THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF TOURISM ON POOR RURAL COMMUNITIES: THE CASE STUDY OF MPEMBENI, A COMMUNITY BORDERING THE HLUHLUWE-UMFOLOZI PARK IN KWAZULU-NATAL, SOUTH AFRICA

BY

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SUBMITTED IN FULL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTERS OF ARTS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES IN THE FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AT THE UNIVERSITY OF DURBAN-WESTVILLE

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NOVEMBER 2001

DECLARATION

The Registrar (Academic)
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The socio-economic impacts of tourism on poor rural communities: The case study of Mpembeni, a community bordering the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park in Kwazulu-Natal, South Africa

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

Signature

18-04-2002
Date

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my thanks to the following for their invaluable contributions during my study period.

- Dr U. Bob for her professional contribution particularly her guidance, dedication and patience without which this study would have been in vain. My fellow masters students namely: Musa, Themba, Leena, Arvana, Nomusa, Delisile and Precious for their continued motivation and assistance during the study period. Special thanks go to Prof. B. Maharaj and Prof. H. Watson and all the staff of the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies for their encouragement during the study.
- The KZN Wildlife head office in Pietermaritzburg for the permission granted to conduct the research in HUP and the opportunity to utilise the facilities. Special thanks goes to B. Corcoran, H. Snyman, and I. Khumalo for their valuable help, advice and support.
- The HUP management and staff for providing invaluable information and all the hospitality accorded to me during the research, especially, T. Dale, D. Balfour and Jabulani. The Regional Community Conservation Coordinator (Zululand): P. Morrison is also thanked for her assistance in various areas of the study.
- The Mpembeni community and Chief Hlabisa for allowing me their time and resources to conduct this study.
- NRF for financial support.
- My husband and son for their patience during the long hours of my absence from them during the course of completing this study.
- Last, but not the least, the Almighty God for wisdom, knowledge and good health accorded to me during the entire study period

ABSTRACT

The relationship between protected areas and the surrounding communities is important in enhancing the success of both parties. The aim of this study was to examine the socio-economic impacts of tourism on poor rural communities adjacent to the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park with specific reference to Mpembeni community. Triangulation (a multi method approach) was used to find out attitudes and perceptions of the communities towards tourists, resources within the park as well as the role of communities in the development and promotion of tourism in the park. The study of the Mpembeni Community adjacent to the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park (HUP) shows that this community benefits in various ways.

Accessibility to natural resources such as meat, grass, firewood and water was cited as one of the benefits. Participation in the operation and management of the park was yet another benefit that was identified. In addition, the results show that a range of opportunities for positive interactions with park's management/ staff include job opportunities, good working relations and joint problem solving. Tourism development as a benefit was revealed through two specified areas namely interaction with the tourists as well as the desire to have more tourists visiting the community and the establishment of other tourist facilities in the community. The respondents also cited opportunities for tourism and related incomes, which involve the sale of handicraft products, job opportunities and cultural activities. Furthermore, education/ training programmes particularly children wildlife camps, capacity building and the training of tour community guides were also cited. In addition, natural resource management including the establishment of the Community Conservation Game Reserve (CCGR) and participation in decision-making were also identified as specific benefits.

The socio-economic impacts in all the identified specified areas except with participation in the management of the park where local communities are not fully involved were positive. This suggests that there is a need to involve local communities in the operation and management of the park as well as other community-based tourism ventures in order to uplift their standards of living.

KEY TERMS: socio-economic, impacts, tourism, poor rural communities.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

AIDS- Acquired Immunity Deficiency Syndrome

CC Africa- Conservation Corporation Africa

CCGR- Community Conservation Game Reserve

CDO- Community Development Organisation

DBSA- Development Bank of Southern Africa

DEAT- Department of Economic Affairs and Tourism

DEAT- Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism

ICDP- Integrated Conservation and Development Programme

GDP- Gross Domestic Product

HGR- Hluhluwe Game Reserve

HMG- His Majesty's Government of Nepal

HUP- Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park

KZNNCS- Kwazulu-Natal Nature Conservation Services

KZN Wildlife- Kwazulu-Natal Wildlife

MRC- Medical Research Council

NPB- Natal Parks Board

OECD- Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development

RDP- Rural Development Programme

SALDRU- South African Labour and Development Research Unit

SDI- Spatial Development Initiative

SPSS- Statistical Package for Social Sciences

STDs- Sexually Transmitted Diseases

TAs- Tribal Authorities

TNCs- Transnational Corporations

UGR- Umfolozi Game Reserve

UNEP- United Nations Environmental Programme

VEE- Venezuelan Equine Encephalitis

WTO- World Tourism Organisation

WTTC- World Travel and Tourism Council

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 GENERAL INTRODUCTION

Tourism has become one of the largest and fastest growing world industries and contributes significantly to the social and economic well being of the destination areas (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism: DEAT, 1997; Giongo and Nizeye, 1994; World Travel and Tourism Council: WTTC, 1996). This significant contribution has been realised even in rural or depressed areas of both developed and developing countries (Odendal and Schoeman, 1990). According to Filion et al (1992), tourism generated approximately an equivalent of R1 631 billion world-wide in 1992. WTTC (1996) estimates that in terms of employment, tourism is the largest industry providing 255 million jobs (1 in 9 workers) globally. As a specific example, travel to the United States National Parks Service areas generated direct and indirect economic impact for local communities worth an equivalent of R99.4 billion and supported almost 300 000 tourist-related jobs during 1996 (Tourism Works for America, 1997). Lindberg and Enriquez (1994) noted that in Bolivia, tourism generates approximately an equivalent of R1 471 million in sales annually, including R287 million in payments to households while His Majesty's Government of Nepal (HMG) (1996) indicated that in Nepal tourism generated an equivalent of R819 million in 1996. Oviedo (1999) observed that tourism activities within the Galapagas Islands (Ecuador) generates an equivalent of R420 million a year and this is a quarter of the foreign exchange received from tourism for the entire country. In the Middle East/ Africa region, tourism generated 19.9 million jobs in 1996 (WTTC, 1996). In Kenya, the tourism industry generates a third of the country's foreign exchange and according to the Kenya Wildlife Services (1995), the revenue from the wildlife parks was equivalent to R10.2 million in 1995. In South Africa, Creemers and Wood (1997) illustrated that the tourism industry contributed between R23.8 to R28.6 billion to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and approximately one million jobs in 1995. In Kwazulu-Natal in 1996, tourism generated approximately R11 billion (Department of Economic Affairs and Tourism: DEAT, 1997) and provided 368 000 jobs (WTTC, 1996).

On the other hand, the unexpected rapid expansion of tourism has resulted in a number of economic, social and environmental negative impacts in destination areas. Examples of the negative economic impacts include inflation in prices for land, as well as goods and services, economic leakage, foreign dominance, overdependence on tourism, and denial of access to natural resources (Bennet, 1995; Cater, 1993; Koch et al, 1998; Lea, 1988; Lindberg et al, 1998; Place, 1995; Wallace, 1992). The negative social impacts include the demonstration effect; neo-colonialism; poor health conditions and immoral behaviours (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Moore and Masinga, 1999; Nepal, 2000; Shaw and Williams, 1994; and World Tourism Organisation: WTO, 1994b).

Although many studies show how destination areas benefit significantly from the tourism industry, less has been shown on how poor rural communities benefit since there is limited integration of local communities and previously neglected groups in tourism (White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa, DEAT 1996). In Kwazulu-Natal, however, there are a few regions where information is available (Creemers and Wood, 1997; Gumede, 1998; Infield, 1986 and 1988; Kwazulu-Natal Nature Conservation Services: KZNNCS, 1998; Kwazulu-Natal Tourism Authority, 1998; Rudman, 1998). In the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi area in particular, there is insufficient published data that specifically focuses on the impact of tourism on poor rural communities residing adjacent to the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park.

1.2 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The growth and development of tourism has stimulated research on many aspects of tourism. However, most research on tourism has been conducted at the international and national levels and, as a result, much data has been obtained at ease in this regard. This is already a reality in some African countries, which are generally focusing on tourism ventures based in or near rural communities. For instance in Kenya, the Kenya Wildlife Service is focusing on tourism that includes elements such as better co-ordination of land use and involvement of the local population (Cater, 1995). The governments of Mozambique, Swaziland and South Africa established the Lubombo Spatial Development Initiative (SDI), a partnership between the three countries in 1998 with an aim of alleviating poverty through environmental-orientated projects such as tourism and

agriculture. In the case of South Africa, this is especially geared to the Kwazulu-Natal region. For example, Lunsche (2000) reported that the South African government has embarked on building a tar road from Hluhluwe to Sodwana Bay in order to boost tourism and industry in Northern Kwazulu-Natal.

Furthermore, tourism as an activity is unevenly distributed and is concentrated in localised resort areas. Therefore, generalisations from studies conducted at national or international levels may be misleading if applied to more restricted areas and specific contexts. There is, therefore, a need to focus on studies concentrating on local regions. South Africa is no exception and has already moved a step ahead. For example, the South African Department of Land Affairs has already ventured into community-based ecotourism developments in the Kruger, Addo Elephant, Richtersveld and Kosi Bay National Parks (DEAT, 1997). For instance, in the Richtersveld National Park, Bruce and Archer (1997) observed that the members of communities living within and in close proximity to the park have been trained as field guides and have developed skills in the laying out of hiking trails. The women have been taught fabric printing, a skill they have used to decorate one of the park's lodges. In addition, the communities are leasing out land to the South African National Parks at R900 000 per annum (Fakir, 1999) The Addo Elephant National Park management employs nearly twice the number of people at four times the average income of a commercial goat farm of comparable size (Kerley, 1997). Furthermore, additional employment is provided through the associated tour operators, travel agents and curio suppliers. Venter et al (1995), during their study on the Kruger National Park identified that the Kruger National Park management orders curios produced from the local communities. The Kosi Bay Park management, employs local people to construct the chalets which offer tourist accommodation facilities (Odendal and Schoeman (1990).

On the other hand, as stated earlier, the growth and development of tourism has caused many observers to raise a number of questions concerning the social, cultural, economic and environmental desirability of encouraging further expansion. Some of the questions raised are:

- Do the host communities benefit from the expenditures incurred by the tourists?
- Is tourism encouraging behaviour such as prostitution, crime and gambling in the destination areas?
- Does tourism promote and support the traditional arts and cultures of the host communities?
- Do governments give development priorities to satisfy the needs of tourists instead of the host communities?
- Are host communities meeting the expensive tourist facilities through the payment of taxes?
- Do local communities have access to tourist facilities and resources?

Adequate answers to such questions are emerging through research though fragmented and divergent. In addition, impact-oriented research has been equally specialised, with an emphasis on specific types of impacts while excluding others. For example, Travis (1982) assessed the environmental and cultural impacts of tourism in England while May (1991) considered some of the effects of tourism on the physical environment in the developing countries. Cater (1993) dealt with the problems associated with ecotourism in Kenya and Tanzania, while Valentine (1993) examined the relationship between ecotourism and nature conservation in Micronesia. Furthermore, Nepal (2000) examined the socio-economic and environmental consequences as a result of the Himalayas' (Nepal) becoming a popular destination for international tourists. Infield (1986; 1988) examined the attitudes of local communities towards the conservation of the Central Complex, a protected area in Kwazulu-Natal while Gumede (1998) considered how ecotourism impacts the culture of local communities residing adjacent to the Mkuzi Game Reserve in Kwazulu-Natal.

This study, therefore, examines the key questions relating to the socio-economic impacts of tourism on poor rural communities adjacent to the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park in Kwazulu-Natal. The aim of this study is to establish, in detail, the possible answers to the key aims and objectives outlined below.

1.3 THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of this study is to examine the socio-economic impacts of tourism ventures in relation to poor rural communities adjacent to the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park in Kwazulu-Natal.

1.4 THE STUDY OBJECTIVES

This study will be comprised of the following specific objectives:

- To examine the extent and nature of interaction between poor rural communities and the management of the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park.

- To assess the attitudes and perceptions of adjacent rural communities towards tourists.

- To assess the types of tourist facilities as well as resources found within the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park that impact on or has the potential to impact on the lives of the adjacent rural communities.

- To examine whether poor rural communities are involved in the development and promotion of tourism in the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park.

- To forward recommendations based on research findings.

1.5 CHAPTER SEQUENCE

This study comprises of five chapters. Chapter one deals with the general introduction, motivation of the study, aim, objectives and the chapter sequence. In chapter two the current literature in the field relating to the socio-economic impacts of tourism on poor rural communities is critically examined. Chapter three deals with the description of the study area as well as the methods and techniques used to obtain the required data. In chapter four the description of data and the discussion of the research findings are dealt with. Finally, chapter five concentrates on the conclusion and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter two issues are addressed. Firstly, the current literature on the social and economic impacts of tourism on poor rural communities is critically assessed. Secondly, the relationship between tourism and rural development is examined.

The impacts of tourism on destination areas have been the focus of a great deal of research for the past two decades (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Peace, 1989; Smith and Eadington, 1993). In addition, most of the established literature holds that tourists bring with them positive and negative impacts (Shaw and Williams, 1994). During the past three decades although analysts have come across many impacts associated with tourism development, economic impacts are generally perceived as positive whereas social and environmental impacts are generally perceived as negative (Liu et al, 1987). For example, WTO/ UNEP (United Nations Environmental Programme) (1992) stated that tourism is a source of income, creates a significant number of jobs, improves transportation infrastructures and encourages local entrepreneurs. Whereas undoubtedly tourism is a source of benefits, it can also create negative impacts on the economy, society, culture and the environment of the destination areas (WTO/ UNEP, 1992). These impacts tend to be greatest in regions where development occurs with little planning or control; where the lifestyles, cultures and prosperity of tourists have a great contrast with that of the host population; and where there is a large practice of mass tourism (Singleton, 1997). How the two views impact on the poor rural communities is the focus of this literature review.

2.2 THE ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF TOURISM

2.2.1 Introduction

The economic impact of tourism is described as a change in sales, income, jobs or other parameters generated by tourism (Lindberg, 1996). There is no doubt, therefore, that tourism has major effects on the economies of destination areas. Research has primarily focused on the economic aspects of the industry and this has led to a proportionately

large number of studies of this effect. This is a reflection of the viewpoint that tourism contributes positively to the economic development of destination areas.

However, most of the studies of the economic impacts of tourism have been directed at international and national levels (Croukamp, 1996; Driml and Common, 1995; Fillion et al, 1992; Lindberg and Enriquez, 1994; The Kenya Wildlife Service, 1995; Tourism Works for America, 1997). Even the early studies of Oglivie (1933), Alexander (1953) and Waugh (1962) at regional and local levels constituted of introductory statements on the economics of tourism rather than a detailed examination of the economic impacts of tourism. Nevertheless, there are a few noted investigations at regional and local levels, which give a detailed examination of the economic impacts of tourism. For example, Bruce and Archer (1997) and Kerley (1997) illustrated how ecotourism is a viable alternative to local communities residing adjacent to protected areas in South Africa. Infield (1986; 1988) examined the attitudes of local communities towards the conservation of a protected area in Kwazulu-Natal while DEAT (1995) and Creemers and Wood (1997) highlighted the economic contribution of tourism in Kwazulu-Natal. In addition, while Odendal and Schoeman (1990) examined tourism and development in Maputaland, Gumede (1998) highlighted the ecotourism impacts on the culture of local communities adjacent to the Mkuzi Game Reserve in Kwazulu-Natal.

It is imperative to note that within the economic studies, there is an uneven emphasis since most studies concentrate on the economic benefits such as job creation, local business opportunities and income generation (Lindberg and Johnson, 1997) while little attention is given to the costs such as economic leakage and the inflation in prices of land as well as goods and services. In fact, positive economic benefits are actively publicised while residents are more concerned and vocal about the negative economic impacts which occur, albeit in part, as a result of tourism and its related activities (Fleming and Toepper, 1990). Additionally, exactly who benefits in a largely socially differentiated society (in terms of gender, race, class and ethnicity) remains neglected. There is, therefore, a need to balance the economic benefits and costs incurred when assessing the

real economic impacts of tourism in order to come up with the best cost/ benefit results in relation to specific groups and in specific contexts.

2.2.2 The Economic benefits

2.2.2.1 Job Creation

Tourism is perceived as the world's largest generator of a wide range of jobs (Croukamp, 1996). Moreover, most of the jobs it creates are found either in regions with a low level of development or in tourist centres and towns which are serving as cultural and administrative centres (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development: OECD, 1995). In 1995, tourism provided direct and indirect employment to one in every nine economically active people accounting for 10.7% of the global work force (Creemers and Wood, 1997; Croukamp, 1996; WTTC, 1996). Furthermore, the WTTC (1996) estimated that tourism provided 255 million jobs in the Middle East-Africa region in both the formal and informal sectors.

The tourism industry, therefore, is known for its wide range of job categories. This can be supported by the work of Holloway (1994: 40) in which he expressed his views that:

> Tourism can create jobs in travel agencies, tour operators, and other intermediaries who supply tourist services in both the generating and destination areas. Transport companies such as airlines can also employ staff to serve tourists in both areas. But the bulk of employment is in destination regions, with jobs ranging from hotel managers to deckchair attendants, from excursion booking clerks to cleaners employed in the stately homes that are open to the public, or maintenance staff who maintains the rides and leisure centres or theme parks in the resort.

Furthermore, the jobs created are either direct (for example in businesses like accommodation, restaurants and attraction sites), indirect (for example in construction, agricultural and manufacturing industries, travel agents and curio suppliers) or induced (jobs created as a result of direct and indirect jobs) (Goeldner et al, 2000). The three job categories are perceived to contribute significantly to the socio-economic well being of the communities residing in rural or depressed areas (Boo, 1990; Koch et al, 1998; Odendal and Schoeman, 1990) where there are high unemployment rates and population

densities, underdevelopment as well as massive numbers of unskilled personpower. Since approximately 50% of jobs in tourism require little or no skills (Creemers and Wood, 1997), the industry has the potential to absorb the unemployed in such areas, the majority of which are women. In fact, research conducted in various parts of the world reveal that the female population is dominating the restaurants, hotels and entertainment, wholesale and retail sectors of the workforce at the menial and semi-skilled levels (Creemers and Wood, 1997).

There are several examples of regions in the world where job opportunities in the tourism industry have been realised (Hamley, 1991; Infield, 1986; Ntiamoa-Baidu et al, 2000; Place, 1988 and 1995; Ransom, 1998; Tourism Works for America, 1997). In Tortugero (Costa Rica), the three major employers in 1986 were the Tortuga Lodge, the Turtle Research Station (locally referred to as Casa Verde and run by the Caribbean Conservation Corporation) and the Coast Development Agency (Place, 1988). Although they employed a small number of people, they represented a significant sector in the village economy. This represented more than a third of Tortugero's households, making it the most significant source of formal employment in the village albeit irregular and unreliable for the most part. Further still, eleven of the twenty-seven households depended on the income from Tortuga Lodge while eight villagers received their income from Casa Verde. There were also cases of households that obtained their income from both sources. Many of these villagers, however, worked only on a part-time or seasonal basis (early July to mid September) at Casa Verde and sporadically at Tortuga Lodge. Nevertheless, Place (1995) during her visit to Tortugero in May 1993, noted that several hundred new residents had migrated to the village as a result of employment opportunities in the new tourist facilities. In Ecuador, two out of every three economically active people in the Galapagas Islands are employed either directly or indirectly in tourism related activities (Oviedo, 1999). This, however, may vary sharply from one island to another.

In the Canadian Northwest Territories, of the 24 250 people in the territorial labour force in 1989, some 2 500 were employed in tourism (Hamley, 1991). Tourism Works for America revealed that travel to the US National Parks Service areas in 1996 supported almost 300 000 tourist-related jobs among local communities. In the Eastern Caprivi region of Namibia, through the LIFE (Live In a Finite Environment) project, tourism contributes to the local economy through employment opportunities (Ntiamoa-Baidu et al, 2000). In Uganda employment especially for men is evident as a result of the tourists who visit the Mt. Elgon National Park (Ransom, 1998).

Furthermore, the tourism industry created a total of 1 009 000 jobs in South Africa in 1994 (WTTC. 1996). For example, in the Addo Elephant National Park, the park management offers more job opportunities and better wages to the local communities as compared to the agricultural farms situated within the same area (Kerley, 1997). This is very important in this part of the country where so many people are unemployed and poverty is rife. In the Central Complex in Kwazulu-Natal the most frequently experienced benefit was employment as viewed by 53% of the respondents. In fact one of the respondents, a young male said, "The Central Complex is our Johannesburg. When we need money we go there for a job" (Infield, 1986: 61). Creemers and Wood (1997) also noted that between 182 000 and 230 000 direct and indirect jobs were created in Kwazulu-Natal in 1995. It was also identified that the local people living adjacent to the Mkuzi Game Reserve (Kwazulu-Natal) are offered jobs ranging from tour guides, field rangers, cooks, tour operators, housekeepers, farm aids to general assistants (Gumede, 1998). Additionally, the Phinda Private Game Reserve in Kwazulu-Natal managed by Conservation Corporation Africa (CC Africa) employs close to 300 people mostly from neighbouring communities (Lunsche, 2000).

Most of these jobs, however, are seasonal or part-time and not regarded as meaningful since the workers have to be laid off during the low or off-peak season (Bennet, 1995; Goeldner et al, 2000; Holloway, 1994; Koch et al, 1998, Lea, 1988; Odendal and Schoeman, 1990). This gives an indication that the contribution of tourism to full-time employment is considerably less than its contribution to 'job hours'. However,

> whilst this is a criticism of the industry in economic terms, and one that has resulted in large sums of money being spent in many resorts, one must be reminded that these jobs are often created in an area where there is little alternative employment. (Holloway, 1994: 40)

This is in agreement with the argument that such jobs could make a very big difference in rural areas with few available alternatives (Lindberg, 1996; Koch et al, 1998; and Singh, 1999). For example, Singh (1999) while working with the Sherpas of Khumbu and Rolwaling valley regions in Nepal identified that Trek tourism had created jobs. However, in the Rolwaling valley regions the economic benefits came with environmental and social costs as well. Koch et al (1998: 910) observed that:

> Wage labour, however, especially in the depressed rural areas of South Africa where tourism-led growth is taking place, cannot be ignored as a means of improving peoples' livelihoods. In many of the Spatial Development Initiative (SDI) regions, tourism offers vitally important employment opportunities to the most marginal groups: women, the young and the unskilled.

adjust this properly fit in.

Apart from the workers being laid off during the off-peak season, the workers are unable to supplement their meagre income via agriculture since the seasons for both coincide. This is, however, in contrast with what was observed in Khumbu (Nepal) that during the off-peak season, the lodges shut down and the local Sherpa people return to their traditional subsistence living (Zurich, 1992). Furthermore, the Nepalese government has developed off-peak season activities and maximised the activity during the peak season. Such activities include the opening of new trekking areas, diversification of the tourism base to attract more non-trekkers, and the promotion of monsoon trekking for adventure travellers who are interested in seeing the hills alive with village life but empty of western tourists (Bezruchka, 1989).

In addition to the seasonal nature of jobs, the wages offered to the local people are very low and inconsistent compared to those of the expatriates who are in the managerial and higher-paid jobs. This was noted by Koch et al (1998) in the Kenyan coastal regions where many of the jobs generated by the tourism industry are occupied by better educated, up-country people who have moved to the coastal areas due to perceived job

opportunities created by tourism. Hitchcock (1997) also observed that some of the ecotourism projects in the rest of Africa have expatriates in management level positions, while lower-paying and less important jobs go to local people. For example, the experience of tourism in Botswana has revealed that tourism companies generally hire Bushmen for menial jobs like camp cleaners and trackers for safari hunters. In the Kruger National Park, Wells (1996) argues that the employment of local people in tourism enterprises is often hampered by lack of education, skills and training available to the often-impoverished communities bordering the park.

2.2.2.2 Generation of local income

The tourism industry is one of the sectors that provide local income generating opportunities to the host populations in the destination areas through wages and salaries, interest, as well as rent and profits. The greatest proportion of income is likely to be obtained from wages and salaries paid to workers either directly serving the needs of tourists or benefiting indirectly from tourists' expenditures (Holloway, 1994). The income generated can either be direct, indirect or induced. For example, the people employed in hotels, restaurants and tourists shops earn direct income while those employed in the supplying sectors such as agriculture earn indirect income. The people supported by the spending of income generated through direct and indirect employment earn induced income (for example, a hotel worker paying school/education fees for his/ her children).

There are several examples of regions in South Africa where tourism is known for its generation of income to the local population in destination areas In the Waterberg Conservancy, the local people have acquired various skills which they use to set up income generating enterprises (Pollet and Mander, 1994). Such enterprises include vehicle repair workshops, hairdressing, craftwork and woodcarving, general dealers and hardware shops, cafes, restaurants, bottle stores as well as butcheries. Venter et al (1994), during their survey in the Kruger National Park, also noted that the management had put development plans into action to involve the local communities within close proximity to the park. For example, the park has facilitated the establishment of two associations: Salubindza Original Art and Nyongane Art. These associations co-ordinate the marketing

of their members' products (carvings and crafts) within the park and in the surrounding regions. In addition, the park in joint ventures with the local taxi associations, has developed a project to train local entrepreneurs as park tour guides. This project includes a comprehensive training course, and reduced gate and accommodation charges. Furthermore, the park and the Traditional Healers Organisation have implemented a project to assist the local traditional healers obtain plant and animal materials for sale. Further still, the park has combined efforts with the former KaNgwane Economic Development Corporation and the former Gazankulu Development Corporation to help local entrepreneurs produce items used in the park. The two projects that have been completed in this regard include the supply of overalls for the staff and table clothes for the restaurants.

In addition, the management of the Kruger National Park has initiated an Integrated Conservation and Development Programme (ICDP). The programme is based on proposals developed through consultation with representatives from communities ranging from local, sub-regional to regional levels. One of the key objectives of the programme:

> is the stimulation of small business development through the purchase of locally produced goods. This objective is in line with National Parks Board's policy i.e. curios and/ or consumables purchased by a National Park should wherever possible, be produced by the communities neighbouring on that National Park. (Venter et al, 1995: 4)

As a result of the initiative that was taken, Venter et al (1995) identified that between April 1, 1994 and January 30, 1995, local curio orders made by the park totalled R170 434,85. This showed a growth rate of 1 053% on the 1993/ 1994 local curio orders (R16 187,35). Furthermore, the total value of local curios ordered by the park's shops showed a tremendous increase. During the sales representatives' first trip to the shops, the total orders amounted to R18 273,75. This rose to R53 375,37 on the second trip and R75 167,25 on the third trip (Venter et al, 1995). In the Richtersveld National Park, the community members residing within and in close proximity to the park generate some income by working as field guides and through the skill of fabric painting (Bruce and Archer, 1997). In the Addo Elephant National Park, through the Mayibuye Ndlovu

Project, "specific facilities have been provided at the park entrance for the local communities to market their crafts to tourists" (Kerley, 1997: 28).

In rural Kwazulu-Natal, where there are limited job creation opportunities in the commercial agricultural, fishing and forestry sectors, Kwazulu-Natal Wildlife (KZN Wildlife) generated an average income of R23 000 per household per annum for unskilled employees (South African Labour and Development Research Unit: SALDRU, 1994). This was a significant benefit to rural communities for whom the average household income of R11 808 per annum was estimated (SALDRU, 1994). A survey of the informal curio traders near protected areas in the north-eastern part of Kwazulu-Natal (Creemers and Wood, 1997), indicated that though the incomes derived were low, they nevertheless provided some alternative livelihood activities for women with no other opportunities of obtaining a cash income. The Thandanani Handicraft Centre, which is situated on the road to the Royal Natal National Park (Kwazulu-Natal), has baskets and beadwork as well as a range of other traditional handicrafts produced by the local Amazizi people for sale. This centre is based on a co-operative system where local people collectively sell their handiwork and share in the profits (Rudman, 1998). Gumede (1998) too, during her study on the Mkuzi Game Reserve noted that the KwaJobe community members sell arts and crafts to tourists.

