

And above all, **I** would like to thank **God** for his guidance and support without whom **I** would have not succeeded.

ABSTRACT

The tourism industry in South Africa has during the previous era, been engineered to cater for the needs of the minority (whites). Thus ignoring the social needs of communities residing adjacent to National parks.

The researcher firstly conducted a pilot study at Makuleke and the Kruger National Park, then carried out the surveys using the questionnaires and the interview-schedules.

The present study seek to investigate the impact that apartheid had on impoverishment of communities residing adjacent to National parks, and to promote equal partnership between local communities and National parks. Three major findings emerged from the study. The first finding is that apartheid contributed to the impoverishment of communities adjacent to the National parks.

The second finding is that lack of partnership between national parks and local communities resulted in conflicts between the two. The third finding is that sustainable utilisation of resources depends on the involvement of local communities in the management of these resources. Researchers should therefore, generate more research on how communities residing adjacent to National parks can be assisted through community development projects to start reaping the fruits of good conservation of natural resources.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CONTENTS	PAGE
Title page	(i)
Declaration	(ii)
Dedication	(iii)
Acknowledgements	(iv-v)
Abstract	(vi)
 CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY	
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Problem Statement	1-2
1.3 Broad aims and objectives of the study	3
1.4 Rationale for the study	4
1.5 Significance of the study	4-5
1.6 Definition of concepts	5-6
1.7 Study outline	7
1.8 Conclusion	7
 CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW	
2.1 Introduction	8
2.2 Tourism	8-9
2.2.1 Job opportunities in tourism	9-10
2.2.2 Significance of tourism	10-12
2.2.3 The global significance of tourism	13
2.2.4 Sex tourism	13-14
2.2.5 Tourism and rural development	14-16
2.2.6 Local impact on tourism	16-17
2.2.7 The structure of Internal tourism	17-18

2.3	Ecotourism	19
2.3.1	Paradigms of conservation	19-21
2.3.2	Reasons for conservation	21-23
2.3.3	Conservation and development	23-24
2.4	Sustainable development	25-27
2.4.1	Sustainable rural development	27-30
2.5	Conclusion	30-31

CHAPTER THREE : RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1	Introduction	32
3.2	Methodology	32
3.2.1	Type of study	32
3.2.2	Sampling	32-33
3.2.3	Methods of data collection	33
3.2.4	Data collection procedure	34-35
3.2.4.1	Pilot Study	34
3.2.5	Research Instruments	34
3.2.5.1	Hand-delivered questionnaires	34-35
3.2.5.2	Face to face interviews	35
3.2.5.3	Personal questionnaires	35
3.3	Brief description of the study areas	36
3.3.1	Kruger National Park	36
3.3.2	Makuleke clan	36-37
3.4	Analysis and interpretation of data	37
3.5	Limitations of the study	37-38
3.6	Conclusion	38

CHAPTER FOUR: ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.1	Introduction	39
4.2	Respondent's particulars	39
4.3	Responses on the respondent's gender	39-40
4.4	Responses on the respondent's age-group	40
4.5	Responses on the respondent's marital status	41-42
4.6	Responses on the respondent's size of household	43-44
4.7	Responses on the occupation of the breadwinner	44-46
4.2.6	Responses on the respondent's academic qualifications	47-49
4.3	Relationship between Kruger National Park and the Makuleke community	49
4.3.1	Responses on whether Kruger National Park offer employment opportunities to the Makulekes.	49-50
4.3.2	Responses on whether there are individual(s) in the respondent's families who work at Kruger National Park. *	50-51
4.3.3	Responses on whether tourism in the past has benefited the minority groups	51-53
4.3.4	Responses on how the respondents describe their relationship with Kruger National Park	53-54
4.3.5	Responses on whether the Makuleke community was involved in management of resources at Kruger National Park	54-55
4.3.6	Responses on whether the Kruger National Park sold community products	55-56
4.3.7	Responses on whether there were resources that the community needed from KNP	56-57
4.3.8	Responses on whether lack of partnership between National Parks and local communities resulted in conflict between the two	58
4.3.9	Responses on whether sustainable utilisation of resources depended upon the involvement of local communities in the management of resources	59

4.4	The community economic status	60
4.4.1	Responses on where the majority of people work	60-61
4.4.2	Responses on whether apartheid contributed to the estrangement of the Makalekes towards KNP resources	61-62
4.4.3	Responses on whether Kruger National Park can improve the quality of life of the Makulekes	62-64
4.5	Respondent's particulars (Kruger National Park)	64
4.5.1	Responses on the respondent's gender	64
4.5.2	Responses on the respondent's nationality	65-66
4.5.3	Responses on the respondent's home-language	67
4.5.4	Responses on the respondent's academic qualifications	67-68
4.5.5	Responses on the respondent's occupation	69-70
4.5.6	Responses on the respondent's period of employment at KNP	70-71
4.5.7	Responses on the respondent's monthly remuneration	71
4.5.8	Home-town(s) or village(s) of the respondents	72
4.6	Conservation	72
4.6.1	Responses on which group visited KNP frequently	72-73
4.6.2	Responses on which species are of interest to tourists	73
4.6.3	Responses on who admire birds	73-74
4.6.4	Responses on the ideal time to watch birds	74
4.6.5	Responses on what cause(s) extinction	75
4.6.6	Responses whether it is important to preserve National parks	76
4.7	Tourism	76
4.7.1	Responses on whether the privileged class, local whites and overseas market benefited from tourism	77
4.7.2	Responses on whether the tourism industry in the past did not involve local communities in mainstream tourism	77-78
4.7.3	Responses on whether tourism can boost the country's economy	78-79

4.7.4	Responses on whether tourism can improve the standard of living of locals	79-80
4.8	Conclusion	80

CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1	Introduction	81
5.2	How the study was undertaken	81
5.3	Summary of findings	81-87
5.4	Recommendations	87
5.5	Conclusions	87-88
	Appendices	
	Addendum A Questionnaire (Makuleke)	
	Addendum B Questionnaire (Kruger National Park)	
	Bibliography	
	News paper reports	

* *

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1	Age group distribution	40
Figure 2	Occupation of the breadwinner	44
Figure 3	Relationship: Kruger national Park and Makuleke communities	53
Figure 4	Home language	66
Figure 5	Academic qualifications	67
Figure 6	Occupation	69
Figure 7	Groups visiting Kruger National Park	72

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1	Gender distribution	39
Table 2	Marital status distribution	41
Table 3	Distribution of responses on the number of persons in the household	43
Table 4	Distribution of responses the highest academic qualifications	47
Table 5	Distribution of responses on whether Kruger National Park offer employment opportunities to the community	49
Table 6	Distribution of responses on whether there are individual(s) in families who work at KNP	50
Table 7	Distribution of responses on whether in the past tourism benefited minority groups	51
Table 8	Distribution of responses on how respondents describe their relationship with Kruger National Park	54
Table 9	Distribution of responses on whether communities are involved in the management of resources at Kruger National Park	55
Table 10	Distribution of responses on whether Kruger park sell community products	56

Table 11	Distribution of responses on whether there are resources that people need from KNP	58
Table 12	Distribution of responses on whether lack of partnership between local communities and National parks resulted in conflicts between the two parties	59
Table 13	Distribution of responses on whether sustainable utilisation of resources depends upon the involvement of local communities in the management of these resources	60
Table 14	Distribution of responses on where the majority of people work	61
Table 15	Distribution of responses on whether apartheid contributed to the estrangement of communities towards Kruger National Parks natural resources	62
Table 16	Distribution of responses on whether the Kruger National Park can improve the quality of life of locals	65
Table 17	Gender distribution	66
Table 18	Nationality distribution	70
Table 19	Distribution of responses on period of employment at Kruger National Park	71
Table 20	Distribution of responses on monthly remuneration	73
Table 21	Distribution of responses on which species are of interest to tourists	73
Table 22	Distribution of responses on the ideal time to watch birds	74
Table 23	Distribution of responses on the causes of extinction	75
Table 24	Distribution of responses on whether it is important to preserve National parks	76
Table 25	Distribution of responses whether privileged class, local whites and overseas market benefited from tourism	77
Table 26	Distribution of responses on whether the tourism industry in the past did not involve local communities in mainstream tourism	77

Table 27	Distribution of responses of whether tourism can boost the country's economy	78
Table 28	Distribution of responses on whether tourism can improve the standard of living of locals	79

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The director of Kruger National Park, David Mabunda states that in establishing and consolidating the Kruger National Park during the previous era, traditional wildlife scientists or conservationists were perceived to put more value on wildlife than on human life. Many black communities were uprooted from their traditional homes to make way for animals, with great moral and material loss. As a result of these 'forced removals', relationships with neighbouring communities became sour (Custos, 1998: 7).

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

Tourism in South Africa was for a long time geared to cater for local white and overseas markets. Thus it became an industry for the minority groups (RDP, 1994). The policy of apartheid created various forms of spatial inequalities, identifiable in discriminatory laws such as the Group areas Act of 1950 and the Separate Amenities Act of 1953. These spatial inequalities inevitably overlap into the natural recreation environment or system Magi (1989: 326). All aspects of tourism were provided on racial basis including infrastructure, lodging and even national parks, game reserves and recreational areas (RDP, 1994). In many quarters the tourism industry is still seen as a thing for the past a play thing for the previously privileged class (White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism, 1996).

Magi (1989:326) argues that South Africa is a plural society which is divided socio-economically on ethnic lines, with the white minority constituting the 'haves' and the black majority the 'have nots'. Certain social scientists (Mphahlele, 1974; Butler Adam, 1984; Magi, 1986) have argued that the situation prevailing in South Africa has a profound effect on how blacks perceive and evaluate the natural recreation environment, although the degree to which this influence is evident is extremely difficult to measure in practical terms.

Another major problem facing the South African tourism is the poor involvement of local communities and previously neglected groups. While this has been largely due to the previous government's policies, the need to reverse this situation is of great importance (White Paper on Development and Promotion of tourism, 1996). There are negative attitudes that exist within the industry towards community tourism products which are sometimes viewed with skepticism and regarded as inferior. There is often a view that what is white and western is the best. The value of the previously neglected people and their products often tends to be depreciated (White paper on Development and promotion of Tourism, 1996). The indigenous people of South Africa perceive nature in a different way from that of scientists. They do not see nature as an inventory of natural resources but as a presentation of the spiritual and cosmic forces that makes life what it is (Simelane, 1997).

Conservation and environmental preservation have always been linked to broader political imperatives in the South African countryside (Beinart, 1989; Brook, 1992). Efforts to conserve fragile ecologies were, for example used to maintain the division between "black" and "white" land legislated under the Land Acts of 1913 and 1936. In the decades after the election of the apartheid government in 1948, the massive population removals of Africans from "white" to "black" rural areas led to new and increasingly unpopular conservation measures to deal with the influx of people to land which was already overcrowded and under stress (Yawitch, 1981; Platzky and Walker, 1985).

Carruthers (1995) argues that the fact that some communities were forcibly evicted from the Kruger National Park, impinges on issues of redistributing land from South African National Parks to those groups which originally occupied it and may threaten some nature conservation endeavours. Not only was wildlife conservation legislation itself discriminatory against Africans, but there were also restrictions on trespassing, fire-arms and dog ownership and a ban on all trapping of wildlife. Kakonge and Imvobore (1994:8) states that past experience indicates that lack of local participation has contributed to the failure of environmentally orientated projects in Africa.

The indigenous South Africans were not the only people who were alienated from natural resources in the world. The same situation happened in Kenya and Zambia after the introduction of national parks and game reserves.

1.3 BROAD AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The broad aims of the study are:

- 1.3.1 to investigate the contribution of apartheid laws to the impoverishment of communities adjacent to the National Parks.
- 1.3.2 to explore ways in which local communities can be involved in the conservation and management of resources inside the Kruger National Park.
- 1.3.3 to determine ways in which resources can be utilised sustainably for community development.
- 1.3.4 to explore and suggest ways and means of creating sustainable employment opportunities for communities adjacent to the Kruger National Park.
- 1.3.5 to promote equal partnership between local communities and Kruger National Park Authorities.
- 1.3.6 to promote pride in the cultural resources of local communities adjacent to the Kruger National Park.

1.4 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

There is little information on studies conducted about the sustainable utilisation of resources by communities living adjacent to the National parks in South Africa. During the apartheid era black people had no rights regarding access to resources inside the National Park. The proposal of sustainable utilization of resources by local communities is still a new concept in South Africa, which came after the first democratically elected government in 1994. The study was conceived as an experiment since the involvement of local communities in sustainable utilization of resources inside National Parks is still a new paradigm in South Africa. The study aims to propose strategies in which previously neglected groups i.e. blacks who were forcefully removed from their ancestral land to pave way for the erection of National Parks, can be allowed to use the resources in their ancestral land sustainably for the development of their communities and thus improve their standard of living.

1.5 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance of the study is four-fold:

- 1.5.1 The study is worthwhile since there is little information on research done on the subject.
- 1.5.2 The study will also ensure the harmonisation of relationships amongst the different stakeholders through mutual partnership and consultation with local communities.
- 1.5.3 The study will ensure that local communities enjoy full benefits that tourism offers in terms of employment opportunities, management of resources and promotion of cultural pride.

- 1.5.4 The study will contribute to the understanding of the impact of apartheid policies on the exclusion of the majority groups (Africans) to the benefit of minority groups (Whites) on the tourism industry.

1.6 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

1.6.1 National park

A national park can be defined as a large piece of land, lake, wetland or a portion of the sea, which is preserved in its natural state, together with all plants and animals which occur there. This includes natural features such as soil and the geology of an area as well as man-made structures of cultural and historical importance, which makes the area exceptional. The bushveld of the Kruger National Park, the shrubs of the Karoo National Park and the red sandunes of the Kalahari Gemsbok National Park are all examples of particular natural landscape (Custos, 1998: 34). For the purpose of this study a national park refers to a piece of land where natural resources such as, birds, reptiles, mammals, amphibians, are preserved in their natural environment as a national heritage.

1.6.2 Resource

Bekkes (1989) definition of resources as “those components of an ecosystem which through labour provide goods and services useful to man” applies to this study.

1.6.3 Ecology

Spellerberg (1996) defines ecology as science of the study of interrelationships between living organisms and their environment. This definition has been adopted in this study.

1.6.4 Sustainable development

Repetto (1986) defines sustainable development as a development strategy that manages all assets, natural resources, human resources as well as financial and physical assets, for

increased long-term wealth and well-being. In this study sustainable development refers to ways in which natural, human, financial, and physical resources are used effectively to ensure well-being in the longrun.

1.6.5 Rural development

Hunter (1976) defines rural development as the process of improving living standards of the low-income population residing in rural areas and making the process of their development self-sustaining. In this study rural development means improving the standard of living of the poor in rural areas who are economically less fortunate, through development projects.

1.6.6 Ecotourism

Ecotourism is defined as environmentally and socially responsible travel to natural or near natural areas that promotes conservation, has low visitor impact and provides for beneficially active socio-economic involvement of local people (White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism, 1996). This definition has been adopted in this study.

1.6.7 Previously neglected communities

Previously neglected communities are population groups that were largely excluded from mainstream tourism activities (White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism, 1996). In this study "previously neglected communities" refers to communities such as the Makuleke community which was forcefully removed from their ancestral land inside the Pafuri section of the Kruger National Park to be relocated at drought-stricken Ntliaveni, and became alienated from resources and activities of the Park.

1.7 Study Outline

Chapter one: General Orientation of the study

Chapter two: Literature Review

Chapter three: Research Methodology

Chapter four: Analysis and discussion of data

Chapter five: Summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations

1.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter, has attempted to bring together information on the comprehensive view of the study namely the general orientation of the study, the broad aims and objectives of the study, the rationale for the study, the significance of the study, the definition of concepts and the study outline.

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

South Africa is a well-known and often a sought-after tourist destination. Advertising campaigns refer to it as a 'world within one country' because of the multiplicity of cultures and diversity of landscapes, its flora and fauna. Closer examination of the tourism industry in this country ironically suggests that there are several perceived 'worlds in one country'. It appears as if the needs of international tourists visiting South Africa and of white South Africans are very far removed from the needs and harsh realities experienced by the black people of this country, especially those living in third-world, rural settings (Odendaal and Schoeman 1990:195).

This chapter will review literature on the following themes: tourism, conservation and sustainable development.

2.2 TOURISM

Firstly, it is important to recognise that tourism is just one form of recreation along side sports activities, hobbies and pastimes, and all of these activities are discretionary uses of our leisure time (Holloway, 1994). Tourism may be defined as the movement of people away from their normal places of residence. Tourism is both an industry and a response to a social need. Its products includes all elements that combine to form the tourism consumer's experiences and exists to service these needs and expectations (Smith; 1990).

According to Foster (1985) there are five types of tourism. Firstly there is **recreational tourism**, which is what most people have in mind when "tourism" is mentioned. This is where mass and popular package tours, involved in substantial sized groups seek mainly sun-sea-sand, fresh air or sporting activities of various kinds. The people engaged in recreational tourism are primarily seeking a change of environment and rest. A family going on holiday to Durban or Cape Town during the festive season would be an example of recreational tourists.

Secondly there is **cultural tourism**, the aim of which is to experience new cultural activities e.g. (folklore, art, music). An international tourist from America visiting the Tsonga Kraal in the Northern Province to experience the Tsonga-Shangaan culture will belong to this type of tourism.

Thirdly there is **historical tourism**, which involves visits to heritage locations, museums, cathedrals, monasteries. Fourthly there is **ethnic tourism**, which involves contacts with unusual or quaint costumers in remote areas, visiting the family's country of origin and relatives and friends. Finally, there is **environmental tourism** when the higher income groups in particular, are interested in visiting remote or pure environment.

2.2.1 JOB OPPORTUNITIES IN TOURISM

The majority of disadvantaged people in the rural communities believe that the tourism industry will provide them with sustainable job opportunities at better salaries. The rural poor believe that they will be the major beneficiaries in the tourism industry. However, the industry is controlled by multinational companies in developed countries. It is only the capitalists in industrialised countries as well as the third world elites who mainly benefit from tourism.

Harrison (1992) states that elites in many less developed countries (LDC) actively promote tourism and the benefits accruing to LDC through tourism are rarely distributed equally. As with other labour-intensive industries, few jobs in tourism are well paid as numerous critics have noted. Women especially carry out many of the lower status jobs in the tourist hierarchy not merely because they are cheaper than men but because in many respects

status jobs in the tourist hierarchy not merely because they are cheaper than men but because in many respects 'travel' for self employment. As tourist services are provided by many small units the latter may often represent a significant proportion of a total manpower.

Much tourist activity is seasonal and numbers employed vary a great deal from one time of the year to another. Tourism as a source of employment is particularly important for areas without alternative sources of employment, as is often the case in non-industrial areas deficient in natural resources other than climate and scenic attraction (Burkart and Medlik, 1974).

2.2.2 SIGNIFICANCE OF TOURISM

Tourism in the past was often ignored for its role in the economy especially by ordinary civilians in South Africa. Only the minority groups understood the importance of tourism. As a result they were the ones who studied tourism and nature conservation courses. On the other hand, blacks had no clear idea of the importance of this field. It is only now that more and more blacks are orientated to tourism and nature conservation because of many diplomates and graduates from colleges and universities who constitute thousands of the unemployed. Today the tourism industry in South Africa is seen as the answer to the country's economic crisis as more and more gold mines are being closed down. The tourism industry is now seen as the new 'gold' for the country.

Van Harssel (1994) states that the first major international conference, totally dedicated to discussing the theme of "Tourism: A vital force for peace" was held in Vancouver, Canada in October 1988. The conference attracted 800 motivated participants from 67 countries and featured 20 keynote addresses from prominent international leaders including videotaped messages from President Reagan and Pope John Paul II.

The conference served to broaden awareness of the potential for tourism, the world's largest industry, to contribute to:

- (a) greater mutual understanding, trust and goodwill among people of the world;

- (b) an improved quality of environment, both built and natural;
- (c) the World Conservation Strategy of "Sustainable Development".

Burkart and Medlik (1974) state that tourism creates a better appreciation of other peoples' way of life and institutions. And tourism may create goodwill for a country. When travelling away from home, tourists come in contact with places they visit and with their inhabitants and social exchange takes place. Tourists are in turn affected by the experience and often carry back home with them new habits and new outlook on life.

Tourism also has an **educational significance**: in the widest sense it has altogether a beneficial effect which contact between people of different races and nationalities can bring about. In a narrower sense much tourist activity takes the form of study trips and attendance at courses and conferences with specified pleasure and adventure. Burkart and Medlik (1974) state that the provision of tourist services generates employment. However, the problems of defining the industry are particularly apparent when tourism is considered as an employer of labour. There are two main difficulties of analysis.

Firstly, those mainly employed in the same or similar activities but not concerned with tourism. Thus hotels are usually combined with restaurants and often with other catering activities in official statistics. Employment in various forms of transport is shown irrespective of its relationship with tourism, employment in smaller sectors such as travel agencies is usually not enumerated separately. Secondly, statistics of employment normally cover only employees and not others working as employers.

Tourism is often accompanied by cultural exchanges and by cultural enrichment of those who travel and attract tourists to destinations such as: architecture, historical monuments and the birth places of most famous people are amongst the places most visited by tourists (Burkart and Medlik, 1974). For example Robben Island where the first black president of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, was imprisoned for almost three decades and the house he lived in before his imprisonment at Orlando West in Soweto are now some of the major tourist attractions in South Africa.

The **economic significance** is the main important aspect of tourism, especially the money earned in places of normal residence is spent in places visited. Foster (1985) argues that tourism can mainly benefit developing countries in the provision of jobs, the increase in income, and the improvement of living standards. Operational skills are simple and can be quickly mastered by people with even moderate education. Secondly, in many countries (mainly island countries) like Mauritius, Barbados and Trinidad & Tobago, tourism is the major, sometimes, the only employer. Employment can be created with relatively low investment in fixed assets per employee. Thus many countries with few or limited exportable products but with a large number of unemployed people give priority to the development of tourism. In such countries receipts from international tourism account for a high proportion of their national income. For many others, it is their main source of foreign exchange.

Thirdly, government revenue may also be increased through taxes and import duties on goods and services imported for tourism purposes. Fourthly, the development in hotel tourism requires investments in airports, roads, public transport, telecommunications, and public facilities. Thus the improvement of the infrastructure and super-structure creates long term benefits for other parts of the economy. (Foster, 1985).

McIntosh et al (1995) states that in Kenya most game lodges are managed by well - educated personnel. But below them it is usually the local people of the area (Maasai, Samburu, etc) who supply the manual labour and other semi-skilled and skilled positions such as cooks, waiters, housekeepers, drivers, maintenance and others. After a number of years these workers gain experience and are readily promoted to positions such as bartenders, food and beverage captains, and head waiters, head gardeners, chefs and head housekeepers. The other employment is as hunting guides. Another dimension in tourism employment is self-employed artists who make wood carvings, gem stone jewellery and artifacts. This is a thriving industry in Kenya and supports a sizeable population, especially at or near tourist centers. These artists are self-taught or learn their craft from parents or friends as they become more skilled over the years.

2.2.3 THE GLOBAL SIGNIFICANCE OF TOURISM

To many South Africans tourism is often seen in isolation to the world's tourism. However tourism in South Africa is linked to the rest of the world. Van Harsel (1994) states that tourism is now the world's largest industry with revenues (including both domestic and international travel) approaching US \$ 2,5 trillion (an amount two times greater than world military expenditures).

Tourism is the world's second largest export industry after oil and represents 25 percent of international trade in service. Domestic and international travel combined account for 10-12 percent of gross world products. More than 100 million persons are employed by the world tourism industry either directly or indirectly. Prospects for the continued growth of world tourism appear to be most promising. Societal trends are favourable to the continued growth of demand, and low-cost air travel is becoming increasingly available. As well the governments of the world are playing a stronger role in encouraging the growth of both domestic and international tourism as a means of job creation, economic diversification, and a source of foreign exchange.

Tourism, properly designed and developed, has a potential to help bridge the psychological and cultural distances that separates people of diverse races, colours, religions and stages of social and economic development. Through tourism we can come to an appreciation of rich human, cultural and ecological diversity that our world mosaic offers, to evolve a mutual trust and respect for one another and the dignity of all life on earth (Van Harsel, 1994).

2.2.4 SEX TOURISM

Sex tourism can be defined as tourism where the main purpose of motivation is to consummate commercial sexual relations (Graburn, 1983). Prostitution is regarded by many as evil and immoral by those who are against it. However it is seen as functional and useful for the pool of the unemployed and those without any means of survival. The majority of South Africans live in rural areas where poverty and unemployment are major social

problems. As a result, South Africans from disadvantaged backgrounds move to the so-called urban areas in search for a better life. Usually, they find themselves, instead, in worse conditions like the ones they faced at their rural villages. They find themselves in desperate conditions and end up in brothels where they sell their bodies in exchange for money.

In South Africa this industry is so big that there are agencies which are operating country-wide to cater for the needs of domestic and international tourists. To the prostitutes this is a very good business as it is a means of earning a living. When international tourists are involved it involves a lot of money.

According to Gay (1985) "Between 70 and 80 percent of male tourists travel from Japan, United States, and Western Europe to Asia do solely for purpose of sexual entertainment". We tend to focus on the good side of tourism, such as believing that through tourism jobs will be created however if there are no opportunities of employment people are left with no other choice but to engage in what is refereed as "commercial sex", where an individual be it male or female has sexual relations with a client for financial gain. There are tourists who tour on their own leaving their partners at home so to them, the only way to satisfy their sexual needs away from home is through buying the service. The relationship between tourism and prostitution has come to be regarded particularly as strong in third world countries (de Kadt, 1979; O'Grady, 1981). A primary attraction is the important cost differential that exists in the provision of both tourism and sexual services in the third world and in the industrialised world. This cost differential with the attraction of the exotic, provides a draw card to sex tourists in large numbers for third-world destinations and has been reported in Africa. Encouraging sex tourism will also lead to an increase in incurable diseases such as Aids and other sexually transmitted diseases.

2.2.5 TOURISM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

South Africa's tourism industry in the past developed in isolation to rural development. The failure of the tourism industry to integrate tourism with improving the standards of living, especially for the rural poor, resulted in the industry seen as of no importance especially to the rural poor. For example the Makuleke community was forcefully removed from their ancestral land inside the Kruger National Park where they depended on natural resources

such as fish and game for subsistence to be relocated to a place where there were no such natural resources. 'The Makulekes starved and died of hunger and poverty when there were plenty of resources with which they would have survived' on the other side of the fence' (inside Kruger National Park). Not only were they dumped at Nthlaveni, but the park's authority and the regime of the day then did nothing to ensure that the rural community was developed. (Koch, 1998: 72).

One of the most valuable Southern African publications on the impact of tourism in the development of rural areas is by Muller. Muller (1985) indicates that tourism has the potential of benefiting local areas both as a currency earner and by creating employment opportunities in the rural areas. Several third world settings of which Maputaland (Kosi Bay) Northern Natal, is an example of a dearth of primary and secondary resources. In some of these areas tourism offers virtually the only ecologically valuable opportunity for socio-economic development. Great care must be taken to ensure that any project initiated will prove sustainable in the long term. Certain basic requirements must be met by any development project in order to meet the criteria for sustainability. Firstly, any development action must ensure that there is no disruption of ecological systems or exploitation of natural resources. Projects can be regarded as promoting stability if they incorporate measures which will ensure that cultures of societies will not be disrupted and if they promote rationale use of renewable resources.

A second criterion for sustainable development is that the implementation of technological measures should be commensurate with needs in skills, training and finances of people using it. Development thus far has most often been based on technology which is far removed from the needs of the people. This simply means that there is a need to integrate indigenous knowledge with modern technologies.

A third criterion is the implementation of programmes which will ensure self-reliance based on an orientation which reflects the needs of the developing people and is rooted in their efforts and ideals. No programme should be dependent solely on the knowledge, skills and technology of outside experts (Odendaal and Schoeman, 1990: 196). It is important to acknowledge that development which does not recognise the knowledge of locals will not succeed.

Thus tourism development projects should seek indigenous knowledge and incorporate it with western knowledge to ensure sustainability.

2.2.6 LOCAL IMPACT OF TOURISM

Odendaal and Schoeman (1990:198) state that the development of tourism to enhance and stimulate the economic competence and independence of rural areas is related to a creative combination of the utilisation of natural resources and cultural resources on an economically sustainable basis for the benefit of local people. Maintaining a balance between tourism objectives and conversational need in this regard would be very important (Bruton, 1980). The problem, however, is that first-world tourism can easily saturate the resources in rural areas. Young (1973) discusses several possible problem areas in this regard which are outlined below.

Employment structure, it is generally accepted that the introduction of tourism to rural areas bring employment opportunities to the area. This is understandably beneficial as far as the improvement of quality of life is concerned. Several problems do, however, exist in this regard. Firstly, tourism market functions on a seasonal basis. The implication of this is that local people are often employed in this market for certain periods of the year only. Also, local people find it difficult to comprehend that their salaries will not be consistent throughout the year. This could obviously become problematic in terms of the effect it could have on the attitudes to tourism held by local inhabitants. Research shows that local people are normally given very low wages within the tourism markets. Low wages that local residents earn should not be blamed on the tourism industry. It is important to consider the levels of education held by local people, they are often illiterate and without skills needed by the industry this result in them working as general workers, earning less.

A second important issue is the importation of trained staff from other areas. When a tourism market is launched, it is usually found that trained personnel are imported from other areas. This tends to have an adverse effect on local people perceptions of the market. Tourism industry should be planned in such a way that local people could be incorporated into the system as soon as possible. Infrastructure overload and an increase in tourism will necessitate an increase in superstructure. Here one thinks of an increase in transport, in

water supply, electricity, telephones. All these facilities which have to be deployed in the local area could lead to increase in employment opportunities. It must be clearly understood that if these facilities are not adequately planned and are forced onto the people at too rapid rate, the local people will react against them. This could have negative effects on tourism on the one hand and on the lifestyle of local people on the other.

Alienation of locals (psychological saturation), three important themes are usually described in international literature on the issue of alienation of locals (Young, 1973; Pearce, 1982). In the first instance, the literature lists conflict between the demands of tourists on the resources of the local people's. It is often strongly felt that competition between tourists and locals for transport, housing, natural resources could be perceived in a very negative way by local people. Tourism facilities should be supplied in such a way to give local people positive result of tourist as well as the appropriate long-term loyalty of the tourist to the tourist market. Secondly the introduction of first world tourism within third world settings normally leads to a decline in moral standards of local people. Several examples of the increase in prostitution, alcohol abuse and other new possibly immoral issues have been cited by Morovia (1976). In this regard the sudden introduction of other forms of so-called immoral behaviour unknown to local people should be carefully monitored within the area.

The third issue which negatively influences local people is inappropriate architectural designs within local areas. Architectural design should be appropriate within the cultural context of local people and that architecture should fit in with the existing themes in architectural design within the local area. An adaptation of local infrastructural trend which is fit in with the needs of the tourist is extremely important.

2.2.7 THE STRUCTURE OF INTERNATIONAL TOURISM

There is a general perception that the tourism industry of a country will mainly benefit that country. People often tend to be unaware of the negative benefits that developed countries have in tourism of the developing countries. Tourism in developing countries, like the economy, is controlled by the industrialised countries.

Harrison (1992) argues that much of the past literature on tourism and developing countries has discussed the recent growth in the demand and supply of tourism, tourism contribution to income, employment and foreign exchange earning, and the social costs associated with tourism. However there has been a general lack of attention to ways in which such effects are influenced by the interrelationships between tourism industry for example, foreign airlines, tour operators and travel agents. Tourism takes place in an international context dominated by the actions of large foreign firms, whose headquarters are usually in industrialised countries. The benefits and costs associated with tourism development are therefore greatly influenced by nature of relationships between foreign firms and those based in host countries (Harrison, 1992). There is a general perception of conceptualising the tourism industry in general terms, however the tourism industry is a complex organisation or business. Third-world tourism is not independent of first-world tourism, developed countries are the ones who control the industry through multinational companies and airlines. Consequently, in the end, the first world elites, extract capital from third world countries.

The international tourism industry is dominated by firms from industrialised countries. The world's largest airlines are from industrialised countries and although airlines from India and the Republic of Singapore have been amongst the top twenty scheduled airlines (United Nations Centre on Transnational Corporations, 1992); no other developing country appears to have had an independent charter airline of note. The international tour operator circuit has been almost completely dominated by tour operators from industrialised countries (UNCTC, 1988) of the top twenty-six hotel chains in 1978 only one (Indian Oberoi Hotels) was from a developing country. Besides, no chain from developing country operated a chain in an industrialised country (Dunning and McQueen, 1982). The participation of developing countries is usually confined to the hotel sector, local agents, local transportation and part of international transportation sector.

2.2.8 ECOTOURISM

McIntosh et al (1995) states that ecotourism simply means “responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people”. The benefits and importance of ecotourism are that it provides jobs and income for local people; it makes possible funds for purchasing and improving protected or natural areas to attract more ecotourists in the future; it provides environmental education to visitors and Ecotourism encourages heritage, environmental preservation and enhancement.

Singleton (1997:32-33) states that for developing countries in particular, tourism is often seen as the answer to their problems. It brings in currency, creates jobs and encourages local entrepreneurs. While undoubtedly tourism is a source of benefit it can also have negative impact on the economy, society and the environment.

As a philosophy, ecotourism is part of wider concerns with what is known as sustainable development, that is, in the words of the “Brundtland Commission” to ensure that its development meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs. Sustainable development aims to secure the welfare of future generations and not for close their options and choices. Sustainable development recognises the interdependence between the environment and the economy. A healthy economy is essential to maintaining environmental quality and a quality environment is necessary to sustain economic activity. In this context ecotourism is a framework within which tourism can be developed in line with the principle of sustainability.

2.3 CONSERVATION

Conservation can be defined as a careful preservation and protection of something especially planned management of a natural resource to prevent exploitation or neglect.

2.3.1 PARADIGMS OF CONSERVATION

Srivastava (1993) states that there are two paradigms of conservation namely: the old paradigm and the new paradigm.

The Old paradigm of conservation, held that the best way to protect biological diversity was to mark off the territory, build a wall around it and patrol it. The idea was to keep the plants and animals out of reach of hands of human beings. In South Africa the old paradigm of conservation is reflected in the removal of Africans from their ancestral land, rich with wild plants and game which they hunted sustainably. The Makuleke clan was forcefully removed from their ancestral land in the Pafuri section of the Kruger National Park in 1969 (Koch, 1998: 72). In areas of the globe with the most important biological diversity and the humid tropics, rural families ignored the signs around fences and invaded the reserves (Srivastava, 1993). In reaction social science began to blend with biology and a new paradigm emerged. In a nutshell the message of new conservation is this, human beings must be the focus of conservation efforts. Placing people as the focus is sound on ecological, ethnical and economic grounds.

New paradigm of conservation. The new paradigm of conservation still defines its goal as the conservation of biological diversity, but it achieves this goal by working with human beings instead of against them. With the new paradigm of conservation the national parks work with rural communities. It works to achieve the conservation of biological diversity. The tool that allows us to achieve this is economic development with a focus on sustainability through time. The new paradigm concentrates on these questions: how can we satisfy the needs of the current human population without destroying biological diversity and ecological life and other species? Some call this a package of questions in the search for sustainable development. But by any name it is the new paradigm of conservation.

Today conservation sees the enemy not to be people but greed and poverty. There seem to be individuals in every society who are willing to exchange the natural resources of their region and their fellow citizens for their personal benefit. In trying to provide for their basic needs, families without economic alternatives will destroy the very natural resources their lives depend on. In the past, conservation in South Africa operated through the old paradigm of conservation where individuals residing in communities next to national parks were not involved in conservation activities. As a result conflict between conservationists and local people developed. The realisation that ignoring the social problems of people in

terms of rural development and improving the standard of living of the previously disadvantaged communities is a major step in the development of conservation in South Africa.

Srivastava (1993) states that today the new paradigm of conservation is aware that protecting biodiversity is inextricably linked to improving the living conditions of the rural poor. Conservationists understand now that the long-term protection of a natural area depends less on what happens inside a national park than on what happens outside, in the lives and communities of people living on borders of national parks and forest reserves.

In the new conservation paradigm people are the most important allies in keeping biological diversity alive. This new focus seeks to ease rural poverty by helping families in economic and ecological balance with their environment. The recommendations proposed by Srivastava about the new conservation paradigm are being recognised in South Africa. For example the Kruger National Park has a social ecology department which operates as a link between local communities and the park. The Social ecology department looks at the social needs of the communities and how these needs can be achieved through conservation (Smit, 1998: 48).

2.3.2 REASONS FOR CONSERVATION

Champion and Reiss (1995) state that those who support active conservation of wildlife do so solely for a number of reasons, which reflect the different facets of our relationship to the natural world. Some argue from ethical grounds that we should look after the world either because we are the most intelligent species and therefore in charge, or because the world is not ours, we merely hold it in trust for God who created it. It is also important to preserve wildlife for future generations. Whether we own the world or not, our dependents will have to live with the situation we create and it is up to us to leave it as a fit place in which to live. On a local scale the presence of other species and the close proximity of range of ecosystem available for recreational pursuits is a valuable part of our lives. Many thousands of people spend their free time visiting the country side and the remaining wild areas are becoming increasingly popular. This suggests that the conservation of natural ecosystem is an important aspect of the contentment of the human race. Another reason for conservation is that we should maintain global diversity as a resource.

Many undomesticated species have proved useful to human in the past for food or as a source of medicinal compounds and building material.

Lewis and Carter (1993) state that, when the first Europeans entered Africa, they found countless numbers of wild animals and they immediately began to hunt them indiscriminately without any regard to biology or ecology whether an animal was plentiful or scarce. Europeans brought to Africa shotguns and rifles which were much more effective in making big game hunting an everyday event than had been bows and arrows and similar traditional weapons. Inevitably, the wildlife population declined drastically. In the USA, Canada and Brazil colonial settlers did more damage. They exterminated the indigenous people, domesticated animals and plants that put pressure and destroyed the environment. Europeans realised that something had to be done. Instead of looking towards practices that has sustained wildlife in Africa for thousands of years they introduced conservation measures that had been designed and implemented in Europe and North America. The use of animals and plants either as food or as a means of maintaining culture and tradition was prohibited. Anyone who opposed these measures was severely punished. On the other hand one of the major setbacks of colonial wildlife conservation has been the lack of trained African conservationists and researchers.

This stemmed in the past from realities of life in Africa. Where poverty, hunger, malnutrition and debt are common, conservation is not likely to be seen as a top priority. When the first Europeans first came to Africa they found the indigenous people living at peace with nature, they relied on wild animals for subsistence and utilised these resources sustainably. When Europeans invaded Africa they brought along guns which they used to kill game indiscriminately when they realised that game hunting will not work they started alienating the indigenous people from resources which they depended on for subsistence. To add insult to injury the indigenous people were later forcefully removed from their ancestral lands so that the land be used as national parks, relocating them in infertile land without game and wild plants (Lewis and Carter, 1993).

Sinclair and Arcese (1995) indicate that a mutual understanding and minimisation of conflict between managers in conservation areas and local communities in adjacent areas is widely seen as critical to the continued existence of many protected regions. Integral to

this is an understanding of mechanisms and levels of community benefits from wildlife and other natural resources, whether obtained legally or illegally. Human demands on the ecosystem are likely to vary locally and are spread unevenly around and within protected areas. Cultural differences between the largely pastoralists Masai living to the East of the Serengeti and agricultural pastoralist people living to the West result in major differences in their interactions with wildlife.

Sinclare and Arcese further state that, today wildlife managers and conservationists are much more closely attuned to the rights and interests of landowners and land users surrounding formal conservation reserves than they were in the past. In response, they implemented and supported community-based integrated conservation and development projects throughout the Tanzanian and Kenyan parts of the Serengeti ecosystem in an effort to help convince landowners to conserve wildlife on their land. In Kenya, the Kenyan Wildlife Service is still striving towards a more equitable distribution of benefits from tourist earning to gain the approval of local people. If it continues to lead to forced removal and material deprivation. The danger is that without local support, and in an area of local change, the long term future of game and nature reserve could be in jeopardy.