Income is also obtained from levies, which are paid by the visitors entering the protected areas. In Kwazulu-Natal, visitors entering particular protected areas administered by the KZN Wildlife are required to pay a community levy. This levy is used to assist the neighbouring communities with capacity building and development of their surroundings (KZNNCS, 1998; Gumede, 1998). For example, according to Gowans (1999), R730 000 was generated from the levies of visitors to the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park. According to the report,

> the ten *amakhosi* (tribal chiefs) from communities bordering the park decided to invest the first year's community levy in a future tourist project within the park in order to meet the financial needs of the communities. (Gowans, 1999: 1)

On the other hand, although tourism generates income for the local communities in the destination areas, there are some regions where this is not a reality. For example, although the local people in the Kosi Bay region are able to make a lot of products for the curio market, the middle-people retain the greatest part of the benefits and the least is channelled back to the producers (Odendal and Schoeman, 1990). In Nepal, it is not very clear whether there is any transfer of income to the destination areas. Zurich (1992) argued it on the grounds that.

> much of the earnings from the tourism industry never leave the generating areas, where tour packages are created. Moreover, much of what reaches the host country remains in the national gateways. (Zurich, 1992: 625)

Furthermore (still in Nepal), tourism has created unfairness in the distribution of wealth because there is a great difference in income generated between villagers residing on trekking routes and those living away from them (Banskota and Sharma, 1997).

2.2.2.3 Tourism and business, service provision and infrastructural development

The tourism industry accommodates a prosperous and dynamic informal sector, which includes craft, fruit and beach vendors, as well as chair rentals. It also offers a number of business opportunities to the host communities (The White Paper on Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa, 1996). For example, the Conservation Corporation Africa (CC Africa) in close partnership with the Mduku community in Northern Kwazulu-Natal is involved in tourism and environmental oriented small businesses (Lunsche, 2000). Such businesses include paper recycling, charcoal manufacturing, bush cleaning and wood collection as well as sewing and weaving classes for local women.

At the same time, tourism contributes to improvements on local and regional transportation networks, water quality, sanitation facilities, garbage disposal and hotel development. For example, in Nepal modern roads, bus travel and public transport have been developed partly as a result of the tourism industry (Zurich, 1992). This is in agreement with what was identified in the Kosi Bay region that:

> the introduction of tourism to rural areas results in a tremendous increase of mobility within the area. Transport increases and local people are able to move around at an increased rate. This type of mobility clearly brings about a situation where traditional lifestyles gradually change. (Odendal and Schoeman, 1990: 199)

Furthermore, although the Lubombo Spatial Development Initiative (SDI) tourism road project primary target was to bring tourists to the currently under-developed areas like Kosi and Sodwana Bays as well as Lake Sibaya, the tarred road has placed for the first time more that 75 000 impoverished rural residents within five kilometres of an all-weather road (Wildlife News, 1998). It has also provided more than half of the population residing in high-risk malaria areas access to a surfaced road within three kilometres of their homes. In Mduku community, which lies along the shores of Lake St Lucia in Northern Kwazulu-Natal, the CC Africa has facilitated projects such as the building of 18 pre-schools and 35 classrooms, a laboratory at Mduku High School and 3 school libraries (Lunsche, 2000). From a health point of view, the Mduku clinic and pre-natal facility have been put in place. However, there are high costs incurred by governments in the provision and maintenance of tourist infrastructure and other social services such as health care, education, food and nutrition programmes (Bennet, 1995; Ferreira, 1994). These, tend to compete with local peoples' basic social needs since public funds are not easily available (Place, 1995). Furthermore, as the number of tourists increases, the need to generate infrastructure demands also increases. This forces the destination areas to adapt to western tastes and demands as is the case in the Nepalese Himalayas where the trekking lodges offer almost impossibly extensive menus (Cater, 1995). In addition, although gradual hotel development creates an increase in the demand for local produce, it has been argued that rapid hotel development creates urgent demands for massive volumes of agricultural products, which the local suppliers cannot provide. In most cases the management turns to foreign suppliers who prevent the local ones from taking advantage of the expanding market (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). This leads to the absence of development in the host communities, resentment and a feeling of neo-colonial domination.

2.2.2.4 The multiplier effect

The term multiplier effect reflects the amount of new economic activities generated as basic income circulates within the economy and it depends upon the strength of sector linkages (Goeldner et al, 2000). For example, sectors with strong links result in larger multiplier effects whereas those with weak links have small multiplier effects. Therefore, strong linkages and larger multiplier effects are expected if the year-round resorts in a given destination area hire local labour and entertainers, buy products from local farmers and obtain furnishings for guest rooms from local manufacturers. On the other hand, weak linkages and small multiplier effects are expected if one depends mostly on imported goods and services. Whether the multiplier effects are large or small, they aggregate direct, indirect and induced effects (Creemers and Wood, 1997; McGahey 1995). The direct effects are common in sectors in which tourists spend their money directly thus providing a living for the owners and managers as well as creating jobs for employees (Goeldner et al, 2000). Such sectors include hotels, restaurants and airline operators among others.

Unlike the direct effects, the indirect effects result from the visitors' expenditures. For example, when the visitors spend money, an income is generated and this in turn leads to a chain of expenditure-income-expenditure, until leakages bring it to a stop. Goeldner et al (2000) used the following example to illustrate the indirect effects. A tourist buys an air ticket. The money received is used to pay the airport employees. The employees then spend the money on groceries, the grocer uses the money to pay rent and then the landlady/ lord spends it on fees for her/ his children. The cycle only stops when the money is lost to the local economy. Indirect multiplier effects are found in sectors which supply goods and services to the "front-line" establishments such as hotels buying the services of builders, accountants, banks, food and car rental (Lindberg, 1996).

The induced effects then are re-spent in the economy at large as a result of wages and profits earned from direct and indirect effects (Fleming and Toepper, 1990; Johnson and Moore, 1993; McGahey, 1995). This re-spending of incomes, thereby creating additional expenditures by tourists in a destination area, creates new incomes and outputs in the

region, which in turn produces a chain of expenditures and incomes until leakages bring it to a stop. These induced effects are used to determine the multiplier effect because not all income generated is re-spent locally. Some of it may be spent outside the local economy.

2.2.3 Economic costs

2.2.3.1 Economic leakage

There is always a figure quoted in positive reports on the economic benefits from the tourism sector in destination areas. This statistic, however, is not a true reflection of reality (Koch et al, 1998) because it hides the impact of economic leakages mainly from a wide range of tourism expenditures (Lindberg, 1996). In fact, a consistent finding of economic impact studies, particularly in developing countries is the high level of leakage (Lindberg and Enriquez, 1994; Nepal, 2000). Some of the key economic leakages include the importation of goods and services preferred by international tourists, international promotion and advertising, contractual and service fees, commissions to international tour operators, salaries of foreign personnel as well as repatriation of profits by foreign hotel owners (Fakir, 1999; Koch et al, 1998; McGahey, 1995; Nepal, 2000; Wallace, 1992). Conversely, McGahey (1995) argues that not all leakages should be stopped and he bases his argument on the fact that there is an obvious need to promote tourism of a given destination area in overseas markets.

In addition, much of the literature on economic leakages show how promoters and developers receive substantial economic benefits through profits, interest earnings and consultancy fees, with minimal seepage into the local economy. In Costa Rica, most of the guests at the expensive hotels book their tours through agencies in San Jose or their home country (Place, 1995). This means that almost all the income obtained flows into San Jose or foreign travel agencies. Similarly in Nepal, it is still difficult to retain tourism economic benefits at the local level (Banskota and Sharma, 1997). For example, reports from a recent survey that was conducted in the Ghandruk and Ghorepani areas revealed that only 55% of the income obtained was retained locally. At the same time, a significant part of the rural population did not get enough opportunities to realise the

tourism benefits. In the Gambia, it is estimated that about 23% of the inclusive tour price actually accrue to the country and 30% of the total food imports are used in the tourism sector with definite foreign exchange implications (Koch et al, 1998). In the same way, it has been argued that the Commonwealth Caribbean has a leakage of 77%. Such high levels of leakages are due to the countries' small and undiversified economies as well as the great dependency on imported goods, which are required to support the tourism industry. This is, however, not the case with India where it was noted that 75% of tourism income is retained in the country and the multipliers are reasonably high (Koch et al, 1998). This is attributed to, among other factors, India's high level of industrialisation and an extensive internal market. In South Africa, leakages are evident in terms of poor rural areas versus rich and well-serviced urban areas and so Fakir (1999) notes that local communities do not receive a large share of the benefits.

2.2.3.2 Inflation in prices for land, goods and services

There are very few documented studies, which show how inflation due to tourism affects a host population (Lea, 1988). This is an aspect that is important today as well and there is plenty of conventional wisdom to suggest that some price rise can be linked to this cause. The inflationary consequences of tourism can occur through different ways and the most obvious ones involve increases in retail prices of goods in shops during the tourist season as well as steeply rising land values leading to a general rise in home costs and property taxes.

The inflation in land prices is a result of competition for land between the investors and the local people due to the growth and development of the tourism industry (Cater, 1993; Goeldner et al, 2000; Lea, 1988; Place, 1995). Since the investors in most cases can afford to pay, land prices tend to escalate beyond the means of the average low-income residents who end up experiencing financial burdens or even losing their land. This was the case in Swaziland where huge increases in land values occurred in the Ezulweni Valley tourist centre as a result of pressure from South African investors (Lea, 1988). In Costa Rica, the dramatic price inflation in the past five years has led to most Costa Ricans being priced out of land and home ownership (Place, 1995).

There is also an increase in prices of retail goods and services at destination areas (Zwick, 1991). This is in agreement with what was observed in the Himalayas (Nepal) where tourism has brought about local inflation of essential goods and services, which are mainly imported from cities like Pokhara and Kathmandu (Banskota and Sharma, 1997). This is attributed to the fact that some retailers raise the prices of goods and services or stock more expensive goods and services to cater for wealthy tourists. This creates inflation because the local residents end up paying more than the normal prices for the goods and services (Bennet, 1995; Maloney, 1999). For example, in the Maldives and Sychelles Islands, the rate of begging in particular has increased because the locals cannot afford the exorbitant prices (Maloney, 1999).

2.2.3.3 Foreign dominance in investment and ownership of tourist facilities

Surveys that have been carried out in several countries showed that foreign ownership of tourist plants is common especially in developing countries (Shaw and Williams, 1994). For example, in Costa Rica, foreigners from Germany and Hungary opened up restaurants in 1995 (Campbell, 1999). In addition, many governments encourage private sector investment where the foreign investors partly or completely own the tourist facilities especially in the hotel sector. This can be attributed in the first place to the fact that during the early stages of tourist development, the infrastructure and service facilities require large sums of capital, which the governments of the destination areas are lacking. Secondly, there is the emergence of Transnational Corporations (TNCs) which own a number of international hotel and restaurant chains as well as tour operators. Examples of these include Macdonald, Holiday Inn, Kentucky Fried Chicken and Hilton Hotels.

Apart from the foreign investors owning the tourist facilities, they also dominate these facilities. For example, there is a high import content of goods and services used in the tourism industry. The imports are either direct or indirect. Whereas direct imports involve the importation of goods and services consumed directly by the tourists or used in the tourism industry, the indirect imports involve the importation of raw materials, manufactured goods and services for domestic producers who provide goods and services for the tourism industry.

Though this is a normal situation, it is undesirable at the same time. For instance in Tortuguero village (Costa Rica), the souvenir shops sell imported handcrafts and other items from elsewhere (Cater, 1995). The local people who are able to supply such items have been denied such an opportunity simply because the business is in the hands of foreign investors. The ever-increasing pace of outside investment in the same region is reducing the opportunity for local entrepreneurs to be involved in the tourism business. Instead the locals are menial employees in dead-end jobs and this prevents them from accumulating their own capital to invest in tourist facilities and services. In the case of Belize, it is estimated that foreigners own 90% of all coastal development (Koch et al, 1998). This means a loss of control by the local population. In the long run, the prices of land, goods and services increase to a level where the local people cannot afford to pay. In the Kruger National Park (KNP) according to the 1993/ 1994 financial year KNP annual report, consumable items worth R72 124 993 were purchased of which, less than R50 000 were produced in the neighbouring communities (Venter et al, 1995).

It was also noted that in 1994, the Kruger National Park purchased approximately R5 000 000 worth of curios of which only R16 000 were produced in neighbouring communities. Wells, (1996: 65), however, attributed this low proportion to some factors such as:

> a very limited range of locally produced curios that was readily available, inferior quality of the locally produced items, irregular supply and quantity, ineffective marketing and the unwillingness of the park staff to invest their time and effort in resolving issues related to the curios.

2.2.3.4 Overdependence on tourism

There are many dangers associated with tourism dependent growth. This is more rampart if tourism is concentrated in only one or a few areas of a country or region. This mainly happens in cases where tourism attracts many employees because of its higher wages and better working conditions (WTO, 1994b) as compared to other economic sectors. Koch et al (1998) observed this in Malindi on the Kenyan coast where it is estimated that 90% of the local population in Malindi work directly in the tourism industry. The jobs, however, are mainly associated with menial labour in hotels and restaurants, local construction companies and the transport industry, local tour operations, boat operators and crew, fish

and curio sellers, prostitution as well as shell collectors. Though this employment pattern is a reflection of positive multiplier effects, the overdependence problem is felt in the off-season when there is widespread suffering and poverty since there are no alternative sources of income. Furthermore, the social impacts of jobs such as prostitution can have long term negative dimensions. The other possible effect is the creation of vacancies in the abandoned sectors of the economy, which in return may be filled by imported labour. This has negative effects since the importation of labour usually intensifies economic leakages.

Seychelles Island is another classic example of overdependence on tourism because the coconut plantations, which were a major source of coconuts for export, were abandoned at the expense of the overdevelopment of a resort building (Maloney, 1999). Many men abandoned their families and traditional farms in order to assist in better paying construction jobs. However, when the bulk of the construction boom was over, it was difficult to rehabilitate the farms and anyway the coconut market had drastically fallen. In turn the women who had found profitable jobs within the resorts abandoned their families. As a result, families were deserted and the economy was badly affected because the old industries fell apart due to over-reliance on resort tourism. It has also been noted that tourism as an industry has led to a shortage of labour in agricultural activities in the Himalayas region of Nepal (Stevens, 1993).

2.2.3.5 Accessibility to natural resources

There is a complex relationship between tourism development, wildlife requirements and the needs of local people residing in areas adjacent to the boundaries of protected areas in such a way that it is difficult to distinguish between the positive and negative aspects. For example, there is a major concern that the local communities residing in close proximity to protected areas are denied access to natural resources like land, water, vegetation and food which are an important source of their basic needs (Giongo and Nizeye, 1994; Buckles 1999). Research conducted in other parts of the world also depicts this major concern.

For example, in Teluk Datai, on the Malaysian Island of Langkawi restricted tourism development has been allowed at the expense of the local people (Cater, 1995). The Malaysian government in a joint venture with a Japanese company has constructed a cement road, an exclusive resort and a golf course to meet the needs of tourists while the local people have been denied access to the headland. In Costa Rica, the establishment of parks led to the dispossession of lands and forced relocation of communities that were denied subsequent access to their land and resources (Weitzner and Borrás, 1999). For example, in Cahuita, neighbouring communities were not even consulted during the establishment of the Cahuita National Park in 1978 (Weitzner and Borrás, 1999). In addition, neighbouring communities were strictly forbidden access to the natural resources within the declared national park and this meant the end of a way of life that had existed since the turn of the century. Only a few people with documents showing title or possession were compensated. As a result, within fifteen years, the community was left with no option but to change the source of livelihood from subsistence agriculture and fishing to tourism. Today, tourism is the major source of income for the Cahuita community. In Ecuador too, the declaration of Galapagos National Park on the Galapagos Islands in 1959, meant that little attention was paid to the needs and interests of the neighbouring local communities (Oviedo, 1999). For example, neighbouring local communities were denied free public access to the natural resources within the declared national park and were poorly informed and excluded from the decision-making process. There are also accusations that villagers have been forced out of their homes in Thailand (Ghimire, 1994), Tortugero village of Costa Rica (Place, 1995), and in Goa in India (Koch et al, 1998). In Thailand settlers from inside the Khao Yai National Park were evicted, followed by the removal of households on the outskirts of the park. In fact, relics of some of the burnt farmhouses can still be seen in the park. In Goa land has been provided to developers while in Tortugero village it was bought by the Costa Rican National Parks Services to establish the Tortugero Park. Furthermore, very few farmers are practising farming seriously partly because the most suitable arable land lies inside the park of which they have no access to. In India, the establishment of the Eight Tiger Reserves in the 1970s meant an eviction of thousands of people (Ghimire, 1994).

Furthermore, in Kenya the coastal communities have been forcibly removed from some areas and are prevented from having access to certain marine and other resources, which instead are being preserved for tourism purposes (Koch, et al, 1998). In addition, the creation of Sibili and Amboseli National Parks meant the expulsion of the Rendille (Ghimire, 1994) and the Masaai (Cater, 1993) tribes while the establishment of Tsavo National Park led to the eviction of several other tribes. Similar incidents were experienced in Uganda. For example, the Eek tribe, hunter-gatherers of the north-eastern region, were excluded from their hunting grounds due to the declaration of the Kidepo Valley National Park (Infield, 1986; Ghimire, 1994), while the establishment of the Lake Mburo National Park in 1983 meant the eviction of the local communities that were residing in the area without compensation (Ntiamoa-Baidu et al, 2000). Furthermore, the Masaai tribe of Tanzania were expelled from the Serengeti National Park whereas some villagers living within the Korup Park in Cameroon were displaced (Ghimire, 1994). All these exclusions contributed to terrible hardships, starvation and cultural disintegration (Ntiamoa-Baidu et al, 2000). In Madagascar, almost all forest areas where peasants used to practise *tavy* (a farming method that involves slash and burn or swidden agriculture) were incorporated into the terrestrial national parks. In fact no compensation was offered to the affected households and one village was removed from the park boundary without any compensation (Ghimire, 1994). In addition to the restriction on *tavy*, peasants were also prohibited from grazing, hunting as well as collecting wood, honey and other edible stuffs from the forest. This alerted the majority of the local people to the perception that the interests of the park authorities lie in animals and trees, rather than in people (Ghimire, 1994: 222). Hitchcock (1997: 84) also noted a similar example among the Bushman people in Botswana. For example, one Tyua Bushman had this to say about wildlife laws:

> Our lives depend mostly on meat and the laws have kept us from eating... The Bamangwato depend on their cattle to provide their food. The Kalanga depend on their crops. The White people live on money, bread and sugar... We cannot raise crops like the Kalanga, and we cannot make money like the white people. The tradition that God gave us, the Masarwa, is to eat meat. Meat is our life...Depriving us of meat is depriving us of life and of the tradition that God gave us.

In South Africa, the national parks and most other protected areas are firmly associated with the apartheid era (Wells, 1996). This can be attributed to the fact that according to the then government policies, vast area of natural regions amidst black rural poverty stricken areas (Wells, 1996) were set aside to satisfy the needs of the affluent, White minority. In fact, the Whites' perceptions were that the Africans were there to destroy wildlife, spoil the recreation of sports hunters and avoid wage labour by subsisting on wildlife. The Blacks were, therefore, regarded as poachers and the Whites as conservationists (Wells, 1996). As a result, many poor rural people were either forcibly resettled, persecuted as poachers, made national parks tenants to provide cheap labour for gold mines or denied access to natural resources as well as ancestral burial sites without any consultation or compensation In fact, these harsh and brutal enforcement measures have made the park authorities very unpopular with their poor neighbours who have developed distrust and hostility towards conservation organisations. For example, according to Wells (1996), for the majority of the impoverished communities, the Kruger National Park is far from being a symbol of national pride as it was perceived as part of the apartheid government structure to forcibly remove the local people. Some even called for its abolition since it was perceived as being irrelevant to the impoverished Africans in dreadful need of farmland.

The Makuleke community in the Pafuri region is one of the classic examples of local people who have been denied access to natural resources. This can be depicted in the Makuleke land claim dispute in the Pafuri area of the Kruger National Park (Nel, 1997). This dispute has led to the following actions. Firstly, the park is referred to as "Skukuza", a Tsonga word meaning to "sweep away" (Venter et al, 1994; Venter et al, 1995). Secondly, the first park warden was nicknamed "Skukuza" in recognition of his successful programme of forcibly relocating the early inhabitants of the region occupied by the present day Kruger National Park without consultation or compensation for their losses (Tapela and Omara-Ojungu, 1999). Thirdly, one of the groups of traditional healers living on the western borders of the Kruger National Park claimed that they have to travel all the way to Mozambique to collect the same plants they used to harvest in the Kruger National Park area (Botha, 1998). In fact all the groups reported that one of the

reasons that has aggravated the problem is due to the loss of access to land and other natural resources. However, the Makuleke land claim was settled in late 1998 and the agreement was that the land was to remain part of the Kruger National Park under joint management and control of South African National Parks and Makuleke community for fifty years (Mahony and Van Zyl, 2001). Despite full ownership, the community does not have full control as far as the utilisation of natural resources is concerned. In addition, there is an imbalance in power control in that the South African National Parks due to its political influence and technical knowledge appears to be having more power. In Kwazulu-Natal, Infield (1986; 1988) during his research on the Central Complex observed that the people residing adjacent to the region complained that they were denied access to natural resources. For example, the people revealed that the burning of thatching grass was an action put in place to deprive them of this resource while the culling of animals and the sale of the meat thereof at excessive prices was an indication of the White people's greed for meat. The Mkuzi Game Reserve has experienced a long and troubled history of relationships with its neighbouring communities. The reserve still faces land claims due to forced removals that were carried out in its earlier years and it is hard for the management to distinguish between the rights of the exact inhabitants and those who came in during the nagana period when active protection ceased. Whilst this may have some truth in it, records show that the reserve was occupied by local Zulu people prior to proclamation. This is in agreement with what Gumede (1998) identified that the Mnqobokazi community members residing adjacent to the Mkuzi Game Reserve were deprived of their tribal land as it was converted into a game reserve.

Apart from the local residents being prevented from utilising natural resources, they have been denied a chance of using the same resources for recreational purposes. For example, Infield (1986; 1988) indicated that the local residents staying adjacent to the Central Complex had an impression that the protected areas were meant for the wealthy elite and not for the local people's benefits. Infield (1986; 1988) further noted that though the reserves were open to all racial groups, the local residents felt that there were several factors prohibiting them from access. For example, very few families had access to a

vehicle, which was a condition of entry to the reserves and even if they did, the majority could not afford the cost of entry (R5.00 per vehicle and R1.00 per visitor).

Apart from the local people having no access to natural resources, they are expected to put up with problems such as wild animals in the protected areas. For example, the South African poor farmers living on the periphery of parks can find their livestock, crops and even their lives at risk from wild animals (Wells, 1996). This makes many rural communities reject the conservation areas and in some cases strive for the total destruction of such areas. This is in agreement with what Brandon and Wells (1992) illustrate that local residents, who are impoverished and receive few government services often perceive protected areas as restricting their ability to earn a living. In addition, many poor rural Africans were forced to discontinue their traditional subsistence lifestyles whereas very few of them drew tangible benefits from tourism activities associated with conservation. In fact, benefits from tourism were minimal and the jobs provided were usually menial and low paying (Carruthers, 1993; 1995).

In East Africa for example, the Masaai pastoralists after the establishment of the Amboseli National Park to meet the tourists' desire to see the black rhino, attempted to destroy the animals thinking that the park would be abandoned and reverted to them (Infield, 1986). The rapid population increases as well as the expropriation of land during colonial periods has made land suitable for agriculture scarce. People are forced to use the marginal lands close to the game parks for settlement. This has created conflicts since there is competition for the resources. The wild animals turn to the livestock, crops and to some extent the people as their prey and in return the people respond by poisoning the wild animals (Cater, 1993; 1995; Infield, 1986; 1988; Tapela and Omara-Ojungu, 1999). For example, Infield (1988) noted that 80% of the sample population residing adjacent to the Central Complex cited the loss of livestock to hyenas from the reserves, the destruction of crops and the fear of being attacked by wild animals as their major threats. In the Amboseli National Park (Kenya) and the Ngorongoro Conservation Area in Tanzania local residents complained of crop destruction, livestock loss and attacks from wild animals (Cater, 1993; 1995). In Zimbabwe, the rural people are not allowed to hunt

or shoot animals that raid their fields. One woman stated, "We are not allowed to protect our crops and children from wild animals, and we are even arrested and shot at for collecting thatching grass and firewood" (cited in Hitchcock, 1997: 90). There is a notable increase of wild animal invasions into the adjacent Makuleke area since there is a direct physical contact between the wild animals in the Kruger National Park and the Makuleke community (Tapela and Omara-Ojungu, 1999).

However, not all local communities residing adjacent to protected areas are denied access to natural resources. The Kuna Indians of Panama have taken control of their own natural resources (Place, 1995) For instance, they have established their own nature reserve (Urdibi Park), the first known park in the world created and run by indigenous people. In Nepal, the establishment of the Annapurna Conservation Area in 1986 meant that the area was to serve multiple purposes (Brandon and Wells, 1992). For example, hunting and the collection of forest products were permitted, at the same time the visitor fees was allocated towards local development and delegates at a village level were nominated to be part of the management authority. In the Maldives, the government has put up measures to ensure that the employees who live on the resort islands enjoy basic facilities such as housing and other related services (Koch et al 1998). A report on the Addo Elephant National Park, showed that some park materials like venison, firewood, reeds for crafts, unwanted fencing and building materials in newly acquired areas are made available to local communities bordering the park through the Mayibuye Ndlovu Project (Kerley, 1997). Furthermore, Botha (1998) during her study on the problems of the traditional healers living on the western boundary of the Kruger National Park identified that three groups from the Hlanganani Forum admitted that they were harvesting plants inside the park. Botha (1998) further noted that these traditional healers had requested the park management to help them obtain the scarce medicinal plant and animal species from the park. In the Pilanesberg National Park, local people have been allowed to harvest firewood from the park as well as to have access to ancestral grave-sites, and the traditional healers as well as the herbalists have controlled access over medicinal plants (Grossman and Koch, 1995). In the Richtersveld National Park, the local people are allocated meat supplies from culling programmes, are allowed selective harvesting of

some resources and the traditional healers are provided with medicinal plants (Koch 1994). Gumede (1998) during her research on the Mkuzi Game Reserve observed that the KwaJobe community members have access to park resources such as reeds, wood, bark, thatching grass, medicinal plants, meat, fish and mussels.

2.3 THE SOCIAL IMPACTS OF TOURISM

2.3.1 Introduction

The social impacts of tourism refer to the changes in the quality of life of the host communities (Giongo and Nizeye, 1994). They are divided into two categories. The first category involves tourism and social change and includes the demonstration effect, neo-colonialism and health impacts. The second category deals with tourism and moral conduct and includes prostitution, crime, gambling and religion. They vary widely according to region, culture, race, numbers, gender, social outlook and the differences between the tourists and their hosts (Coppock, 1978; Goeldner et al 2000; Pearce, 1980; Shaw and Williams, 1994). The social impacts of tourism were until recently an ignored focus of study. However, there are signs that the topic is attracting much attention. The available studies include the relationship between tourism, security and crime (Pizam and Mansfield, 1996; Pizam et al, 1997; Tarlow and Muehsam, 1996), tourism and prostitution (Farley, 2000; Menon, 1998; Odzer, 1994; Sitthirak, 1995) as well as sex tourism (el-Gawhary, 1995; Gorton, 1995; Oppermann, 1999; WTO, 1997). Most of these works, however, tend to emphasise the negative social effects of tourism.

2.3.2 Tourism and social change

2.3.2.1 The demonstration effect

The demonstration effect as described by Lea (1988) involves the disruptive role of tourism in reinforcing locally unattainable socio-economic aspirations. For instance the local people, mainly the youth tend to copy the behaviours and spending patterns of tourists (Gumede, 1998; Shaw and Williams, 1994; WTO, 1994a). Such a process can, however, have some benefits provided the local people gain the courage to receive a better education in order to improve their standards of living rather than relying on the lifestyles of tourists. For instance, with better education they may be able to secure better

jobs, hence improved standards of living. However, most evidence shows social disbenefits as locals strive for the marks of affluence staged by tourists, thus living beyond their means (Shaw and Williams, 1994). The behaviours and spending patterns may include the abandoning of traditional agriculture for jobs in the service industries; migration either within or to other countries and the desire for luxurious material goods previously undreamed of and which in most cases are imported (Place, 1995; Shaw and Williams, 1994). Though there is not enough evidence to regard tourism as the major cause, nevertheless, people tend to migrate to tourist areas in search of job opportunities. The foreign countries too may offer better social services, higher material standards and better employment opportunities; an example is that of the Tongans from the Pacific Islands to New Zealand (Mathieson and Wall, 1982).

At the same time, the female population can experience a change in their ascribed gender roles although traditionally their responsibilities are supposed to be child bearing and upbringing, food production as well as other related domestic chores. For example, there is a drastic increase in female-headed households as a result of migratory male practices as well as general lack of security (poverty, lack of jobs and lack of access to land). These often force rural women into the tourism employment sector. Job opportunities have also increased in the informal sector. These include cloth washing, sale of food and curios as well as petty vending. Some women have been able to run their own businesses such as hotels, restaurants and shops. At the same time, according to Gumede (1998) and Maloney (1999), the employment of women in the tourism industry in some instances has led to the deserting of families and unstable marriages.

The youth of the host communities are often the worst victims of the demonstration effect. They always admire the freedom and material superiority of their counterparts from the developed world. Their demands range from expensive food imports to entertainment activities such as gambling (Lea, 1988). For instance, the youth of Sherpas in Nepal and those of the Hilltribes of Northern Thailand have abandoned their traditional forms of dress due to an increased exposure to tourism. They have realised and learnt that their traditional attire is worth cash and that the strangers' attire is an association with the

outside world and progress (Coppock, 1978; Dearden, 1991). They prefer to wear a T-shirt rather than their traditional attire because the former is a visible sign of modernity. In addition, many young Sherpas prefer to live in Kathmandu rather than spend time with the elderly or assist them in farming activities especially during the tourists' off-peak seasons (Nepal, 2000).

2.3.2.2 Neo-colonialism

The term neo-colonialism is used to describe tourism as a form of White, western culture imposing itself as superior upon poorer nations (Maloney, 1999). In fact, there is a well-known view that tourism is a new form of colonialism and imperialism (Bugnicourt, 1977; Maloney, 1999; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Munt, 1994). The argument is that local groups are forced to entertain tourists through art, music, dance and literature as well as the transformation of the relics of past colonial regimes (old fortresses and historical buildings) into tourist attractions. This is regarded as a sign of exploitation with the sole aim of meeting the demands of the curious tourists and generation of money.

The claim that tourism is a neo-colonial activity, can be further substantiated by three economic conditions (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Firstly, many developing countries depend on tourism as a means of securing revenue since they regard tourism as the most viable option for achieving their goal of foreign exchange earnings. In order to succeed, they partly have to be willing to meet all the tourists' needs. In other words, their political and economic priorities plus organisation have to be directed towards the satisfaction of the tourists' demands. Secondly, a one-way transfer of wealth often accompanies tourism development from the host region to points of tourist generation (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). A big proportion of expenditure and profits flows back to foreign investors thus leaving little profits in the host region. Furthermore, a large proportion of goods and services, which are consumed by the tourists, are produced in the tourist generation areas, thus a transfer of most of the profits to such areas through economic leakage. Thirdly, many tourist facilities are owned and managed by foreign investors from the developed countries and foreigners (in most cases from developed countries) are always employed in professional and managerial positions at the expense of the local people. These

features are a contributing factor to high leakages through the remittances of salaries and profits to the tourist generating regions.

Although the above discussion is clear evidence to suggest the exploitative nature of tourism and a display of a number of characteristics of colonial economies, its validity is subject to debate (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Shaw and Williams 1994). Firstly, tourism as an economic activity is not imposed on many governments of developing countries by the developed countries, but instead it is welcomed as a means of stimulating economic growth. Secondly, most developing countries are already politically independent, an indication that colonial powers are not the determinants of the decisions made by the governments of such countries though to some degree, there is a manipulation and control of local politicians and the elite by foreign interests. For example, the relationships between developing countries and the tourists markets in the developed countries are mediated by organisations like travel agencies, tour companies and airlines, which are in most cases based in developed countries (Shaw and Williams, 1994). This is, however, unlikely to be as influential and domineering, as was the case during the colonial era. There is an urgent need for investigations to look into patterns of ownership, investment, decision-making, profits as well as levels of financial involvement of foreign investors in order to substantiate the two perspectives.

Although Munt (1994) has come across many brochures as proof of the neo-colonialist atmosphere this new tourism in the Third World seems to be, Maloney (1999) argues that tourists brochures can state what they want and, it is hard to convince someone that there is this group of colonialists out there that they cater for. In fact, most tourists are after an escape away from their own reality and venture into an entirely different unusual world. For example, in East-Asia, many Buddhist monasteries have separate sections put aside for tourists provided they agree to abide with the rules to live like a monk for a few days.

Furthermore, despite the fact that Munt (1994) continues to comment on the pictures in the brochures, which show incidences such as ten White tourists with thirty porters carrying all the belongings of the tourists, one needs to consider the economic

implications involved. For example, on the Inca Trail in Peru, porters fight to get such jobs especially because in many countries, the scarcity of jobs makes any job worth it (Maloney, 1999). Furthermore, tourism is a multi-industry enterprise with its own multiplier effects in terms of job creation and income generation. For example, for every hotel, there needs to be constructors, furnishers, cooks and cleaners. Similarly, for every traveller, agents, airports and staff are a necessity and if they are trekkers, they cannot do without guides and porters.

From a social point of view, tourism brings people and culture together since the tourists demand more than beaches, they also have a desire to meet the people. For example, in South Africa no trip is complete without "Jimmy's Face to Face Tours of SoWeTo" a company offering excursions into the largest South African township. In Kirk Albrecht's article "Shalom means Tourism", Kirk (1995) describes how Israeli tourism is popular in Jordan. Despite the fact that at one time the two countries were enemies, they open their borders and learn from each other. Israeli tourists are welcomed in Jordan and apart from Jordan benefiting economically both Jordanians and Israelis get together to see the other side and possibly even the other point of view.

2.3.2.3 Health

Although tourism can promote the provision of improved health care in the destination areas since it has to meet the high standards of tourists, it can act as a vehicle to spread some forms of diseases. For instance, sexually transmitted diseases (STDs) such as Acquired Immunity Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) can also be transmitted through sex tourism. In fact, there is a close link between STDs and sex tourism (WTO, 1997). This statement has been found to be true in Kenya, Morocco, and Thailand (Maloney, 1999); Goa (India) and Mexico (Menon, 1998); Thailand, Philippines, and Korea (Odzer, 1994); and South Africa (Slaughter, 1999). Odzer (1994) put it more vividly that there is a rapid and efficient spread of HIV/AIDS by the brothels in Thailand because men dislike wearing condoms. The prostitutes cannot afford to lose customers simply because they have refused to use a condom. Furthermore, most of the men involved with prostitutes are reported to have non-prostitute partners whom they have unprotected intercourse with.

This means that such men can bring the disease home to their wives and children. In addition, it is reported that HIV/AIDS can be internationally exported through sex tourism and as a result sex tourists are abandoning the hot spots of Bangkok and Manila (Odzer, 1994).

Menon's (1998) study on tourism and prostitution in Goa has revealed that the clients are aware of the dangers of HIV/AIDS. For example, on two different occasions the clients admitted that they have few agents due to fear of contracting HIV/AIDS and that they turn down the offers from white women because of a similar reason (Menon, 1998). According to the Cape Town Tourism Manager a new marketing organisation has been put in place to advise tourists about the services of prostitutes (Slaughter, 1999). Its major focus is on fair conditions for the sex industry employees and it is believed that this would assist in the fight against HIV/AIDS.

2.3.3 Tourism and moral conduct

It has also been noted that considerable and increasing attention has been directed towards the moral changes attributed to tourism mainly the rise in crime (King et al, 1993; Lankford, 1994; Lindberg and Johnson, 1997), gambling, prostitution and most recently the spread of HIV/AIDS through sex tourism (Goeldner et al, 2000; Shaw and Williams, 1994). For example, the introduction of first world tourism within developing countries normally results in a decline in moral standards of the local people (Bennet, 1995; Odendal and Schoeman (1990). At the same time, several forms of prostitution, alcohol and drug abuse, gambling as well as crime have been cited internationally as evils of tourist development (Bennet, 1995; Ferreira, 1994; King et al, 1993; WTO, 1994a). For instance, the devout Muslims in Malaysia are directly affected by the hedonistic lifestyles of the visiting tourists (Cater, 1995). For example, there are signs on the local beaches both in Malay and English declaring that "Alcohol is the root of all evil". Koch et al (1998) observed that the local people in Goa have been humiliated by witnessing nude bathing, drug abuse, prostitution and the corrosion of their local cultural attitudes.

2.3.3.1 Prostitution

Prostitution as an activity is believed to have been in existence even before mass tourism developed. It is, therefore, not easy to determine how much, if at all tourism has been responsible for high rates of prostitution in several destination areas. However, there are four hypotheses that can be used to support and explain the so-called increases in prostitution as a result of tourism in tourist areas (Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Shaw and Williams, 1994).

Firstly, there is the locational hypothesis. It states that tourism processes and developments have created locations and environments, which are conducive and attractive to prostitutes and their clients. Graburn (1983) and Farley (2000) attributed this to the patriarchal attitude. For example, women who have been rejected by their male partners as a result of seduction or rape are often cut-off from other forms of employment and marriage. Instead, they resort to prostitution in order to meet their social and economic needs as well as those of their children. But on the other hand, they may acquire sexually transmitted diseases, the worst one being HIV/AIDS. For example, according to Lunsche (2000), rural Kwazulu-Natal has the highest rate of HIV/AIDS infection in South Africa. However, there is no recorded evidence to prove that this high rate of HIV/AIDS infection is a result of tourist activities within the region. The relationship between the two needs urgent investigation.

Secondly, the societal hypothesis indicates that the nature of tourism means that people are away from the bonds of normal living and have money to spend. For example, a number of business and conference tourists utilise the services of prostitutes while travelling away from home (Hanson, 1997; Ryan and Kinder, 1996). Such practices may be attributed to the fact that the opportunity arises or the tourists meet similar-minded individuals (Harrison, 1994; O'Connell Davidson, 1996). In some other cases, the tourists feel lonely and sexually deprived and so they utilise the advantage of being "unknown strangers" in order to buy the services of prostitutes (Oppermann, 1999). Such circumstances are believed to be conducive to the survival and expansion of prostitution.

Thirdly, the economic aspect hypothesis indicates that the tourism industry provides employment, especially for women who are in most cases discriminated against in terms of job opportunities. For example, Schöning-Kalendar (1989) observed that many women in the third world who lack other channels of sufficient income generation use prostitution as a surviving strategy. Furthermore, the lack of jobs in the agricultural sector and the discrimination of women in most areas of formal employment make women resort to prostitution in order to earn a living. For instance, many women in Southeast Asia are denied opportunities for economic independence and prostitution has been left as the highest paying job available (Odzer, 1994). In so doing, it may have a tendency of improving their economic status. This, in turn, may lead to their liberalisation and eventually to their involvement in prostitution with a sole aim of maintaining or acquiring new economic levels.

Finally, tourism may be used as a scapegoat for a general loosening of morals. For example, in the existing literature, sex tourism is often used to refer to commercial sexual relations (Hall, 1992; Harrison, 1994) yet most of the tourists who utilise the services of prostitutes do not travel only for that purpose (Oppermann, 1999). In fact in a number of cases, this is just a by-product or side attraction rather than the major and sole reason (Oppermann, 1999). In addition, there are also cases where prostitution often takes place without any travel being involved like in the case of the Internet where the customer is not physically travelling, but nonetheless may be viewed as a "cyberspace sex tourist" (Durkin and Bryant, 1995; Kohm and Selwood, 1998). This is attributed to the fact that the Internet, with faster video and sound access, may conceivably result in "peep-shows" into the house of the cyber sex tourist (Oppermann, 1999). Further still, there is a practice known as "phone sex lines" (Madden, 1996), where the customer is at home but the prostitute is on the other side of the world, providing sexual inducement.

Though there is lack of firm evidence concerning connections between tourism and prostitution, recent reports have exposed the development of a fully-fledged "sex tourist" industry (el-Gawhary, 1995; Lea, 1988; Maloney, 1999; Shaw and Williams, 1994). For example, Maloney (1999) regards the sex trade as one of the biggest problems of tourism.

Indeed, Maloney (1999) cites the Kenyan coast, Morocco and Thailand as notorious examples of this unpleasant negative tourism effect. Lea (1988) notes that sex tourism is largely practised in parts of Southeast Asia especially in Thailand, the Philippines and South Korea and it is believed that the clients are normally men and the prostitutes are usually women (el-Gawhary, 1995; Lea, 1988; and Odzer 1994). In Egypt, despite strict religious norms, there is prostitution, which is associated with sex tourism (el-Gawhary, 1995). The clients are believed to be male Arab tourists mainly from Saudi Arabia and Kuwait and the prostitutes are Egyptian females. Some women give prostitution an Islamic cover, by entering into secret marriage contracts with their clients. Such contracts are made without witnesses and typically ends into divorce after the peak season as the clients have to go back home. On the other hand, as noted by Odzer (1994), not all such contracts end in divorce. For example in Thailand, " it was hard for the men to leave the country where they played the role of hero so completely... Many men eventually married the women they met in a Patpong bar" (Odzer, 1994: 15). As a consequence, such marriages end up with women acting as second wives as is the case in the former Hong Kong-China border area (Hobson and Heung, 1998) and at the Thailand-Malaysia border. In fact, there is concrete evidence of sailors or travelling salesmen with more than one wife, suitably located in different parts of the country or world (Oppermann, 1999).

Although, el-Gawhary (1995), Lea (1988) and Odzer (1994) observed that most prostitutes are women, Oppermann (1999) noted that due to an increase of female executives, reversed sex roles are a common occurrence. For example, according to Wane (1996), it has been reported in a popular New Zealand female magazine that the number of male prostitutes or callboys mainly serving a female business tourist clientele is on the increase. Furthermore, Pruitt and LaFont (1995: 1427) also suggest that some women take pleasure in the power that money gives them over men, thus:

> The economic and social status that women enjoy provides them with a security and independence that translates into power and control in the relationship. Some of the women enjoy the control they have in these relationships and express a preference for keeping a man dependent on them.

In fact, as Oppermann (1999) puts it, as long as the women continue to increase their economic and social status around the world, there are higher chances of expecting more female sex tourists and consequently, more male sex providers.

2.3.3.2 Crime

Crime involves robbery, larceny, burglary, vandalism, drug abuse, assault, murder, rape and car theft. Unlike prostitution and rape, data based on crime are relatively easy to secure, but it is difficult to associate them with tourism. However, there is substantial empirical evidence that suggests a relationship between crime and tourism (Goeldner et al, 2000; Mathieson and Wall, 1982; Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996; Pizam et al, 1997; Tarlow and Muehsam, 1996). This can be attributed to the following three factors as depicted by Bennet (1995). Firstly, the population density during the peak season is relatively high. This means that there are many targets and congestion, which in return increases the potential gains and reduces the probability of detection as far as the criminals are concerned. Secondly, the position of the tourist resorts in relation to international borders attracts illegal immigrants who are in most cases unemployed so when they fail to obtain the jobs they had hoped for, they resort to crime in order to earn a living. Finally, there are always big differences between the per capita incomes of hosts and tourists. The tourists are in most cases richer than their hosts are and this leads to increased frustration in the local community, which in some cases spills over as crimes against tourists.

Goeldner et al (2000) believe that there is a close link between tourism and crime. They argue that tourists can be easy prey for criminals and this is attributed to the fact that the tourists are not aware of dangerous areas or local situations in which they might be exposed to crimes. At the same time, tourists can easily be identified by the criminals and in most cases not very well equipped to safeguard themselves. Tarlow and Muehsarn (1996) had the same consent of tourists being victims of crime. They based their argument on the fact that tourists:

- are tempting targets since they carry large sums of money and other forms of portable wealth;

- are involved in risky behaviours such as frequenting night clubs and bars at late hours, travelling to remote and unfamiliar places, venturing into "unsafe" areas, consuming alcohol and drugs, and local language barriers;
- lack local support groups and/ or local sources;
- are perceived to be aggressive and insensitive to local norms and customs; and
- bring notions about safety and the role of law enforcement agencies based on their experience at home. (Tarlow and Muehsam, 1996 in Pizam and Mansfeld, 1996: 11-22)

There are a few cases of crime that have been recorded in various parts of Kwazulu-Natal. According to a report on theft at a holiday resort in Sodwana Bay, the thieves pick on tourists because the former believes that the latter have plenty of money (Moore and Masinga, 1999). The members of the Mbazwana, a community adjacent to Sodwana Bay have a similar belief. For example, Moore and Masinga (1999) reported that Martin Visagie, owner of a business that offers deep-sea fishing charters and accommodation near Mbazwana community gave a warning that the members continually steal property from tourists because they believe they are rich. The local people within the area lack a means of earning a living since there is a high rate of unemployment. In 1994, the management was forced to put an electric fence around the main campsite after tents had been slashed open and their contents looted. Furthermore, Steve Mlambo, who runs a protection service at the resort, stated that local people are a pest to tourists since they steal their goods and break into the vehicles. In the Mkuzi Game Reserve, a man attacked an elderly couple while taking a self-guided walk in the Fig Forest (Moore and Masinga, 1999). The elderly couple after the incident felt that KZN Wildlife should not pay the local chiefs the community levy if the tourists continue being attacked.

However, not all crime is directed at the tourists. Many researchers have found out that local people are increasingly the victims (Shaw and Williams, 1994). For some reasons tourists behave in extremely anti-social and criminal ways probably for defensive

purposes. This has been witnessed in many Spanish coastal resorts and within the provincial nature parks of Canada throughout the late 1980s and 1990s.

In addition, it is not only tourists who are affected by crime but also the host communities since the effects of crime lead to socio-economic negative impacts within the host regions (Pizam et al, 1997). Examples of these adverse impacts include:

- increased expenditures on law enforcement during the tourist season;
- monetary losses from burglary and larceny, property damage from vandalism, commercial embezzlement, tax dodging and the growth of black markets;
- heightened tension; and
- the visible presence of the law may lead to a false sense of security. (Pizam et al, 1997 in Mathieson and Wall, 1982: 51)

2.3.3.3 Gambling

Gambling is a tourist and an economic activity, a source of local employment as well as income (Scriven, 1995). For example, Dunstan (1997) observed that the basic economic impacts of gambling include casino constructions, which lead to the creation of many jobs as people are employed in the construction sector, in companies that supply construction materials as well as in the casinos themselves. As a result, multiplier effects then ripple throughout the entire economy. In USA in 1998, the gambling sector directly and indirectly employed 700 000 people with wages totalling an equivalent of R147 billion (Cukier, 2000). Furthermore, the tax and licensing revenues from gambling in the same period were equivalent to R126 billion. In Australia, it was observed that 100 000 people were employed in the gambling sector and the annual revenues that were generated as a result totalled to an equivalent of R126 billion, 1.5% of the country's gross domestic product.

While it is perceived that gambling promotes tourism, it has been discovered that in Namibia this has not been realised because foreign tourists do not travel to Namibia to

take part in gambling (Signposts, 1999). In South Africa, the theory that new casinos attract tourists who in turn spend money in local shops and restaurants has also been questioned. In fact, people who travel long distances to casinos like Sun City and spend large sums of money on gambling, hotels, meals as well as shows end up attracting criminals, prostitutes and loan shark enforcers. This is an indication that though the utilisation of services offered by casinos and hotels impacts the region positively, there are negative impacts as highlighted above that are created.

On the other hand, Dunstan (1997) argued that even if gambling projects create a number of jobs and large facilities are built, this does not mean that the economic impacts are always positive. He based his argument on the grounds that though the construction of casinos creates new jobs in the sense that they were non-existent before, the reality is that they may not be new jobs for the economy. In addition, there are social costs, which are created as well, though they are usually intangible and difficult to measure. From an income generating point of view, it is argued that money spent on gambling facilities is money that is already in existence but was spent on other things. At the same time, building and operating gambling facilities does not create wealth; instead it merely transfers it except in the case where the transfers are from within the region (Dunstan, 1997). This in turn means that there are few benefits since more money is being spent outside the region.

Furthermore, gambling is also considered to have social and psychological effects (Lea, 1988). For example, along with alcohol and prostitution, gambling can be traced back throughout the ages as one of society's great moral dilemmas (Haddad, 1996). In fact gambling has the potential to create prostitution, crime and violence and as a result, increased social costs are incurred in order to cater for police and other public services (Dunstan, 1997; Signposts, 1999). There are various reasons why gambling is often associated with crime. Firstly, many types of gambling have been and indeed still are illegal (Dunstan, 1997). Secondly, when gambling restrictions were relaxed in USA, criminals were the very first people to open up legal gambling establishments and to some degree, the city of Nevada needed the criminals to make gambling viable since they

were the only ones with expertise and experience. Lastly, the large volumes of money, particularly cash that are generated through gambling are always a tempting target. However, researchers argue that organised crime is more of a product of illegal or poorly regulated gambling as opposed to well-regulated gambling.

2.3.3.4 Religion

Religion tourism results in people travelling to religious centres in various parts of the world. The spiritually devoted western Christians travel to Jerusalem and Damascus during Easter and the time of Passover while the Muslims travel to Mecca and Medina on pilgrimage. The Vatican in Rome attracts Catholics from all parts of the world. The cathedrals of England are popular tourist attractions of late and there is a lot of pressure imposed on them as a result of big numbers of tourists who frequent the premises.

However, of late, there is a dramatic change from the traditional form of the relationship between tourism and religion. Holy places like Jerusalem, Mecca, Medina and the Vatican have turned into tourist destinations for visitors without strong spiritual motivation (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). This has contributed to conflicts arising between locals, the religious devout tourists and the curious visitors. The major issue is that the holy places are developed to meet the needs of the curious tourists and this is regarded as a distraction from their religious significance, which has made them famous. For example, collection boxes are often placed at entrances and exits of both cathedrals and shrines (Mathieson and Wall, 1982). Souvenir booklets and postcards are also displayed in the same places for sale. Furthermore, in some churches, there are guided tours conducted and when one is leaving, there are donations that have to be given.

In the Himalaya area, for example, people have been drawn away from their Buddhist way of life to serving the interests of tourists (Maloney, 1999). One monk in Ladakh noted that although the people used to be very spiritual, things were changing as a result of the arrival of tourists (Pacsoo, 1992). Another classical example is that of monks in the Thame Monastery (Nepal) through the help of the Incarnate Abbot take leave during peak

tourism seasons in order to find jobs in the tourism industry (Nepal, 2000). Furthermore, the Incarnate Abbot established a lodge near the Monastery for his own benefit.

2.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TOURISM AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

2.4.1 Introduction

Rural areas are dynamic and constantly changing due to a variety of social, economic, environmental and political factors (Ilbery, 1998). From an economic point of view, agriculture is no longer the dominant employment sector since there are other forms of income generating activities (Bateman and Ray, 1994; Ilbery et al, 1996). Such activities include recreation, tourism, environmental conservation and retailing. In this section, emphasis will be placed on a critical analysis of the role of tourism in South African rural development ventures.

2.4.2 What is rural development?

The term "rural development" means different things to different parties. For example, Harriss (1992) decided to adopt the definition used by the World Bank where rural development is regarded as a strategy designed to improve the economic and social life of a specific group of people, the rural poor. Harriss (1992), therefore, concluded that rural development, which is broader and more specific than agricultural development, is a distinct approach applied by the state to intervene in the economies of underdeveloped countries. It is broader in the sense that it focuses on much more than the development of agricultural production as it covers the development of the entire economy. At the same time it is more specific in that it focuses mainly on poverty and inequality. On the other hand, Harriss (1992) believes that rural development may be used as an expression to refer to processes of change in rural societies, not, all of which involve government actions. Therefore, the activity of rural development has to be considered simply as one of the forces concerned with the changing of rural societies.

Unlike Harriss (1992), Giriappa (1993) feels that the concept rural development cannot be separated from urban development since it would be difficult to develop the two areas

without referring to each other. Giriappa (1993), therefore, concludes that rural development side by side with urban development targets the development of different sectors, technologies, areas, and priorities as well as target groups thus improving the rural productive base. Examples of ways of improvement may include income generation, asset creation, job opportunities, diversification of activities and effective local participation, which may eventually lead to faster long-term and balanced growth.

On the other hand, King and Jali (1992) argue that rural development is more than a concept but a series of experiments in alternative methods with a specific target. King and Jali (1992) base their argument on the fact that the alternative methods specifically focus on organising production, welfare and social life of those residing in rural areas.

2.4.3 What is a rural area?

Although the task of defining the concept "rural" has caught the attention of many geographical writers, there remains little chance of reaching a consensus on what is meant by the concept (Ilbery, 1998). For example, there is a general perception that a rural area is an area where agriculture is the predominant economic activity (Harmse, 1994). This is in agreement with the definition that the term "rural" is mainly used either to show low population densities or dependence on primary activities like farming and forestry as well as the directly related industries (The Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity, 1995). Similarly, Clout (1993) considers rural areas to be in possession of specific features, which give them a distinctive social character. Such features would include relatively low population densities, open country side, vast land use practices, inaccessibility to main urban centres, inadequate infrastructure as well as relatively fewer employees in the secondary and tertiary industries. However, this does not imply that all rural areas are similar and that rural residents belong to the same groups.

Furthermore, from a South African context, there is not any legal definition that exists and there are no formally accepted definitions in use at the moment (Rural Development Task Team (RDP) and Land Reform Policy Branch (Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

In addition, due to historical complexities as well as cultural perceptions and the varying needs of service delivery, it is not that simple to come up with a definition that is applicable in varying contexts. For example, during the apartheid era several areas were defined as rural because they had high concentrations of people residing in areas whose economic base was a considerable distance from the city where several people were employed in various fields. In reality, such areas were urban areas without services. Furthermore, all censuses and official surveys until 1995 depicted rural areas as all households not residing in formally declared towns. Further still, at the present moment, it is argued that if potential subsidies like housing and the proposed land reform settlement grants reflect differences between urban and rural areas, then a legal definition is needed. At the same time, a formal definition is also required with the sole aim of ensuring consistency in data collection.

Therefore, in 1996, Statistics South Africa temporarily came up with an alternative definition using the central place theory and a functional analysis based on population sizes and densities as well as available resources. According to Statistics South Africa rural areas can be defined as areas with the lowest levels of services and the greatest average distance to the nearest service points as compared to town and city centres. Such areas include large scale farming areas but not all of the former homelands as well as small municipalities with limited potential to collect enough taxes to meet the costs of services (The Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity, 1995). This definition, however, excludes peri-urban squatter camps, which are tied to the economies of urban areas.

The definition according to Statistics South Africa to some degree is in agreement with that of the (Rural Development Task Team and Land Reform Policy Branch: Department of Land Affairs, 1997) where rural areas are explained as areas which are sparsely populated where people either depend on farming or natural resources. Such areas include villages and the dispersed small towns. In addition, large settlements in the former homelands, which mainly depend on migratory labour and remittances, are also categorised as rural. This definition is problematic in that many households fall into both

categories (urban and rural) since they obtain their income from a variety of sources, including city migrant labour.

2.4.4 The rural areas of South Africa

South African rural areas are characterised by high levels of poverty, particularly among women and women headed households; as well as agricultural dualism both in land use and support services (The Rural Development Strategy of the Government of National Unity, 1995). Rural areas also depict obvious spatial contrasts between the former homelands and the surrounding regions in terms of settlement patterns, land ownership and use, transport, plus other forms of infrastructure. Traces of historical restrictions on entrepreneurial development are also evident in rural areas. Poorly supported government structures that were established in 1995 with no history or experience of planning, democracy and services are yet another characteristic of rural areas.