2.3.3 CONSERVATION AND DEVELOPMENT

* *

During the apartheid era, it was unrealistic to intergrate conservation with the improvement of the standards of living of the rural poor. Before the new South Africa was born a former homeland Chief Minister made history when he decided to link conservation with improving the living conditions of the rural poor. Cock and Koch (1991) states that the KaNgwane government led by the former Chief Minister Enos Mabuza, adopted a different approach to conservation in the Eastern-Transvaal homeland. "Traditional western conservation which concentrated on the creation of protected areas and the preservation of single species in isolation from Africa's social problems, would not survive", so said Mabuza at the launch of a new programme to preserve South Africa's natural heritage in December 1990. Humankind would not revere the air they breathe and the land they inhabit if bound by poverty and dehumanising conditions. "We need to solve our socio-economic and political problems before we can be receptive to enviromental issues".

The breathtakingly beautiful Mthethomushwana and Songimvelo nature reserves were established in KaNgwane during the course of 1990 through consultation with the local chiefs and their tribal councils, and with their consent. Profits from tourism were shared with the communities living alongside the reserves and local residents were allowed into the protected areas to collect grasses, herbs and roots. The former KaNgwane government shared profits made from tourism with the local people and sometimes communities received up to 60% of the revenue generated (Cock and Koch, 1991).

McNeely (1995) argues that these are trying times for our planet as the combination of growing human population and increasing consumption (especially in the wealthy countries) is overwhelming efforts to conserve the biological systems on which all life depends. Obvious manifestation of problems includes loss of forest, species extinction, water pollution, oil and chemical spills, acid precipitation ozone depletion, uncontrolled urbanisation and destructive civil strife, evoke public concern, in places of a great political will to implement the action is required to enable people to live in balance with natural resources. Conservation action at the international level can be expected to grow following the fourth World congress on National Parks and Protected Areas held in Caracas, Venezuela, in February 1992.

Rodney (1972) states that development arises from man's constant striving to master nature. Economically, society develops as its members jointly increase their capacity to transform the environment to meet their needs. Increasing capacity entails the development of techniques, technology, experience, skills and the ability in general in order to handle and manipulate these instruments. This presupposes man coming together in groups and developing relations, which will define the specific mode of interaction with nature, and thus distinguishing one group of people from another. Interaction with others necessitates a means of communication (language) and institutions for regulating affairs of society (political, social, administrative and legal institutions).

2.4 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable development is defined as a strategy that manages all assets, natural resources, and human resources, as well as financial and physical assets, increasing long-term wealth and well being. Sustainable development as a goal rejects policies and practices that supports current living standards by depleting the productive base, including natural resources and that leaves future generations with poorer prospects and greater risks than our own (Repetto, 1986). For developing countries in particular, tourism is often seen as the answer to their problems, it brings in currency, creates jobs and encourages local entrepreneurs. While undoubtedly tourism is a source of benefits it can also have negative impact on the economy, society and environment (Singleton, 1997: 32). As a philosophy ecotourism is part of a wider concern with what is known as sustainable development, that in the words of Brudtland commission "to ensure that its (development) meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations and to fore close their options and choices". Sustainable development recognises the interdependence between the environment and the economy. A healthy environment is essential to sustain economic activity.

In this context, ecotourism is a framework within which tourism can be developed in line with the principle of sustainability (Singleton, 1997: 33). The concept sustainable development has dominated the academic discussions since the 1980's and has been approached from different viewpoints. As a result, the definition of sustainable development varies from one discipline to another. For example, Bartelmus (1987) defines sustainable development as "development that maintains a particular level of income by conserving the sources of that income; the stock of produce and national capital".

Pearce (1988) defines sustainable development as "economic change subject to consistency of natural capital stock, the stock of environmental assets is held constant while the economy is allowed whatever social goals are deemed appropriate". The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the UN (FAO)(1989) sees sustainable development as the "management and conservation of the natural resource base ,and the orientation of technological and institutional change in such a manner as to ensure the attainment and continued satisfaction of human needs for present and future generations".

The Scientific Committee on problems of the Environment (SCOPE) (1990) cites World Conservation Strategy 1990, which defines sustainable development as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet them". However, SCOPE believes that although this definition is widely accepted, it needs to be made more operational so that technical, social economic and political interventions can be designed for sustainability. Conversely, the Brundtland Commission, also known as the World Commission on Environment and Development WCED (1987), argues that sustainable development simply means "a process in which the exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development are made consistent with future as well as present needs".

Although Conable (1991) agrees with the definition of WCED (1987), he goes on to say that "the challenge of sustainable development is to reconcile the objectives of promoting growth, alleviating poverty and protecting the environment. The above examples seem to illustrate that while there is no consensus on the definition of sustainable development, there are similarities. The Economic Commission of Africa (ECA, 1989) agreed that sustainable development includes the following components, as identified by WCED (1987): (a) future generations should be taken into account in the planning process; (b) the world's poor should be given special attention; (c) special attention should be paid to maintaining a fair share of current resource base for this and future generations. Nevertheless, Tolba (1991), in his foreword for Thanh and Biswas (1990) comments: "While everyone agrees on the need for development that sustains and is translating the term from a concept into everyday operational priorities remains a difficult task".

According to Kakonge and Imvbore (1994:4), the world environment report states that poverty is a reflection of environmental problems. ADB (1990) argues, "poverty as such cannot be said to cause environmental degradation. However, the two are associated". The ADB (1990) concludes that the failure of economic policies to adapt to new circumstances is a common cause of the twin scourges. Kakonge and Imvbore (1994:4) state that the poor in Africa have been forced by circumstances to cut down the trees resulting in deforestation. Also massive reduction of forests have been caused by greedy businessmen in a number of African countries such as Tanzania, Mali, and Gabon. Attempts over the

past 20 years to develop rural areas have had mixed success. Critics argue that although most of the approaches have been designed to provide benefits from top-down, positive effects have not been felt at the grass-root level. With strong political will and support the alleviation of poverty is possible, this, in turn can enable the rural poor to protect the environment from further degradation.

Cernea (1993: 11) states that environmentally sustainable development is usually argued in economic and technical-ecological terms. As has happened in other areas, many are tempted to think that if they can "get the economics right" everything else will fall into place. Soothing as this econo-mythical innovation may be, it is nonetheless one-sided. The social components of sustainability are no less important. Indeed failure to recognise the determinant role of the "social actors" has doomed many programs trying to induce development.

Cernea further argues that the environment is at risk not from some extraterrestrial enemies, but from human beings, including both local and distant resource users. Thus the call for "putting people first" in policies and investment programs for inducing development, or assistance in spontaneous development, is not a radical call: it is a realistic one. It simply means recognising the centrality of the central actors and their institutions in sustainable development. Sustainability must be socially constructed, that is arrangements and economic nature must be made purposively. This is why building sustainability must be approached as a threefold task: social, economic and ecological simultaneously.

2.4.1 SUSTAINABLE RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Erskine (1985: 69) states that much habitat destruction and over exploitation of living resources by individuals, communities and nations in the developing world is considered by IUCN to be the response to relative poverty caused or exacerbated by a combination of human population growth and inequalities within and amongst nations. Many developing countries have so few natural resources and operate under such unfavourable conditions of international trade that they often have little choice but to exploit forests, fisheries and other living resources unsustainably. The strategy maintains that the most serious conservation problems faced by developing countries is the lack of rural development. In

the struggle for food and fuel, growing numbers of desperately poor people find themselves with little choice but to strip large areas of vegetation.

Erskine (1985: 23) states that there has been increasing concern in recent years in South Africa about the deteriorating environment in the African rural areas, both these adverse effects on the ecosystem and because of the destabilising effect of rural poverty. Amongst environmentalists there is concern about the threat to resource base. The result of the loss of good soil, livestock, fisheries and wildlife, the unusual manifestation of deteriorating environments in the third world are particularly harsh for people who are least able because of their impoverished circumstances, to do anything about their survival. The new approach to rural development in South Africa recognises that rural people are not interested in conservation. There is clearly a need to vigorously promote the concept of integrating the management of natural resources with an improvement in quality of life in line with modern international conservation theory (IUCN ;1980). Any attempt to interest people in conservation will only succeed if people concerned can perceive that their economic status and their quality of life will improve. At survival levels, people are usually compelled to exploit their environment too intensively. Poverty manifests itself in the dearth or absence of basic needs viz schools, clinics, good roads, clean water, energy supply production inputs, markets and employment that has resulted in long years of mismanagement of natural resources by African rural population (Erskine , 1985 :73-74).

Singh et al (1994) states that the transition of sustainable development from concept to practice requires the following. Full and true valuation of the natural built and cultural environment, longer time horizons reflecting both medium and long-term interests, greater equity among members of present societies in terms of access to economic, social, political rights and resources. And greater intergenerational equity across time promoting fair treatment of future generations in their access to the means for sustainable development.

There has been a growing realisation in national governments and multilateral institutions that it is impossible to separate economic development issues from environmental issues. Many forms of development erode the environmental resources upon which they must be based and environmental degradation can undermine economic development. Poaching by communities living adjacent to the parks occurs because the parks authority ignored the social and economic needs of people” on the other side of the fence”. Poverty is the major

cause and effect of global environmental problems. It is therefore futile to attempt to deal with environmental problems without a broader perspective that encompasses the factors underlying world poverty and international inequality (WCED, 1987).

The notion of equity is central to sustainable development. It implies a more equal distribution of assets and the enhancement of capabilities and opportunities of the most deprived. At the practical operational level, sustainable development seeks to ensure the following: self sustaining improvement in productivity and quality of life of communities and societies including education, health, nutrition shelter, sanitation, employment food, self-sufficiency; production process which do not overexploit the caring and productive capacities of natural resource base, comprise the equality of the ecosystem, or limit the options of present and future generations. And basic human rights and freedoms for people to participate in the political, economic, social and environmental spheres of their communities and societies (Singh, 1994).

The World Bank (1993) argues that Africa's unique wild life is threatened in many countries by uncontrolled harvesting, poaching and loss of habitat in both forest and range land areas. Large and diverse populations of wild life are commonly found in marginal land areas which offer relatively low returns to other forms of land use. Wild plants and animals provide subsistence resources, their preservation is of life in rural communities. Some African countries can use commercially managed wildlife to generate significant economic returns (often in foreign exchange) from meat and processed animal products as well as tourism. Involving local communities in wildlife management can help to reverse present destructive trends and yield both economic and ecological benefits.

Furze et al (1996) state that the importance of rural development to the process of integrating conservation with development through protected areas can be recognised by considering the conservation implications of three important points:

1. **Rural development draws on a theoretical heritage which has concerned itself with understanding the nature of rural society and rural social change.**

Given that protected areas are nearly always in rural locations, the issue of local populations and their relationship with protected areas must be seen to be a rural development issue. The Theoretical heritage of rural development should provide means by which protected area managers and others involved in local conservation initiatives are able to understand and work with rural development frameworks.

2. **Rural development is a practice which is increasingly drawn on in order to incorporate local people into decisions concerning their futures.**

Part of the theoretical heritage of rural development practice has seen the emergence of local or participatory rural development as a legitimate strategy on theoretical, practical and ethical grounds. The history of rural development has been a history of searching for appropriate strategies for inducing agrarian change. One fundamental alteration to rural development theory and practice has been the legitimisation of the empowerment of local people through participatory rural development, in what is called more generally the "bottom-up" approach.

3. **Rural development is at the heart of issues of access to social and economic equity.**

Access to social and economic equity is fundamental to conservation in general and protected area management in particular. It is important to understand the theoretical and ethical basis of rural development as the search for a more equitable distribution of social and economic benefits for rural people .

2.5 CONCLUSION

Tourism has a significant role to play in the development of the economy in terms of employment and foreign exchange. In the past tourism in South Africa did not benefit the overwhelming majority of its residents, instead people became alienated from the tourism industry. Conservation can not be seen in isolation to tourism, because it is only when

natural resources are conserved which makes the tourism industry to be effective. It is therefore important for the South African tourism industry to adopt what Srivastava (1994) refers to as the new paradigm of conservation which encourages the importance to consider the needs of the local people in conservation activities. Conservation of biological diversity should be linked to improving the standard of living of the rural poor.

CHAPTER THREE

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides information on: (i) the type of study conducted, (ii) the context of the study, i.e. where it was undertaken; (iii) the participants, (iv) the data collection procedure, i.e. how the data was collected, processed, analysed, and interpreted. The chapter also discusses the limitations of the study.

3.2 METHODOLOGY

3.2.1 TYPE OF STUDY

According to Feldman (1995), the type of study depends on the amount of data available. The study undertaken by the researcher was exploratory in nature, since there was little research available at the time on the impact of removal of Africans from their ancestral land, particularly in the case of Makuleke to erect national parks and game reserves in South Africa.

3.2.2 SAMPLING

The sampling frame was constituted by Makuleke residents and the Kruger National Park employees .

Chadwick et al (1984) describes a sample as a representative group of research subjects whose findings can be generalised to the larger population of the study. In the current study the researcher used what Nachmias et al (1981) refer to as systematic sampling. Systematic sampling was carried out by selecting every third household at Makuleke and Makuhlule villages under Makuleke Tribal Authority. Systematic sampling was much simpler, since even untrained interviewers in sampling were able to execute the sampling

in the field. A sample of 100 (one hundred) households was drawn from the targetted population.

In contrast, at the Kruger National Park stratified random sampling was used because it is the kind of sampling ensures that every segment of the population is representative in the sample. The following departments, namely: social ecology, conservation and tourism at Kruger National Park were used as strata on which the sample was drawn. A sample of 50 individuals was drawn from the three departments as the targetted population.

3.2.3 METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

For the purpose of the study the researcher employed both qualitative and quantitative research methods in obtaining data. Qualitative methods were used in order to get first hand knowledge about the impact and effect of apartheid legislations on the estrangement of Africans to resources inside national parks in the Northern Province.

Ferreira et al (1988) maintains that qualitative methodology allows the researcher to "get close to the data". They are usually presented in words. Qualitative data are usually seen as richer, more vital, as having greater depth and as more likely to present a true picture of a way of life, of people experiences, attitudes and beliefs (Haralambos et al, 1994).

Although a few sociologists today claim to be positivists, a considerable number support the use of quantitative data on the grounds that it can be analysed more scientifically and objectively than qualitative data. Quantitative data can be considered more reliable than qualitative data. Since each individual respondents answers precisely the same questions in the same order, they all respond to the same stimuli. Any differences in response should in theory, reflect real differences between respondents. Furthermore the figures, produced can be checked by other researchers (Haralambos et al, 1994).

3.2.4. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE

3.2.4.1 Pilot Study

Haralambos et al (1994) maintains that, having selected a research method and chosen a method of selecting a sample, a researcher must carry out a pilot study before embarking upon the main research project. A pilot study is a small-scale preliminary study conducted before the main research project in order to check the feasibility or to improve the design of the research.

De Vos (1998) argues that the purpose of the pilot study is to improve the success and effectiveness of the investigation. The researcher designed a questionnaire which was used as an interview schedule during the pilot study. The researcher also held discussions with supervisors about the questionnaire, making it reflective of the study purpose.

Lastly, the researcher included five individuals from survey population at Makuleke village and five employees of the Kruger National Park who served in the pilot study to test the questionnaire. Few problems were encountered, for example some participants had problems about the way some questions were phrased. The researcher then modified the questions accordingly and finalised the questionnaire.

3.2.5 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Smit (1995) states that there are two main types of survey methods: the interview and the questionnaire. In the current study the researcher employed both the questionnaires and the interview-schedule.

3.2.5.1 Hand delivered questionnaires

When collecting the data at Kruger National Park, the researcher delivered questionnaires by hand, and requested the respondents to complete the questionnaires during their spare time. About one hundred (100) questionnaires were hand delivered to Kruger National

Park employees. The researcher then made an appointment with the respondents for the collection of the questionnaires. The researcher also assured the respondents she would clarify questions identified as problematic when coming to collect the questionnaires. De Vos (1998) argues that hand delivered questionnaires also have limitations. As De Vos argued the researcher encountered shortcomings with hand-delivered questionnaires. For example, some respondents either lost their questionnaires or didn't answer them. However the researcher managed to collect about (50) fifty completed questionnaires. The fifty respondents who completed the questionnaires at Kruger National Park was a good representation of the survey.

3.2.5.2 Face-to-face interviews

Feldman (1995) states that face-to-face interviews are interviews in which the researcher has direct contact with the respondents. The researcher asked the respondents questions as they appeared in the interview-schedule and the researcher completed the interview schedule on their behalf. Face-to-face interviews were conducted on respondents from Makuleke and Makahlule villages. This technique was ideal since the majority of rural people were illiterate. About 55 (fifty-five) respondents were interviewed.

3.2.5.3 Personal Questionnaires

The researcher handed the questionnaires to the respondents who completed them on their own. However, she was available to attend to problems encountered by the respondents. The researcher limited her contributions to the completion of the questionnaire to the absolute minimum. About 45 respondents answered the questionnaires personally.

3.3 BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREAS

3.3.1 The Kruger National Park

The Kruger National Park covers an area of 19010 square kilometres, measuring 322 kilometres north to south and an average of 65 kilometres east to west. It is bounded to the south by the Crocodile river, on the east the Lebombo range, which separates it from Mozambique, and the western boundary is determined by the surveyors line and a veterinary fence. The enormous tract of flat bush country lies in the lowveld below the escarpment of the Eastern Drakensberg and holds an unchallenged sway over the immigration of the people, known to South Africans simply as the Game Reserve. It is an internationally famous park abounding with a selection of game animals unsurpassed in its variety anywhere else in the world. This magnificent sanctuary began at the instigation of President Kruger in 1895 and was proclaimed in 1898 as the Sabie Game Reserve. The National Parks Board was instituted by parliament in 1926 and from then on the reserve was known as the Kruger National Park. The park was opened to the public in 1927 and during that year only three cars ventured through the gates (Connoly, 1992).

3.3.2 The Makuleke Clan

The Makuleke clan was forcefully removed from the Kruger National Park by the apartheid regime. Authorities resettled them in Ntlhaveni village about 60 kilometres from their original land. Ntlhaveni village is located about 60 kilometres east of Thohoyandou in the Northern Province (Sowetan, 1 June 1998: 7).

The Makuleke community consists of about 2 750 households. The community is run by the Makuleke Tribal Authority and chief Joas Makuleke. In May 1998 the community was given back rights of ownership of their ancestral land inside Kruger

National Park to build lodges and revenue generated from tourism will fund community development projects at Ntlhaveni (The Star, 10 August 1998: 9).

3.4 ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Feldman (1995) contends that analysis of data is one stage in the process of research. It is preceded by data gathering and succeeded by a process of relating one's interpretations to the questions one is trying to answer. In the current study two methods were used in data analysis, namely qualitative and quantitative methods. The quantitative method used frequency distribution tables, pie charts and bar graphs to analyse data. While the qualitative methods involved the analysis of the respondents' perceptions, beliefs, expectations and attitudes.

3.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

This research project has the following limitations:

- There was inadequate South African literature. The researcher had to use information gathered from other countries.
- Most respondents were not keen to motivate their responses when requested to do so.
- The fact that at Makuleke, the questionnaires were constructed in English may have distorted the responses by the interviewees, when the questionnaires was translated into Tsonga.

- The study's finding cannot be universally tested since it was based only in the Northern Province.

Despite its limitations the study has attained its objectives. The inadequate South African literature did not affect the researcher's ability to understand the major themes of the study. Although some respondents did not answer open-ended questions the researcher was able to get general view from those who motivated their response. The distortion which might have occurred in the translation of the questionnaires to Tsonga was probably minimal.