2.4.5 Rural development in South Africa

The general level of development in South African rural areas is low and most people in these areas are trapped in a subsistence economy (Harmse, 1994). The immediate goal of rural development should, therefore, be implemented by both governmental and non-governmental organisations. For example, the Rural Foundation, a non-governmental organisation is already in action to improve the quality of life and raising the standards of living of the rural communities in the Western Cape (Bosman and Koch, 1993). The programmes that are offered, according to Harmse (1994), include literacy, pre-schools on farms and basic health facilities. The Community Development Organisation (CDO) linked with the Pilanesberg National Park in the Northwestern Province has also launched several projects catering mainly for widows and poorer community members (Wells, 1996). Examples of projects include production of overalls for nearby mines, vegetable growing as well as supplying haberdashery items to Sun City Hotel. The Kruger National Park is currently offering support for community projects through fund raising, direct financial support, health and education services (Wells, 1996).

In Kwazulu-Natal, although the Lubombo SDI initiative was basically designed to boost tourism development and investment in the areas straddling South Africa's international borders with Swaziland and Mozambique, it has funded a number of infrastructure projects (Wildlife News, 1998). Examples of projects include small hospitals, clinics, schools, crèches as well as business training initiatives for rural residents. In addition, small agricultural projects have constructed irrigation dams, plant nurseries and stock-raising infrastructure. Still in Kwazulu-Natal, the Phinda Private Game Reserve funded by CC Africa is yet another non-governmental organisation which has assisted a rural community to enjoy the benefits of natural beauty as well as raising money for community projects (Wells, 1996). For example, the Phinda's Rural Investment Fund which was established in 1992, assists local communities with planning, networking, fund raising, training of rural entrepreneurs as well as projects for social services (WWF South Africa, 2000). Furthermore, the Mduku community, situated along the shores of Lake St Lucia in northern Kwazulu-Natal is enjoying the existence of social services/ basic needs and regional infrastructure, small business development as well as capacity building and training (Lunsche, 2000).

2.4.6 The rural areas of Kwazulu-Natal

Rural Kwazulu-Natal is characterised by high unemployment and poverty (Lunsche, 2000). This is in agreement with what Münster and Sandwith (1998) observed that many rural areas are characterised by extensive poverty and few prospects for substantial economic development. Most of the rural households (which comprise the largest percentage of the entire population) in Kwazulu-Natal have an expenditure of less than R1000.00 per month and 63% of the rural population is categorised as poor (May, 1996). The main income generating activities include agriculture (which is mainly subsistence), non-farm self-employment, wage labour, pension and disability grants as well as remittances from a family member living elsewhere (DBSA, 1994; May, 1996). The non-farm self-employment comprises of a range of activities Such activities include the extension of distribution network, which involves micro-enterprise traders and hawkers selling food, flowers and handicrafts. There is also the petty commodity production, which deals with the making of clothes, furniture, handicrafts, and beer-brooms as well as

the building of houses. The production and sale of crops through intermittent markets are also prevalent. In fact, the construction and home crafts sub-sectors seem to be the most important categories with two thirds of this group engaged in the construction and home crafts activities (May, 1996). In addition to the extension of distribution network and petty commodity production, there are also niche markets in the service sector. These are specific services that have a competitive advantage when performed by micro-enterprises. In rural areas such services include water collection, preparation of mud for floors and walls as well as contract agricultural services. Casual labourers who are used during the weeding and harvesting seasons could also fall into this category.

The wage labour, which includes migrant farm workers and an increasingly big group of commuter labourers, is yet another income generating activity in the rural areas of Kwazulu-Natal. Another income generating activity is the claims from the state. Unlike other developing countries, South Africa has a well functioning social pension system, which covers the elderly people in rural areas. The elderly are entitled to claims in the form of pensions and disability grants from the government. Such claims contribute significantly to household incomes. Remittances from household members living elsewhere also contribute significantly to household incomes in rural areas Despite the fact that apartheid laws and policies were brought to an end after 1994, migration of black people in search for employment is still an important aspect of many rural peoples' lives. As a result, rural households rely heavily on a share of the migrant's income in the form of remittances.

The above activities were measured successfully by both the Southern Africa Labour and Development Research Unit (SALDRU) study and the income and expenditure survey (May, 1996). However, the two studies neglected at least three critical types of income generating activities in rural areas namely unpaid domestic labour, illegitimate activities and income stretching activities. Unpaid domestic labour is work that is largely performed by women who although are not paid, play a vital role in the household livelihoods. Such work involves the collection of firewood and water as well as child care and food preparation. Many households survive through illegitimate activities as well.

Such activities which are either improper from a legal point of view or in terms of the moral norms of a community include *Cannabis sativa* cultivation and selling, drug trafficking, prostitution and petty crime. Apart from unpaid domestic labour and illegitimate activities, rural households generate income through income stretching activities. These are activities in which households engage in order to either stretch their income or gain access to additional rights. The activities are harder to be picked up through quantitative methodologies and they can only be detected and analysed through qualitative research techniques. Examples of such activities include varying household size and composition, accessing loans and credits, use of the environment as well as qualitative and quantitative dietary changes.

Despite the above noted income generating activities, the gap between rural and urban areas is still wide and the unemployment rates are increasing. However, there is still hope for a better change and alternative as it has been argued that the government is focusing on rural development such as micro-farming, outgrower crop development, work in tourism, livestock raising and craft production (Cross et al, 1996).

2.4.7 Tourism and rural development

Many rural communities view tourism as a major option for addressing rural economic decline (Andereck and Vogt, 2000; Jensen and Blevins, 1992; Stokowski, 1992) especially as many communities depend solely on a single natural resource extractive industry namely mining and forestry (Krannich and Luloff, 1991). Such a view is based on the argument that tourism is widely perceived to have the potential to provide rural communities with local job opportunities, tax revenues and economic diversity (Long et al, 1990). In addition, tourism is viewed as a clean industry with limited serious environmental effects as compared to resources extractive activities that many rural communities have traditionally relied on for survival (Marchak, 1990). It is, therefore, not surprising that from an international point of view, the major focus is on forms of tourism that aim at balancing the needs of the local people with the need to protect the environment. In a number of cases, this is the most suitable form of tourism in rural areas, which possess most of the tourist attractions (Tourism White Paper, 1996). South

Africa as a country possesses considerable potential for tourism. This can be attributed to South Africa's diverse heritage, a wide variety of cultures, wildlife, beautiful sceneries and coasts, as well as the novelty of her post-apartheid era. However, until recently tourism has been generally kept within former white South Africa and protected areas and it has been providing income mainly to the major hotel chains and transport companies. Its contribution to local economies has been neglected as most of the generated incomes are utilised in cities. This is clearly reflected in the local peoples' attitude towards protected areas. In fact, the local people feel that they have limited reasons to protect wildlife or tourists (The Rural Development Task Team (RDP) and Land Reform Policy Branch: Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

Despite the negative attitudes and perceptions of the local people, Creemers (1997) argues that of late the focus for economic development in Kwazulu-Natal has been placed on tourism development and community empowerment. This, is believed to be a vehicle to generate tangible benefits to poor rural communities and at the same time a means of integrating conservation and development (Potter, 1997). Münster and Sandwith (1998) also argued that nature conservation and associated tourism development is being considered as a means of contributing to the alleviation of rural poverty in Kwazulu-Natal. However, tourists cannot be attracted into areas, which are unsafe or insecure and without basic facilities. Tourism development, therefore, will depend upon both private and government investment and in order to make this viable, benefits should be channelled to local people but through their constructive involvement and inclusive participation in sustainable environmental management and commerce (The Rural Development Task Team (RDP) and Land Reform Policy Branch: Department of Land Affairs, 1997).

In recent years promising developments have been realised in various parts of South Africa where poor rural communities are being offered the opportunities to become partners in an economic venture within a protected area. In fact the issue is not just offering employment opportunities or meaningful participation but ownership with decision-making powers (Roberts, 1997).

The Pilanesberg National Park in the Northwest province has been noted as the first attempt in South Africa where protected area conservation has been integrated with community development (Wells, 1996). The neighbouring communities are part of the decision-making process and this has been achieved through a joint liaison forum. For example the local communities were fully consulted prior to the introduction of lions in the park. Furthermore, the communities decide on the allocation and distribution of money obtained from the park. So far the money has been used to develop a community owned and managed game reserve, to improve water supplies and to build school classrooms. In addition to participation in decision-making, local communities have the opportunity to share the benefits received as a result of the park's existence. For example, 10% of gate entry fees goes to the local communities, the local people hold some of the senior park positions, and small local firms receive contracts for road construction and maintenance. The Madikwe Game Reserve (Northwest Province) is also run in joint venture between the state, private sector and local communities and the impoverished communities in the sparsely populated Dwarsberg area are provided with jobs and other economic benefits.

The Richtersveld National Park in Northern Cape, which is based upon a contract between the local people and the National Parks Board, is yet another example. The local people are allowed to live inside the park and they co-manage the park with the National Parks Board (Wells, 1996). Furthermore, the local communities lease out the land occupied by the park to the South African National Parks at R900 000.00 per annum (Fakir, 1999). In addition, a local goods industry has been created on the boundaries of the park, technical training programmes have been designed to increase the capacity of local residents as well as the expansion of environmental programmes and bursary schemes to enable the local people to participate in sustainable development schemes.

The Mpakheni tribe in Mpumalanga Province receives rent for the tribally owned land occupied by the Mthethomusha Game Reserve and participates in the management of the reserve along with the Mpumalanga Parks Board. Other benefits include job opportunities, community development initiatives, and carefully supervised/ managed

natural resource harvesting as well as direct income from tourism revenues going into a community development trust fund (Wells, 1996).

In Kwazulu-Natal, the Mduku community in a remote area in northern Kwazulu-Natal has already found a measure of prosperity by eagerly accepting ecotourism. According to the report given by Lunsche (2000), the average income per household had trebled from R450.00 a year to approximately R1300.00 in 1998 as a result of ecotourism. This is a good example of how successful ecotourism can combine environmental conservation with the development of depressed rural economies. In Maputaland, the Rocktail Bay and Ndumo Wilderness Camp are run in partnership between the state, the affected local communities, a private sector operator, Wilderness Safaris as well as the Kwazulu Finance and Investment Corporation who supplied the financial expertise, loan and equity finance (Roberts, 1997). Indeed other communities are now approaching the Department of Conservation with a view of tourism development within the area. Still in Maputaland, a group of rural residents from Kwa Dapha successfully resisted removal from the Kosi Bay Nature Reserve. At the present moment, they run their own tourism operations on the publicly owned land after acquiring permission from KZN Wildlife (Wells, 1996).

KZN Wildlife has also adopted a "Neighbour Relations Policy" and set up a network of Neighbour Liaison Forums comprising of local community leaders and field staff in the province (Wells, 1996). The field-staff play a facilitation role in mobilising resources and expertise for community projects and in helping communities in problem solving. For example, some of the local communities bordering the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park, have received skills to enable them to reap the benefits of economic opportunities that exist within their own environment (Morrison, 1997). The following are the three examples from this approach. Firstly, the Mchunu Bed and Breakfast, which is community based, was established near the Umfolozi section entrance. It is locally owned by one family and consists of traditional Zulu huts accommodating about thirty people. The guests have an opportunity of being served traditional Zulu food and entertained through Zulu songs and dances. Guests normally spend one or two nights and often combine it with a visit to the park. This facility is the major source of income for the family but there are some

problems that hinder its successful operation. Examples of hindrances include communication barrier, poor accounting skills, marketing problems as well as jealousy from other community members.

Secondly, a piece of land was put aside to establish a Community Conservation Reserve for conservation/ ecotourism opportunities in one of the communities living adjacent to the western boundary of the Hluhluwe section. The community has recognised the potential for cultural tourism, which will involve Zulu dancing and singing as well as visits to traditional healers and the tribal court. Another additional entrepreneurial activity would be the sale of handicrafts. This is a well-developed community from an institutional point of view since associations like tourism development and *Izinyanga* (traditional healers) are already in place (Morrison, 1997). In addition, the community has developed a high level of trust with KZN Wildlife and regards it as a reliable partner in community development and upliftment

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

2.5 CONCLUSION

Tourism as an activity brings about both positive and negative impacts to the host population. The focus in this study is on the economic and social impacts. The positive economic impacts include job creation, income generation, entrepreneurial activity and multiplier effects. There are, however, some notable examples of negative impacts, which include economic leakage, inflation in prices of land/ goods and services as well as foreign dominance and overdependence on tourism. Since there is a complex relationship

between tourism development, nature conservation and the needs of local people living in close proximity to protected areas, it is difficult to differentiate between the positive and negative aspects of accessibility to natural resources. Most studies, however, show that the local people are denied access to natural resources and are expected to put up with problematic animals from the protected areas. On the other hand, through ecotourism, there are cases where a positive link between the nature conservationists and the upliftment of the local communities is realised.

Most studies on social impacts of tourism tend to emphasise its negative effects on the host communities. These effects include the demonstration effect, neo-colonialism, health, prostitution, crime, gambling and religion. There is evidence, however, from countries such as Thailand and Columbia that tourism may not always be destructive. Instead, it can help to improve health as well as leisure since the local people may interact with tourists and learn and appreciate other societies. In fact, some communities have found sexual satisfaction from these tourists and others life partners. This phenomenon has been given little attention by many authors and yet it has its place in various societies in developing countries.

Rural development is perceived to be the most viable option in relieving the cases of poverty and social deprivation in impoverished rural areas. In order to implement it effectively, the following should be taken into consideration. The rural population should be given the power to make decisions on their development priorities and how to achieve them. In addition, there is a need to develop the social and economic infrastructure within rural areas. There is, therefore, a need for all the stakeholders to investigate the possible ways to make rural development a reality. This could be through improved agricultural practices, organised small businesses or nature conservation and associated tourism development.

CHAPTER THREE: DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

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

3.2 DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA

3.2.1 The historical background information of the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park (HUP)

Studies that have been conducted suggest that there is evidence of human settlement about 1500 years ago in some parts of the park (Münster and Sandwith, 1998; Pooley and Player, 1995). For example, whereas Münster and Sandwith (1998) noted that humans occupied the area as far back as pre-historic times, Pooley and Player (1995) stated that there is evidence of Stone and Middle Age cultures as depicted from several rock art sites, as well as extensive settlement by Iron Age people which are indicative of iron smelting and metal working activities. The area was later occupied by members of the Mthethwa clan under the leadership of King Dingiswayo until 1818. King Shaka succeeded the throne and during his reign (1818-1828) he conducted one of the biggest hunts in the history of Zululand between the White and Black Umfolozi rivers near their junction at iYembeni. There is a record that King Shaka had a private hunting ground located between the two rivers. In fact the remains of hunting pits are still visible near the confluence. The western part of Umfolozi and the higher-lying Corridor were populated up to the time of the Anglo-Zulu War in 1879. There is also evidence of inter-tribal conflicts as well as periods when the area was not occupied. The lower-lying areas were not suitable for human occupation due to malaria and the presence of tsetse flies.

The former Hluhluwe and Umfolozi Game Reserves (HGR and UGR) were proclaimed as protected areas in 1895 because some conservationists were concerned about the reduction of game animals in Zululand due to hunting. In fact, the particular concern was that of the near extinction of the white rhinoceros. After the proclamation, the Zululand Game Conservator, who was stationed at Nongoma was put in charge of controlling the two reserves. This was followed by successive proclamations and temporary deproclamations of the HUP components, which specifically affected the UGR (Pooley and Player, 1995).

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

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

Due to further nagana outbreaks, the Provincial Administration was forced to hand over the reserve to the Department of Veterinary Services in 1932. In fact, between 1932 and 1939 the reserve was actually deproclaimed. Another deproclamation occurred between 1945 and 1947. The UGR was then reproclaimed and managed by the veterinary authorities until 1952. After the 1952 reproclamation, the Veterinary Department handed over the UGR control to the newly established former Natal Parks Board (NPB: established in 1947). The establishment of the Umfolozi Wilderness Area (Africa's first

wilderness area) in the region during 1957 and 1958 was also a significant factor. On March 19, 1959 the first wilderness trail took place under the command of Magqubu Ntombela (the senior game guard) and Ian Player (the first NPB ranger) (Pooley and Player, 1995).

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

3.2.2 Reasons for the selection of the study area

The HUP and the neighbouring Mpembeni community were chosen for study due to a number of reasons.

- Communities characterised by a relatively high population density, poverty, unemployment and increasingly degraded subsistence agricultural land surround the park (Infield, 1986; Münster and Sandwith, 1998). These communities perceive a great need for land and other natural resources within the park, so this facilitated the study in order to verify the truth of the perceptions.

- There has been a long history of difficult relations and conflict between poor communities residing adjacent to the park and the former NPB, the Conservation

authority in the former Natal Province (Münster and Sandwith, 1998). The Conservation management, therefore, faces the challenge of protecting the unique biodiversity resources and at the same time has to ensure the provision of tangible benefits to the various stakeholders such as tourists, conservationists and the local communities in particular.

- The HUP is a popular tourist destination and is regarded as the foremost wildlife attraction in Kwazulu-Natal. This is attributed to its high diversity in terms of landscapes, fauna and flora. Its favourable weather conditions is yet another contributing factor. The warm Mozambique current keep the area warm even during winter thus making the park accessible all year round. The fact that the HUP receives tourists on a regular basis, the researcher felt that this region could serve a better purpose in achieving the set objectives.

3.2.3 Location and Size

The HUP is located in South Africa in the north-eastern part of Kwazulu-Natal between 28° 00' S 31° 42' E and 28° 26' S 32° 09' E (Figures 3.1 and 3.2). It is approximately 60 km from the sea and 270 km from Durban. It can be easily accessed from the north via the Hluhluwe village, from the south via Mtubatuba and from the west through Ulundi. It is surrounded by ten Tribal Authorities (TAs), namely Mdletshe, Hlabisa-abase Mpembeni, Hlabisa abakwa Hlabisa, Mandhlakazi, Zungu, Ximba, Obuka, Somopo, Mhlana and Mpukunyoni. The HUP covers an area of approximately 96 453 hectares. A perimeter fence encloses the entire complex as a unit and a tar road links the Hluhluwe and Umfolozi Sections through the Corridor Section (Figure 3.2).

3.2.4 Topography

The HUP consists mostly of hilly, undulating landscape, dissected by a number of deeply incised watercourses and wide, deep river valleys. It lies within an altitude range of 60 metres in the riverbeds to 650 metres in the western hills (Pooley and Players, 1995). Its highest point is situated in the north of Hluhluwe section.

3.2.5 Drainage

The drainage of HUP is characterised by four major eastern flowing rivers namely the Hluhluwe, Black and White Umfolozi, and Nyalazi as well as their many tributaries (Figure 3.3). In the Hluhluwe section most of the watercourses are ephemeral with the Hluhluwe and Nzimane rivers flowing throughout most of the year and subjected to frequent flooding after heavy thunderstorms. Hluhluwe River is the principal river and it starts from the Nongoma district and ends its journey in False Bay of the Lake St. Lucia Complex. It is narrow and consists of a number of deep, elongated rock pools, separated by sandbanks, rock beds and outcrops. It ceases to flow during the dry season but the pools retain water. It has two main tributaries (Nzimane and Manzimbomvu) which are smaller and seasonal. In the Umfolozi section, the main rivers are the Nyalazi; and Black and White Umfolozi, which converge on the eastern boundary. The Black Umfolozi is characterised by short stretches of sandy bed and many outcrops of rock, deep pools and a muddy substrate. Unlike the Black Umfolozi, the White Umfolozi has a generally sandy bed. Although these rivers are slow flowing, wide and shallow with gentle gradients, in summer they flow fast and fill up the uDadethu and eMquisweni pans. There are also ground water aquifers, springs, permanent and seasonal pans as well as vlei wetlands.

3.2.6 Climatic Conditions

The HUP's climate is influenced by two major factors: its proximity to the sea and topography. These factors result in a warm to hot and humid sub-tropical climate. The average daily temperatures range from 22° C in winter to 28° C in summer. However, because of the rugged topography, greater temperature extremes of 43° C and -1° C have been recorded. Generally speaking, the summers are hot and the winters mild to cold especially at Hilltop Camp in the Hluhluwe section. The rainfall received is seasonal and most of it occurs between October and March. The annual average rainfall ranges from 720-990 mm. Precipitation in the form of dew also occurs in the valleys and along the hill slopes all year round. Hillside mist and low cloud are also common during summer (Pooley and Players, 1995).

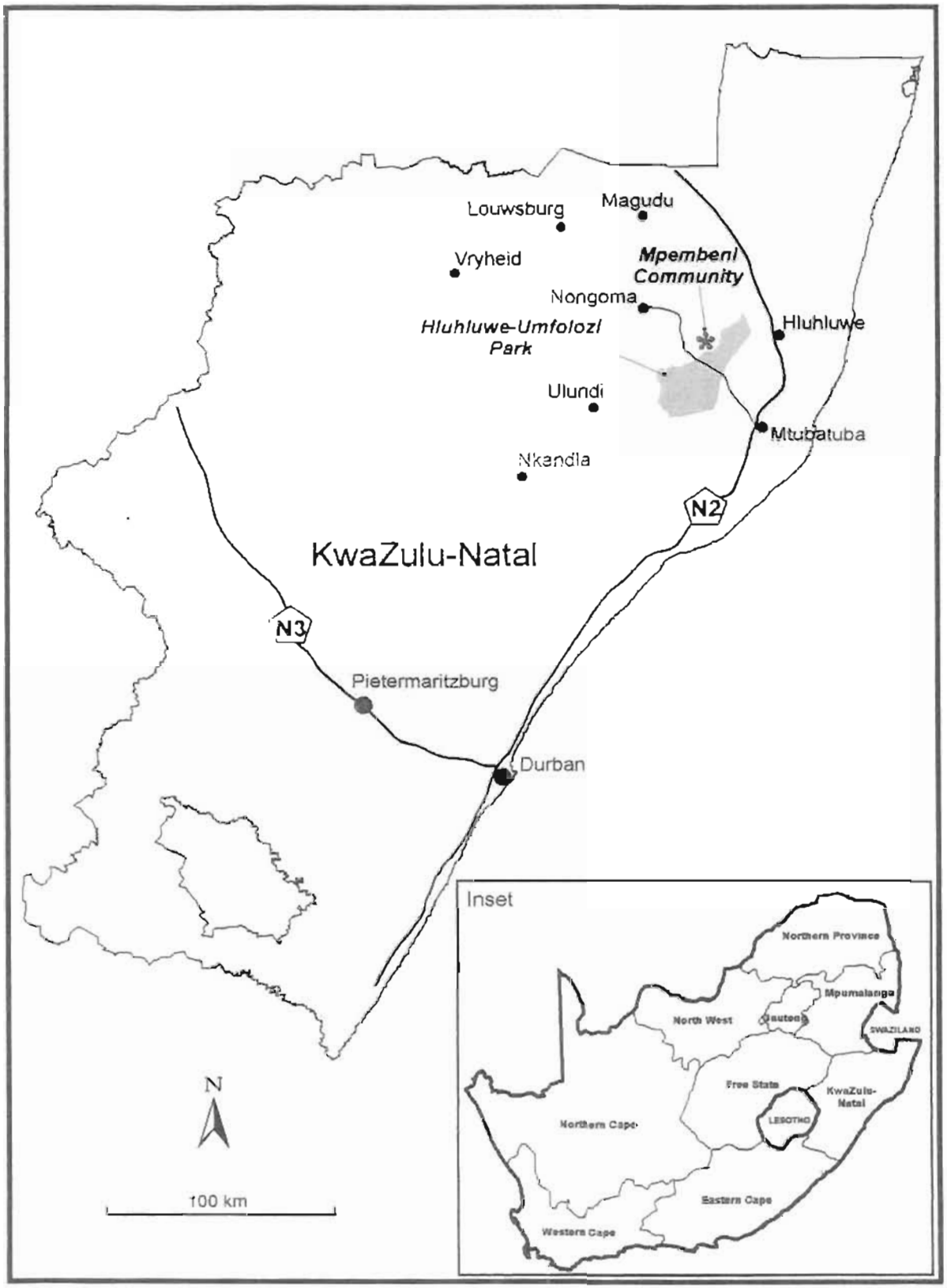

Figure 3.1: Map showing the relative location of Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park and Mpembeni Community

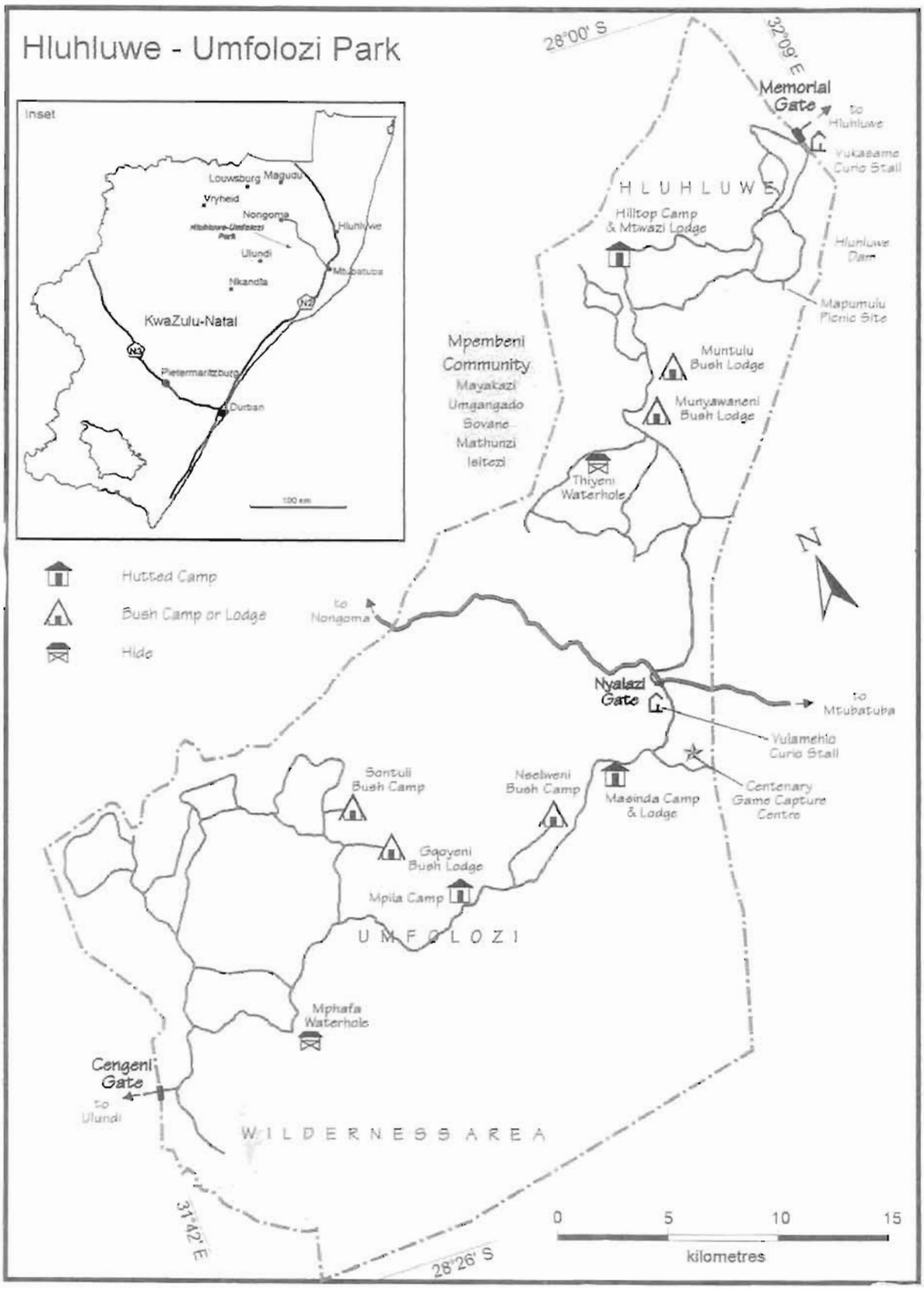

Figure 3.2: Map showing the absolute location of Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park and Mpembeni Community