3.6 CONCLUSION

This chapter presented the central issues of the study. It conveyed empirical information which justified the significance of the study, namely the type of study, sampling methods, data collection procedure, research instrument, how the data will be analysed, interpreted, the limitations of the study and discussed as well as a brief description of the study areas.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF DATA

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the researcher firstly describes the distribution of responses on the respondent's particulars, namely: gender, age group, marital status, size of the household, occupation of the breadwinners and the respondent's highest academic standards. The community relationship with Kruger National Park and the economic status of the community were also analysed. Secondly, frequency distribution tables, pie charts and bar graphs have been used in the presentation of the findings of the study. The distribution tables have been used in order to organise data into simpler accounts and emphasise features of the data which are more relevant to the study.

4.2 RESPONDENT'S PARTICULARS (MAKULEKE)

TABLE 1 GENDER

Gender	No. of respondents	Percentages
Male	28	28
Female	72	72
Total	100	100

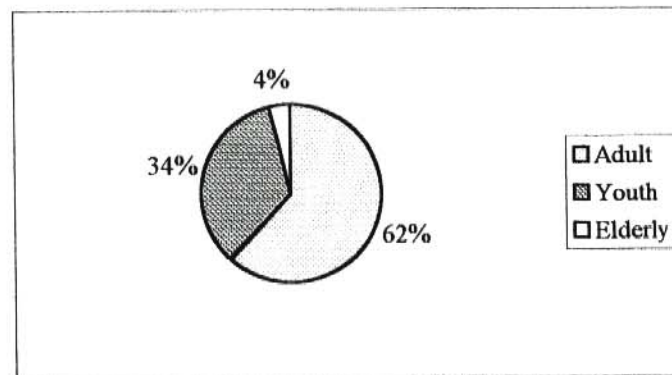
Table 1 demonstrates that 28% of the respondents were males and 72% were females. This can be attributed to the fact that in the Northern Province, females account for a larger portion, 54% of the population (Statistics South Africa, 1998).

The findings above reflect the impact that Apartheid had on the rural population. In South Africa homelands functioned as reserves for migrant workers, men had to leave their families behind to work in the mines in urban areas. As a result women remained behind to take care of the families.

The same situation still applies to the Makulekes today. Husbands continue to leave their families to work in Gauteng Province as labourers in the mining industry.

O'Connell (1994) states that in the concept of traditional nuclear family the man is seen as the breadwinner and the head of the family, the woman as a full-time mother and housewife.

FIGURE 1 AGE-GROUP



The majority (62%) of the respondents were adults. This high percentage can be attributed to the fact that they were either housewives, unemployed or retrenched. Unemployment and retrenchment are some of the major challenges facing the economy of South Africa today. However the democratically elected government through its macro-economic policy GEAR promised to create jobs for the jobless (SACS, 1997).

About 34% of the respondents were youth, this could be attributed to the fact that they were still studying or unemployed. Amongst those mainly affected by unemployment are the youth. Some of them have professional qualifications, some matriculants, and other, have dropped out of school because of poverty at home. To get out of the state of hopelessness some of them get involved in criminal activities in order to survive.

A small percentage of the respondents around 4% were the elderly. Due to their age they were not economically active or working.

TABLE 2 MARITAL STATUS

Marital status	No. of respondents	Percentages
Married	64	64
Unmarried	30	30
Widow	6	6
Divorced	-	-
Total	100	100

The majority of the respondents 64% were married. This can be attributed to the fact that Africans especially those living in rural areas still value marriage. Ember and Ember (1977) states that marriage entails both a sexual and an economic relationship. The economic dependence of a woman on the husband as a provider contributes to the wife staying married no matter how unbearable the marriage is. Christianity as a religion, discourages married people to divorce. Ministers of religion usually provide marriage counselling to couples with marital problems. Dube (1997) argues that since sex is viewed as a natural craving of human beings, marriage is viewed as an event that is necessary part of life, particularly for women.

About 30% of the respondents were unmarried. This could be attributed to the fact that some were still young to be married. With the adoption of Westernisation cohabitation, in which a couple live together, assuming roles of husband and wife, is very common globally. It is also referred to as "trial marriage". After staying together for some time the couple can marry or go their separate ways. More and more people are cohabiting, they do so in order to avoid divorce (so they believe). When staying together the couples said to be trying to know each other better. Thus should they decide to get married it will be forever. Only 6% of the respondents were widowed, because death is one uncontrollable factor that breaks the family unit. None of the respondents were divorced. According to Mr Shilubane, Anthropology lecturer at the University of the North divorce is uncommon amongst the Tsonga-Shangaans because of the payment of lobola (dowry). As a result it is not easy for the woman to leave the husband even if he is unfaithful to her. The payment of lobola is very important for securing a wife, unlike in a cohabitation. To Africans, unlike white people, divorce carries a certain stigma in society. For instance if a married woman befriends a divorcee, they will discourage her of friendship because a divorcee is bad-influence.

Mr Shilubane (2000: personal communication) further asserts that, the kinship also plays an important role in the discouragement of divorce. To Shangaans, the husband and the wife are not the only parties involved in marriage. The payment of lobola unites the husband's family and the wife's family. The husband's kinship will discourage the wife if she intends to divorce an unfaithful husband.

Lack of personal finance and a tradition of economic dependence is the main reason why women become trapped in abusive and dangerous relationships. According to Palesa Makhetha (spokes person of People Opposing Women Abuse) women need to be financially independent. Economic dependence on the husband or partner is the main reason that women stay in abusive relationships. Makhetha further indicated that two other reasons why women stay with the husband. Namely: And social pressure involving shame and not wanting people to know they have been abused (Sowetan, 14 March 2000: 19).

Makhetha believes that women who are financially independent can easily solve their problems such as an abusive and violent relationships, family and social pressures, by moving out of the home or changing jobs because the woman will require no financial assistance. However for rural women with no formal education, skills or financial independence, they are forced to stay in abusive relationships (Sowetan, 14 March 2000: 19). About 53 992 South Africans living in urban areas have divorced or separated. While 192 456 South Africans living in non-urban areas have divorced or separated (Statistics SA, 1998). Keesing et al (1998) state that the causes of divorce in non-western societies includes infertility, adultery, quarelling and failure to live up to expectations, for example when a woman is found to be too lazy a wife, or the man, too improvident a husband. Divorce may be highly formalised, or it may be just a matter of one partner ordering the other out or giving public notice that the union is over.

TABLE 3 SIZE OF HOUSEHOLDS

No. of persons per household	No. of respondents	Percentage
0-5	47	47
5-10	33	33
10-15	20	20
+15	-	-
Total	100	100

47% of the respondents indicated that there were 0-5 persons in their households. This findings could be attributed to the fact that the government encourages the use of birth control as a way of regulating population growth. In the past contraceptives were not commonly used especially by uneducated rural women. However today women are becoming informed about family planning services at many primary health care clinics nation-wide.

Before the legalisation of abortion, women had backstreet abortions. As a result many women died or become infertile. This was a result of abortion being done by unqualified people. However the implementation of the choice of Termination of Pregnancy Act, (Act 92 of 1996) brought about improvement. Under this Act abortion is allowed on request, under ^{*} certain conditions. ^{*} To all women including minors, during the first 12 weeks of pregnancy and up to 20 weeks (SACS, 1997).

As a result women have rights about reproducing or terminating a pregnancy. However there are some problems with anti abortion groups who are a constant threat to women's right to terminate pregnancy.

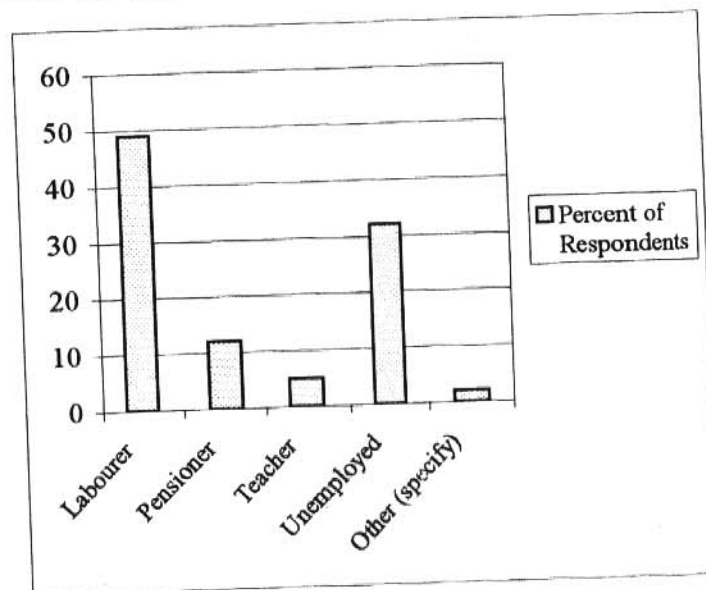
There is a decline in the size of the family because even individuals with little or no education know that there is no need in having a big family which one will not be able to afford. This can be attributed to the rise in the cost of living . It is impossible to provide quality of life for a large family, this usually leads to certain members being deprived basic needs. Today each family prioritises on life style, education, health care, housing and savings hence a small family is desirable.

Out of the sample, 33% of the respondents indicated that there were 5-10 persons in their households. These were typical extended families, where the husband, wife and children live together with uncles, aunts, cousins, grandparents. However extended families were usually self-sufficient. They exploited labour to produce for subsistence.

Only 20% of the respondents indicated that there were 10-15 persons in their households. This findings also reflects a typical extended family. None of the respondents had more than 15 persons in their households. The overall finding shows a decline in the extended family unit and the rise in the nuclear family unit. Households are no longer in a position to maintain the extended family which was mainly dependent on household property such as land and cattle, following the Land Acts of 1913 and 1923 which had the biggest influence on the settlement of and access to land in South Africa. These Acts served to segregate white and African farmers territorially. This segregation resulted in a highly unequal distribution of land, with some 80% of the population being prevented from owning or leasing land in over 80% of the country (SACS, 1997). Africans residing in rural societies of South Africa were victims of apartheid policies such as the Land Act of 1913. This has resulted in Africans being forced to engage in wage labour to make a living. Natrass et al (1990) states that by 1970, rural production levels had significantly declined and the ability of these areas to support their resident population had effectively collapsed. Families became increasingly dependent on migrant labour and cash income.

Statistics SA (1998) states that unlike Coloured, Asians and Whites, there were 233 648 Africans who had more than ten persons in a household. There were 18 795 Coloured, 1 185 Asians and 767 Whites with more than 10 people in their households. Thus, Africans tend to have bigger families, resulting in over-crowding and lack of privacy in their households.

Figure 2 Occupation of the breadwinner



Forty-nine percent (49%) of the breadwinners were labourers, individuals whose jobs require stamina rather than skills. Statistics SA (1998) indicated that about 30% of the employed people in the country were in elementary (unskilled) occupations. Lack of education also contributes to many people working as labourers. This can be attributed to the fact that the Northern Province has 37% of its people without any formal education (Stats SA, 1998). The Northern Province has a limited number of industries where people can find work. As a result many unskilled people migrate to richer provinces like Gauteng to work as labourers. The Northern province's per capita is the lowest in the country. Many of the inhabitants earn their livelihood as migrant workers in Gauteng (SACS, 1997). In the Northern province, around 41 per cent of people working earn R500 per month or less (Statistics South Africa, 1998).

There was a significant number of breadwinners (32%) who were unemployed. This finding is consistent with the fact that the Northern Province is a typically under-developing area. The province is largely a "labour reserve" supplying labour to the mines and hence it has become the periphery of Gauteng. And it has continued to provide raw materials and labour and in return depend on consumer goods from Gauteng. In the Northern Province the rate of unemployment is high, resources such as tourism, rain-fed agriculture and abundant labour force available in the province are far from optimally utilised (SACS, 1997).

The high unemployment rate also shows the economic trends in South Africa. In June 1996, the government announced a new macro-economic policy, which incorporates its priorities for Growth Employment and Redistribution (GEAR). Some of its major goals were redistribution of income and opportunities in favour of the poor. And a competitive fast growing economy which creates sufficient jobs for all Work-seekers (SACS, 1997). The Sowetan (21 January 2000:10) indicates that South Africa has lost about 400 000 jobs over the last three years. The drop in the gold price alone resulted in thousands of mine workers losing their jobs. In addition, our once highly closed industries which were protected by the myopic apartheid administrations of the past have been exposed to world competition. As a result, many thousands of workers in industries like textiles have lost their jobs.

Twelve percent (12%) of the respondents were pensioners. In South Africa social grants are given to the aged. They must be South African citizens, at least 65 years if they are males, 60 years if they are females. They must also not be maintained or cared for in a state institution. Other social grants are for disabled persons, war veterans, foster child grants, care-dependency grants and child support grants (Department of Welfare, 1999).

Welfare spending is the most important pillar of poverty alleviation in South Africa. The National Department of Welfare plays an important role in policy development, but the nine provinces are responsible for the delivery of services. Provinces currently allocate their lion's share of their welfare budgets to social security. This ranges from 81% in Gauteng to 95% in the Northern Province, with poorer provinces spending more than their richer neighbours because of their larger number of citizens. Welfare expenditure in general has increased dramatically since 1990, mainly because of the removal of racial disparities in old age pensions and the introduction of new grants such as the child support grant. However social security in provincial welfare budgets is projected to decline from 89, 50 per cent in 1999-2000 to 88, 53 percent in 2002-2003. This is due to the elimination of ghost recipients from welfare lists through registration (Sowetan, 13 March 2000: 1).

The budget debate on welfare (1999) indicates that in South Africa 1,812,695 elderly persons receive social grants. The Western Cape province has 142,717; Eastern Cape has 363,014; Northern Cape 40,468; Free State 108,980; Kwa Zulu Natal has 390,045 and North-West has 144,192 elderly people who receive social grants. While Gauteng province has 226,543, Mpumalanga has 124,966 and Northern province has 271,770 of elderly people who receive social grants.

About 5% of the respondents revealed that their breadwinners were teachers. While only 2% had other occupations, thus being self-employed. With the high unemployment rate there is an urgent need to encourage people to start small businesses.

TABLE 4 ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS

Highest academic qualifications	No. of respondents	Percentage
None	19	19
Primary	30	30
Junior certificates	15	15
Matric	24	24
University	-	-
Technikon	-	-
College of Education	12	12
Total	100	100

About 19% of the respondents had never been to school. The Northern Province has around 39% of its inhabitants who have never been to school followed by Mpumalanga with about 29,4%; KwaZulu Natal had approximately 22,9 (23%); North-West with around 22,7% and Northern Cape with 21,7% . The Eastern Cape has approximately 20,9%, Free State has around 16%, Gauteng has 9.5 and Western Cape has only 6,7% of people without any formal schooling (Statistics South Africa, 1998).

The highest percentage (30%) is that of those who had reached primary school level. About 12,1% of people in the Northern province have some primary level of education. And around 59% of people in the Northern Province have completed their primary level of education (Statistics SA, 1998).

The findings above reflects the impact that Apartheid had on black children's education. Under Bantu Education many primary school children dropped out of school. This was as a result of lacking learning materials such as stationery and textbooks, over crowded classrooms and fatigue in the children brought about by malnutrition and poor home circumstances and the general neglect in terms of funding and resources (Hartshore, 1992). The African child suffered during apartheid because of poverty. Most parents were unable to provide for their children to get good education. Parents had to provide their children with school uniform, buy books and pay school fees, expenses which most African parents could not afford. However in the new South Africa the government has brought some improvement through its feeding scheme programmes in schools

and its provision of free stationery to school children. The feeding scheme programme give school children food during school hours. The introduction of feeding schemes in schools has contributed to better school attendance by scholars. This has resulted in children from poor families whose parents cannot afford to give them something to eat or pocket money to attend school regularly. The provision of free stationery, exercise books, textbooks and other learning materials, has led to many parents free to send their children to school, with less financial strain.

Only 15% of the respondents had the Junior Certificate (Std 8). About thirty to forty years ago the Junior Certificate was a highly valued qualification. It carried the same prestige as a Bachelor degree today. An individual with a Junior Certificate was able to go to be trained to become a teacher, nurse or policeman.

Twenty-four percent of the respondents indicated that, that matric was their highest academic standard. This finding shows that despite their poor conditions, the Makulekes are hard-working people who wants to improve their standard of living. Amongst these matriculants there were those who were corresponding with Technikon South Africa to further their studies in nature conservation, tourism and business management. The Northern Province has 14% of persons who have matric as their highest level of education. South Africa has about 16,4% of individuals with matric as their highest academic qualification (Statistics SA, 1998). **

None of the respondents had university or technikon qualification. South Africa has around 6.2% of people who have higher educational qualifications. The Northern Province has 4.5% of persons with higher educational qualifications (Statistics South Africa, 1998). The curriculum in historically black universities in South Africa does not provide practical experience needed by many employers. As a result many of the unemployed have higher educational qualifications but without skills. This has resulted in many South Africans giving technikons, technical colleges and business colleges preference to universities. Unlike universities, technikons provide vocational tertiary level education in order to supply the labour market with people who have particular skills adequate technological and practical knowledge, and the necessary personal qualities to play a leading role in the working community. There are 21 full-fledged universities in South Africa, two of which are mainly non-residential institutions offering distance tuition. There are 15 technikons in South Africa, and only one offers distance tuition (SACS, 1997).

Only 12% of the respondents had teaching qualifications. Each of the nine provinces of South Africa has a number of colleges of education to provide teacher-training (SACS, 1997). However following the high number of unemployed teachers, provinces have reduced the number of teacher's training colleges from 120 to 50 (The Standard: Money, 2000: 44). The remaining colleges accept students in the fields of commerce and science. As a result the teaching profession has become unpopular, while careers in sciences, commerce and technology have gained popularity.

4.3 RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN KRUGER PARK AND COMMUNITY'S MAKULEKE

TABLE 5 EMPLOYMENT OF LOCALS

KNP offer employment opportunities to your community	No. of respondents	Percentage
Yes	86	86
No	14	14
Total	100	100

The majority of the respondents around 86% indicated that the park does employ people from their community. In the park, people work as field guides, managers administrators, game rangers, ecologists researchers, research assistants, conservationists, cashiers, drivers and maintenance workers. The park also employs general workers, policemen, nurses, traffic officers, housekeepers and chefs.

Only 14% of the respondents indicated that the park does not offer employment to the local communities. They further indicated that because of racism and nepotism, blacks always have very slim chances of being employed at Kruger National Park. There is a tendency for employers to hire workers on contract or part-time basis. To employers casual labour is less expensive as these workers are not entitled to many benefits, such as medical aid. The appointments of casual worker has become a popular trend in both the public and private sectors in South Africa. The General

Secretary of the South African Communist Party, Blade Nzimande, argues that the economic reconstruction in South Africa has hurt the working class. The working class have been subjected to wide spread retrenchment, casualisation and ideologically driven out sourcing. It is black workers who are bearing the brunt of joblessness and unemployment. The state of affairs is leading to a highly undesirable outcome, whereby the African workers in particular seems set to be democracy beneficiary of our transition to democracy (Mail and Guardian, 28 April - 4 May 2000:36).

TABLE 6 FAMILY MEMBER(S) WORKING AT KNP

Are there individual(s) in your family who work at KNP	No. of Respondents	Percentages
Yes	12	12
No	88	88
Total		100

Only 12% of the respondents indicated that there were individuals in their families who were working at Kruger National Park. They further indicated that their main job functions included drivers, labourers, game rangers, general workers and cashiers. The semi-skilled work performed by the Makulekes can be attributed to their low levels of education. McIntosh (1995) indicates that in Kenya, most game lodges are managed by well-educated personnel. However below them, it is usually the local people of the area (Maasai, Sambura) who supply the manual labour and other semi-skilled and skilled work such as cooks, waiters housekeepers, drivers e.t.c. The same situation applies to the Makulekes and other communities residing adjacent to Kruger National Park.

There were 88% of the respondents who indicated that there were no individuals in their families who work at Kruger National Park. This can be attributed to the fact that the park is unlikely to be in the position to employ all people residing in local communities.

The world-renowned Kruger National Park offers a wildlife experience that ranks amongst the best in Africa. Established in 1898 to protect the wildlife of the South African Lowveld. The Kruger National Park covers nearly 2 million hectares (Smit, 1998: 40). To the Makulekes, the Kruger National Park symbolises different 'things.' To others it symbolises a place to conserve natural resources in a manageable and sustainable manner.