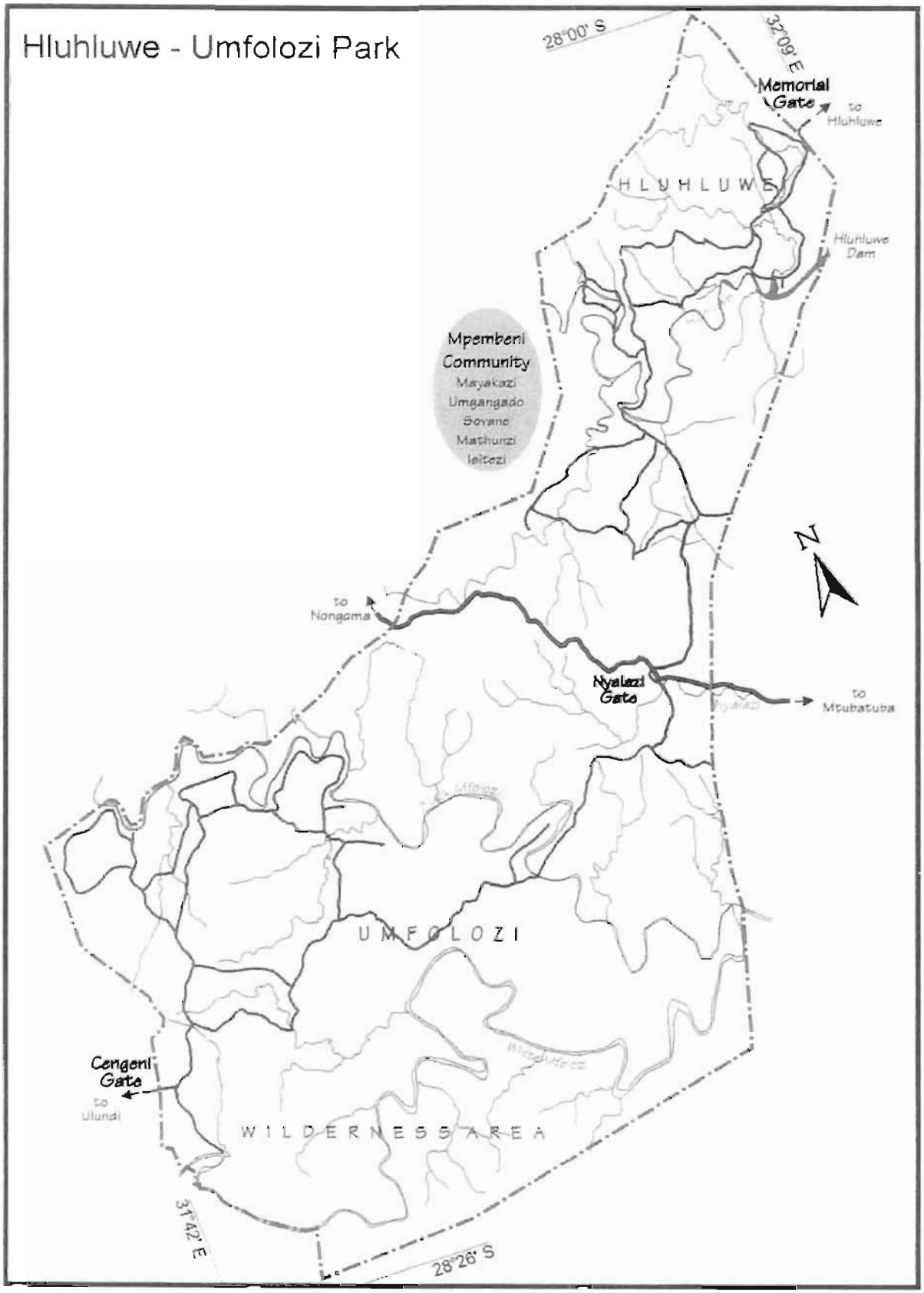

Figure 3.3: Map showing the main rivers flowing through Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park

3.2.7 Soils

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

3.2.8 Flora and Fauna

The HUP lies within an area which contains elements of both tropical and temperate flora and fauna. In terms of flora, the park is typical of the Savannah biome of Southern Africa and this structure is influenced by two principal factors namely rainfall and soils. The two principal vegetation types include the Zululand thornveld, which covers a third of the park and the lowveld covering the remaining two thirds. The park has average species richness compared to other biomes in Southern Africa, and above all, it contains a number of threatened or endemic species. The principal plant communities include forests, riverine forests, woodland, thicket, induced thicket and grasslands. The Hluhluwe section is characterised by closed forest communities and ridge top grasslands, which occupy the higher altitudes, woodlands, lowland forests and wetlands in the valleys while open acacia woodlands dominate much of the Umfolozi section.

Approximately 59% of the recorded vertebrates (excluding fish) and 67% of the recorded species of birds in Kwazulu-Natal are known to exist in HUP (Münster and Sandwith, 1998). The park is the home for the African mega herbivores, the big five, all the large carnivores and a full spectrum of raptors. The significant components, however, are some of the species (notably the black and white rhinoceros, wild dogs, cheetahs, crocodiles, bateleur eagle and ground hornbills), which are or have been threatened with extinction. There is, however, little information available on invertebrates and this may require further investigation. The park is also known as the original source of many species that have been re-established in other parts of the province and beyond South Africa's borders. This successful protection and translocation of large herbivores has therefore established the park's international reputation, and are fundamental factors attracting the interests of tourists. For example, by 1988 more than 3 300 white rhinos were

successfully translocated to other game reserves and zoos all around the world (Pooley and Player, 1995). Furthermore, since black rhino populations all over Africa are pressurised by poachers, the management has tirelessly worked towards the distribution of these animals to other places in order to ensure their survival.

3.2.9 Land use

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

3.2.10 Current tourist facilities and activities within the HUP

Apart from game viewing and bird watching, the park offers a variety of facilities and activities to the tourists to ensure that they are comfortable. The facilities include entrance gates, game-viewing road network, viewpoints and hides, curio shops and food outlets, picnic sites, accommodation, children's environmental education camps, an interpretation venue as well as a conference/ meeting room. Additionally, the activities offered include self-guided walks, guided walks, guided game drives, self-guided auto trails, river rafting and wilderness trails.

3.2.11 Conclusion

The Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park with its historical background, biophysical features as well as tourist facilities and activities appears to be a popular tourist destination area. With the exception of the children's environmental education camps, the rest of the facilities and activities seem to cater for international tourists and wealthy domestic tourists and not the local communities residing in close proximity to the park. Although the local communities are provided with curio stalls at Nyalazi and Memorial Gates to market their products, there is a need for KZN Wildlife, Park Management in partnership with the

local communities to devise ways of promoting nature conservation, tourism as well as the upliftment of neighbouring communities

3.3 METHODOLOGY

3.3.1 The sampling technique

Individual households were selected as the basic sample unit from Mpembeni community, which lies to the west of the HUP. Mpembeni community was selected as the area of study because the preliminary survey, which was conducted, revealed that this community is well developed from an institutional point of as compared to the other nine communities. In addition, the community has identified and recognised the potential for cultural tourism; and has developed a high level of trust with KZN Wildlife and regards it as a reliable partner in community development. This community therefore, will serve as a model for the other communities. The time and funds available to carry out the survey dictated the sample size to be drawn and a maximum limit of 60 cases was set. Though a larger sample size is preferred to reduce sampling errors and to increase the likelihood that the sample is representative of the population, this was not possible in this study. For the best results, respondents were selected from at least each of the 5 sub-wards (Mayakazi, Umgangado, Sovane, Mathunzi and Isitezi) that make up the Mpembeni community. The criterion used was that the respondent had to be an adult member (≥ 21 years) from each household.

3.3.2 Data categories

The data categories included both primary and secondary data sources. The primary data sources were personal observations, questionnaires, interviews and informal discussions with key respondents from the Mpembeni community, and KZN Wildlife (HUP and Community Conservation Section). Secondary data sources included maps, official reports, policy documents, publications, research papers and newspapers. From these sources data was gathered on the socio-economic characteristics and needs of the Mpembeni community in relation to the park as well as the tourists who come to visit in the park. Additionally, questions related to the spatial interactions between the community and the park were also posed. Spatial interactions are measured by using

levels of labour and income flows, social movements and flow of natural resources within the park and conservation-related information.

3.3.3 Sample size

The data in this study were gathered from two sources: the Mpembeni community members and KZN Wildlife officials from the park and Community Conservation Section. From the Mpembeni community one adult (≥ 21 years) was selected where every tenth household was interviewed until the required number of households were completed. The choice of respondents from KZN Wildlife officials was purposive. Two officials from the Community Conservation Section were selected because they are directly involved with the communities. The Conservator (Hluhluwe Section) and the Regional Ecologist in charge of the Research Centre were chosen as key informants. The remaining respondents were selected because they are HUP employees who reside in the communities bordering the park.

3.3.4 Procedure in the field

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

3.3.5 Data Collection

Triangulation (a multi method approach) was used to collect the data. The methods used included direct observations, informal interactions with the respondents, questionnaires and interviews. The key respondents were selected from the Mpembeni community and KZN Wildlife (HUP and the Community Conservation Section).

The questionnaire survey constituted the main source of data for the study. A series of questions were designed to obtain information on relevant background and the socio-economic impacts of tourism on the Mpembeni community. In accordance with the generally accepted format (Peil, 1982), biographical questions were used to open the questionnaire and then followed with the more complex questions dealing with the key issues to be addressed. A professional translator translated the questionnaire from English to Zulu and the research interpreter checked the translation before the questionnaires were distributed to the respondents.

The questionnaire was formulated to gather two types of data. The first part dealt with the biographical data of the respondents. The following biographical data were collected:

- The age of the respondents which was divided into five classes (21-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, 51-60 years and >60 years)

- The gender of the respondents (female and male)

- The number of family members

- The level of formal education achieved by each respondent. This was divided into four groups (None, Primary, Secondary and Tertiary)

- Period of stay in the area that is: the number of years the respondent had been residing in the area. It was divided into five classes (<1 year, 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-15 years and >15 years).

- Places of origin and reasons for moving to this area. The reasons for migrating were divided into four categories (forcefully removed, employment opportunities, join the family and other: where the respondents were required to specify the reason)

- Income generating activities which included farming, agricultural wage labour,

pension/grants, rent, informal work, formal work and organised small business

- Employment opportunities which included type and place of employment, monthly income earned and benefits received.

The second part of the questionnaire dealt with six major types of information:

- Accessibility to natural resources within the park
- Benefits from the park
- Participation in the operation and management of the park
- Relationship with the park management/ staff
- Tourism development
- Challenges faced

Two question-formats, namely open-ended and close-ended questions were used. Open-ended questions were used to obtain unsolicited responses and this enabled the respondents to give their own opinions thus helping the researcher to draw out information from the respondents. On the other hand, fixed response questions (questions in which the responses were restricted to "Yes/No" or "Good/Bad") were used to gather information about the respondent's attitude towards or knowledge of specific issues which the researcher thought might be important. These questions provided easily interpretable information to be collected on a wide range of issues. They, however, had one disadvantage of restricting the responses that could be made and researcher's bias to perceived issues.

The sample frame was the resident households of the Mpembeni community. The target sample was sixty respondents but only fifty-five questionnaires were successfully

completed representing 92% of the intended sample size. Since most of the respondents were unable to read and write, the interpreter read the questions to them in Zulu and then the researcher recorded the answers in English. In addition, in order to fulfil the wishes of the tribal authorities and to minimise the disturbance on households, questionnaires were held on a one-to-one basis at popular meeting places. There were also a few individuals who requested for clarification on certain issues in the questionnaire, so verbal explanations had to be provided. For the respondents who were able to read and write, the questionnaires were distributed from door to door and the respondents were given time to complete them in the presence of the researcher and interpreter. Although self-administered questionnaires were not time consuming, the respondents did not attempt a number of questions.

Stakeholder interviews were also conducted with the community tribal leaders and committee members as well as KZN Wildlife officials. The purpose of the interviews was to obtain clarity on certain issues related to the interaction between the park management and the Mpembeni community members as a result of questionnaires or researcher's perceived issues. The interviews also sought clarifications on the people/ parks relationship, the role of the HUP in community development, the number of park employees from the community as well as the attitudes and levels of interaction between the local community and tourists. Unfortunately, the tourists were not included in the survey and so, their opinions and views were not received.

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

3.3.6 Data Description

Data were organised, coded and described in the Department of Geography and Environmental Studies at the University of Durban-Westville using the Social Sciences Software Package (SPSS) programme. Data was presented in a graphical form to allow

easy description and interpretation. Some of the statistical techniques employed included tabulation, percentage, bar graphs and pie charts.

3.3.7 Limitations of the study

- Some of the respondents were not prepared to provide the required information. For example, some respondents wanted to know why researchers always frequent their community while others insisted that a report should be compiled and presented to them by the researcher. Furthermore, there were respondents who made it clear that they could only participate if the researcher assured them that there were benefits to be accrued at the end of the survey. They based their argument on the fact that some previous researchers had operated on empty promises.

- Financial constraints: The researcher did not receive enough financial assistance from the various interested parties. On some occasions she had to use her own funds.

- Since the researcher could not speak the Zulu language, she required the services of an interpreter whenever she was dealing with the respondents from the community, the majority of which could neither speak nor read English.

- Another limitation that was encountered was the difficulty in obtaining current and relevant literature/ information since tourism has not been widely researched in the academic field.

3.3.8 Conclusion

Research is vital when it comes to matching theory with reality. It provides possible answers to the set key questions. In addition, the research methodology is one of the parts of the driving wheel of the entire research process. The procedures and methods that were explained in detail gave the researcher a firm ground for observations and analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter focuses on the research findings and the discussion, which are divided into two sections. The first section comprises of the background information of the respondents, which includes age, gender, members in a family, level of formal education, period of stay in the area, places of origin, income generating activities and employment opportunities. The second section focuses on the socio-economic impacts associated with tourism-related activities in Mpembeni, a community bordering the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park.

4.2 BACKGROUND INFORMATION OF THE RESPONDENTS

4.2.1 Age categories of the respondents

Respondents between 21 and 30 years accounted for 15% of the entire sample. Respondents aged between 31 and 40 years and 41 and 50 years constituted 16% and 22% respectively. The age categories 51-60 and >60 years accounted for 20% and 27% of the respondents. The results indicate that there was a greater response from the respondents of 41 years and above (69%). This may be due to two reasons. Firstly, most of the community members of 40 years and below were absent during the survey period. In fact the researcher learnt from the respondents that due to a high unemployment rate in the region a significant proportion of the younger generation have migrated to urban areas such as Durban, Richards Bay and Johannesburg in search for employment. The second reason is that it is the elderly who are perceived to have most of the information and knowledge. The results, therefore, give an implication that there is a need to create jobs that can cater for the community members who are 40 years and above. Furthermore, it will be imperative to integrate the knowledge of the elderly into the process of community based tourism ventures.

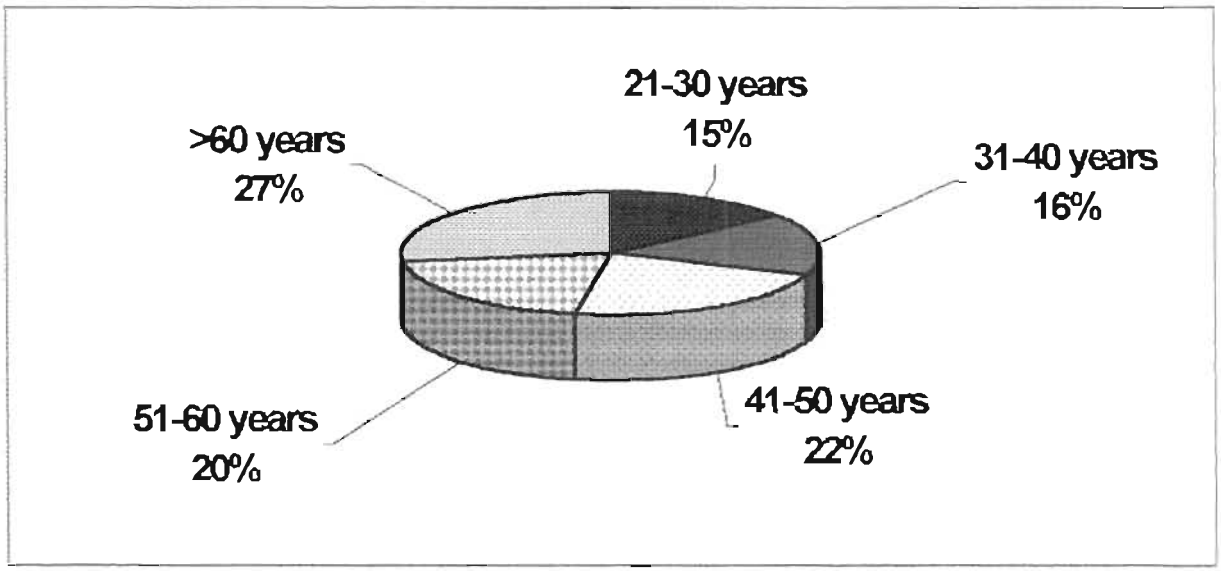

Figure 4.1: Age categories of the respondents

4.2.2 Gender status of the respondents

The results show that 65% of the respondents were females as compared to 35% males (Figure 4.2). When the researcher asked a few respondents to give reasons for such results, the responses were that the women are generally at home whereas the men are at work either on the plantations, forests or in the urban areas such as Richards Bay, Empangeni, Durban and Johannesburg. This is in keeping with migratory patterns identified in the literature as well as the prominence of female headedness. It, therefore, implies that there is a need to provide the people with either life skills in order to create their own jobs or the basic facilities such as health, literacy and adult education. This in the long run will improve on the quality of life as well as the living standards of rural communities.

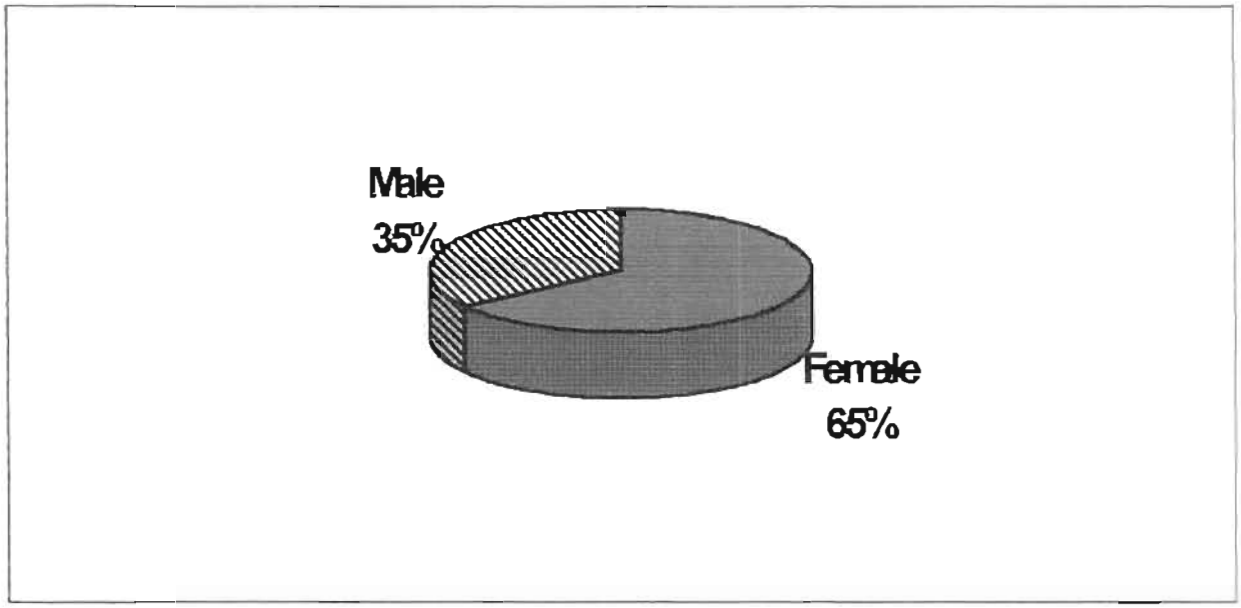

Figure 4.2: Gender status of the respondents

4.2.3 Number of family members

The results indicate that the majority of the respondents (80%) have more than 8 family members (Figure 4.3). In fact, respondents in the category of more than 10 family members accounted for 42%. When some of the male respondents were asked why they have opted for big families while at the same time they are complaining of poverty the response was that child bearing is a natural phenomenon and is not easy to control. This is a reflection of the old African traditional practice where the reproduction of many children was regarded as a source of wealth, labour for the family as well as increased security for the elderly in terms of being taken care of by children. In addition, it also shows the patriarchal practice where the women have no say on the size of the family and other related issues such as child bearing and rearing.

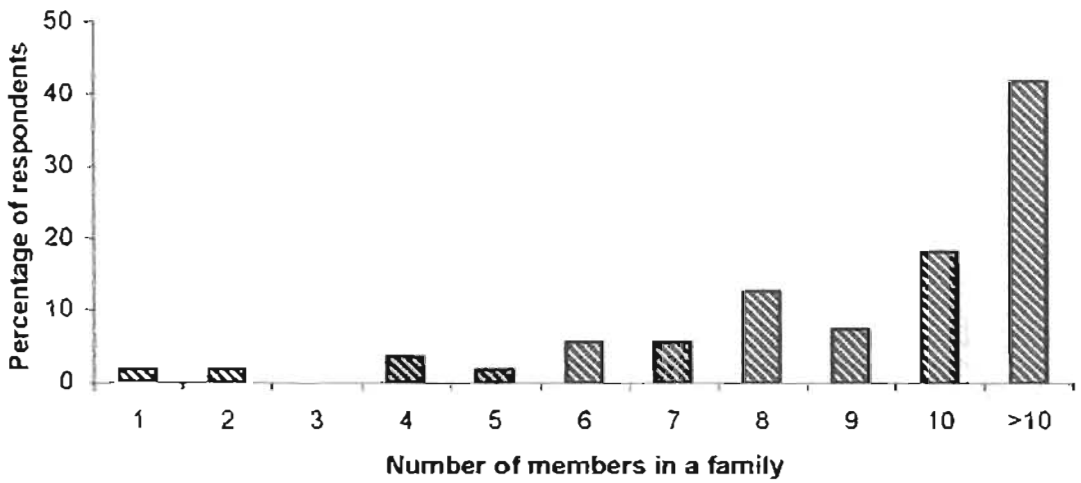

Figure 4.3: Number of members in a family

4.2.4 Respondents' levels of formal education

The results reveal that respondents without any form of formal education accounted for 38% whereas 38% claimed to have primary education (Figure 4.4). Respondents who have secondary and tertiary education constituted 6% and 18% respectively (Figure 4.4). The results further indicate that the majority of the respondents are either illiterate or have just primary education (76%) as compared to 24% with secondary and tertiary education. According to the information that was gathered from some of the respondents during informal interactions, the researcher discovered that the members with better formal education have migrated to urban areas where there are more and better job opportunities. The other reasons that were cited for such results include poverty, unemployment, and lack of access to educational facilities, resources as well as enough schools due to the apartheid system. The respondents also claimed that they are required to build their own schools whereas it is very clear that they cannot afford to do this due to poverty that is rife in the community. The respondents, therefore, concluded that as long as challenges like high unemployment rates, poverty, few schools and long distances to schools still exist, illiteracy would remain a problem. Such responses give an implication that there is an urgent need to address the highlighted challenges. This could be achieved through the provision of better and more educational facilities/ resources as well as adult basic education by either governmental or nongovernmental organisations.

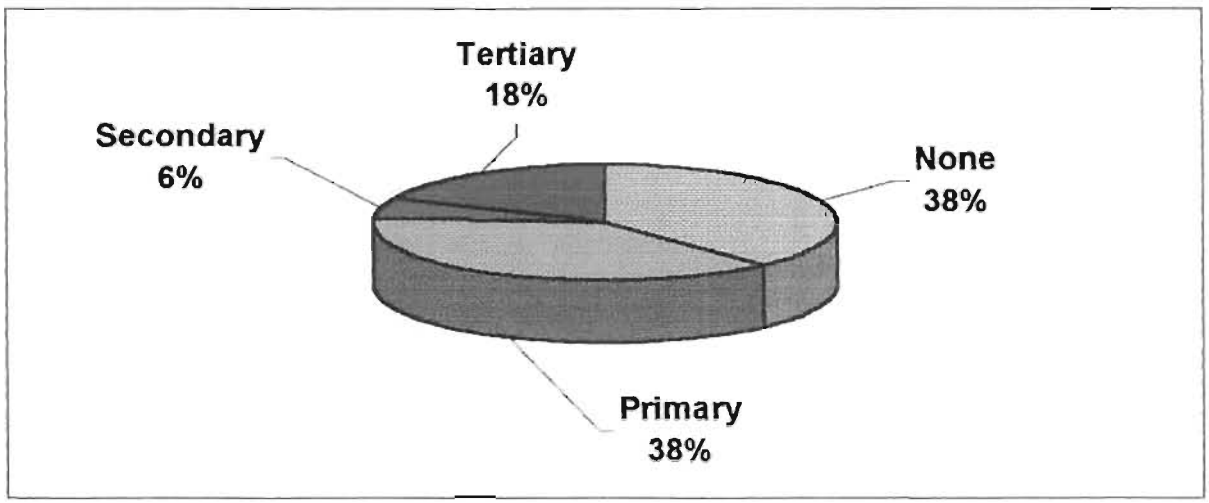

Figure 4.4: Respondents' levels of formal education

4.2.5 Period of stay in the area, places of origin and reasons for moving into the area

The results reveal that 90% of the respondents have been living in the area for more than fifteen years (Figure 4.5). The rest of the respondents either have been staying in the area for less than one year (2%), between six and ten years (2%) or between eleven and fifteen years (6%) (Figure 4.5). When the respondents were further asked whether they were born in the area or moved from somewhere else, the results show that 62% of the respondents claimed that they were born in the area as compared to 38% who migrated from the surrounding regions. The results clearly show that the majority of the respondents could be a reliable source of information for issues like the relationship between the park management and the neighbouring communities, the accessibility to resources and facilities in the park, and the impacts of tourism on rural communities residing adjacent to the park. The results further show that the people who were not born in the area migrated from various regions within the province. The regions cited include Louwsburg (38%), Nongoma (14%), Vryheid (29%), Magudu (5%), Mtubatuba (5%), Dongothuli (5%) and Nkandla (5%) (Figure 4.6).