It also symbolises apartheid and low wages to black people. The Kruger National Park is also regarded as a place for whites. To support this perception. Carruthers (1995) states that regarded as poachers and hounded from national park authorities, Africans were never invited to enjoy the South African National Parks as visitors.

To other Makulekes Kruger National Park's main camp Skukuza is a "big city" where people can find jobs. This kind of perceptions, indicated that some of the Makulekes knew little or nothing about what happens inside Kruger National Park. This view can be attributed to the fact that in the past only whites benefited from the activities of the park, in terms of employment and better salaries. Carruthers (1995) states that no Africans became partners in the conservation enterprise.

TABLE 7 TOURISM DURING APARTHEID

In the past tourism benefited minority groups	No. of respondents	Percentage
Agree	62	62%
Disagree	10	10%
Don't know	28	28%
Total	100	100%

The majority of the respondents (62%) agreed that tourism in the past only benefited the minority groups. This was done through apartheid policies, which forced Africans to live in unfavourable conditions, while whites enjoyed more benefits, earned a living salary and afforded the luxury of visiting national parks.

Carruthers (1995) indicates that the national park ideology in 1926, reinvigorated the exclusion of Africans and consolidated the process of co-operating wildlife conservation into the orbit of white culture. Within decades, the national park was being overtly exploited to exemplify and inculcate White South African culture. This included casting Africans homogeneously in the role of poachers and Whites in the role of conservationists.

Ten percent (10%) of the respondents disagreed with the suggestion that tourism in the past benefited only the minority groups. The respondents further stated that although black employees

received low wages in the past, it was better than the way the situations is today because, people do not even get jobs. Many homeland governments, the former Gazankulu government in particular, made jobs available to people through drought relief programmes. These programmes were initiated in order to give people some form of income to subsist during drought seasons. Their job descriptions included sweeping the streets and rehabilitation of streets and repairing small bridges in many communities and locations.

There was 28% of the respondents who indicated they did not know who benefited from the tourism in the past. This view can be attributed to the fact that some of the respondents had no idea on how tourism and national parks operate.

The issue in question is that those who argue that the situation has improved today stated that there is unity between the minority and the majority. Discrimination because of race does not exist anymore. Carruthers (1995) states that the Wild Life Society referred to African poachers as being hungry and uneducated people deserving of understanding. The Board's attitude was stated clearly 'Poachers (are) undoubtedly the most blood thirsty, cruellest and most ruthless of the earth's inhabitants, an opinion consistent with the Board's portrayal of Africans historically as cannibals and blood thirsty barbarians.

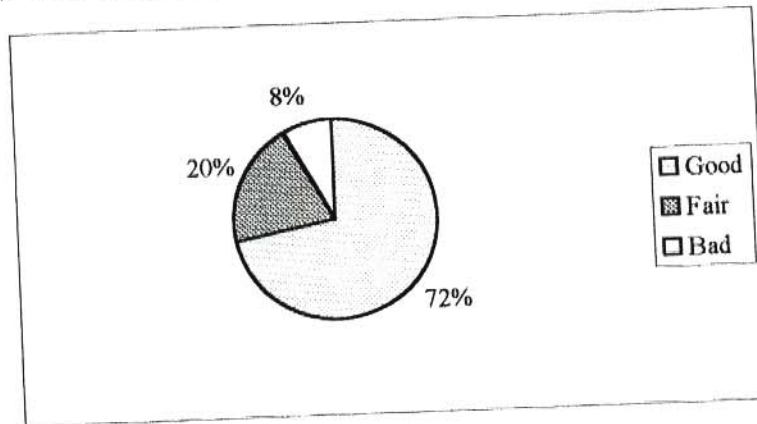
Although the relationship between the Kruger National Park and the previously neglected communities has improved there is no guarantee that all the majority (Africans) will benefit from tourism. However the emerging black middle class and 'elites' are the ones who are likely to benefit as they can afford to visit national parks and other recreational areas.

The appointment of people like David Mabunda as the first black director of Kruger National Park and Mavuso Msimang as the Chief Executive Officer of the South African National Parks Board, can be seen as a fundamental change in the South African tourism industry. However these transformations should not be seen in isolation to other sectors in South Africa. The appointment of Saki Macozoma as the Managing Director of Transnet is a sign of transformation in the business sector, as is the appointment of Tito Mboweni as the first black Governor of the Reserve Bank, which symbolises change brought about by democracy in South Africa. The government, through its affirmative action policy, has tried to address the inequalities of the past. While the minority (whites) in the past, because of the colour of their skin were entitled to better job opportunities

regardless of whether they were suitable qualified or not.

Those who argued that the situation has not improved state that people are still working for long hours at national parks. The government led by black people has political power, however the economic power is still in the hands of the minority (whites).

Figure 3 RELATIONSHIP: KNP AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES.



The overwhelming majority (72%) indicated that their relationship with the park was good. This response could be attributed to the fact that most of the Makulekes know about the draft agreement between the Parks Board and the Makuleke people. The agreement represents a unique attempt to harmonise the protection of biological diversity with the interests of rural people, who have generally despised the notion of conservation ever since the Kruger National Parks first game warden earned the nickname "Skukuza" which derives from Shangaan to mean "the sweeper" for the way he forced the indigenous inhabitants out of the park in the early 1900 (Koch, 1998: 71).

The Restitution of Land Rights Act (Act 22 of 1994) was signed by president Nelson Mandela on 16 November 1994. According to the green paper, the purpose of the restitution programme was to restore land. It also has to provide other remedies to people removed by racial discriminatory legislations and practice (SACS, 1997). The Makuleke community is not the only community in South Africa which was removed from their ancestral land to give way to animals. The San and the Mier communities in the Northern Cape were also victims of oppression. However the tide has turned in their favour. The signing of the agreement involved the purchase of 25,000 hectares of private and state land to the South of the Kalahari Gemsbok National Park (KGNP) which was made available as compensation to the San community. From its side the Mier community would

receive 42 000 hectares of land. The Mier community agreed to give 7 000 hectares of their land to the San.

During the signing ceremony the chairman of the Mier community Mr Jan de Koker said their feeling was that if it was not for the present government, they would not have got back their land. The land of the San and their Mier communities will be used as a cultural reserve and game farming low density occupancy and subsistence farming. The South African national parks will make available 55 000 hectares of land in the Kalahari Gemsbok National Park to the San and Mier communities to be used as a contract park. A major part of the San claim is for the return of land rights in the Kalahari Gemsbok National Park to enable the community to return to and foster their original land use practices (Sonjika, 1999: 17-18). The South African government, after the 1994 elections, decided to implement the restitution of land rights. The implementation of land right acts has positively contributed to the harmonisation of relationships between the National Parks and previously neglected communities who were forcefully removed from their ancestral land to make way for animals.

About 20% of the respondents indicated that their relationship with the Kruger National Park was fair. Only 8% of the respondents indicated that their relationship with Kruger National Park was bad. This can be attributed to the fact that the old men and women of Makuleke still remember how malnutrition and famine killed a number of their neighbours as residents struggled to farm in dry conditions at Ntlhaveni (Koch, 1998: 72).

TABLE 8: COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT

Is your community involved in the management of resources at KNP	No. of respondents	Percentage
Yes	49	49
No	31	31
Don't know	20	20
Total	100	100

Almost half the respondents (49%) agreed that their community was involved in resource management at Kruger National Park. The introduction of the social ecology department in South African National Parks (SANP) has contributed in ensuring that local communities are involved in the management of resources.

Gibson et al (1995:1) states that there is currently a growing number of specialists in both conservation and development consider the inclusion of local communities in wildlife management indispensable for successful conservation, reflecting the recent rapprochement between the development and conservation planners who now seek to return some revenues derived from wildlife to rural communities, by ensuring that the "local communities participate in benefits to be gained from the presence utilisation of wildlife.

There was about 31% of the respondents, who argued that their community was not involved in managing the park's resources. This can be attributed to the fact that they have not seen anything feasible to show that their community is involved in the management of resources at Kruger National Park.

Only 20% of the respondents stated that they did not know whether their community was involved in managing resources inside the park or not. This response can be attributed to lack of knowledge. It seems as if the new relationship between the community and the park is only known to the minority of the residents.

TABLE 9 CURIOSHOPS AND LOCAL COMMUNITIES

Kruger National Park sell community products	No. of respondents	Percentages
Yes	34	34
No	10	10
Don't know	56	56
Total	100	100

The data above reveals that around 34% of the respondents stated that the park does sell

community products in their curio-shops. The finding is supported by Smith (1998: 47 - 49) who states that the social ecology department initiated a project of establishing an arts and crafts centre for wood carvers around the Numbi area. In Kruger National Park, the social ecology department in partnership with the Department of Economic Affairs and Gaming in Mpumalanga, has provided the Woodworkers association at Numbi gate with a sales outlet structure, to sell their products. The Salubindza, Mhala and Nyongani Woodworkers associations were helped to market their products in nearly all the shops of the Kruger National Park.

Most of the respondents (56%) indicated that they did not know whether the park sold locally produced products. This can be attributed to the fact that there are few individuals producing handicrafts and clay products in the area.

The Tsonga-Shangaan people produce items like "tshuri", used for refining maize to mielie-meal and ground nuts, "ndyelo" a traditional plate and "nkombe", a wooden-spoon. All these are wood products for domestic use or selling. Most Shangaan material-cultural products are done by old women and old men. Only 10% of the respondents indicated that they did not know whether the park sold community products.

TABLE 10 RESOURCES: KNP AND THE COMMUNITY

Are there resources that you need from KNP	No. of respondents	Percentages
Yes	68	68%
No	20	20%
Don't know	12	12%
Total	100	100%

The data above indicates that the majority of respondents (68%) needed resources from the park. This can be attributed to the fact that the Makulekes once lived inside what is now Kruger National Park. And they relied on natural resources for subsistence. The respondents indicated that they needed lala palm, fish and game. Lala palm grew extensively through the Pafuri area and was an essential part of the Makuleke community when they were still living inside what is today the Pafuri section of the park. Rachides of palm leaves were used for weaving mats, baskets and beer strainers. Twine manufactured from leaves were used to bind the roofing poles of the roundavels.

Liquid drawn from trunk of palm made ginger beer like drink. The Makuleke clan hunted game for subsistence. Fishing was a vital source of food and source of conflict with the Parks Board. Fish was generally cooked fresh but could be preserved for several weeks when smoked. Salted and dried fish provided protein during agricultural off season. As a result of the Makuleke's dependence on natural resources for subsistence there was no need for them to engage into wage labour (Harries, 1992).

Twenty percent (20%) of the respondents indicated that they did not need any resource from the Park. They argued that nature should not be disturbed, while 12% of the respondents indicated that they did not know whether they needed resources inside the Kruger National Park. This finding can be attributed to the fact that, the respondents have never been to the park and as a result did not know what kind of resources are available there, or the respondents were born after 1970's in the new Makuleke.

Sinclair et al (1995) states that human demands on the ecosystem are likely to vary locally and are spread unevenly around and within protected areas. Cultural differences between the largely pastoralists Masai living to the East of Serengeti and agricultural pastoralists people living to the West result in major differences in their interactions with wildlife. Thus a rich farmer living alongside a national park has much better things to do than hunt an animal or cut down a tree. In contrast it is worth the while for a poor farmer to do so. This may be why meat hunting (poaching) is so much of a feature of Tanzania rather than of Kenya.

Godoy (1992) describes how dependency on a natural resource based production system is linked to low levels of economic development. As the economic well-being improves, the opportunity cost of using natural resources rather than engaging in other economic activities gradually increases until it is no longer worthwhile.

TABLE 11 : Distribution of responses

Lack of partnership between National Parks and local communities resulted in conflict between the two parties	No of respondents	Percentages
Agree	93	93
Disagree	-	-
Don't know	7	7
Total	100	100

Most of the respondents (93%) agreed that the lack of partnership between National Parks and local communities resulted in conflict between the two. The respondents further indicated that the Kruger National Park did nothing to improve their standard of living when many died of hunger and malnutrition and also nothing was done when wild animals destroyed their crops and threatened their lives. Two unemployed young men from Mahubye village in the Northern Province used snares to kill one of the lions and two lionesses from a pride of seven lions that had escaped from the Kruger National Park along with a cheetah and five buffalo. The lions had also terrorised the neighbouring villages of Malamulele, Mhingaville, Ntlhaveni Block C and Ka-Xikundu near Giyani (City Press, 28 May 2000:1).

Mavuso Msimang, the chief Executive of the South African National Parks states that social ecology department's thrust will be to work with communities to achieve mutual goals and benefits. Also there are risks and disadvantages that communities incur because of their mere proximity to National parks. They lived next to wild animals that breaks fences, destroy their crops and threaten their lives. Msimang further states that some communities also live in 'red line' areas, where wild animals can transmit certain diseases to live stock. In South Africa many national parks were created by removing people from their birth places. The result was hostility, because black people were not allowed in the parks, other than as providers of labour (Harvey, 1999: 37).

None of the respondents disagreed with the statement that the lack of partnership between KNP and local communities resulted in conflict between the two parties. About 7% of the respondents indicated that they didn't know whether lack of partnership between Kruger National Park and local communities resulted in conflict between the two parties or not.

TABLE 12 SUSTAINABLE UTILISATION OF RESOURCES

Sustainable utilisation of resources depends upon the involvement of local communities in the management of resources	No. of respondents	Percentages
Agree	100	100
Disagree	-	-
Don't know	-	-
Total	100	100

All the respondents agreed that sustainable utilisation of resources depends upon the involvement of local communities in the management of resources. The respondents further stated this can be achieved if the park gives them jobs and finance community development projects directly or indirectly from conservation.

The finding supports what has been stated by Lewis and Carter (1993) who argue that it has become clear that, to achieve our conservation objectives to protect Africa's rich diversity of habitats and enormous wildlife endowment, we must change the system that has directed conservation for over half a century. Local communities must participate in management of wildlife resources. Any benefits accrued from good management must be equitably shared with communities wildlife has always been an important in day to day life of Africans. Africans may not have managed their resources scientifically in the past, but they did it sustainably.

None of the respondents disagreed that sustainable utilisation of resources depends on the involvement of local communities in the management of these resources. And none of the respondents said that they did not know whether sustainable utilisation of resources depended on the involvement of local communities in the management of the resources.

An example of involving local communities to ensure sustainable utilisation and management of resources has been demonstrated in Kenya through the launch of the Serengeti Regional Conservation strategy (SRCS) at a workshop at Seroena in Serengeti National Park in December 1985, with the goal of identifying and implementing long term solutions to the resource use conflicts, threatening conservation of the eco-system. The basic premise of the

workshop was that conservation and human development in the Serengeti region can no longer proceed in isolation from one another.

The overall goal of SRCS was to design an approach towards the management and utilisation of the Serengeti region's natural resources in which, firstly human development needs and natural resource conservation requirements in the were reconciled with one another through the cooperation of all resource users and managers.

Secondly, the protected areas and the wildlife resources in particular play a central role in the economic development. Thirdly, local communities are committed to the conservation of the Serengeti region wildlife resources through being directly involved in its management and utilisation and through receiving direct benefits (Sinclair et al, 1995).

4.4 THE COMMUNITY'S ECONOMIC STATUS

The analysis has been based on three items: (i) where the majority of people work, (ii) whether policies by apartheid government contributed to the estrangement of the community to resources inside Kruger National Park, and (iii) whether Kruger National Park can contribute in improving the quality of life of the residents.

TABLE 13 EMPLOYMENT OF LOCALS

Where does the majority work?	No. of respondents	Percentages
Gauteng Province	65	65
KNP	21	21
Farms	14	14
Total	100	100

Most of the respondents (65%) indicated that the majority of people work in Gauteng province. In the Northern Province the unemployment rate is high. The per capita income is the lowest in the country. Many inhabitants earn their livelihoods as migrant workers in Gauteng (SACS, 1997).

Carruthers (1995) states that by the early twentieth century, the most powerful legislation designed to prevent Africans from being able to subsist on wildlife was to force them into wage labour, either in urban areas or on white-owned farms. Wildlife conservation thus played a role in creating proletariat as industrialisation of the Transvaal commenced.

According to Sankie-Mthembi Mahanyele, National Housing Minister, up to 20 000 people a month are flocking from rural areas to the city centre of Johannesburg and Gauteng surrounding areas, in search of a better life. Most are fleeing the poverty and the unemployment that characterise many rural residents (Sowetan, 11 January 2000: 2). Keesing et al (1998) state that the emergence and growth of cities mean movement from the countryside. Individuals or families flock from villages to the city.

About 21% of the respondents indicated that the majority of people work at Kruger National Park. Carruthers (1995) states that one book written by a scientist employed in Kruger National Park describes labour position as follows: "There were eight rangers each with a small number of black assistants to do the work, build roads, build huts, keep a vigilant eye on the never ending bounds of poachers."

There was only 14% of the respondents who indicated that the majority of local people work for local farmers. Carruthers (1995) states that by the early twentieth century, the most powerful reason for legislation designed to prevent Africans from being able to subsist on wildlife, was to force them into wage labour, either in urban areas or on white owned farms.

TABLE 14 APARTHEID AND ESTRANGEMENT OF THE COMMUNITY

Apartheid contributed to the estrangement of your community towards KNP resources	No. of respondents	Percentages
Agree	72	72
Disagree	20	20
Don't agree	8	8
Total	100	100

The majority of the respondents (72%) agreed that policies by the apartheid government

contributed to the estrangement of their communities to resources inside Kruger National Park. The respondents indicated that they did not receive any assistance from the parks' authorities when community members died of hunger and malnutrition, after being relocated to drought-stricken Ntlhaveni. The community had no say when wild animals attacked their livestock and threatened their lives. The park did nothing to ensure that the rural community developed after their relocation to Ntlhaveni.

Twenty percent (20%) of the respondents believe that policies by the apartheid government did not contribute to the estrangement of their community to Kruger National Park's resources. This can be attributed to the fact that today some individuals are uninformed of the impact that apartheid had in the lives of the people. Only 8% of the respondents indicated that they did not know whether policies by the apartheid government contributed to their community's estrangement to the resources inside Kruger National Park or not.

Lewis and Carter (1993) state that wildlife has been alienated from Africans since the colonial era and the patterns continues. Rural communities have lost their rights over land and wild animals. The majority of people in Africa today have little concern for the welfare of wildlife. It has become clear that, to achieve our conservation objectives to protect Africa's rich diversity of habitats and enormous wildlife endowment, we must change the system that has directed conservation for over half a century. Local communities must participate in management of wildlife resources, any benefits accrued from good management must be shared with the communities.

TABLE 15 KNP AND ITS CONTRIBUTION

Can KNP improve your quality of life?	No. of respondents	Percentages
Yes	100	100
No	-	-
Total	100	100

All the respondents agreed that Kruger National Park can contribute in improving their quality of life. They further indicated that this can be achieved through creating employment opportunities, educating people about the economic benefits that good nature conservation brings and that the Kruger National Park's Authority should keep wild and dangerous animals away from the villages.

McIntosh et al (1995) state that ecotourism simply means “responsible travel to natural areas that conserves the environment and sustains the well-being of local people”. The benefit of ecotourism is to provide jobs and income for local people. Singleton (1997: 32) states that for developing countries in particular, ecotourism is often seen as the answer to their problems. It brings in currency, create jobs and encourages local entrepreneurs.

The former Chief Minister of the KaNgwane government, Enos Mabuza, adopted a different approach to conservation in the Eastern Transvaal homeland. Mabuza argued that traditional conservation which concentrated on the creation of protected areas and the preservation of single species in isolation from Africans social problems would not survive.

The establishment of the beautiful breathtaking Mthethomushwa and Songimvelo Nature Reserves in KaNgwane during the course of 1990, this was done in consultation with local chiefs their tribal councils and with their consent. The profits from tourism were shared with the communities living alongside the reserves and local residents were allowed into the protected areas to collect grasses, herbs, and roots. The KaNgwane government also shared with the local people the profits made from tourism to the reserves and sometimes the communities received up to 60% of the revenue generated (Cock and Koch, 1991).

The value of wildlife to the economy was illustrated by Zimbabwe where the annual revenue from wildlife in 1985 were estimated at about US\$200 million. By comparison, the annual revenues from wildlife in Zambia in the same year were considerably less, and no more than US \$5 million. This difference is largely the direct result of the lack of investment and proper wildlife management in Zambia. Compared to Zimbabwe with land surface almost twice as large as Zimbabwe with 32% of its land set aside as national parks and hunting areas, Zambia should be able to earn much more from wildlife. The gross standing value of its wildlife (calculated in value of horns, tusks, meat) runs into hundreds of millions of dollars.

The wildlife of Zambia's Luangwa valley is potentially amongst the most important and economically valuable in Africa because it is dominated by large and valuable heavy game animals such as elephants and buffalos. In the Lupande Game Management Area which lies within the Luangwa valley the potential annual revenues from sustainable hunting have been estimated at between US \$0.5 –1 million. The Luangwa valley is rich in natural resources (Dodds and Patton,

1968; FAO, 1973). Apart from wildlife its abundant forests contain hardwoods building material and fuel woods. Despite these rich natural resources, Luangwa valley is sparsely inhabited and its people are relatively disadvantaged (Abel and Blaikie, 1986; Marks, 1984) poverty and malnutrition are widely evident and schools and health care facilities are minimal. In the past most revenues derived from wildlife resources of the valley such as hunting license fees and Safari earnings, have been paid to the central government, living outside the local area. As a result communities in the valley have gained very little direct benefit from the local wildlife resources, and there has been a wave of wildlife poaching over the last 15 years, much of it on a highly organised commercial basis by gangs armed with automatic rifles who benefited. Then there was an initiative represented by the Luangwa Integrated Resource Development Project (LIRDP) in 1986. The objectives of the project were to improve the standard of living of people of the project area and to replace illegal exploitation of wildlife with legal sustainable use.

It was further indicated that there will be more jobs for local people as guides trackers, skimmers and camp personnel. Ways were also introduced to ensure that game meat from commercial safari hunting was made available at locally affordable prices to the people of the area. A pilot project in part of the Lupande GMA has been operating since 1986 in which a village-based cooperative was permitted to cull, a restricted number of "surplus hippos. The meat was sold locally and the hides and other products marketed in Lusaka. The resulting profits funded a much needed clinic. As a result, the local people have begun to appreciate the community value of managed wildlife.

4.5 RESPONDENTS' PARTICULARS (KRUGER NATIONAL PARK)

The gender, number of the working at KNP, nationality, home language, occupation, academic qualifications, monthly remuneration and the respondent's home town or village will be analysed below.

TABLE 16 GENDER

Gender	No. of particulars KNP	Percentages
Male	29	58
Female	21	42
Total	50	100

The majority of respondents (58%) were males, and 42% were females. This can be attributed to the fact that men are less vulnerable to unemployment compared to females. South Africa has around 34% of unemployed African men, and 52% of African females (Statistics South Africa, 1998). Bradley (1989) states that many women in Britain (9,6 million in 1987) were in paid employment than at any time this century. According to 1981 census, 71% of single women and 60 per cent of married women were economically active. Women then made up to 42% of the work force and by 1987, this had risen to 45%. However, while men's share of jobs has diminished they have kept their dominance over full-time work. Figures from the 1984 labour force survey showed that 88 per cent of part time workers were women. Areas like retailing, fast food and hotel work have provided a new crop of low paid, low status jobs for women.

Dube (1997) indicates that in Bangladesh, India and Pakistan parents prefer to give higher education to sons rather than daughters mainly because boys are considered positive economic assets to the family. While daughters leave upon marriage, sons are looked upon as a form of insurance in the uncertain world of peasants and the urban lower middle-class. Girls are educated to become efficient housewives and mothers who can properly socialise their children. They also become more attractive in marriage market by offering better companionship and supportive social roles to their prospective husbands. A daughter is referred to as a 'temporary guest'. All over South and South-East Asia girls are seen as being useful around the house assisting in domestic chores looking after young siblings and helping in productive activities that are undertaken by women.

South Africa's working women are still undermined by both their male and female colleagues. There is a need to forge a "sisterhood" if they want to get ahead in the private sector. A study released by the Commission on Gender Equality (CGE) revealed that while the picture is improving women still earn less than men, continue to occupy female stereotypical jobs and are not being trained to take up top management positions. In most cases, the companies about 90% of which

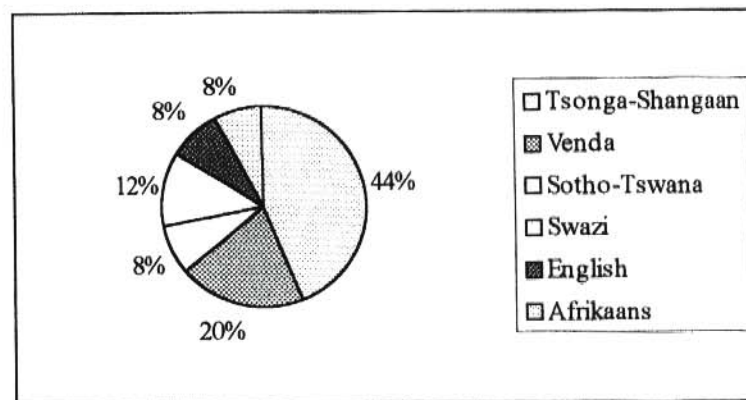
are listed on the Johannesburg Stock Exchange have not mainstreamed their gender policies and Affirmative Action has not taken precedence over female advancement. Inequalities which exist among women, with high numbers of white women compared to black women in management positions, hamper collaboration among women. There is less than 10% black female representation in junior management, from where senior people are likely to be recruited (The Star 26, January 2000:1).

TABLE 17 NATIONALITY

Nationality	No. of respondents	Percentages
South African	50	100
Mozambiquen	-	-
Zimbabwean	-	-
Other	-	-
Total	50	100

All the respondents were South Africans. None of the respondents were from foreign countries. The findings refutes what Schooeman and Odendaal (1990: 196) have argued that the tourism industry usually import trained staff from other areas. The tourism industry in South Africa is committed to the upliftment of locals through employing South Africans.

Figure 4 HOME-LANGUAGE

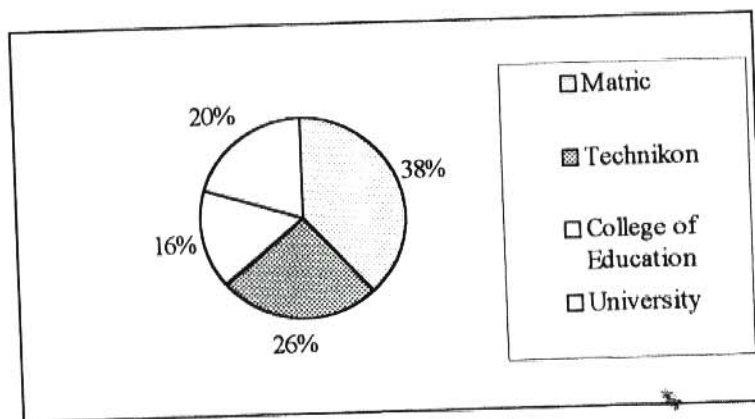


Forty-four percent of the respondents were Tsonga-Shangaans, whereas 20% were Venda-speaking. This can be attributed to the fact that the Kruger National Park is surrounded by Venda and Shangaan-Tsonga speaking communities. According to Statistics SA, (1998), the Northern Province

has 23 per cent of Shangaans and about 10 percent of Venda-speaking people out of the total population. The Venda and Shangaans are some of the marginalised ethnic groups in South Africa, despite the government's claim that Venda and Shangaan are amongst the eleven official languages.

Eight percent (8%) were Sotho-Tswana speaking people, around 12% were Swazis, while both English and Afrikaans-speaking accounted for 8%. The Northern province has about 53% of Sothos and around 14% of Setswana speaking people. While English speaking people account for approximately 0,4 and Afrikaaners constitutes only 2,2% out of the total population of 4,9 million (Statistics SA, 1998).

Figure 5 **ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS**



None of the respondents were without formal schooling or had primary school qualification. Over a third (38%) of the respondents had matric as their highest academic qualifications. These respondents are among those who persevered despite difficulties during the apartheid era. Under Bantu education many primary school children dropped out of school, before they reached junior and senior secondary school as a result of lack of learning materials such as textbooks and stationery, overcrowded classrooms, fatigue in children brought about by malnutrition and poverty at home, and the general neglect in terms of funding and resources (Hartshore, 1992). Some of the respondents whose highest academic qualifications was matric, were technikon students doing their final year practical work at the Park.

Twenty-six percent (26%) of the respondents were technikon graduates. In technikons academic programmes are adopted accordingly to ensure practical skills needed to make the country's economy globally competitive. Most technikon programmes require students to undergo a period

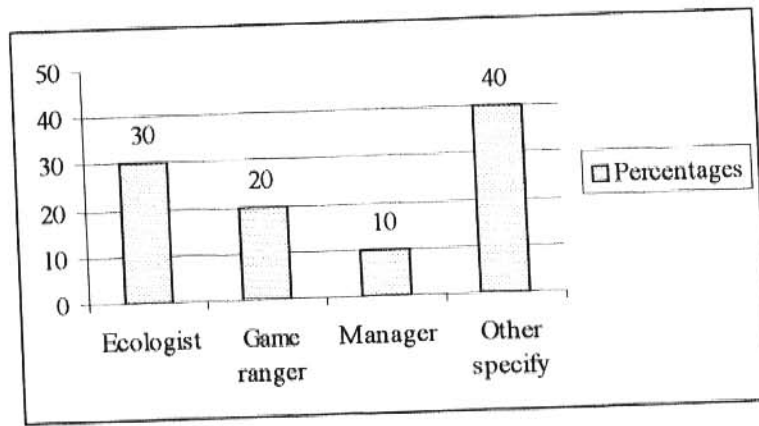
of experiential learning with an employer (for up to 12 months out of a three year National Diploma). During this period students are assessed by their industrial supervisor and by their lecturers. Technikon diplomates and graduates are career ready and technologically skilled. Many of them are offered employment by the companies in which they complete their experiential learning. Technikon students receive entrepreneurial skill training which equips them to start successful small enterprises after graduation. And provide employment for others. In 1998 there were 194 827 students enrolled at technikons (Business Times, 22 August 1999:2). Only 16% of the respondents had diplomas from colleges of education.

Twenty percent (20%) of the respondents were university graduates. The transformation in South Africa after the 1994 elections led to major changes in many universities. In 1994, the historically black institutions seemed set for a renaissance often under new young black leaders. Today many of these institutions are in disarray. Though there were 141 000 more African students in the tertiary system in 1999 than in 1993, the numbers in historically black universities declined over the period, with 1999 showing a 17 per cent drop from 1998. On the other hand white tertiary student numbers declined from 222 049 to 163 780 in the period from 1993-1999. White student numbers dropped sharply in technikons by (45 per cent between 1993 and 1999) and some universities, once large numbers of black students entered them (The Money: Standard, 2000: 44).

**

The English-speaking universities almost doubled their numbers of African students over the past six years, but Wits and Natal shed significant numbers of white students. The universities that sharply increased student numbers from 1993 to 1999 were not the English-speaking universities, but former Afrikaans universities. In 1993, many predicted that they would shrink or disappear but they have grown by 75 per cent over this period. They have taught in English, set up satellite campuses, attracting English-speaking students looking for social stability, and African students leaving strife-torn campuses. White students are afraid of that affirmative action will handicap them in the civil service and teaching, so many have entered tertiary commerce faculties, business colleges, computer courses, media and advertising schools. They may opt for connections, family businesses or emigrate (The Money: Standard, 2000: 44).

FIGURE 6 OCCUPATION



Fourty percent (40%) of the respondents had other occupations such as research assistants, research technicians field guides, administrative officers and honorary rangers (volunteers who work at the Park on holidays and on week-ends). About 30% of the respondents were ecologists. Amongst them are social ecologists involved in integrating conservation with improving the living conditions of people living next to the park. The basic assumption behind the social ecology programme is that South Africans are the custodians of national parks (Smit, 1998: 48).

Game rangers constituted 20% of the respondents. Their main duty involves guarding the park to ensure that there is no poaching, illegal hunting of game. Carruthers (1995) states that the first employees of the Sabe Game Reserve apart from the warden were blacks. As the formal organisational structure of the game reserve took shape, an important category of African workers was the "native" police force, which in 1941 consisted of eight sergeants and one hundred and twenty African. These men were generally recruited from the local community because they were familiar with the terrain and its inhabitants. African employees who devoted themselves to wildlife conservation, or even gave their lives for it, having been killed by wild animals or by poachers, have not received the same degree of public acclaim as Harry Wohunter, a game ranger whose encounter with the lion, has been prominently depicted in popular accounts and in the Skukuza museum (Carruthers, 1995).

Only 10% of the respondents were managers. Statistics SA (1998) states that South Africa has around 4,6% of workers in managerial positions. According to a survey conducted by the Department of Labour, African and black employees make up very small percentages of management, professional and technical occupational categories. Black workers are concentrated

in the categories of labourers and related workers, skilled agricultural and fishery workers and operators and assembly workers. The survey found a "somewhat high" representation of women in positions of junior to middle management of 25 per cent. Women represent 10 per cent of senior management, white men and women still accounted for 70% of all professionals. Thus little progress has been made in the representation of Blacks in managerial, professional and skilled categories of employment as stipulated by the Employment Equity Act (Sunday World, 5 March 2000: 26).

The appointment of Zwelake Sisulu as the first black Chief Executive of the SABC and Dr Mamphela Ramphele as the first black female Vice-Chancellor of the University of Cape Town were outcomes of affirmative action policies introduced by the democratic government. Dr Nkosazana Zuma was appointed as the Minister of Health and Welfare in 1994 and as the Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1999; Sankie Mthembu-Mahanyele as Minister of Housing, and Dr Manto Tshabalala-Msimang as the Health Minister in 1999. These appointments show the government's commitment to addressing gender inequality and ensuring representation of women in parliament, as well as in other sections in both private and public sectors.

TABLE 18 PERIOD OF EMPLOYMENT AT KRUGER NATIONAL PARK

No. of years working at KNP	No. of Respondents	Percentages
0-5	35	70
5-10	6	12
10-15	4	8
15-20	3	6
+20	2	4
Total	50	100

The majority of the respondents (70%) said they had worked at Kruger National Park for 0-5 years. This can be attributed to the fact that it is only recently that more people are considering tourism and nature conservation careers. As a result of the high unemployment rate in occupations such as teaching. Twelve percent (12%) of the respondents revealed that they had worked for the park for 5-10 years; while 8% said that they had worked at the park for 10 -15 years. Six percent (6%) of the respondents said they had worked for 15-20 years for the park.

TABLE 19 REMUNERATION

Monthly Remuneration	No. of Respondents	Percentages
R500-R1000	11	22
R1000-2000	15	30
R2000-R3000	8	16
R3000-R4000	6	12
+R4000	10	20
Total	50	100

Twenty-two percent (22%) of the respondents were earning R500-R1000 per month. In South Africa 17,5% of people earn between R10001 and R1500 per month; 13,6%, between R1551 and R2500 a month (Statistics South Africa, 1998).

It was further revealed that 30% of the respondents were earning between R1000-R2000; 16% of the employees indicated that they were earning R2000-R3000 monthly and 12% were earning R3000-R4000.

At the top end, 20% of the respondents vindicated that they were earning more than R4000 per month. These are basic salaries. The Kruger National Park employees get finance for their studies, medical aid, housing subsidy and payment for overtime work. The park's human resource department also pays 75% for the employees dependant's tertiary education. In the Northern and North West Provinces 6% of employed people earn more than R4500 per month. In the Free State the figure is 7%, Northern Cape and Mpumalanga 8%, Eastern Cape 9%, KwaZulu Natal 10%, Western Cape 12% and Gauteng, 16%. Thus 16% of people working in Gauteng earn more than R4500 month, compared with only 6% in the North West and Northern Province (Stats SA, 1998).

An individual's earning usually depends on one's academic qualifications, the position one holds, and experience in the field.

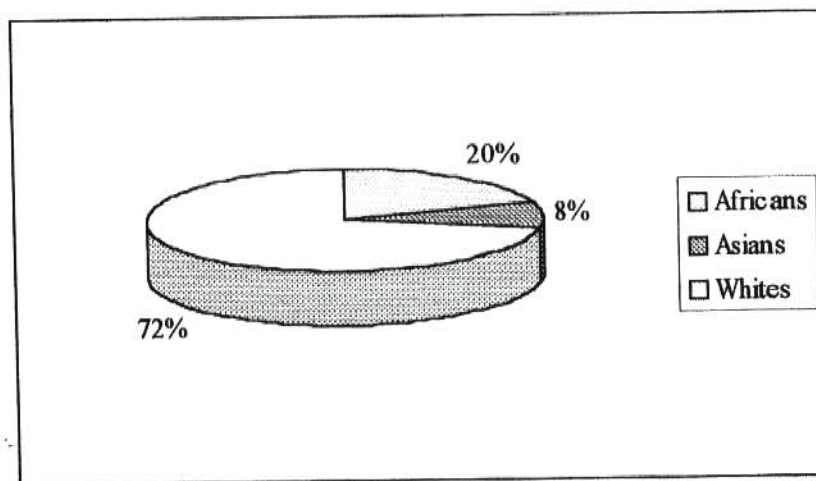
HOME-TOWNS OR VILLAGES OF THE RESPONDENTS

The Kruger National Park employees came from the following towns/villages: Thulamahashe, Malamulele, Venda, Tzaneen, Nelspruit, Hazyview, Giyani, Mhinga Kildare and Lillydale, which are very close to the Kruger National Park. Thus these employees are from communities adjacent to the park. However the fact that there are employees from Brits and Pretoria shows that there is an importation of staff from other provinces such as Gauteng and North-West. The employees whose home towns or villages are in other provinces confirms what Schoeman and Odendaal (1990: 196) have argued, that the tourism industry usually import trained staff from other areas. However those coming from other provinces were in the minority.

4.6 CONSERVATION

The researcher analysed opinions such as: which group frequently visit KNP; which species tourists are most interested in viewing; which race group admires birds the most; when it is ideal to go bird watching; what causes extinction; and the importance of preserving national parks.

Figure 7 GROUPS VISITING KNP



The majority (72%) indicated that Whites were the ones who visit Kruger National Park frequently. This can be seen as a result of Whites being more economically advantages than blacks. Eight percent (8%) of the respondents indicated that Asians visited the Park the most; while 20% indicated that Africans visited the park the most. This can be attributed to the fact that there is an

increase in black middle-class and upper class employees who can afford to visit national parks. During the apartheid era, the emergence of a substantial African middle class which might have had the money and leisure to join whites in enjoying the Kruger National Park was blocked by repressive social and economic legislations. Africans were forced to live in overcrowded degraded and unattractive rural and urban environment (Carruthers, 1995). Carruthers further states that regarded as poachers and hounded from national park boundaries, Africans were never invited to enjoy, the South African National Parks as visitors.

TABLE 20 INTERESTING SPECIES

Species of interest to tourist	No. of Respondents	Percentages
Mammals	39	78
Reptiles	-	-
Birds	11	22
Other, specify	-	-
Total	50	-

The majority of the respondents (78%) indicated that tourists were mostly interested in mammals especially the 'Big Five': the lion, leopard, rhino, buffalo and elephant. None of the respondents indicated that tourists were interested in reptiles, while 22% indicated that tourists were interested in viewing birds.

TABLE 21 BIRD WATCHERS

Who admires birds the most	No. of Respondents	Percentages
Africans	2	4
Asians	8	16
Whites	40	80
Total	50	100

Most of the respondents (80%) indicated that whites admire birds the most, while 16% stated that Asians admire birds the most. Only 4% indicated that Africans admired birds the most. The high percentage of whites who reportedly admire birds and the low corresponding percentage of African supports what has been stated by Gomolemo Mokae that "Whites see beauty in the flight of birds and grace in the movement of animals. Blacks see a possible source of food" (Cock and Koch, 1991).