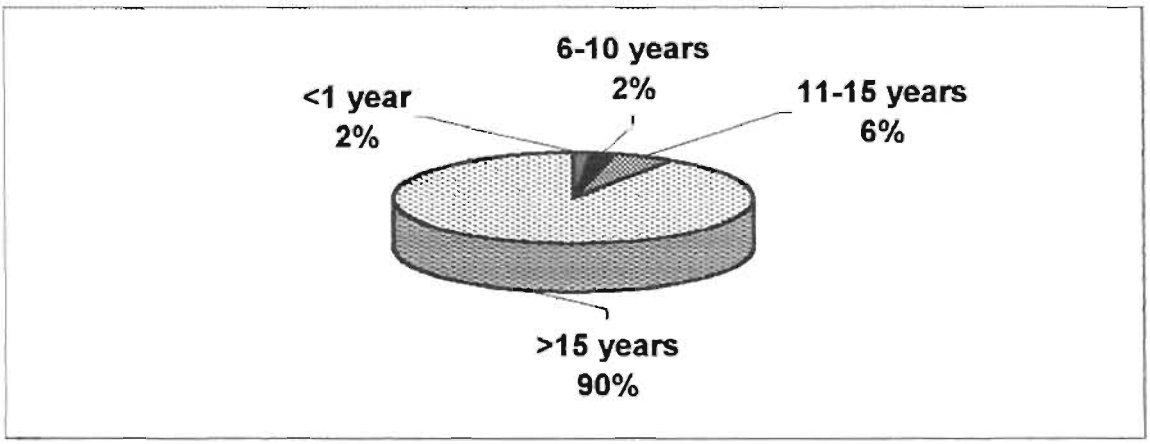

Figure 4.5: Respondents' period of stay in the area

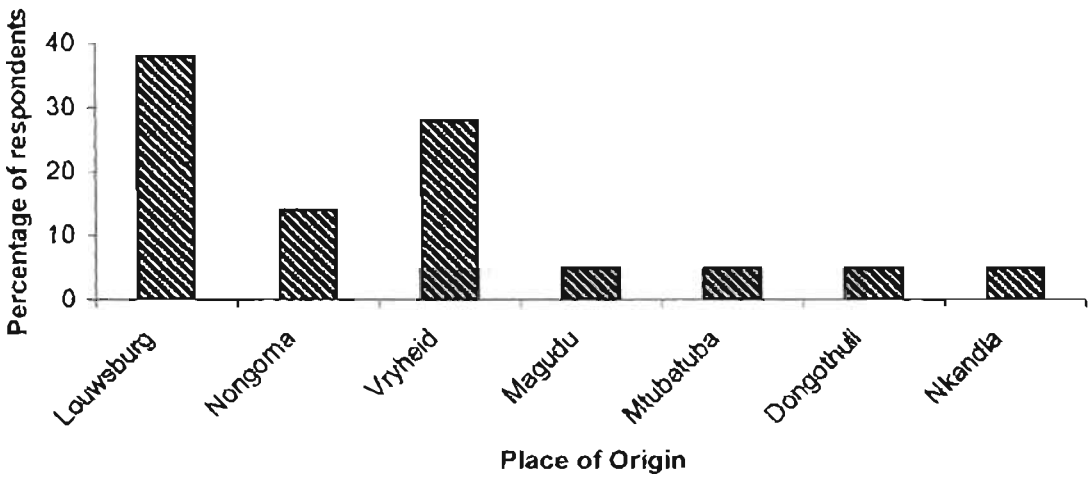

Figure 4.6: Places of origin for the respondents who were not born in the area

When the respondents who were not born in the region were asked to state reasons for their migration, they came up with quite interesting answers (Table 4.1). The reasons cited are forced removals (52%), employment opportunities (5%), joining the family (28%), liking the area (5%) and marriage (10%). The respondents who were forcefully removed accounted for the largest percentage (52%) and the reasons they cited for the eviction included the establishment of protected areas as well as commercial farming within their former locations. These reasons are a true reflection of what happened to many South Africans from the disadvantaged ethnic groups due to the policies and practices of apartheid. It is clear from the responses, that many of the respondents have expectations in commercial farming and conservation.

Table 4.1: Reasons for moving of those respondents who were not born in the area

Reason for moving	Frequency (n =21)	Percentage
Forcefully removed	11	52
Employment opportunities	1	5
Join the family	6	28
Like the area	1	5
Marriage	2	10
TOTAL	21	100.0

4.2.6 Income generating activities

The results reveal that the respondents engage in a variety of income generating activities, which is indicative of multiple survival strategies (Table 4.2). Crop cultivation as a source of income accounted for 80% of the respondents. Respondents who obtain their income from livestock keeping and informal work constituted 60% and 44% respectively. Other income generating activities include formal work (29%), pensions/ grants (27%), organised small businesses (16%) and agricultural wage labour (9%). Only 2% of the respondents indicated that their households had no sources of income. Despite a wide variety of income generating activities most of the respondents claimed that they were living below the poverty line as they cannot be able to meet all their basic needs. This dilemma is also reflected in the respondents' perceived resolutions (creation of job opportunities, income generating projects, better agricultural practices as well as donations from either the government or KZN Wildlife) to the challenges they faced. The researcher also discovered that although some of the respondents sell crop and animal products to earn a living, they mainly practise subsistence farming. This is a typical practice in a poor rural set up where there is not enough resources such as capital, land, market as well as skilled human power to engage in commercial farming practices for survival.

Table 4.2: Respondents' sources of income

Source of income	Frequency (N = 55 Multiple responses)	Percentage
Household cultivation	44	80
Livestock production	33	60
Agricultural wage labour	5	9
Organised small businesses	9	16
Qualified personnel	16	29
Pensions/Grants	15	27
Informal work	24	44
None	1	2

4.2.7 Sources of employment within the community

The results show that three types of employment opportunities namely formal, informal and business oriented are available within Mpembeni community. For example, 27% of the respondents cited formal work, 16% informal work and 4% mentioned business-oriented jobs. Despite the fact that some of the respondents are aware of job opportunities available within the area, the majority of the respondents (80%) indicated that they are unemployed as compared to 11% who are employed and 9% who did not respond (Figure 4.7). In addition, when the respondents were asked to outline the challenges they face, unemployment accounted for the highest response both in the community (82%) and family (69%). This is a clear indication that unemployment is a serious problem within the region. When the respondents were further asked to give reasons for the high unemployment rate, they stated that there are very few firms and industries since most of them have closed down. They, however, suggested that the government and investors should either re-open the closed firms and industries or build new ones within the community since land is available. In addition to working in firms and industries, the unemployed respondents expressed a desire to have other sources of employment within

the community. The desired sources included hotels, chicken farms, markets and craft shops. This is an indication that employment-generating sources such as hotels, markets and craft shops may have a close link with tourism, which may be one of the desired ways of community development and upliftment. This finding supports Wells' (1996) assertion. There is, therefore, a need to promote community-based tourism and ecotourism as ways of generating off-farm opportunities (such as craft making, cultural and other tourism-related activities) for the local people while at the same time reducing the negative environmental impacts (such as pollution, and environmental degradation).

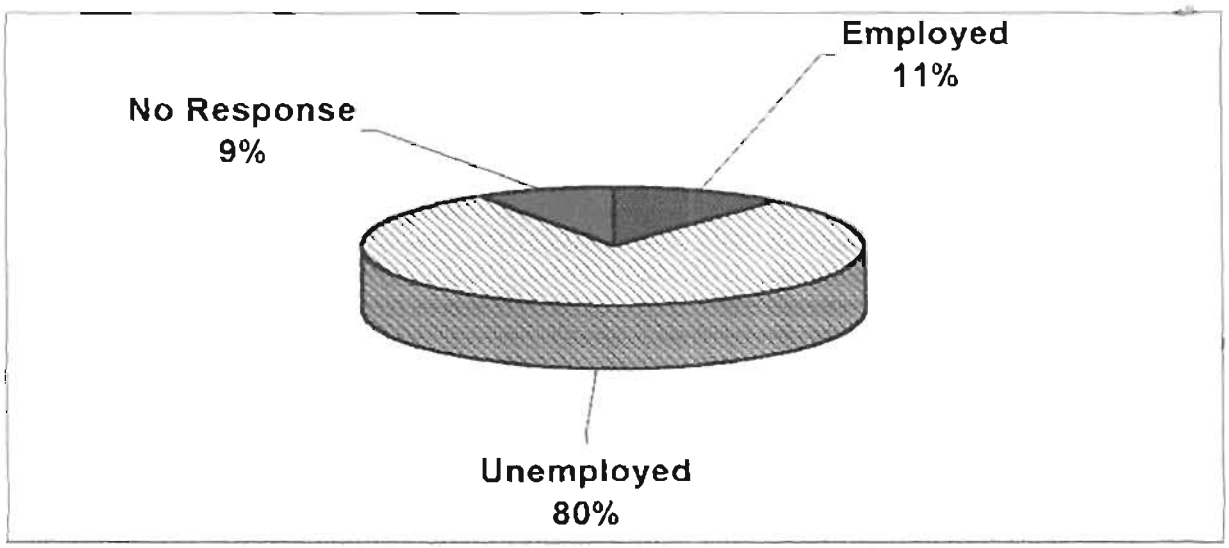

Figure 4.7: Employment status of the respondents

4.3 THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS ASSOCIATED WITH TOURISM-RELATED ACTIVITIES

Tourism is widely perceived as an industry with the potential to provide rural communities with job opportunities, income and economic diversity (Andereck and Vogt, 2000; Jensen and Blevins, 1992; Long et al, 1990; Stokowski, 1992). This perceived potential has persuaded the Kwazulu-Natal province to utilise tourism development and community empowerment as the major focus for economic development in the province (Creemers, 1997). This is believed to be a means to generate tangible benefits to previously disadvantaged communities and at the same time to integrate conservation and development (Potter, 1997). Münster and Sandwith (1998) argue that nature conservation and associated tourism development are being earmarked as a solution to rural poverty in Kwazulu-Natal. However, tourists cannot be attracted into areas, which are insecure and without basic facilities. Tourism development, therefore, will depend upon both private and government investment and in order to make this viable, benefits should be channelled to local people but through their constructive involvement and inclusive participation in sustainable environmental management and commerce (Rural Development Framework, 1997).

4.3.1 Accessibility to natural resources within the park

Most studies that have been conducted indicate that local communities residing adjacent to protected areas are denied access to natural resources, which are a viable source of their basic needs (Biodiversity Support Programme, 1993, Ghimire and Pimbert, 1997; Giongo and Nizeye, 1994). In the case of the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park (HUP), the results from Mpembeni community (one of the ten communities bordering the park) reveal that some community members have access to at least one of the resources in the park (Table 4.3). This is in agreement with what the researcher learnt from the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator (Zululand Region) that for the past thirty years neighbouring communities have had access to a number of natural resources such as thatch, hay, reeds, meat and wood. There have also been times when the park provided water, sand and other building materials. On the contrary, Brown and Jones (1994) reported that the local people in West Caprivi (Namibia) clearly stated that they had a feeling of alienation from

wildlife as a resource and desired to share in its economic benefits. In Madagascar, the local people bordering the Mananara Biosphere are not allowed to enter into its two parks (marine and terrestrial) even to gather dry wood (Ghimire, 1994). The findings from this study show that community members in this instance have access to natural resources within the park. The nature and extent of access to specific natural resources as well as the problems encountered are discussed below.

Table 4.3: Types of natural resources within the park accessed by Mpembeni community

Type of natural resources	Frequency (N = 55: Multiple responses)	Percentage
Donations of meat for ceremonies	29	53
Water	4	7
Firewood	38	69
Meat for Sale	35	64
Grass	50	91
Nursery	7	13
Animal by-products	10	18
None	2	4

Donations of meat for ceremonies

Fifty three percent of the respondents indicated that through the tribal leaders they receive donations of meat from the park when they are having ceremonies (Table 4.3). However, during informal discussions some of the respondents claimed that the donations are mainly given to the tribal leaders. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator attributed this complaint to the fact that there are instances where nepotism (the donations go to relatives of the tribal leaders) occurs and as a result some people end up claiming that they have been denied access (pers comm. Regional Community

Conservation Co-ordinator, 2001) It will not be fair to blame KZN Wildlife for this unfair practice and so the tribal leaders have to set up a fair system for the distribution of the donations.

Water

Only 7% of the respondents indicated that they have access to water in the park (Table 4.3), which they either utilise while on duty in the park or fetch in containers with varying capacities to take home. The rest of the respondents claimed that most of the community members have access to either clean tap water or water from the rivers. The clean tap water is provided free of charge through the Water Project Scheme, which was facilitated by the park management. In fact the researcher observed a fair distribution of water taps within the community. The low response indicates that access to water as a resource has not been denied but instead the community members have other easy alternatives of obtaining water and so they do not have to depend on water in the park.

Firewood

The results show that while 69% of the respondents obtain firewood from the park (Table 4.3) the rest either get firewood from trees in the surrounding communal land/ own plots or in addition use other sources of fuel like gas, paraffin, charcoal and electricity. However, a few of the respondents who reside far away from the park complained that they are unable to access firewood from the park and they attributed this to the very long distances they have to travel in order to collect firewood from the park. This is an indication that they have not been denied access to firewood in the park but the limiting factor is the long distances they have to cover in order to obtain the firewood.

Meat for sale

The results reveal that 64% of the respondents buy meat from the park (Table 4.3). This was in agreement with what the researcher gathered through personal communications with the Conservator (Hluhluwe Section) who claimed that the local communities are supplied with game meat at a discount price of 50%. A similar practice was noted in Burkina Faso and the north-eastern part of Kwazulu-Natal. In Burkina Faso local

communities bordering the Nazinga Game Ranch buy meat from the ranch (Biodiversity Support Programme, 1993) whereas local people bordering the Ndumo Game Reserve (Kwazulu-Natal) buy meat and skins from culled animals at a cheap price. Some respondents, however, had one major concern. They suggested that since they do not have enough money, the meat should either be sold at a cheaper price or given free of charge. Personal communications with the Conservator, however, revealed that this is impossible because there are some costs that have to be covered in the provision of game meat and above all, the KZN Wildlife policy does not permit free supply of meat. He further stated that free game meat is only provided in the form of donations for special community occasions like the opening of newly established schools. In addition to the desire of receiving meat at a cheaper price or free of charge, other respondents indicated that they should be allowed in the park to obtain their favourite meat through hunting the warthogs though they are aware that this act is illegal. In fact one of the respondents admitted that he had been penalised on several occasions for illegal hunting. He, however, stated that he could not stop this practice unless the park management provides an alternative. This concurs with what Brandon and Wells (1992) observed that many of the poor local people bordering parks are not scared of being fined or imprisoned while caught breaking the park regulations as long as they are able to satisfy their perceived needs. When the Conservator was asked if there was any possible way of resolving this problem, he indicated that hunting inside the park is not permitted at all. He emphasised that this is a law of the land and that KZN Wildlife is there to implement it. He further stated that KZN Wildlife has to maintain the integrity of the organisation, its role to the community and the nation at large. He concluded by saying that illegal hunters will continue to be penalised until they stop.

It is, therefore, obvious that the conservation law which follows the centralised "preservation-oriented" approach (Colchester, 1996) where the local people are prevented from hunting in protected areas still exists. Anyway, from a conservation perspective, it may assist to save some endangered species from extinction and also to promote the philosophy of ecotourism. It is, however, perceived to be denying or restricting the local people access to natural resources, which they traditionally depended on to meet their

basic needs. In the long run, all these factors contribute to increased park/ people conflicts, which are a stumbling block to long-term biodiversity conservation efforts. The most viable option should, therefore, be to encourage the development of a decentralised people-centred approach: Community-Based Conservation (Mehta and Kellert, 1998) where conservation and local community development co-exist. This may be difficult from the side of KZN Wildlife since most of community members expect a lot from the park.

Grass

Ninety one percent of the respondents mentioned that they harvest grass from the park (Table 4.3). This was similar to what Brandon and Wells (1992) identified in Nepal where the park officials allow the neighbouring local communities to collect grass for house construction and thatching from the Royal Chitwan National Park once a year. Gumede (1998) learnt from the KwaJobe and Mnqobokazi communities that the local people harvest grass, reeds and thatch from Mkuzi Game Reserve in Kwazulu-Natal. In fact, all the homes that the researcher visited had at least one traditional item made from grass materials. This proves that there is a large demand for the grass materials especially thatching grass and reeds, which have to be replaced periodically. Grass is also in high demand for handicraft work, which was cited as an important source of income for most of the female respondents. In fact, the majority of the female respondents were busy working on their handicraft products as they waited to be interviewed. However, one major complaint from the respondents was that the grass is not completely free. This was based on the fact that for every four bundles of grass cut one belongs to the park and it is used to roof some of the accommodation facilities within the park. Personal communications with the Conservator revealed the same. The Conservator, however, explained that this kind of arrangement was put in place in order to promote sustainable utilisation of the resources. Apparently, some community members perceive the concept of sustainable utilisation negatively. For instance, discussions with a few respondents revealed that some of the people from the neighbouring communities still hold the old belief that KZN Wildlife, the government or simply the "white person" wants the grass for herself/ himself or her/ his animals. Therefore, the idea that the natural resources in

the park are limited is viewed with a certain degree of scepticism though not complete rejection.

Nursery

Only 13% of the respondents indicated that they receive seedlings from the nursery within the park (Table 4.3). This low response is attributed to the fact that most respondents misinterpreted the term "nursery". According to some respondents, the term "nursery" is perceived to refer to vegetable seedlings such as cabbage, spinach, onions and beetroot, a need, which should be fulfilled by the Department of Agriculture. However, personal communications with the Regional Ecologist based at the Hluhluwe Research Centre within the park as well as the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator revealed that a nursery was set up in the park in order to provide medicinal seedlings to the traditional healers from the neighbouring communities. Another possible reason for the low response rate could be that few of the respondents serve as traditional healers.

Animal by-products

Results show that only 18% of the respondents admitted that they obtain animal by-products from the park (Table 4.3). The low response was due to the fact that most of the respondents are more interested in meat than the animal by-products. In fact the researcher learnt from most respondents that it is the traditional healers and their helpers who mainly collect the by-products such as hides and skins for healing purposes.

Other desired beneficial natural resources within the park

Although the overall results show that some members of Mpembeni community have access to a number of natural resources within the park, 87% of the respondents indicated that there are other beneficial resources they desire to have. The desired natural resources include building poles, medicinal plants, job creating resources as well as animals especially the warthogs and fish (Table 4.4). This was in agreement with the information that the researcher obtained from the Conservator. This to some extent shows that some members of Mpembeni community regard the natural resources within the park as the

possible way to survive, since in the community there is hardly anything to meet their demands. The respondents further claimed that they are not allowed to hunt in the park as well as to collect medicinal plants. When they were asked how such a problem could be resolved, they suggested that there is a need for more negotiations between the park management and the community.

Table 4.4: Other desired beneficial natural resources within the park

Other beneficial natural resources	**Frequency (N = 55: Multiple responses)**	**Percentage**
Building poles	5	9
Medicinal plants	7	13
Job-creating resources	9	16
Animals	2	4
Fish	1	2
No response	1	2

The Conservator, however, indicated that there is no need for further negotiations and instead emphasised that local communities cannot be allowed in the park to obtain the desired natural resources due to a number of reasons. Firstly, the building poles can only be obtained depending on the trees cut. Secondly, since hunting in the park is not permitted, it is only the dead animals that are given to the traditional healers who utilise the animal parts for healing purposes. Thirdly, with regard to the issue of gathering medicinal plants, the Conservator clearly stated that the KZN Wildlife policy does not allow for this practice. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator also confirmed the policy requirements. The Conservator and the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator further emphasised that the issue of medicinal plants has been addressed by providing traditional healers with seedlings from the indigenous plant nursery, which, is stationed within the park so that they can grow their own plants. Some

traditional healers, however, have a belief that the only medicine that can heal is that obtained from the plants that are growing naturally This is similar to what Ransom (1998) noted regarding the Bagisu tribe of Uganda bordering the Mt. Elgon National Park that it is not easy to persuade traditional healers to give up the use of traditional medicine plants growing naturally in protected areas. Fourthly, concerning the issue of job creating resources, the *Ilala* and *Ncema* grass types used for handicraft products are not presently found within the park. Finally, the fish that are present in the park are minimal and are not harvested at all. Of late many conservationists have come to realise the lawful rights of rural populations concerning the utilisation of natural resources (Kiss, 1990), the park management needs to harmonise the exact needs, motivations as well as the capabilities of the local people in order to address the concerns of the local communities.

In addition, personal communications with the Community Conservationist revealed that since the rate of the needy people exceeds that of the natural resources in the park, it is not possible to meet all their demands. The Community Conservationist, though sympathetic, further raised an important issue that it is not feasible to allow each and every person to have access to the park for resources, as this will make KZN Wildlife lose sight of its sustainable utilisation motive. He, therefore, suggested that the KZN Wildlife head office in collaboration with the park management need to conduct more workshops with the neighbouring communities to make them aware and clearly grasp the importance of nature conservation. This concurs with what Kiss (1990) concluded that education is a pre-requisite to make people aware of the potential economic value of wildlife and the disadvantages of alternative land uses like agriculture in marginal lands.

The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator also felt that it is not practical for every single person living around the park to have access to natural resources within the park. The feeling was based on the fact that the natural resources in the park are limited and, therefore, have to be shared equitably amongst the many people living on the park's boundaries. Furthermore, KZN Wildlife would only be able to provide natural resources, which are available and can be sustainably harvested without impacting on the park's ecology. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator further advised that

presently the harvesting of the natural resources is monitored as well as evaluated and that there are recommendations in place as to which species are suitable for harvesting and in what quantities. In addition, there is a protocol through the Traditional Authorities (TAs) relating to how the natural resources are shared. However, there could be instances where nepotism occurs as already mentioned and this makes some people claim that they have been denied access to natural resources

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

4.3.2 Benefits from the park

There is a general perception in developing countries and, to some degree in developed countries, that protected areas have been until recently established to preserve important natural resources and special habitats (Giongo and Nizeye, 1994). In addition, little attention has been given to the needs of local people residing inside or near the areas set aside for protection (Ghimire, 1994) and instead they bear the costs with hardly any benefits (Biodiversity Support Programme, 1993). The results from the study reveal that some members of Mpembeni community benefit from the park through various ways (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5: Benefits that local communities obtain from the park

Benefits from the park	Frequency (N = 55: Multiple responses)	Percentage
Education/ Training programme	26	47
Job opportunities	32	58
Natural resource management	41	75
Tourism	38	69
None	2	4
No response	1	2

Education/ Training Programmes

The respondents who admitted that they benefit from education/ training programmes offered by the park accounted for 47% (Table 4.5). This was in agreement with some information gathered through personal communications with some of the stakeholders. According to Chief Hlabisa (pers comm, 2000), once a year matric candidates from the schools within the community are taken for camping in the park where they receive environmental education. This is further supported by the report of Münster and Sandwith (1998) on the conceptual development plan of the HUP, which stated that in 1995 over 8000 children from neighbouring communities had an opportunity of being exposed to lectures, videos, slides and children's wildlife camps. In fact an educational children's camp has been running in HUP since 1992 and has provided an outdoor classroom for the learners and educators. Despite the fact that the government has cut down on the subsidy to the park of late, thus denying children from neighbouring poor rural communities an opportunity to camp, an alternative channel has been put in place. This has been made possible through the Windows on the Wild (WOW) camps, which are self-sustaining where the more "advantaged" schools subsidise the "poorer" schools, that is schools adjacent to the park who do not pay at all.

Furthermore, personal communications with the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator also revealed that local communities bordering the park benefit through various education/ training programmes. The programmes that currently run include those with Local Board members, traditional healers, community tour guides, TAs as well as scholars/ teachers. The biodiversity programmes involve teachers' workshops, junior research programmes and day visits. There is also a scholarship programme, which is funded by the Wilderness Foundation Other programmes include capacity building associated with the Mpembeni Community Conservation Game Reserve (CCGR) as well as internship, which cater for field rangers from the CCGR.

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

Job opportunities

The results reveal that 58% of the respondents indicated that the park offers some job opportunities to neighbouring local communities (Table 4.5). This was in agreement with the information the researcher gathered from the Conservator and the Community Conservationist. According to the Conservator, about 80% of the permanent workers are from the ten neighbouring communities. This is further supported by the report produced by Creemers in 1999 on the workers of Hilltop Camp in which he noted that 91% of the employees are from the neighbouring local communities. The Community Conservationist also had the same notion but he emphasised that due to a high unemployment rate within the region, the park cannot meet the job demands of all the unemployed members within the community The Conservator further expressed a major concern that although most of the permanent employees are from the neighbouring communities, the majority are either unskilled or semi-skilled. On a positive note he

revealed that plans have already been put in place to change this situation. For example, the unskilled and semi-skilled workers are sent to the head office in Pietermaritzburg in order to acquire and improve their life skills. This is, however, a slow process due to the history of the past and to high illiteracy rates among some of the employees. This is in agreement with what Wells (1996) noted that local people from impoverished communities adjacent to South African parks have limited chances of being employed in the tourism sector due to lack of education, skills and training.

Surprisingly, when the respondents were asked whether they or any of their family members are employed within the park, the results show that 85% of the respondents said no as opposed to 15% who responded positively (Figure 4.8). The respondents attributed this to a very high unemployment rate and very few job opportunities within the area, which is a clear indication that the park cannot meet the job demands of the unemployed. This was in agreement with what the researcher learnt from the Conservator, the Community Conservationist and the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator. The Conservator suggested that the best way forward would be to establish more curio markets and maintain good relations with the management of privately owned tourist related facilities within close proximity, which have proved to be a source of additional jobs to the neighbouring communities of late.

Similarly, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator suggested that KZN Wildlife should put into action the following plans:

- ensure that more tourists visit the park;
- maximise the opportunities for tourism both within and outside the park;
- facilitate community-based tourism and outsourcing opportunities.

Furthermore, since at present between 85% and 90% of the budget allocated by the government for staff employed to protect and manage the park goes to salaries, there is a need to look for other alternative sources of funding like from the private sector in order to ensure effective operation of the park.

Despite the fact that most of the respondents claimed that the park employs neither themselves nor members of their families, the results show that they express the desire to be employed. For example, when they were asked to mention the jobs they would like to be offered, they came up with the following responses. Apart from one person (2%) who responded negatively and the 26%, who chose not to respond, 11% wish to be employed as skilled workers (such as technicians and rangers), 13% semiskilled (game guards and tour guides), 20% unskilled (general assistants) and 20% indicated any type of job (Table 4.6). When these respondents were further asked to forward ways of creating more job opportunities within the park, they suggested that the only way is through negotiations with the park management, a clear indication that the park is the most viable source of job opportunities. The key informants, however, indicated that it is not practical for the park to offer jobs to all the unemployed as the number far exceeds the number of available jobs. They, therefore, suggested that the best solution should be a combined effort of all the interested and affected parties. For example, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator suggested that there is a need for developing the local peoples' skills so that they can establish their own job opportunities associated with ecotourism.

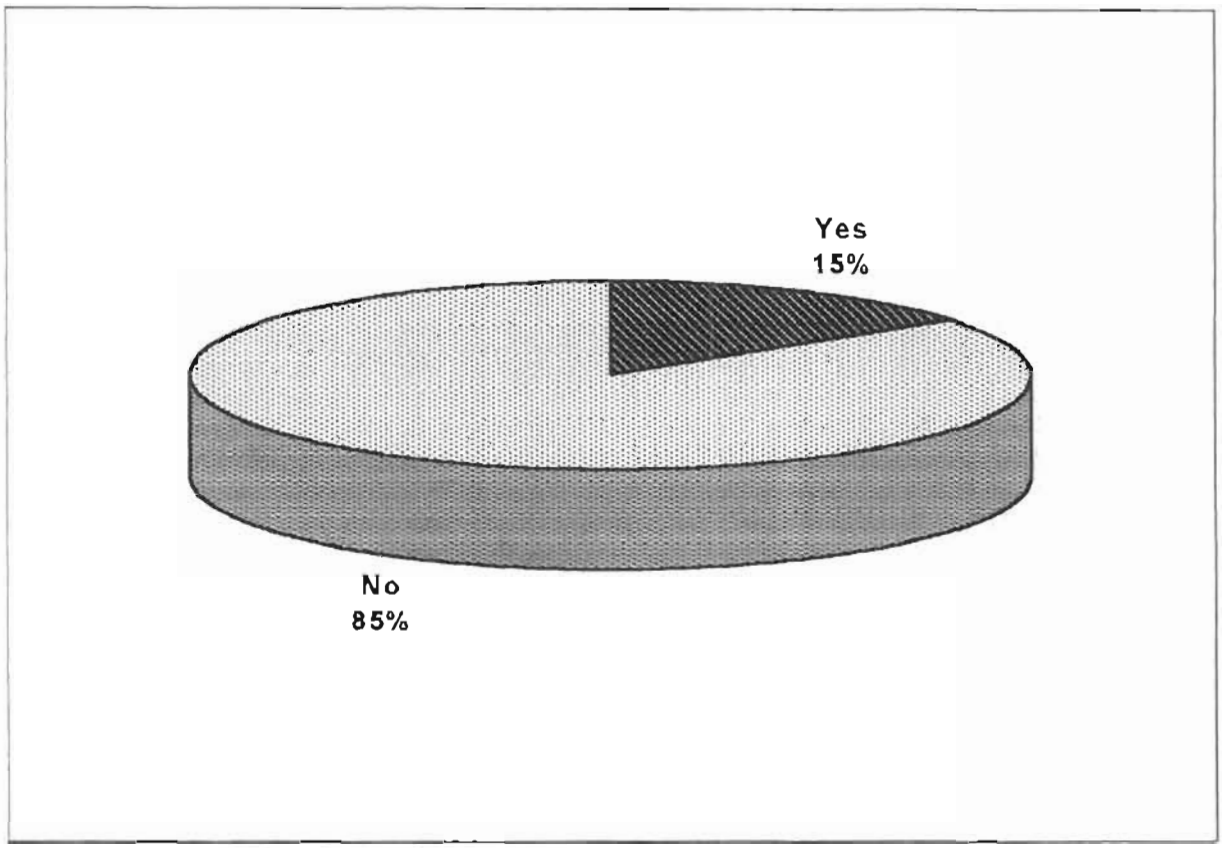

Figure 4.8: Job opportunities offered by the park

Table 4.6: Desired job opportunities within the park

Job you would like to be offered in the park	Frequency (N = 55: Multiple response)	Percentage
Skilled	6	11
Semi-skilled	7	13
Unskilled	11	20
Any	11	20
None	1	2
No response	14	26

When the respondents who indicated that the park offers employment opportunities were asked to give the job details of the employed family members, a number of responses were forthcoming. With regard to the family member who is employed, 13% mentioned a cousin, another 13% stated a father and the remaining 74% a son. The respondents further stated that the jobs offered include general assistants (38%), game captures (38%) and game guards (24%). Although the majority of the respondents (74%) did not know the monthly wages of the family members, 13% of the respondents indicated that the family member receives a monthly wage of less than R500.00 while the remaining 13% claimed a monthly wage of more than R1000.00. Regarding the nature of the job, 87% of the respondents mentioned that the jobs are permanent while 13% stated that employment was part-time. The implications of these findings are that although unemployment is rife in the area, the park is trying to tackle this challenge by employing as many people as possible.