Birds are of great commercial value: they augment food supply and furnish feathers for various purposes. Before the wearing of wild bird feathers was prohibited by law, vast numbers of birds were killed for their colorful plumes. One of the most beneficial services rendered by birds is their consumption of weeds and land insects that are harmful to humans. Practically all the insects devoured by bird are injures to plants and animals. In Salt Lake a monument has been erected to the California gull, *Larus Californicus*. The crops of the Mormons in 1948 were threatened by a plague of locusts "Mormons crickets" when folks of gulls appeared ate the locusts and saved the crops. Birds have also been domesticated as sources of meat, eggs and feathers (Boooltian et al, 1981).

TABLE 22 IDEAL TIME TO WATCH BIRDS

Ideal in time to watch birds	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Morning (dawn)	29	58
Afternoon	2	4
Any time	10	20
Don't know	9	18
Total	50	100

Most of the respondents revealed that early in the morning (dawn) was the ideal time for bird-watching because birds are still active and the weather is still cool. About 20 per cent stated that birds can be watched anytime of the day. While only 4% indicated that birds can be watched in the afternoon. On the other hand around 18% stated that they did not know when it was ideal to go bird watching.

TABLE 23 IMPACT ON BIODIVERSITY

Causes of extinction	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Hunting	4	8
Destruction of natural habitats	18	36
All of the above	28	56
Total	50	100

Only 8% of the respondents indicated that hunting caused extinction, while 36% of the respondents indicated that the destruction of natural habitats caused extinction. Most of the respondents (56%) thought both hunting and destruction of natural habitats caused extinction.

Extinction or death of species, occurs when the last individual member of a species dies. It is an irreversible loss, because once a species is extinct it can never re-appear. Although extinction is a natural biological process, it can be greatly accelerated by human activities. Whenever humans invade an area, the habitats of many plants and animals are disrupted and destroyed, a phenomenon which can lead to their extinction. We demolish habitats when we build roads, parking lots and buildings, clear forests to grow crops and graze domestic animals (Solomon, 1985). The Star 20 July (1995: 5) states that early man have been responsible for the extinction of more animal species than his 20th century counterparts, according to one of the Britain's leading scientists, Martin Holgate. The first wave of hunter gatherers, especially when they used fire, appears to have had an immense impact on habitats and faunas. In Australia, several giant kangaroos and marsupial predators the size of a lion, did not long survive human contact. Early agriculture also caused environmental change, "About half the original British "Wildwood" had gone by the early Iron Age. Deforestation was causing erosion in Attica in the classical Greek period, and Plato was among those who condemned it", he said.

Martin did not let modern generations off the hook, however. "In recent years, the wave of clearance for agriculture has spread through tropical areas and made these the chief zones of destruction.

TABLE 24 IMPORTANCE OF NATIONAL PARKS

Is it important to preserve National Parks	No. of Respondents	Percentages
Yes	48	96
No	2	4
Total	50	100

The overwhelming majority of the respondents (96%) indicated that it was important to preserve national parks for the following reasons. Firstly, the preservation of national parks serves to conserve samples of biodiversity and habitats for future generations to see and enjoy. National parks should also be conserved to prevent destruction on natural habitats and illegal hunting (poaching) for ecotourism. The preservation of National parks is vital for a country's income generation. The National parks should also be preserved to educate people about conservation and job creation.

Hunger and drought conditions invited poaching. By 1913 dessication of land was so severe that many game reserve residents were dying of starvation, but they were not, by law, permitted to hunt wildlife in order to survive (Carrunthers, 1995). Champion et al (1995) states that it is important to preserve wildlife for future generations, our dependants will have to live with the situation we create and it is up to us to leave it as a fit place in which to live.

4.7 TOURISM

The following items were analysed, namely: whether tourism in the past benefited the privileged class and overseas market; whether tourism local communities were involved in the tourism industry; whether tourism industry has a role in the country's economy; and whether tourism can improve the standard of living of people living adjacent to national parks.

TABLE 25 TOURISM BENEFICIARIES

The priviledged class, local whites and overseas market benefited from tourism	No. of Respondents	Percentages
Agree	38	76
Disagree	5	10
Don't know	7	14
Total	50	100

Most of the respondents (76%) agreed that the tourism industry in the past benefited the priviledged class of local whites and overseas market. These respondents presumably recollect and acknowledge the injustices of the past or have seen how local whites and overseas tourist benefited when the overwhelming majority were excluded in tourism. The finding supports what has been stated in the RDP (1994) that tourism in South Africa was geared to cater for local whites and overseas markets. Those who have agreed are the ones who have accepted the injustice of the past.

Only 10% of the respondents disagreed stating that the tourism industry did not benefit the priviledged class, local whites and overseas market. This percentage could have been constituted by those who were not prepared to admit the injustices of the past. To them the tourism industry benefited all South Africans of different races. While about 14% of the respondents indicated that they did not know whether tourism in the past benefited the priviledge class, local whites and overseas market or not.

TABLE 26 LOCAL COMMUNITIES AND TOURISM

The tourism industry in the past did not involve local communities in mainstream tourism	No. of Respondents	Percentages
Yes	39	78
No	11	22
Total	50	100

The majority of the respondents (78%) revealed that the tourism industry in the past did not involve local communities in mainstream tourism activities. This finding supports what has been stated in the White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism (1996) that, poor involvement of local communities and previously neglected groups in the tourism industry is one of the major problems facing the South African tourism industry.

Wildlife conservation policies of the colonial era failed to stop illegal hunting. As a result, conservationists, international conservation organisations and African wildlife departments searched for new approaches. Their exploration coincided with a more general trend in development of natural resources to promote economic growth (World Conservation Union, 1980).

Gibson et al (1995) states that currently, a growing number of specialists in both conservation and development consider the inclusion of local communities in wildlife management indispensable for successful conservation. Land gazetted in national parks and game reserves bars rural communities from using resources on the lands which had once been theirs to exploit. In areas designated for hunting quotas and licenses favour the wealthy and urban citizens over the poor and rural people. Conservation policies will work only if local communities receive sufficient benefits to change their behavior from taking wildlife to conserving it. Namely, locals receive jobs as scouts to protect and monitor the resources.

About 22 percent of the respondents indicated that the tourism industry in the past did involve local communities in its main activities.

TABLE 27 TOURISM AND NATIONAL ECONOMY

Can tourism boost the country's economy	No. of Respondents	Percentages
Yes	50	100
No	-	-
Total	50	100

All agreed that tourism could boost a country's economy. They further indicated that this can be achieved through job creation, thus reducing the rate of unemployment. It is an important source of foreign exchange. These findings are supported by Bukart et al (1974) who state that economic significance is regarded as the main important aspect of tourism through money earned in places

of normal residence is spent in places visited. For example, the Mduku community situated next to Phinda Private Game Reserve instituted by Conservation Corporation Africa (CCAfrica) has started enjoying the benefits of the natural beauty. The Phinda Game Reserve was established in 1990. Since then it has been estimated that the average income of the 5 000 strong Mduku Community has trebled from R450 a year a household to about R1300 in 1998. Their children are enjoying access to good schooling and primary health clinics (Business Times, 30 January 2000: 1).

TABLE 28 TOURISM AND STANDARD OF LIVING

Can tourism improve the standard of living of locals	No. of respondents	Percentages
Yes	50	100
No	-	-
Total	50	100

All the respondents strongly agreed that the tourism industry can play a significant role in improving the standard of living of people living adjacent to the national parks. They further indicated that this can be achieved through job creation, funding and establishing community development projects.

The Shangana Cultural Village is an example of a tourist attraction which can play a role in improving the lives of locals. The village is within a 20 km radius of Hazyview. This tourist hit has, in the process of inception, created about 100 jobs for local people, many of whom used to survive by selling fruits and vegetables grown in the lowveld paradise. Since opening its doors in March, the village has hosted over 3000 visitors. Guests are offered a range of experiences, such as a trip to the market village, tours of a traditional kraal, and consultation with the resident Sangoma (Business Times, 22 August 1999:1).

Robinson (1994) states that the Sagarmatha Everest National Park in Nepal is famous for both Mount Everest and the culture of the local Sherpa people. The culture of local people comes from Tibetan origins, and their traditional life style included agropastoralism and trade with Tibet, and is strongly influenced by Buddhism. Within the main area of the national park there are eight Sherpa villages and over 100 seasonally used settlements. There were around 3000 people living in these villages.

The actual villages and seasonal settlements were not controlled directly by the park management, although Sherpa grazing and forest lands were.

There has been a dramatic increase in the number of tourists, nearly all of whom come to trek in the Everest region mountains. As a result of the influx of tourists and money, the local Sherpa economy moved rapidly from a subsistence, agropastoralist basis to a cash basis dependent on tourism.

According to Robinson (1994) the local benefits have been substantial and the standard of living of the Sherpa people is now at least as high as that of any Nepalese ethnic minorities. Robinson highlights the influx of Sherpa people into the trekking industry. In 1989, 26 of 56 larger trekking agencies were owned by Sherpas, 92% of urban population of Sherpas gained income from the tourism industry, while 80% of the Sherpas who remain in the villages of the park do so. These people are involved in running teashops, lodges or in providing food, equipment and souvenirs. Jobs at all skill levels in the local tourism system are filled by Sherpa people. And some low-skill positions provide more remuneration than off workers earn in the capital. The seasonal nature of the industry means that many of the local people revert to subsistence activities in the off season.

None of the respondents indicated that the tourism cannot improve the standard of living of local people.

4.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter has revealed the major findings of the study. Firstly, that there were few individuals from the community who are employed at Kruger National Park. Secondly that the relationship between the Kruger National Park and the Makuleke community has improved. This can be attributed to the introduction of social ecology departments in many national parks and the signing of the Land Claim Agreement between the Parks Board and the Makuleke community. The succeeding chapter will focus on the summary of findings, conclusions and recommendations.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The chapter reviews the whole study, by providing a synopsis of the major aspects of the study. It takes a comprehensive view of the research ranging from determining how the research was undertaken, whether the findings confirms or rejects the hypothesis of the study and whether the study attained its aims and objectives. Finally, summary of finding, recommendations and conclusions derived from the data.

5.2 HOW THE STUDY WAS UNDERTAKEN

The survey groups from the Kruger National Park and Makuleke village constituted the samples of the study. One hundred (100) respondents were systematically drawn from Makuleke village, and at Kruger National Park, fifty (50) respondents were drawn using the stratified sampling method. Closed and open-ended questions were incorporated into a structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was tested in a pilot survey which highlighted some few problems. For example, some respondents had problems about the way some questions were phrased. The researcher then modified the questions accordingly and finalised them. The respondents were given a choice regarding the questionnaire completion. There were approximately (95) respondents who personally completed the questionnaires. While about (55) of the respondents were interviewed and the interview-schedule was completed on their behalf. The data was then analysed and interpreted.

5.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The study attained its aims and objectives as shown below. Firstly, it was undertaken to investigate the contribution of apartheid laws to the impoverishment of communities adjacent to the national parks. Most of the respondents agreed that the apartheid government has contributed to their impoverishment. The respondents further

that this was done through their forceful removal from their birth place which was subsequently converted into a park. Their relocation by the authorities resulted in many deaths caused by hunger and malnutrition.

Determining ways in which local communities can be involved in the conservation and management of resources inside the community and the Kruger National Park would be one way of redressing the inequalities of the past. Indeed, respondents indicated that they wanted to work together to ensure that resources inside Kruger National Park are utilised sustainably to develop the community and promote equal partnership between them and the park. The mutual understanding between the community and the park can be attributed to the social ecology department which works to ensure the local communities know that they are beneficiaries in conservation and that their community can benefit economically through good conservation of natural resources.

Another aim and objective of the study which was attained is the exploration and suggestions of ways and means of creating sustainable employment opportunities for communities adjacent to the Kruger National Park. Both the Makuleke and the Kruger National Park agreed that sustainable job opportunities should be created for communities residing adjacent to National Parks. Although the establishment of the Makuleke contract park inside Kruger National Park can create job opportunities for the Makulekes, it is unlikely that all the Makulekes will be employed there.

It has been evident in South Africa that in the process of development only the "elite" benefits while the poor are deprived and marginalised. Healey (1992) argues that an important aspect of tourism is how costs are distributed within the community. Local elites may monopolise entrepreneurial opportunities or business may be owned by non-locals. Thus there is a need to safeguard that all members of the community benefits directly or indirectly from good conservation of resources and that elites do not abuse their power.

The last aim and objective of the study was to promote pride in cultural resources of local communities adjacent to the Park. The Makuleke community has talents which must be promoted, since there are few individuals who produce artcrafts and wood work.

The hypotheses which were posed at the beginning have been borne out by the data. Firstly that apartheid laws contributed to the impoverishment of communities adjacent to the National Parks. The respondents indicated that this was done, when they were forcefully removed at gunpoint from their birthplace rich in natural resources 1969 inside Kruger National Park to give way to animals. Similarly, the Park's authority did nothing to improve their standard of living when many residents of Makuleke died of hunger and malnutrition at the drought-stricken Ntlhaveni.

The second hypothesis was that the lack of partnership between national parks and local communities resulted in conflicts between the two. Most of the respondents indicated that the inability of the park to ensure that their standard of living was improved made them hostile. Since most of the Makulekes died of hunger and malnutrition, some engaged in poaching. Smith (1998: 48) argues that no protected area can survive in the long run when it is surrounded by hungry people. However during the apartheid era the South African national parks were not willing to satisfy the social needs of the communities residing next to national parks through conservation activities.

The third hypothesis was that sustainable utilisation of resources depends on the involvement of local communities in the management of these resources. A significant number of respondents agreed that resources inside the Kruger National Park could be utilised sustainably if local communities were involved. They further indicated that if the park provides them with jobs and assist in development projects, there will be no poaching as all the villagers will benefit directly or indirectly from conservation. However sustainable utilisation of resources will always remain a myth unless local communities have a say and rights regarding these resources.

The study has revealed that the majority of the respondents at Makuleke were females. This can be attributed to the fact that in the most remote rural areas, women remain behind, when men as heads of families go out to work in the cities to support their families. Sixty-four (64%) of the respondents who were married. Most people living in rural areas particularly women value marriage because they benefit financially. The salaried husband of an unemployed woman will provide all of her needs, including those the Shangaans sees as carrying some form of status in that society.

A significant number of respondents (47%) indicated that there were zero to five (0-5) persons in their households. These were typical nuclear families, where the husband and wife live with their children. Because of the rising costs of living, many people now prefer to have smaller families. This has led to a decline in the number of extended families and the rise in nuclear families, because even uneducated rural people know that there is no need of having a big family which one cannot afford to maintain. Forty-nine (49%) of the respondents revealed that their breadwinners were labourers. This could be the result of the Makuleke community status as under-developed area located in a province which is regarded as very poor. Consequently, many people work in unskilled jobs to make a living.

Thirty percent (30%) of the respondents indicated that they dropped out at primary school. This relatively high illiteracy rate can be attributed to the fact that under apartheid many African children were unable to complete their schooling because of poverty at home. Most of the respondents indicated that the park does offer jobs for local people. However very few residents of Makuleke work at the park, their main job functions included labourers, drivers, game rangers and cashiers. It will therefore, be impossible for the Makuleke residents to believe that they can all find jobs at Kruger National Park.

* *

Most of the respondents indicated that their relationship with Kruger National Park was good, this may be construed as the result of the Makuleke residents' awareness and appreciation of the existing agreement between them and South African national parks. The agreement allows the Makuleke clan to utilise their ancestral land through conservation to develop their community.

The majority of the respondents indicated that their community was involved in the management of resources at Kruger National Park. This can be accounted for by the introduction of the social ecology departments in National parks by the South African National Parks. The social ecology department works as a link between the parks and local communities and attempt to establish how social needs of the locals can be achieved through conservation. The introduction of social ecology department came a ter the democratically elected government in 1994.

Fifty-six percent (56%) of the respondents indicated that they did not know whether Makuleke has people who produce artifacts. This can be attributed to the fact that Makuleke has few individuals who produce artifacts. Most of the respondents indicated that they needed resources like lala palm to make baskets, fish and game as food supplements. This can be attributed to the fact that the Makuleke relied on these natural resources for subsistence while, living inside the park before their removal in 1969. The majority of the respondents agreed that the lack of partnership between the national parks and local communities resulted in conflict between the two parties. The respondents further indicated that the Kruger National Park did nothing to improve their standard of living when many died of hunger and malnutrition. Also nothing was done against wild animals killing their livestock and threatening their lives. As a result of this, they engaged in illegal hunting inside the park.

Most of the respondents agreed that the sustainable utilisation of resources depends upon the involvement of local communities in the management of resources. They further indicated that if efforts are made to finance development projects and ensure that all residents benefits directly or indirectly from conservation there will be no poaching. Thus the resources can be utilised sustainably. In contrast, if people are hungry, the utilisation of resources will be difficult to achieve.

The majority of the respondents indicated that most Makuleke residents work in Gauteng Province. This can be attributed to the fact that the Northern province has limited jobs, while Gauteng Province has many industries and mines where people can find jobs.

All the respondents agreed that Kruger National Park can improve their quality of life. They further indicated that this can be achieved by creating job opportunities and by educating people about the economic benefits that good conservation of natural resources can bring. Furthermore, the Kruger National Park Authorities should keep wild and dangerous animals away from the villages.

Most of the respondents indicated that the apartheid government contributed to the estrangement of their community from Kruger National Park's resources through their forceful removal from their birth place once rich in natural resources and their relocation

in a drought-stricken area where many later died of hunger and malnutrition. The Makulekes had no say when wild animals killed their livestock or threatened their lives. The Parks Authority did nothing to ensure that the rural community developed after the relocation to Ntlhaveni.

At the Kruger National Park most of the respondents were males, because males are less vulnerable to unemployment compared to females. Most of the respondents were Tsonga-Shangaans as the Kruger National Park is surrounded by Tsonga-Shangaan villages. All of the respondents working at Kruger National Park were South Africans. The majority of the respondents had Matriculation Certificate as their highest academic qualification.

Most of the respondents had other occupations, namely as: research assistants, research technicians, field guides, administrative officers and honorary rangers. Seventy percent (70%) of the respondents indicated that they have worked for the park for less than 5 years. This can be explained by the fact that careers in conservation and tourism became popular in the past 4 years especially for black people. Thirty percent (30%) of the respondents indicated that they were earning R1500-R2000 per month. Most of the respondents revealed that whites visited the park more frequently, understandably so because whites are economically better compared to Africans, as the apartheid government uplifted the poor whites economically. The respondents also revealed that birds were of great interest to whites. Most of the respondents indicated that the early hours of the morning (dawn) was an ideal time to watch birds, as they are still active and the weather is cool.

A significant number of respondents stated that both hunting and destruction of natural habitats caused extinction. Most of the respondents indicated that it was important to preserve national parks for the following reasons: for future generations to enjoy; to prevent the destruction of natural habitats and illegal hunting; to generate revenue for the country; and to educate people about conservation.

Most of the respondents agreed that tourism can boost the economy of the country. This can be achieved through job creation and the reduction of the rate of unemployment. Tourism is also an important source of foreign exchange. The overwhelming majority of

the respondents indicated that tourism could play a role in improving the standards of living of people residing adjacent to the national parks. They indicated that this could be achieved through funding community projects and job creation.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The educational policies must be designed to ensure that nature conservation and tourism become part of the school curriculum. It is only when children are taught about the importance of conservation clearly as they grow that can enable them to become good conservanists in the future. Therefore it will be significant for teachers to encourage children to follow careers in nature conservation, field guiding, tourism, and other related fields.

There is a need for both Makuleke elders and teachers to teach the younger generation about the history of the Makuleke clan when they were still living in what is now the Pafuri section of Kruger National Park before their eviction. It is only when the young generation of the Makulekes know their history that they can live in peace with the natural resources in the future. Education will also ensure historical preservation of the clan and to pass it to the future generations.

When the Makulekes plan the establishment of their lodges in Kruger National Park, they must consider providing entertainment to tourists in a form of traditional dance, as this can create job opportunities for Makuleke dancers.

5.5 CONCLUSION

Although the policies of the previous regime are blamed for the alienation of the indigenous communities to natural resources, honour should be given to Paul Kruger. The former president of South Africa has played a significant role in ensuring the preservation of natural reosources in the late 1800.