Table 4.7: Job details of the respondents who are employed in the park

Job details		Frequency (n =8)	Percentage
Family member:	Cousin	1	13
	Father	1	13
	Son	6	74
Type of job:	General Assistant	3	38
	Game Capture	3	38
	Game Guard	2	24
Monthly Salary/Wage:	< R500.00	1	13
	>R1000.00	1	13
	Don't know	6	74
Nature of job:	Permanent	7	87
	Part-time	1	13

Natural resource management

Seventy five percent of the respondents indicated that natural resource management (which they perceive as the managing and controlling of their own game reserve) is one of the benefits offered by the park (Table 4.5). This was in agreement with what the researcher learnt through personal communication with the chief that the majority of the community members are aware of and support nature conservation. The chief further revealed that most of the respondents are very excited about the Mpembeni Community Conservation Game Reserve (CCGR) which has been established for them to manage and control. In fact, according to Msomi (2001), the park has already stocked the CCGR with game such as antelopes, giraffes, zebras, inyala and warthogs. In addition, the International Safaris Club has already donated some funds towards the CCGR. The donor is interested in seeing the CCGR offer opportunities for trophy hunting (pers comm. Community Conservationist, 2000).

Apart from the community members being involved in managing their own reserve, some of the members are also involved in natural resource management through taking part in alien plant control, burning programmes, game population management and culling. In addition, other forms of natural resource management include education programmes and extension advice from the Community Conservation (CC) team field staff. This practice is similar to what Brown and Jones (1994) identified in the West Caprivi region of Namibia where local communities have agreed to work jointly with the Department of Wildlife, Conservation and Tourism in promoting wildlife conservation.

Tourism

The results reveal that 69% of the respondents consider tourism as a benefit from the park (Table 4.5). This high response is due to the fact that some of the respondents have a chance of interacting with tourists who come to visit in the park. For example, some of the respondents mentioned that sometimes the park management takes tourists to the community. This is similar to what was observed in the villages that surround the Ngorongoro and Serengeti National Parks (Tanzania) where tourists are encouraged to visit the locals in order to gain a better insight into how people exactly live (WWF SA,

2000). Furthermore, the respondents who are involved in handicraft work stated that they benefit from the tourists who buy their handicraft products at the Nyalazi and Memorial entrance gates as well as along the roadside. The park management also runs workshops with the community members geared towards the introduction of tourism within the region.

Other perceived benefits from the park

Although the results generally show that members of Mpembeni community benefit from the park, some of the respondents felt that there are other ways they could benefit. Examples of other benefits cited were accessibility to all resources in the park, environmental awareness, community development, more job opportunities, better relationship with the park management and preventive measures for problematic animals (Table 4.8). When the respondents were asked to suggest some of the ways to make this a reality, they indicated that the way forward is for them to have their own game reserve.

Table 4.8: Other perceived benefits from the park

Other beneficial ways	**Frequency (N = 55 Multiple responses)**	**Percentage**
Access to all resources	5	9
Environmental awareness	4	7
Community development	10	18
Job opportunities	11	20
Good relationship with management/ staff	14	26
Preventive measures for problematic animals	1	2

[illegible] national states in Southern Africa [illegible] embarked on development programmes linked to protected areas.

Protected areas play a vital role for all, human being, animals and the environment itself. These aspects maybe direct or indirect which it may be for development of a particular area, conservation of certain species and economically gaining profit for the conservation of the area. Protected areas portray the richness of a country with wildlife, which may also give good exposure to aspects as tourist. This essay therefore analysis the development programmes made by South African states to protected such areas, the programmes are as follows.

Transfrontier (TFPs) its program that results in the combination of contiguous protected areas and mosaic of different land use type into one managing protected areas according to Parks & P[illegible] Post colonial Societies. This has resulted in people having more [illegible] access to such areas as before, these areas where perceived to be for white people only. More environmentae friendly. (socially) It also shows the transformation from colonization to a democratic states in the Southern African areas, this is for political reasons. It also aimed at giving such protected areas more exposure resulting in more tourists coming to these areas, Economic benefits. And also how to conserve such areas, which is for ecological reasons

Import * above The man who was forefront in financing was Anton Rupert using his political & business connections to lay foundations for TFPs in the region, he then sold his ideas of TFPs to the regional leaders (pg 124). This of need to the following Southern areas. Mozambique needed TFP for socio-economic development, restructuring of management & overpopulation of elephants in SA, The weaknesses in national park legislation in Lesotho & its low percentage of protected areas. And also the lack of funds towards such protected areas. (pg 125). This resulted in the working together of

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

On the other hand, the researcher learnt from the Conservator that most of the cited benefits, except that of accessibility to all natural resources in the park, have already been realised. For example, according to the Conservator, community development as a benefit has to some extent been realised as a result of the establishment of the CCGR at Mpembeni. Furthermore, although personal communications with the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator revealed that community development is not the mandate of KZN Wildlife, most projects based on the conservation of biodiversity within the community involve community development and capacity building The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator, therefore, suggested that one of the ways through which community development could be realised is to collaborate with partners who are in position of providing a wide community development service. This has been partly achieved in Mpembeni community, which is currently working in partnership with the Hillcrest SPCA concentrating on the animal health-care project.

In addition to community development, job opportunities as a benefit has also been realised to some extent. The Conservator based his argument on the fact that the establishment of the CCGR called for the upgrading of the park's fence and this meant additional job opportunities for the communities. Furthermore, some community members have been trained as tour guides to take tourists around the CCGR and villages (Msomi, 2001). In additional, the establishment of the Hilltop Camp also created more job opportunities as well as income generation in the communities as the TAs have shares

in the businesses operated. On the other hand, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator suggested that since KZN Wildlife is about to embark on retrenchment in the park, more job opportunities could be made available through community-based tourism opportunities. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator, therefore, advised that this would require partnerships from the private sector as well as the creation of a more conducive environment (for example, less crime in the region) to serve as an attraction.

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

4.3.3 Participation in the operation and management of the park

A study of a few Integrated Conservation and Development Projects (ICDPs) in developing countries indicates that local participation is crucial in order to achieve both conservation and development goals (Wells and Brandon, 1992). However, few communities are involved in the establishment or management of neighbouring protected areas (Biodiversity Support Programme, 1993) and insufficient attention has been given to the linkages between local participation, conservation and national economies (Peters Jr., 1997). The results from Mpembeni community show that the minority of the

respondents (29%) agreed that the local communities participate in the operation and management of the HUP as compared to 69% who did not (Figure 4.9). This was in agreement with what was noted in the northern part of Ghana that there has been very little or no attempt to encourage local community participation in the management of the protected areas (Ntiamoa-Baidu, 1991).

Although the respondents had a problem in identifying the various forms of local people's participation in the operation and management of the park, the following: information gathering, decision making, employment opportunities, private enterprise and consultation (as noted by Wells and Brandon, 1992) were observed by the researcher. For example, the researcher learnt that some of the family members are either employed as game guards, game captures and general assistants or serve as communicators whose role is to liase between the local community and the park management.

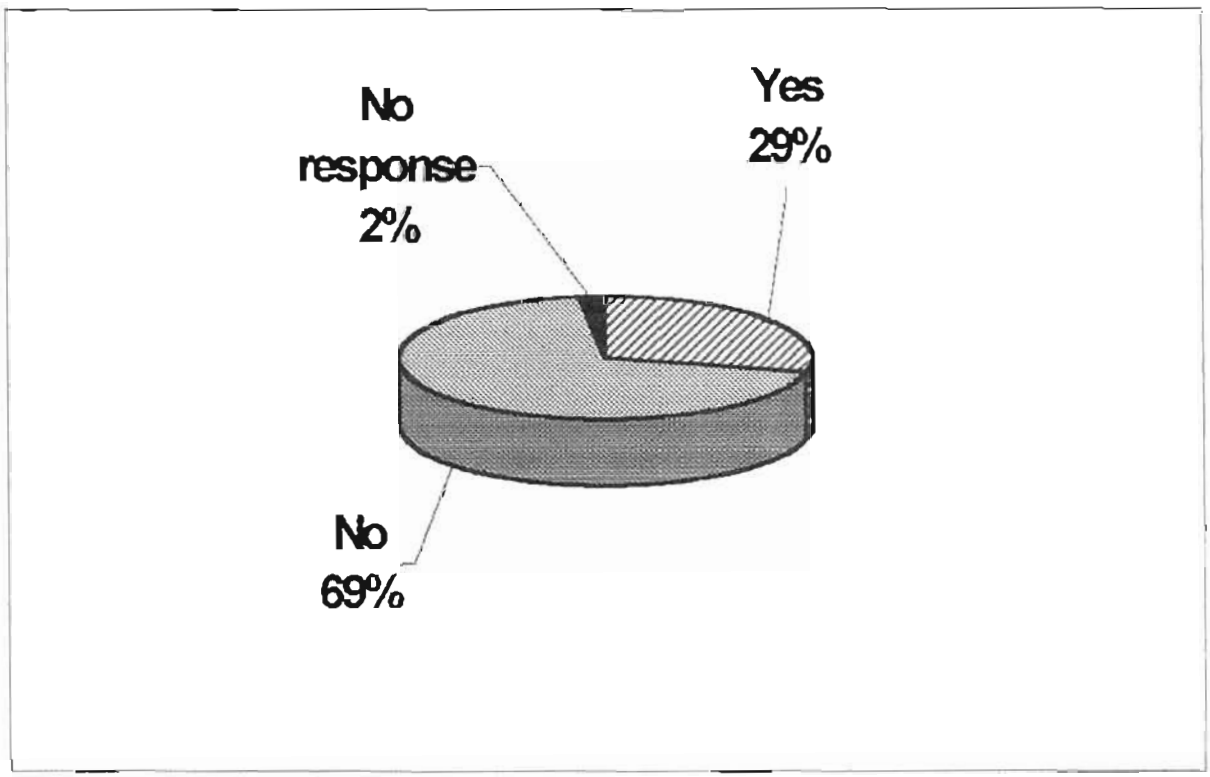

Figure 4.9: Community's participation in the operation/ management of the park

Furthermore, the respondents stated that some members from their families serve in various capacities on committees such as tourism, development and the organising committee for CCGR (Table 4.9). When the respondents were asked to explain the roles of the cited committees they gave the following responses. They claimed that the development committee is in charge of the entire community development. They further stated that it had already assisted with the supply of clean tap water to some of the community members as well as the improvement on the road network. The role of the organising committee for the CCGR, according to the respondents, is to make sure that the CCGR is implemented and developed as soon as possible. On the other hand, the respondents admitted that they do not have enough information on the role of the tourism committee. The researcher, however, learnt from the Community Conservationist who works directly with the community, that the role of the tourism committee is to determine how tourism can meet the social and economic needs of the community members.

In addition, the researcher learnt from the Conservator that a Local Board comprising of members from tribal and local authorities, formal agriculture, regional tourism, business sector, regional and town councils, environmental groups, special interest groups and formally constituted organisations is already in place. The role of the Board is twofold: firstly, it promotes local decision-making regarding the compilation and implementation of the park's development plan and secondly, it promotes the integration of the activities of the park into the bordering communities including the implementation of the community levy. The two roles, however, have to be implemented in consultation with the Nature Conservation Board.

Despite the fact that the local communities are involved in the operation and management of the park through various forms, the researcher identified that members are not given equal opportunities. For example, the majority of members who have a chance to participate were men except in the case of the handicraft private enterprise. Peters Jr. (1997) observed a similar practice in the case of Ranomafana National Park in Madagascar. In addition, local participation is largely limited to occasional gathering of information and consultation with specific attention to local leaders and members of

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various committees, who in some cases do not pass over the information to the rest of the people. This can be avoided by improving on the channels of communication.

Table 4.9: Different ways through which community members are involved in the operation and management of the park as perceived by the respondents

Involvement	Frequency (n = 16)	Percentage
Committee member	3	19
Communicator	5	31
Chairman (Tourism Committee)	2	13
Organising committee for CCA	1	6
No response	5	31
TOTAL	16	100.0

On the other hand, although the majority of the respondents (69%) claimed that local communities are not involved in the operation and management of the park the results reveal that they expressed a desire to do so if given an opportunity. The various ways they mentioned (Table 4.10) include job opportunities (18%), accessibility to resources (6%), decision-making (22%) and promotion of nature conservation (4%). However, they did not have any ideas on how to make this a reality. They did highlight that KZN Wildlife had promised them some funds and game animals to set up their own game reserve. In fact the researcher learnt from the Community Conservationist that the community levy, which is obtained from monies paid by the park's visitors, had already been introduced in this regard and according to the Conservator, by the beginning of December 2000, an amount of over R1.5 million had been obtained. With regard to this money, the researcher learnt that it was put in a Trust Fund since the communities still have not come up with a conclusive plan of investment. It was also expected that during the months of May, June and July 2001, the first hunts will take place and later on in the year a lodge will be constructed within the newly established reserve.

Table 4.10: Desired ways through which community members would like to be involved in the operation and management of the park

How you would like to be involved?	Frequency (N= 55: Multiple responses)	Percentage
Job opportunities	10	18
Access to resources	3	6
Decision making	12	22
Promote Nature Conservation	2	4
No response	9	16

Some of the respondents also indicated their willingness to work jointly with the park management in order to develop and uplift their community. The ways suggested include access to resources and facilities in the park, more job opportunities, soliciting of funds, extension of tourist facilities and activities to the community and joint decision-making. According to the Conservator, some of these have already been implemented. The community has already received donations to put up schools and clinics as well as establish vegetable gardens. A craft market and restaurant have been set up at the Centenary Centre in Umfolozi Section and the running of the restaurant is shared between the local communities and the park. The committees that have been put in place have the mandate to oversee the proposed projects. Furthermore, the park financially supported the establishment of the Mchunu Bed and Breakfast, which is owned and operated by a family from one of the neighbouring local communities. When the respondents were further asked what they hope to gain from the partnership, they gave responses like income (40%), job opportunities (15%), recreation and entertainment (2%), community conservation awareness (4%), and accessibility to resources within the park (6%) (Table 4.11). This to some degree shows that local communities are aware of the opportunities of joint tourism ventures.

Table 4.11: Various ways through which community members hope to gain from working in partnership with the park management

What you hope to gain from the partnership	Frequency (N = 55: Multiple responses)	Percentage
Income	22	40
Job opportunities	8	15
Recreation and entertainment	1	2
Community conservation awareness	2	4
Access to resources in the park	3	6
Nothing	2	4
No response	19	35

4.3.4 Interaction with the management and staff of the park

Improving relations between parks and the neighbouring communities has been underscored as one of the highest priority on the conservation agenda in South Africa (Hanekom and Liebenberg, 1994; Koch, 1994; Liebenberg and Grossman, 1994). This is attributed to the fact that since economic costs incurred by some of the local residents bordering protected areas far exceed the benefits, there is a need to provide incentives for local people to support, rather than oppose protected area conservation ventures.

The results from Mpembeni community reveal that most of the respondents perceived their quality of interaction with the park management and staff as very good (22%), good (56%) and fair (16%). Only 13% rated the interaction as poor and 2% decided not to respond (Figure 4.10). The reasons the respondents gave for their positive perception are availability of job opportunities (16%), accessibility to natural resources (26%), good relationships (20%), joint problem solving (33%), assistance when required (6%), opportunities for interaction with tourists (11%) and chances for nature conservation education (4%) (Table 4.12). This positive interaction is further supported by the

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

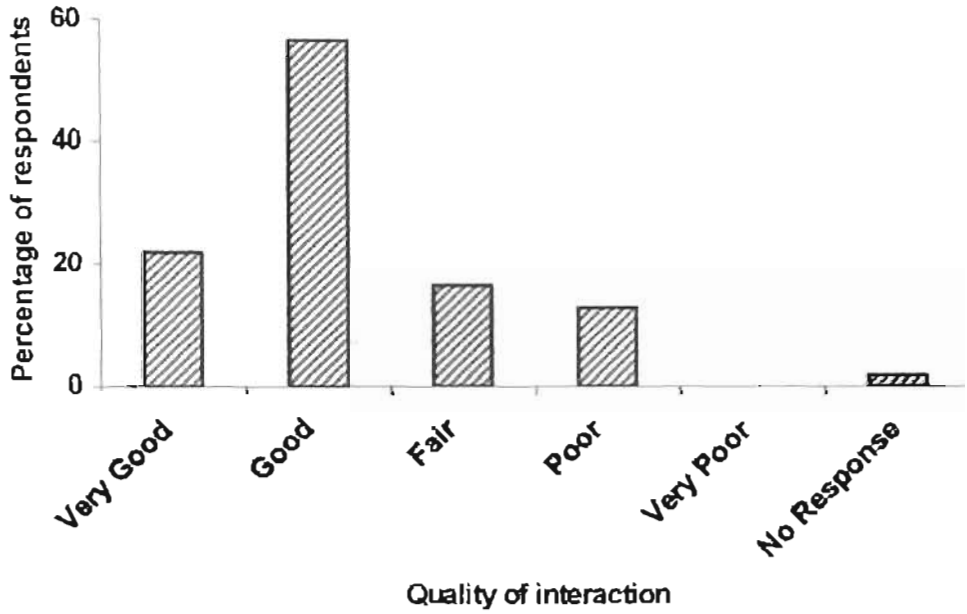

Figure 4.10: Respondents' perceptions of the quality of interaction with the park management and staff

Table 4.12: Reasons for the perceived quality of interaction

Reason for quality of interaction	**Frequency (N = 55: Multiple responses)**	**Percentage**
Job opportunities	9	16
Access to resources	14	26
Interaction with tourists	6	11
Good relationship	11	20
Joint problem solving	18	33
Receive assistance	3	6
Nature conservation education	2	4
Problematic animals	9	16
No assistance from the park	1	2
No response	2	4

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

Additionally, according to the Conservator and the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator, the park also offers nature conservation education though on a small scale

and in collaboration with the communities, it is in a process of building an education centre. The main target will be the school groups where the primary school learners will be catered for during the day and high school learners will stay overnight. The Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator further clarified that nature conservation education as well as biodiversity education programmes, which are varied and diverse, are in operation. Each programme is developed in response to the educational needs of the instructors and learners. The programmes, which are undertaken at schools and in the park, include a study project, which looks at the investigation of diverse environmental issues. WOW camps are also available where the focus is on parks and neighbours as well as day visits which, focus on animal/ wildlife population dynamics. In joint problem-solving, the problems addressed include problematic animals and alien plant control. This is achieved through either direct discussions or the TAs who then pass on the information to their subordinates.

On the other hand, 13% of the respondents rated the interaction as poor (Figure 4.10). The reasons they gave for their response are problematic animals (16%) and absence of assistance of any form from the park (2%) (Table 4.12). The Conservator, Chief and some of the park staff who reside in the neighbouring communities also cited problematic animals as a concern. The problematic animals cited are mainly hyenas, lions and baboons that destroy crops and attack the livestock. Similarly, this problem has been identified in other parts of the world. For example, according to Ransom (1998), the Bagisu tribe of Uganda complained of the encroachment of animals from the Mt. Elgon National Park. The problematic animals include hyenas that attack goats as well as monkeys and baboons that threaten maize and banana crops. Mehta and Kellert (1998) also observed that animals from the Makalu-Barun Conservation Area in Nepal are a major threat to the neighbouring communities and unfortunately local communities are neither allowed to destroy the animals nor compensated for the losses encountered.

When the respondents were asked whether the park management had taken any steps to resolve the above problem, they responded positively. The respondents stated that since the erection of an electrified fence, the number of animals that escape had decreased

although some still escape. Personal communications with the Conservator revealed that in addition to the electrified fence, the park management has put other measures into place. The measures include regular fence line upgrading and patrol, hunting and destruction of the animals as well as compensating for the losses but only those incurred as a result of animals that were re-introduced into the park. The affected parties, however, felt that the compensation should also cover the losses caused by all animals and not only the re-introduced ones. In addition, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator argued that the issue of problematic animals requires effort from both park management and neighbouring communities. She, therefore, suggested that whereas the park management has to put in a lot of effort in educating people about what should be done, communities have to properly kraal their livestock at night and take preventive measures (such as dog keeping). The community members were also urged to stop the habit of cutting the park fences, which allow animals to escape.

Problems faced as a result of residing adjacent to the park

The results show that 91% of the respondents claimed that they do not have any problems as a result of residing adjacent to the HUP (Figure 4.11). On the contrary, 7% of the respondents indicated that they experience some problems and one person (2%) did not respond (Figure 4.11). Surprisingly, the respondents stated only one problem, that is, problematic animals namely hyenas, lions and baboons that destroy crops as well as attacking the livestock. Nothing was mentioned regarding attacks on human beings. In addition to problematic animals, according to some of the park staff from the neighbouring communities, there are other major concerns. The other major concerns include lack of knowledge about nature conservation, few visits from the park management, protection of wild animals instead of people, inaccessibility to resources and lack of farming land as it was used to establish the park.

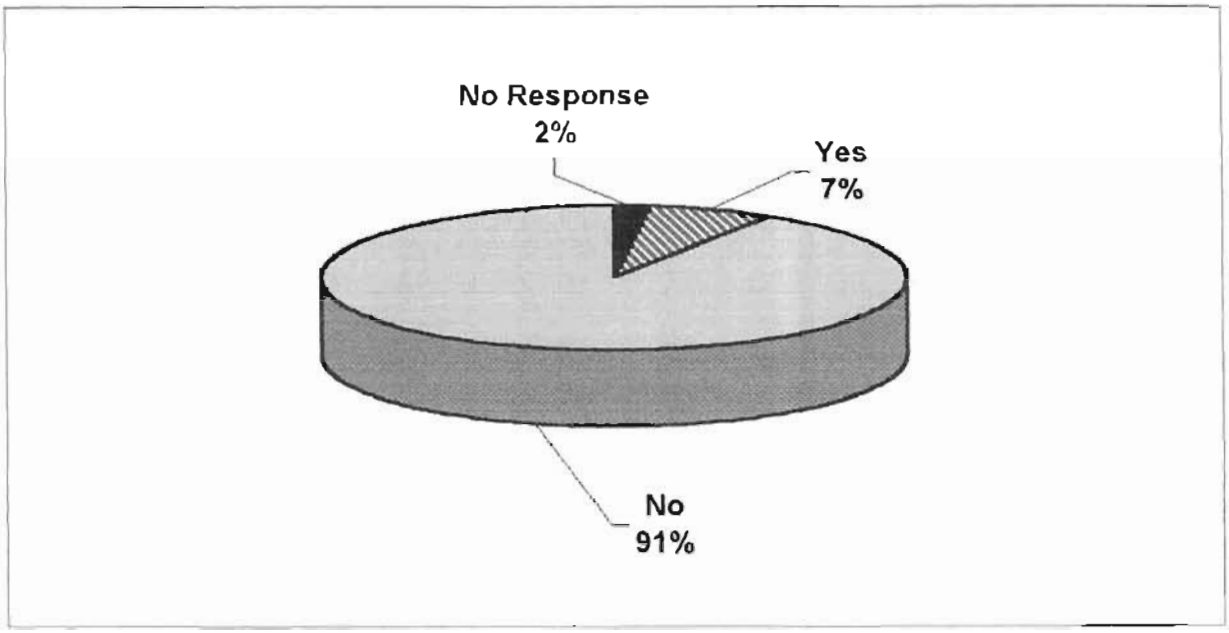

Figure 4.11: Problems faced as a result of residing adjacent to the park

4.3.5 Tourism development in the community

Many rural communities regard tourism as an economic development strategy (Andereck and Vogt, 2000). In fact, most studies reveal that rural residents are positive towards tourism since they perceive that it positively affects community development and quality of life. For example, according to Peters Jr. (1997), tourism is already generating revenue for use in the management of Ranomafana National Park (Madagascar) and development of the bordering local communities. So far, the majority of tourism enterprises in the area are locally controlled initiatives.

Interaction with the tourists who come to visit the HUP

The results from Mpembeni community show that 47% of the respondents admitted that they interact with the tourists who come to visit the park. The various forms of interaction mentioned are through tourists' visits to the community, sale of handicraft products and through meeting tourists in the park (Table 4.13). The respondents further stated that they also interact when the tourists take pictures as well as through inquiries about traditional medicine and the Zulu culture (Table 4.13). The interaction between tourists and community members is further supported by the information that was gathered through personal communications and interviews with the key informants. For example, according to the Conservator, the local communities interact with the tourists at entrance

points through the sale of handicraft products and through traditional activities such as Zulu dancing. This is in agreement with the form of interaction described by the Regional Ecologist and one of the technicians that the two groups interact through the performance of Zulu dances and craft selling though on a small scale.

Similarly, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator also admitted that there are interactions between the tourists who visit the park and the neighbouring local communities. For example, since about 95% of the park staff are from the neighbouring communities, there are chances of interacting with the tourists while on duty. The guides who operate the tours as well as the women running *Vulamehlo* and *Vukuzame* curio markets are from the communities, so interactions take place during such activities. Other forms of interaction include cultural activities that take place in the community and at neighbouring schools, curio stalls on the roads leading into the park as well as Children's Wildlife Camps that are normally run in the park twice or thrice a month. However, one example of a negative form of interaction involves a few isolated robbery incidents especially in the Umfolozi section. For example, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator confirmed this by revealing that there have been some criminal incidents such as the rape of two tourists at *Cengeni* Gate, car hi-jackings and stone throwing. Such incidents have placed undue pressure on the locals - tourists' relationship.

On the other hand, 53% of the respondents felt that there is no kind of interaction with the tourists. They, however, expressed a desire to interact if given an opportunity. For example, 20% of the respondents suggested that they would like to interact through tourists' visits in the community, while 15% preferred to meet the tourists in the park. With the exception of 7% who did not respond, the rest of the respondents claimed that they can either interact during the sale of handicraft products (4%), sharing their culture and tradition with the tourists (4%) or serving the tourists Zulu traditional dishes (4%). The respondents further felt that more interactions may be promoted through workshops and meetings with the park management. This is a clear indication that the community members have a desire to work hand in hand with KZN Wildlife and park management in order to realise the tourism potential in the region. In fact, according to the Conservator,

the park management and staff are already playing a vital role in promoting more interactions between the local communities and tourists. The Conservator, however, indicated that the communities should put in place more organised ceremonies and activities to serve as tourist attractions. At the same time, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator suggested that the best way forward would be to promote and support community-based tourism.