The conservation policies implemented in South Africa were accepted internationally as a way of ensuring that high priority species such as the rhino and elephant don't become endangered or extinct. As a result the Kruger National Park is world-renowned and it is the pride of all South Africans.

The success of sustainability and community based tourism depends on both the non-governmental organisations. Such as the World Wildlife Fund, the government and the private sector to ensure that the Makulekes are orientated on conservation issues, provided with outside expertise their tourist destinations, training tour guides, management of community development projects and game management of community development projects and game management.

During the apartheid era the tourism industry benefited only the upper and middle class whites as conservationists and visitors, while Africans were only allowed inside National Parks as providers of labour. Ecotourism has a potential of improving the lives of the Makulekes. Income generated should be directed to community development projects. For instance, the Makulekes can use income generated from the lodges to assist women to set up sewing cooperatives or build a community hall, financing the setting up of vegetable production industries and products to be sold inside the Kruger National Park. The revenue thus generated can also be channeled to build pre schools or a clinic at Makuleke.

The Makuleke Contractual park is unlikely to provide all the residents with jobs. As a result the community will continue to lose their strong working force to richer provinces such as Gauteng. Although the South African National Parks Board has now committed itself to improving the lives of communities adjacent to National Parks, it will take time for the local villagers to start reaping the benefits of good conservation.

ADDENDUM A

INSTRUCTION

WRITE ANSWERS WHERE BLANK SPACES HAVE BEEN PROVIDED, AND MARK WITH AN X IN THE APPROPRIATE BOXES.

1. RESPONDENT'S PARTICULARS (MAKULEKE)

1.1 Gender

1.1.1 Male	
1.1.2 Female	

1.2 Age-group

1.2.1 Adult	
1.2.2 Youth	
1.2.3 Elderly	

1.3 Marital Status

1.3.1 Married	
1.3.2 Unmarried	
1.3.3 Widow	
1.3.4 Divorced	

1.4 Number of persons in the household(s)

1.4.1 0 – 5	
1.4.2 5 – 10	
1.3.3 10 – 15	
1.4.4 +15	

1.5 Occupation of the breadwinner

1.5.1 Labourer	
1.5.2 Pensioner	
1.5.3 Teacher	
1.5.4 Unemployed	
1.5.5 Other, (specify)	

1.6 Highest academic qualifications

1.6.1 None	
1.6.2 Primary	
1.6.3 Junior Certificate (Std 8)	
1.6.4 Matric	
1.6.5 University	
1.6.6 Technikon	

1.7 Kruger National Park offers employment to local people?

1.7.1 Yes	
1.7.2 No	

Motivate,

.....

.....

1.8 Do you have individual(s) in your family who work at Kruger National Park?

1.8.1 Yes	
1.8.2 No	

If so, What is/are their main job function

.....

.....

1.9 What does Kruger National Park symbolise to you? Explain

.....

.....

1.10. In the past the tourism industry in South Africa benefited the minority groups (whites)

1.10.1 Agree	
1.10.2 Disagree	
1.10.3 Don't know	

If so, has the situation improved or it has not? (Motivate)

.....

.....

1.11. How is your relationship with Kruger National Park

1.11.1 Good	
1.11.2 Fair	
1.11.3 Bad	

1.12. Is your community involved in the management of resources at Kruger National Park?

1.12.1 Yes	
1.12.2 No	
1.12.3 Don't know	

1.13. Does the Kruger Park sell your community products?

1.13.1 Yes	
1.13.2 No	
1.13.3 Don't know	

*

1.14. Are there resources that you need from Kruger National Park?

14.1.1 Yes	
14.1.2 No	
14.1.3 Don't know	

If so, state what are these resources?

.....
.....
.....

1.15. Lack of partnership between National Parks and local communities resulted in conflict between the two parties.

1.15.1 Agree	
1.15.2 Disagree	
1.15.3 Don't know	

If so, motivate

.....

.....

1.16. Sustainable utilisation of resources depends upon the involvement of local communities in the management of resources

1.16.1 Agree	
1.16.2 Disagree	
1.16.3 Don't agree	

If so, Motivate

.....

.....

1.17. Where does the majority of local people work, in

1.17.1 Gauteng Province	
1.17.2 Kruger National Park	
1.17.3 Farms	

1.18. Apartheid contributed to the community estrangement towards Kruger Park's resources

1.18.1 Agree	
1.18.2 Disagree	
1.18.3 Don't know	

If so, motivate
.....
.....

1.19. Can Kruger National Park improve your quality of life?

1.19.1 Yes	
1.19.2 No	

If so, motivate
.....
.....
.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

ADDENDUM B

INSTRUCTIONS

WRITE ANSWERS WHERE BLANK SPACES HAVE BEEN PROVIDED, AND MARK WITH AN X IN THE APPROPRIATE BOXES.

1. RESPONDENTS PARTICULARS (KRUGER NATIONAL PARK)

1.1 Gender

1.1.1 Male	
1.1.2 Female	

1.2 Nationality

1.2.1 South African	
1.2.2 Mozambiquen	
1.2.3 Zimbabwean	
1.2.4 Other, specify	

1.3 Academic qualification(s)

1.3.1 None	
1.3.2 Primary	
1.3.3 Matric	
1.3.4 Technikon	
1.3.5 College of Education	
1.3.6 University	

1.4 Occupation

1.4.1 Ecologist	
1.4.2 Game ranger	
1.4.3 Manager	
1.4.4 Other, specify	

1.5 Number of years working at Kruger National Park

1.5.1 0 – 5	
1.5.2 5 – 10	
1.5.3 10 – 15	
1.5.4 15 – 20	
1.5.5 +20	

1.6 Monthly remuneration

1.6.1 R500-R1000	
1.6.2 R1000-R2000	
1.6.3 R2000-R3000	
1.6.4 R3000-R4000	
1.6.5 +R4000	

1.7 Where is your home-town or village

.....

1.8 Which group visit Kruger National Park frequently?

1.8.1 Africans	
1.8.2 Asians	
1.8.3 Whites	

1.9 Which species are of interest to tourists?

1.9.1 Mammals	
1.9.2 Reptiles	
1.9.3 Birds	

1.10. Who admires birds?

1.10.1 Africans	
1.10.2 Asians	
1.10.3 Whites	

1.11. An ideal time to watch birds

1.11.1 Early hours of the morning (Dawn)	
1.11.2 Afternoon	
1.11.3 Anytime	
1.11.4 Don't know	

1.12. In your opinion, what causes extinction?

1.12.1 Hunting	
1.12.2 Destruction of natural habits	
1.12.3 All of the above	

1.13. Is it important to preserve National Parks?

1.13.1 Yes	
1.13.2 No	

If so, motivate

.....

.....

1.14 The privileged class, local whites and overseas market benefited from tourism in the past?

1.14.1 Agree	
1.14.2 Disagree	
1.14.3 Don't know	

1.15 The tourism industry in the past did not involve local communities

1.15.1 Yes	
1.15.2 No	

1.16 Can tourism boost a country's economy?

1.16.1 Yes	
1.16.2 No	

If so, Motivate
.....
.....

1.17 Can tourism improve the standard of living of locals?

1.17.1 Yes	
1.17.2 No	

If so, motivate
.....
.....

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Abel, N. and Blaikie, P. 1986. **Elephants, People, Parks and Development: the case of Luangwa Valey**. Zambia Environment Management.
2. Africa Development Bank.1990. **Environmental policy paper of ADB Group**. Internal Document, Abijan.
3. Bartelmus, P. 1987. **"Accounting for sustainable development"**.UN/Diesa Working Paper.
4. Beinart, W. 1989. **The Politics of Colonial Conservation**. Journal of South Africa Studies , pp.142-162.
5. Bekkes,S.1989. **Common property, Resources, Ecology and Community based Sustainable development**. Belhaven press, London.
6. Boolootian, R.A. et al .1981. **College Zoology** .McMillan Publishing Co. Inc, London.
7. Budget debate on Welfare: **Minister's Supplementary Notes** .1999.
8. Burkart, A.J. and Medlik, M. 1974. **The Management of Tourism**. Hieneman, London.
9. Buttler-Adam, J.F. 1984. **A recreation study of Albert Falls Public Resort: Town and Regional Planning Report** .Vol .47. Natal Town and Regional Planning Commission , Pietermaritsburg.
10. Bradley, H. 1989.**Men's Work, Women's Work: A sociological history of the Sexual Division of Labour in Employment**. Polity Press, Cambridge.

11. Brook, S. 1992. **The environment in history: New themes for South African Geography.** In C. Rodgerson and C. McCarthy (eds). Geography in a Changing South Africa. Oxford University Press, Cape Town.
12. Bruton, M.N. 1980. **"Conservation and development in Maputaland"**. In Bruton, M.N. and Cooper K.H. (eds) -Studies on ecology of Maputaland .Cape and Transvaal Printers, Cape Town.
13. Carruthers, J. 1995. **The Kruger National Park: A social and Political history.** University of Natal Press, Maritsburg.
14. Cernea, M.M.1993. **The sociologist's Approach to Sustainable Development.** In Finance and Development, pp.7.
15. Cock, J. and Koch, E. 1991. **Going Green: People, Politics and the Environment in South Africa.** Oxford University Press, Cape Town.
16. Conable, B.1991. **"Ushering in the era of Sustainable Development"** .In Tolba, M.K. and Biswas, A.K.(eds) Earth and Us Population Resources-Environment Development. UNEP, Nairobi.
17. Connolly, D. 1992. **Connolly's Guide to Southern Africa.** Connolly Publishers, Cape Town.
18. Custos: The National Parks Magazine .1998. **What is a National Park?** South African Parks, Pretoria, pp.34.
19. Custos: The National parks Magazine.1998. **Message from the Director of Kruger National Park.** pp.7.
20. Chadwick, B.A ; Bahr, H.M. and Albrencht, S.L. 1984. **Social Science Research Methods.** Prentice Hall Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

21. Champion, J.L. and Reiss, M.J. 1995. **Ecology: Principles and applications.** Cambridge University Press, New York.
22. De Kadt, E. 1979. **Tourism - passport to Development?** Oxford University Press.
23. De Vos A.S. 1998. **Research at grassroots: A Primer for the Caring Professions.** J.L. Van Schaik Academic, Pretoria.
24. Dodds, D.G. and Patton, D.R. 1968. **Wildlife and land use: Survey of the Luangwa Valley.** Report to the government of Zambia Report No T.A 2591, Food and Agriculture Organisation.
25. Dube, L. 1997. **Women and Kinship: Comperative perspective on gender in South Africa and South East Asia.** UN University Press, Tokyo.
26. Dunning, J.H. and Mc Queen, M. 1982. **"Multinational Corporations in the International Hotel Industry"**. Annals of Tourism Research 9(I) 69-70.
27. Economic Commission of Africa. 1989. **"Report on the First African Regional Conference on Environment and Sustainable Development"**. Kampala Uganda ,16 June, ECA Main Working Document.
28. Ember, C.R. and Ember, M. 1977. **Cultural Anthropology.** Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
29. Erskine, J.M. 1985. **Ecology and Development.** In Development Bank of Southern Africa 2 (1), pp. 23-74.
29. Feldman, M.J. 1995. **Strategies for interpreting Qualitative Data.** In Qualitative Research Methods .Vol (33) .Sage Publications Inc, California.

30. Ferreira, M, Mouton, J.; Puth, G. Schurink, E. and Schurink W. 1988. **Introduction to qualitative research.** HRSC, Pretoria.
31. Food and Agricultural Organisation .1973. **Luangwa Valley on Project Results, Conclusions and Recommendations FAO: DP/ZM 168 1510 Terminal Report** .Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations, Rome.
32. Food and Agricultural Organisation.1989. In Kakonge,J .O. and Imvbore, A.M.1994. **Achieving Sustainable Development in Africa.**Lesotho Social science Review.1(1).
33. Foster, D. 1985. **Travel and Tourism Management.** Mc Millan, London.
34. Furze, B; De Lacey, T. and Brickhead, J.1996. **Management, Culture, Conservation and Biodiversity: the social dimension of linking local level development and conservation through protected areas.** John Wiley and Sons, Singapore.
35. Gay, J. 1985. **"The patriotic prostitute"**. The progressive 49 (3).
36. Graburn, N.H.H.1983. **"Tourists and prostitution"**.The progressive,49 (3).
37. Gibson, C.C. and Marks, S.A.1995. **Transforming rural hunters into Conservationists: An assessment of community based Wildlife.** In World Development , 23 (6), pp. 941-957.
38. Goday, R.1992. **The effects of income on the extraction of non timber tropical forest products among the same Indians of Nicarongua: A preliminary Study.** Cambridge & Harvard Institute for International Development, Mimeograph.

39. Haralambos, M. and Holborn, M. 1994. **Sociology: Themes and perspectives.** Collins Educational, London.
40. Harries, P.1992. **A forgotten corner of the Transvaal.** Oxford University Press, Cape Town.
41. Harrison, D. 1992. **Tourism and Less Developed Countries.** Belhaven Press, London.
42. Hartshore, K. 1992. **Crisis and Challenge: Black education 1910-1990.** Oxford University Press, Cape Town.
43. Harvey, K.1999. **The road Ahead: An interview with Mavuso Msimang, the Chief Executive of SANP .** In Timbila: Rhythms of the Earth .Vol (1) No (1) pp 36-39 Penta Publications, Johannesburg.
44. Healey, R.1992. **The role of tourism in sustainable development.** To the 4th World Parks Congress on National Parks and Protected Areas, February 1992 Caracas Venezuela.
45. Holloway, J.C. 1994. **The business of Tourism.** Pitman Publishing ,U.K.
46. Hunter, G.1976. **Policy and Practice in rural development.** Croom Helm, London.
47. IUCN .1980. **World Conservation Strategy.** In Erskine F.M. 1985. Ecology and Development, DBSA 2 (1)pp73-74..
48. Kakonge, J.O. and Imvbore, A.M. 1994. **Achieving Sustainable Development in Africa.** In Lesotho Social Science Review Vol.1 (1). National University of Lesotho, Roma.

49. Keesing, R.M. and Strathern, A.J. 1998. **Cultural Anthropology: A contemporary perspective.** Harcourt Brace College Publishers, Montreal.
50. Koch, E. 1998. **Ecolife : Conservation and tourism in a developing world.** In out there. Pretoria. March.
51. Lewis, D. and Carter, N. 1993. **Voices from Africa: Local Perspectives on Conservation.** World Wildlife Fund, Washington D.C.
52. Magi, L.M. 1986. **"Black People's cognitions of natural recreation resources in Natal North Coastal Region"**. Unpublished PHD Thesis. UniZululand, KwaDlangezwa.
53. Magi, L.M. 1989. **Cognised use of Natural Recreation Resources: A Black Perspective.** In Development Southern Africa Vol 6 (3) pp 326-339.
54. McIntosh, R.W. et al .1995. **Tourism: Principles, Practices and Philosophies.** John Wiley & Sons Inc, Chichester.
55. McNeely, J.A. 1979. **Expanding Partnerships in Conservation, IUCN - The World Conservation Union.** Island Press, Washington D.C.
56. Morovia, A. 1976. **Which tribe do you belong to?.** Granada Publishing, Frogmore.
57. Muller, H.J.A.1985. **Tourism and Development.** Position paper No.3 , Development Bank of Southren Africa.
58. Mphahlele, E. 1974. **African Image.** Faber and Feber, London.
59. Nachmias, C. and Nachmias, D.1981. **Research Methods in Social Sciences.** St Martin Press , New York.

60. Nattrass, M .et al .1990. **The political economy of South Africa**. Oxford University Press, Cape Town.
61. O'Connell, H.1994. **Women and the Family**. Zed Books Ltd , New Jersey.
62. O'Grady, R. 1981 .**Third World Stop over**. World Council of Churches, Geneva.
63. Odendaal, A. and Schoeman, G. 1990. **Tourism and Rural Development in Maputaland**. In Development Bank of Southern Africa , 7 (2) 195-207.
64. Pearce, D. 1988. "**Economics, Equity and Sustainable Development**". Futures Special Issues.
- 65.. Pearce, P.L.1982. **The Social Psychology of tourist behaviour**. Pergamon Press.
66. Reconstruction and Development Programme .1994. **ANC Policy Frame Work Document**. Umanyano Publications, Johannesburg. *
67. Repetto, R. 1986. **Economic Policy Reform For Mutual Natural Resource Institute**. Washington D.C.
68. Robinson, D. 1994. **Strategies for alternative tourism: The case of tourism in Sagar martha Everest National Park, Nepal. To Fifth International Symposium on Society and Natural Resources Management**. Fort Collins Colorado, State University.
69. Scientific Committee on problems of the Environment .1990. **Scientific Programme 1990-1992**. Scope Secretariat, Paris.
70. Simelane, T.S. 1997. **The traditional use of Indigenous Vetebrates**. Unpublished MSC Thesis ,Port Elizabeth.

71. Sinclair, A.R.E. and Arcese, P. 1995. **Serengeti II Dynamics, Management and Conservation of an Ecosystem.** University of Chicago Press, London.
72. Singh, N.C. et al .1994. **Sustainability, Poverty and Policy Adjustment, from Legacy to Vision, Findings and Recommendations of the International Conference 2-4 December 1993 on Sustainable Development, Poverty Eradication and Macro Micro Policy Adjustment.** International Institute for Sustainable Development.
73. Solomon, E.P. 1985. **Biology International Edition.**Saunders College publishing, San Antonio.
74. South African Communications Services:**Year Book.** 1997.
75. Singleton, G. 1997. **The Ecotourism Myth.** In Earthyear: The Essential Environment Guide No 15, pp. 30-33.
76. Smit, G.J. 1995. **Research Guidelines for Planning and Documentation.** Southren Book Publishers, Halfway House, Pretoria.
77. Smit, J. 1998. **Skills Development, Capacity Building and the Kruger National Park.** In Custos: National Parks Magazine, pp.47-pp49.
78. Smith, S.L.J. 1990. **Tourism Analysis: A Handbook.** John Wiley and Sons Inc, New York.
79. Sonjica, T.K.1999. **The San and the Mier get their land back.** In Land Info 6 (2) pp.17-18. Marissa Greef, Pretoria.
80. Spellerberg, I.F. 1996. **Agriculture and Environmental Challenges: Proceedings of the Thirteenth Agricultural Sector Symposium.** World Bank, Washington D.C.

81. Srivastava, J.P.1993. **Agriculture and Enviromental Challenges:Proceeding of the Thirteenth Agricultural Sector Symposium.**Worl Bank, Washington DC.
82. Statistics South Africa .1998.**The people of South Africa, Population Census: 1996.** Statistics South Africa, Pretoria.
83. The Money Standard .2000. **Education the Learning Curve.** Standard Bank, pp.42-45, Johannesburg.March.
84. Tolba, K.M. 1991.**Forewood.** In Thanh, MC and Biswas, A.K. Environmentally Sound Water Management, Oxford University Press, Oxford.
85. Van Harssel, J. 1994. **Tourism: An exploration.** Prentice Hall, New Jersey.
86. White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism .1996.
87. World Bank .1993. **Sub-Saharan Africa from Crisis to Sustainable growth.** Washington D.C.
88. World Conservation Union .1980. In World Development.23(6).
89. [htt://WWW. Gov.za/social-security.htm](http://WWW.Gov.za/social-security.htm) .2000.
90. Yawitch, J. 1981. **Betterment: the Myth of Homeland Agriculture.** South African Institute of Race Relations, Johannesburg.
91. Young, G.1973.**Tourism:Blessing or Blight.** Penguin Books, Middlesex.

NEWS PAPER REPORTS

1. Bussiness Times ,22 August 1999.
2. Bussiness Times ,30 January 2000.
3. City press,28 May 2000.
4. Mail and Guardian ,28 March -4 April 2000.
5. Sowetan 1 June 1998.
6. Sowetan 11 January 2000.
7. Sowetan 21 January 2000.
8. Sowetan 13 March 2000.
9. Sowetan 14 March 2000.
10. Sunday World, 5 March 2000
11. The Star 10 August 1998.
12. The Star 20 July 1995.
13. The Star 26 January 2000.