Table 4.13: Local communities' interaction with tourists who come to visit the park

Form of Interaction	**Frequency (N = 55: Multiple responses)**	**Percentage**
Tourists visit the community	21	38
Sale of handicraft products	4	7
Tourists take pictures	1	2
Find tourists in the park	2	4
Tourists inquire about traditional medicine	1	2
Tourists inquire about the culture	1	2
No response	1	2

The desire to have tourists visiting local communities

When the respondents were asked whether they would like to have tourists visit their community, the results reveal that 96% responded positively, 2% negatively and 2% did not respond. Mehta and Kellert (1998) also received a similar response from the communities bordering the Makalu-Barun Conservation Area in Nepal. This is, to some degree an indication that the majority of the people from local communities have positive attitudes and perceptions towards tourists though there are a few isolated cases of crime especially within the Umfolozi section. In fact personal communications with the Community Conservationist, the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator and

the Conservator revealed that KZN Wildlife has already implemented the plan of taking tourists to the neighbouring communities. The tourists are already visiting the community though not in large numbers probably because there are limited attractions. This is similar to what Fakir (1999) noted that lodge operators in the Madikwe Game Reserve (North West Province) take tourists to a local village to experience traditional food or theatre and in return the villagers receive a fee. The community members are, therefore, urged to organise more attractions within the community. Furthermore, according to the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator, there is a plan to take tourists from Hilltop Camp into the communities but she cautioned that the success of this venture would depend on the interest of the tourists. In addition, community tour guides are also being trained in order to conduct tours within the neighbouring communities.

Reasons why tourists should visit the community

When the respondents were further asked to give reasons why they would like to have tourists visit their community, the majority gave varying reasons. The reasons include marketing of handicraft products (31%), creation of job opportunities (7%), sharing of cultures and traditions (26%), socialisation (27%), income generation (11%), community development (4%) and gaining knowledge in nature conservation (4%) (Table 4.14). This clearly shows that local communities are aware of the benefits that tourism can bring. This is similar to what the researcher learnt from the Regional Community Conservation Co-ordinator that local people value the business that tourists bring to their communities. The respondents were also asked whether they would like to have tourists facilities established within their community. The majority of the respondents (96%) responded positively and apart from 4%, who did not respond, there were no negative responses. This high rate of positive responses clearly show that local communities are aware of the role tourism can play in community development and upliftment. In fact when some of the respondents were asked what they hope to gain from the establishment of tourist facilities in the community, they claimed that it would create more job opportunities and markets for the handicraft products. Similarly, Ntaiamoa-Baidu et al (2000) identified that tourism in the East Caprivi region of Namibia contributes to the local economy through employment opportunities and trade in crafts.

Table 4.14: Reasons why local community members would like to have tourists visit the community

Reason for tourists' visits	Frequency (N = 55: Multiple responses)	Percentage
Market our products	17	31
Job opportunities	4	7
Share the cultures and traditions	14	26
Socialisation	15	27
Income generation	6	11
Community development	2	4
Gain knowledge in nature conservation	2	4
No response	2	4

The desired tourist facilities to be established in the community

When the respondents were further to mention the facilities they desire to be set up in their community, their responses reflected a wide variety of facilities. The specific facilities mentioned were accommodation (40%), jobs and income generating opportunities (33%), game reserve (26%), entertainment (9%), restaurants (2%) and security (2%). Whereas 16% of the respondents indicated any kind of facilities, a further 4% did not respond.

The results reveal that most of the respondents are willing to assist in putting up tourist facilities within the community. When the respondents were asked to indicate how they would assist the following ways were stated: providing personpower in construction (6%), security (15%), craft products (6%), site (2%), financial assistance (2%), maintaining the facilities (29%), serve as a worker (13%) and promotion of Zulu culture and tradition (6%). The rest of the respondents suggested any form of assistance (11%), did not know (2%), had none at that particular moment (2%) or did not respond (15%).

The results clearly indicate that the local communities are willing to work jointly with the interested parties in promoting the tourism industry within the community.

In fact, with KZN Wildlife facilitating the process a lot of desired tourist facilities have been proposed for the neighbouring communities and park management has moved a step ahead. For example, plans are underway to set up cultural villages at Hluhluwe Dam and Memorial Gate. The park, local communities and a private developer (The Three Cities Hotel) will run the cultural villages (pers comm. Conservator, 2000) and the park management has identified the developer and organised the funding. In addition, the CCGR at Mpembeni has been established and the park has provided the first lot of the game. However, in case the community is in need of more game, it has to buy from the park. Furthermore, the community has a plan of constructing a lodge within their CCGR. In fact, negotiations through TAs are underway though at a slow pace with the park management to co-opt private companies to construct the lodging by this year (2001). The park management has also promised to market the established facilities to tourists.

Table 4.15: Desired tourist facilities to be established in the community

Desired tourist facilities	**Frequency (N = 55:Multiple responses**	**Percentage**
Accommodation	22	40
Job and income generating	18	33
Entertainment	5	9
Game Reserve	14	26
Restaurants	1	2
Security	1	2
Any	9	16
No response	2	4

4.4 CONCLUSION

The major focus of this chapter was to describe and interpret the collected data. The findings were obtained from the background information as well as the socio-economic impacts associated with tourism related activities. The background information revealed that most of the respondents were female and 41 years and above, who have lived in the area for more than 15 years. The researcher also found out that despite the fact that most of the respondents are unemployed and depend on a multiple survival strategy, they have opted for big families.

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

CHAPTER FIVE: CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

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

5.2 THE SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS OF TOURISM

5.2.1 Access to natural resources within the HUP

Indications are that some of the communities bordering the park have access to at least one of the natural resources namely meat, water, firewood and grass. For example, 52%, 69% and 64% of the respondents admitted that they receive donations of meat for ceremonies, firewood and meat for sale respectively. The grass which is received through the cut and take-system where 3 of every 4 bundles cut is taken by the community member participating in the cutting accounted for 91%. This is similar to what Kerley (1997) found out that some materials such as venison, firewood and reeds for crafts are available to local communities adjacent to the Addo Elephant Park. Botha (1998) also indicated that some of the traditional healers living on the western border of the Kruger National Park admitted that they harvest medicinal plants inside the park. In the Richtersveld National Park (Koch, 1994), local people are supplied with meat from culling programmes and are allowed selective harvesting of some resources. This suggests that there is a mutual benefit for both the community and the HUP and communities are developing some trust in KZN Wildlife.

5.2.2 Participation in the operation and management of HUP

The results showed that rural communities do not participate fully in the operation and management of the park. Similar results were obtained in some developing countries where a few communities are involved in the management of protected areas (Biodiversity Support Programme, 1993) and insufficient attention accorded to linkages between local participation, conservation and national economies (Peters Jr., 1997). Although the involvement of neighbouring local communities in the operation and management of protected areas is essential, one has to bear in mind that due to the colonial and apartheid policies, not all local people have the skills and expertise required in this regard. However, many training programmes have been initiated to equip the local people with the relevant skills. In addition, some local people serve on committees like tourism, development and the organising committee for Community Conservation Game Reserve (CCGR) as well as on Local Boards which work hand in hand with KZN Wildlife officials. Most of the respondents were also positive and expressed a desire to fully participate if offered an opportunity.

5.2.3 Interaction with the management and staff of the park

Despite the fact that rural communities do not generally show positive attitudes towards the management of neighbouring protected areas, results from this study indicated a range of opportunities for positive interactions, which are attributed to job opportunities, good working relations, and joint problem-solving. This suggests that KZN Wildlife has moved a step ahead in order to reduce the tensions that exist between communities and conservation. In fact, this is relevant mainly in regions where a long history of animosity has been into existence, as is the case in many South Africa's protected areas owned by the state. Despite these positive views, problematic animals that escape from the park and are a threat to livestock and crops were identified as a major source of conflict. Although no one mentioned any danger posed to human lives, it is common sense that if the animals escape, they can easily attack human beings. The respondents, however, indicated that unlike in the past, the park management has shown their concern by putting in place a couple of measures to curb the problem. Examples of measures that have been put in place include the erection of an electrified fence, regular fence line upgrading and

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

5.2.4 Tourism development in the community

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

5.2.5 Other specific benefits from the park

Other benefits highlighted during the study are education/ training programmes, which include children wildlife camps, biodiversity education, capacity building, internship for field rangers, training of tour community guides, as well as market gardening. In

addition, natural resource management, which partly involved the establishment of the Mpembeni CCGR, as well as participation in park management/ operation, which the community enjoys through Local Boards and committees are yet other benefits. Although much credit is awarded to monetary benefits due to poverty that is rife in the community, the above stated benefits are equally important as they also enhance the livelihoods of local people through capacity building and other related opportunities.

5.3 REFLECTIONS TO THE STUDY

Despite the fact that the study aim and objectives were achieved, the researcher feels that better and more informative results would have been obtained and this is attributed to the following.

- The park is surrounded by ten communities under ten tribal authorities and of course with different opinions about and attitudes/ perceptions towards nature conservation. More communities should have been selected to be part of the sample population.

- The rural communities in Kwazulu-Natal have a top-down tribal authority system where the members have to be subordinates. The possibility that the ruling system had an impact on the responses of local people cannot be ignored.

- The issue of protected areas involves the conservation authorities, communities and tourists. Unfortunately, the tourists were not involved in the survey. It would have been beneficial to get the views of the tourists concerning their visits to communities.

- Another fact that must not be overlooked as the most far-reaching potential source of bias (Denscombe, 1998) is the ethnic origin of the interviewer. Although it is difficult to measure the bias of a respondent (Newmark et al, 1993), the presence of an interpreter who happened to be from the community reduced the bias that might have occurred due to differences in the ethnicity between the researcher and the respondents.

- The utilisation of the services of an interpreter who is an employee of the park may have impacted on the responses. This can be attributed to the fact that since communities perceive a lot of benefits from the park, they might have given positive responses in order not to jeopardise their positive perceptions. A more neutral individual should have served as an interpreter.

- The researcher mainly interviewed KZN Wildlife officials from the management. It would have been better to get the views and opinions of more junior employees who happen to be from the neighbouring communities as well.

- Due to financial constraints a sample population of about 1% was used during the survey. Therefore, a larger sample size should have been used to reduce sampling errors as well as to increase the likelihood that the sample is representative of the population.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

The study was expected to reveal the socio-economic impacts of tourism on poor rural communities residing adjacent to protected areas. The following recommendations may play an important role in the realisation of the potential of tourism in the socio-economic development of the neighbouring poor rural communities without jeopardising the biodiversity conservation of the park.

- Since in most cases the lack of alternatives forces rural people to use natural resources in an unsustainable manner, the major focus should be to reduce pressure on the park and this can be best achieved through activities that generate benefits to the adjacent poor rural communities. Future projects should at least include one or more activities (such as craft making/ selling, agricultural production and job-creation related) designed to uplift the social and economic needs of local communities thus treating biodiversity conservation and economic development as integral aspects of the same process of sustainable development.

- The local people expressed a desire to be allowed to hunt animals and gather medicinal plants from the park. Bearing in mind that hunting as an activity has been of cultural significance to the Zulus and so its prevention means considerable resentment and poaching, it is recommended that it will be imperative to incorporate a system of controlled subsistence hunting as part of the management policy. Besides, local communities need to accept the principle of joint responsibility of natural resource management with all interested parties. The local communities should, therefore, be encouraged to learn more about the values of the protected natural resources as well as their role in depleting or maintaining them. At the same time, local communities should be motivated and assisted to gain skills in a number of areas such as:
    - community relations;
    - organisation and leadership;
    - business and financial management;
    - public administration;
    - land use planning;
    - poaching control; and
    - hunting, processing as well as marketing of wildlife related products.

- KZN Wildlife, park management as well as local communities should collaborate and work in partnership with both government and non-government organisations in increasing the expenditures of tourists to the communities within the respective regions. Possible ventures may include:
    - More shopping opportunities especially local arts and crafts
    - The organisation of more attractions (such as traditional dancing and singing, story telling, traditional healing and other related activities) as well as tours to persuade tourists to stay longer than they had originally planned.
    - Motivating and assisting the local communities to develop more tourist accommodation facilities outside the park in suitable areas close to the boundary. This could be advantageous in that further disruption of the

park's ecology will be minimised and the communities will benefit economically from catering for tourists' requirements provided there is proper and careful planning.

- Some local communities have experienced substantial costs and hardships as a result of the establishment of protected areas like parks while receiving few benefits in return. On a more positive note though, national and provincial governments as well as the conservation authorities have now realised that the future of protected areas will definitely depend on the implementation of measures that will redress the imbalance of benefits and costs. There is a need to promote ecotourism, which will trigger off-farm opportunities for local people while at the same time reduce negative environmental impacts. In addition, local communities should be made more aware of the potential socio-economic values of wildlife as a natural resource and the possibilities for wildlife-based rural development.

- Since of late many conservationists have realised the lawful rights of rural people towards the utilisation of the natural resources and that for any conservation venture to succeed it must gain the co-operation and support of local communities, there is a need for the park management to harmonise the needs, motivations and capabilities of the local people. Local people should, therefore, be more actively involved in various phases of park planning and management in order to obtain their full support since it is perceived that for communities to be effectively involved, they should have a degree of control over the conserved resources. This could be achieved through the strengthening of the already existing community institutions or the establishment of new ones where necessary, law enforcement (for example in case of illegal hunting) as well as education. This would help them attain self-determination and self-reliance since accumulated experience in rural development reveals that intended beneficiaries cannot be expected to endorse and sustain projects which they have little or no involvement in identifying or designing in real sense.

5.5 CONCLUSION

Tourism as an industry is perceived as a significant contributing factor to the socio-economic development of destination areas. The issue of whether rural communities bordering protected areas benefit from this industry is subject to debate especially in South Africa where conservation of wildlife is firmly associated with the colonial and apartheid eras. The study aimed at examining the socio-economic impacts of tourism on rural communities bordering the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park with specific reference to Mpembeni Community. The community was chosen after a preliminary survey which revealed that it is well developed from an institutional point of as compared to the remaining nine communities. In addition, the community has recognised the potential for cultural tourism and has developed a high level of trust with KZN Wildlife, which it considers to be a reliable partner in community development. Mpembeni community will, therefore, serve as a model for the other communities. Triangulation (a multi method approach) was used to determine the attitudes and perceptions of the communities towards park management/staff and tourists, resources within the park as well as the part communities play in the development and promotion of tourism in the park. The results from this study show that Mpembeni community benefits through various ways.

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

Finally, this study reveals that tourism has the potential to contribute to the socio-economic development of the communities bordering the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park. For the Mpembeni community this potential has been enhanced because of the co-operation between KZN Wildlife officials, park management and the community. This resulted in the establishment of the Mpembeni Community Conservation Game Reserve, which received its first stock of a variety of animals by the beginning of 2001. This is a remarkable step towards the socio-economic development of this community through opportunities such as environmental education, jobs, ecotourism as well as cultural tourism. The researcher, however, feels that there is a need for further studies to explore possibilities for the socio-economic potentials of other communities bordering the park.

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APPENDIX A: ZULU QUESTIONNAIRE

A: ULWAZI NGEMVELAPHI

1. Ubudala:

21-30 imyaka	
31-40 imyaka	
41-50 imyaka	
51-60 imyaka	
>60 imyaka	

2. Obulili

Isifazane	
Ubulisa	

3. Amalungu Omndeni:

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

4. Ibanga lemfundo:

Angifundanga	
Ngagcina e-primary	
Ngagcina e- secondary	
Ngagcina ezingeni uphezulu	

5. Isikhathi osusihlalile endaweni:

< 1 inyaka	
1-5 inyaka	
6-10 inyaka	
11-15 inyaka	
> 15 inyaka	

6.1. Ingabe wasuka kwenyindawo?

Yebo	
Cha	

6.2. Uma kungu "yebo" wasukaphi?_____

6.3. Wathuthelelani kuleyo ndawo?

Ngapoqwa	
Ngomsebenzi	
Ngeza kwabakithi	
Esinye isizathu	

B: AMATHUBA OMSEBENZI KAYE NEZIYIWE IZINDLELA ZOKWENZA ZOKUPHILA

1.1. Yiziphi Izindlela zokuphila ozisebenzisayo?

Ukuzilimela	
Ukufuya	
Ukusebenza kwezolimo/eplazini	
Ibhizinisi encane	
Ngafundela umsebenzi	
Impesheni	
Ukuqashisa	
Amatoho	
Ukwelapha	
Okunye (cacisa)	

1.2. Yiziphi ezinye izindlela enenza ngazo imali?

_____

_____

2.1. Luhloboluni lwemisebenzi ekhona endaweni yakini?_____

_____

2.2. Luhloboluni lwemisebenzi ongafisa ube khona endaweni?

_____

2.3. Uyasebenza?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.4. Uma usebenza, usebenzaphi?_____

2.5.Ingabe luhloboluni lomsebenzi? (Khetha kokulandelayo)

Ngokugcwele	
Ngetoho	
Ngezikhathi ezithule onyakeni	
Ngokuphelele	
Okunye (chaza)	

2.6. Uholelwa

Ngemali	
Ngokuthile	
Kokubili	

2.7. Uhola malini ngenyaka?

Ngaphansi kuka R500.00	
Phakathi kuka R500.00 no R1000.00	
Ngaphezulu kuka R1000.00	

2.8.1. Ingabe uthola okunye ngaphandle kweholo?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.8.2. Uma kunjalo, kuyini?_____

_____

C: UKUTHOLA IZIDINGO EZITHOLAKALA ESIQIWINI SASEHLUHLUWE -UMFOLOZI.

1.1. Izinhlobo zokutholakalayo

Izinholobo zokutholakalayo	Yebo	Cha
Uxhaso lwenyama emicimbini		
Amanzi		
Izinkuni		
Inyama		
Ukusika incema/ikhwane		
Izithombo		
Imikhiqizo yezilwane		

1.2.1. Ingabe ikhona imithombo esiqwini engaba nenzuzo kinina?

Yebo	
Cha	

1 2.2. Uma ikhona, yimiphi?_____

_____

D: IZINTO EZITHOLAKALA ESIQIWINI

1.1.1. Ingabe isiqiwi saseHluhluwe-Umfolozi siyanisiza ngala mabhenefithi alandelayo?

Izinto	Yebo	Cha
Imfundo		
Amathuba omsebenzi		
Uqeqesho		
Ukunakekela imikhiqizo yemvelo		
Ukuthatha izinqumo		
Ezokuvakasha		

1.1.2. Uma kungenjalo, yiziphi ezinye izinto ongathanda ukuba yingxenye yazo?

1.1.3. Yiziphi ezinye izindlela ocabanga ukuthi ningawathola ngayo izinto Esiqiwini saseHluhluwe-Umfolozi?

2.1.1. Ingabe wena namalungu omndeni wakho nisebenza esiqiwini noma kwezinye izindawo zezivakashi?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.1.2. Uma impendulo ingu "yebo", gcwalisa leli thebula elingezansi

Ilungu lomndeni	Uhlobo lomsebenzi	Iholo ngenyanga (bheka amakhodi)	Usebenza ngokuphelele, ngesikhathi ezithile zonyaka, ngokugcwele noma ngazikhathizle (bheka amakhodi)

Amakhodi:

Iholo ngenyanga	**Uhlobo lomsebenzi**
Ngaphansi kuka R500.00 2. Phakathi kuka R500.00 no R1000.00 3. Ngaphezulu kuka R1000.00	1: Ngokuphelele 2: Ngezithizithile anyakeni 3: Ngokugcwele 4: Ngazikhathizithile

2.1.3. Uma impendulo ingu "cha", luhlobo luni lomsebenzi ongafisa ukuwunikiwa ngokunakekelwa kwesiqiwi?

E: UKUBANDAKANYWA EKUSETSHENZISWENI NASEKULAWULWENI KWESIQIWI SASEHLUHLUWE-UMFOLOZI

1.1. Ingabe wena noma ilunga lomndeni wakho liseqenjini elisebenza noma elilawula isiqiwi saseHluhluwe-Umfolozi?

Yebo	
Cha	

1.1.1. Uma kunjalo, yiliphi iqhaza olibambile?

1.1.2. Uma kungenjalo, ungafisa ukwenzani?

1.1.3. Ufisa ukutholani ngokubamba kwakho iqhatha?

F: UKUXHUMANA NABALAWULI KANYE NABASEBENZI BESIQIWI SASEHLUHLUWE-UMFOLOZI

1.1.1. Ubudlelwane obukhona phakathi komphakathi nabalawuli kanye nabasebenzi basesiqiwini saseHluhluwe-Umfolozi.

Kuhle kakhulu	
Kuhle	
Kungcono	
Kubi	
Kubi kakhulu	

1.1.2. Nikeza izizathu zempendulo yakho yangenhla

1.2.1. Wenelisekile ngokuhlala eduze nesiqiwi saseHluhluwe-Umfolozi?

Yebo	
Cha	

1.2.2. Uma kungenjalo, chaza izinto ezenza ungahlali kahle?

_____

_____

1.2.3. Ungazifisa abaphathi nazisebenzi zasesiqiwini babisize ngani nlemgomphakathi?

_____

G: UKUTHUTHUKISWA KWEZOKUVAKASHA EMPHAKATHINI WAKINI

Ingabe niyaxhumana nezivakashi kulesi siqiwi saseHluhluwe-Umfolozi?

Yebo	
Cha	

1.1.2. Uma kunjalo nixhumana kanjani?_____

_____

1.1.3. Uma kungenjalo, ungafisa nixhumane kanjani?_____

_____

2.1.1. Uyafuna ukuba izivakashi zize emphakathini wakini?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.1.2. Nikeza izizathu zempendulo yakho_____

2.2.1. Uyafuna ukuba kube nezidingo zezivakashi endaweni yakini?

Yebo	
Cha	

2.2.2. Uma kunjalo, luhlobo luni lwezinto ofuna zibekhona endaweni yakini?

_____

_____

2.3.Ungasiza ngandelelani ukuveza izidingo zezivakashi endaweni yakini?

_____

H: IZIDINGO OKUBHEKENWE NAYO

1. Yiziphi izidingo izihlanu (5) ebhekene nale mikhakha elandelayo

1.1. umphakathi?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

1.2. umndeni?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

1.3. Yiziphi ezinye izindlela ocabanga ukuthi zingasetshenziswa ukuxazulula izidingo mfuneko ozisho ngenhla?

_____

2.1. Luhlobo luni lwentuthuko ofisa ukulubona endaweni yakini eminyakeni eyilishumi ezayo?

_____

2.2. Iyiphi indlela ocabanga ukuthi wena nabantu basesiqiwini ningasebenzisana ngayo?

_____

APPENDIX B: ENGLISH QUESTIONNAIRE

A: GENERAL BACKGROUND INFORMATION

1. Age:

21-30 years	
31-40 years	
41-50 years	
51-60 years	
>60 years	

2. Sex:

Female	
Male	

3. Members in the family:

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

4. Level of education:

None	
Primary	
Secondary	
Tertiary	

5. Period of stay in the area:

< 1 year	
1-5 years	
6-10 years	
11-15 years	
> 15 years	

6.1. Did you move from another area?

Yes	
No	

6.2.If yes, Where did you come from?_____

6.3. Why did you move to this area?

Forcefully removed	
Employment opportunities	
Join the family	
Other (specify)	

B: ACCESS TO EMPLOYMENT AND OTHER INCOME GENERATING ACTIVITIES.

1.1 What are your sources of income? (indicate and rank multiple income generating activities)

Household cultivation	
Household livestock production	
Agriculture wage labour	
Organised small business	
Qualified personnel	
Pensions/grants	
Income from rent	
Informal work	
Traditional medicine/healer	
Other (specify)	

1.2. What other sources of income would you like to have in your community?

_____

2.1. What sources of employment are available within your community?

_____

2.2. What other sources of employment would you like to have in your community?

_____

2.3. Are you employed?

Yes	
No	

2.4. If yes, where do you work?_____

2.5.Is the job

Full-time	
Part-time	
Seasonal	
Permanent	
Other (specify)	

2.6.Are you paid in

Cash	
Kind	
Both	

2.7. How much do you earn per month?

< R500.00	
R600.00-R1000.00	
> R1000.00	

2.8.1. Do you receive any benefits?

Yes	
No	

2.8.2. If yes, what are the benefits?_____

_____

C: ACCESS TO RESOURCES WITHIN THE HLUHLUWE-UMFOLOZI PARK

1.2.Do you have access to natural resources in the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park?

Types of resources	Yes	No
Donations of meat for ceremonies		
Water sources		
Firewood		
Meat		
Reeds		
Thatching grass (hay)		
Nursery		
Animal by-products		

1.2.1. Are there any other resources in the park that will be beneficial to you and your community?

Yes	
No	

1.2.2. If yes, what are those resources?_____

D: BENEFITS FROM THE PARK

1.1.1. Does the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park offer you and your family any of the following benefits?

Benefits	**Yes**	**No**
Education		
Job opportunities		
Training programme		
Natural Resource Management		
Decision making		
Tourism		

1.1.2. If No, what are some of the benefits from the list above would you be interested in?

_____

_____

1.1.3. In what other ways do you think you can be able to benefit from the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park?

_____

2.1.1. Are you or any other members of your family employed in the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park?

Yes	
No	

2.1.2. If yes, fill in the table below

Family member	Type of job	Salary/wage per month (see codes)	Is the job permanent, seasonal, full-time or part-time? (see codes)

Codes:

Salary/Wage per month	**Nature of job**
1: < R500.00	1: Permanent
2: R600.00-R1000.00	2: Seasonal
3: > R1000.00	3: Full-time
	4: Part-time

2.1.3. If no, what kind of job would you like to be offered by the Park management?

_____

_____

E: PARTICIPATION IN THE OPERATION AND MANAGEMENT OF THE HLUHLUWE-UMFOLOZI PARK.

1.1. Do you or any member of your family in partnership in the operation and management of the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park?

Yes	
No	

1.1.1. If yes, how are you involved_____

_____

1.1.2. If no, how would you like to be involved?_____

_____

1.1.2. What are you hoping to gain from the partnership?_____

_____

F: INTERACTION WITH THE MANAGEMENT AND STAFF OF THE HLUHLUWE-UMFOLOZI PARK.

1.1.1. The relationship between your community and the management and staff of the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park.

Very Good	
Good	
Fair	
Poor	
Very Poor	

1.1.2. Give reason(s) for your choice above_____

_____

1.2.1. Are you experiencing any problems as a result of residing adjacent to the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park?

Yes	
No	

1.2.2. If yes, what are the problems?_____

_____

_____

1.2.3. How is your community and the Park management and staff trying to resolve the above stated problems?_____ _____

G: TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN YOUR COMMUNITY

1.1.1. Do you interact with the tourists who come to visit in the Hluhluwe-Umfolozi Park?

Yes	
No	

1.1.2. If yes, how do you interact?_____

_____

1.1.3. If no, how would you like to interact?_____

_____

2.1.1. Would you like to have tourists visiting your community?

Yes	
No	

2.1.2 Give reasons for your answer_____

_____

2.2.1. Would you like to have some tourist facilities established in your community?

Yes	
No	

2.2.2. If yes, what type of tourist facilities would you like to have in your area?

_____

2.3. In what ways would you assist in putting up tourist facilities in your community?

_____

_____

H: CHALLENGES/PROBLEMS FACED.

1. What are the 5 major challenges facing your

1. 1. community?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

1.2. family?

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

1.2. What do you think are some of the ways you may offer towards resolving the above listed challenges?

_____

_____

2.1. Where would you like to see your community within 10 years' time in terms of development?

_____

_____

2.2. How would you like the Park management and staff and yourself work towards the development of your community?

_____