

**COMMUNITY-BASED SUSTAINABLE TOURISM ON
COMMONAGES: AN ALTERNATIVE TO TRADITIONAL
LAND REFORM IN NAMAQUALAND, NORTHERN CAPE
PROVINCE**

SHARMLA GOVENDER-VAN WYK

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Department of Tourism Management

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DECLARATION

I, Sharmila Govender-van Wyk hereby declare that the thesis for the Philosophiae Doctor degree at the University of Pretoria, hereby submitted by me, has not previously been submitted for a degree at this or any other university, and it is my own work in design and execution and that all reference material contained therein has been duly acknowledged.

.....
Signature

.....
Date

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF THESIS: Community-based Sustainable Tourism on
Commonages: An Alternative to Traditional Land
Reform in Namaqualand, Northern Cape Province

by

Sharmla Govender-van Wyk

PROMOTER: Professor GDH Wilson

DEPARTMENT: Tourism Management

DEGREE: Philosophiae Doctor

Since 1994, the South African Government has developed two strategic policies that embrace the principles of sustainable development: Tourism and Land Reform. Both policies seek redress and economic development for previously disadvantaged black people, but both policies were not integrated to form part of a sustainable development strategy for communities. In terms of the land redistribution programme (as one leg of the land reform programme), the commonage sub-programme has primarily advocated an agrarian style development despite the decline in contribution of agriculture to the Gross Domestic Product. By promoting one development option, other livelihood opportunities such as tourism have not been explored. *The White Paper on Tourism* (1996) has also recognised the limited integration of local communities and previously neglected groups as an impediment to sustainable tourism development in South Africa.

The aim of this study is to provide integrated planning guidelines for sustainable tourism development for commonages in Namaqualand. The study poses the question: What role could sustainable tourism play in commonage projects? In an attempt to fulfil the aim of the study and answer the research question, nine objectives were devised to guide the direction of the study. The objectives primarily focussed on conceptualising land redistribution and sustainable tourism through various local and international case studies in order to draw commonalities and identify negative and positive impacts of these approaches. In so doing, the

sustainability of a purely agrarian focus of land reform policies across the global spectrum was brought into question.

Various debates concerning the sustainable tourism concept are also considered, including a discussion on its subset ecotourism and sustainable tourism through Community-based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM). The sustainability of tourism in peripheral and desert areas is discussed in the context of the case-study area, Namaqualand, which is recognised geographically and politically as a rural/peripheral area featuring a desert ecosystem.

The methodological theory is derived from the Critical Social Science school of thought, which sees the study delving beyond surface illusions to uncover the real structures in order to help people change the world. A six-step case-study approach based on this paradigm was adopted. Six commonage projects and one sustainable tourism project (Rooiberg Conservancy project) were selected through non-probability purposive sampling. In adopting the case-study approach, the study followed six steps:

1. Determination and definition of the research questions
2. Selection of the cases and determination of the data gathering and analysis techniques
3. Preparation to collect the data
4. Collection of the data
5. Analyses of the data
6. Formulation of the recommendations based on the results obtained from data.

The synthesis of the literature and empirical research resulted in the formulation of integrated planning guidelines for sustainable tourism on commonages based on the concept of the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) approach, as adopted for local government planning in South Africa. The following factors formed the basis for the guidelines:

- baseline information;
- vision and goals;
- objectives;
- legislation and control measures;
- impact management and mitigation;
- communication and decision-making;

- implementation including funding incentives;
- monitoring and evaluation; and
- feedback and control.

Limitations of time and finance prevented the researcher from consulting with the appropriate stakeholders on these guidelines in order to obtain their buy-in, but emphasis is placed on the recognition of the guidelines as a framework for comprehensive sector-planning for sustainable tourism development on commonages in Namaqualand.

Key terms: *Sustainable tourism, land reform, land redistribution, commonages, sustainable tourism in peripheral areas, sustainable tourism through Community Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM), sustainable desert tourism, Integrated Development Planning (IDP) Approach*

SAMEVATTING

TITEL VAN PROEFSKRIF:	Gemeenskapsgebaseerde Volhoubare Toerisme op Dorpsmeente: 'n alternatief vir tradisionele grondhervorming in Namakwaland in die Noord-Kaap deur Sharmla Govender-van Wyk
PROMOTOR:	Professor GDH Wilson
DEPARTEMENT:	Toerismebestuur
GRAAD:	Philosophiae Doctor

Sedert 1994 is twee strategiese beleidsrigtings deur die Suid-Afrikaanse Regering ontwikkel wat die beginsels van volhoubare ontwikkeling steun: Toerisme en Grondhervorming. Albei die rigtings is gemik op die ekonomiese ontwikkeling van voorheen benadeelde swart mense, maar dit is nie in 'n volhoubare ontwikkelingsstrategie vir gemeenskappe geïntegreer nie. Ingevolge die program vir die herverdeling van grond ('n onderafdeling van die grondhervormingsprogram), het die dorpsmeentprogram veral landbou-ontwikkeling bevorder, ten spyte daarvan dat landbou se bydrae tot die Bruto Binnelandse Produk steeds daal. Ander moontlike bronne van inkomste, byvoorbeeld toerisme, is nie ondersoek nie. Die beperkte deelname van plaaslike gemeenskappe en voorheen benadeelde groepe word juis in die *Toerisme Witskrif* (1996) genoem as 'n struikelblok in die volhoubare ontwikkeling van toerisme in Suid-Afrika.

Die doel met hierdie studie is om geïntegreerde beplanningsriglyne vir volhoubare toerisme-ontwikkeling op dorpsmeente in Namakwaland daar te stel. Die vraag onderliggend aan die studie lui: "Watter rol kan volhoubare toerisme in dorpsmeentprojekte speel?"

Ten einde die doel met die studie te bereik en die navorsingsvraag te beantwoord, is nege mikpunte gestel om die studie te rig. Die mikpunte fokus veral op die begrippe

grondverdeling en volhoubare toerisme soos wat dit uit plaaslike en internasionale gevallestudies blyk. Ooreenkomste tussen die gevallestudies is bepaal en die positiewe en negatiewe uitwerking van albei benaderingswyses is geïdentifiseer. Die volhoubaarheid van die landbou-benadering van grondhervormingsbeleide van oor die wêreld is hierdeur bevraagteken.

Daar word verwys na verskillende beredenerings van die begrip 'volhoubare ontwikkeling', met inbegrip van ekotoerisme en volhoubare toerisme deur middel van Gemeenskapsgebaseerde Bestuur van Natuurlike Hulpbronne. Die volhoubaarheid van toerisme in perifere en woestyngediede is binne die konteks van Namakwaland as studiegebied bespreek. Namakwaland word geografies en polities as 'n landelike of perifere gebied erken, en 'n woestyngediede kom binne die streek voor.

Die metodologiese teorie van die studie is ontleen aan die Kritiese Sosiale Wetenskappe, waarvolgens 'n studie verby oppervlakkige illusies moet delf om die dieper, ware strukture te ontbloot waardeur mense gehelp kan word om die wêreld te verander. Die gevallestudie-benadering wat gevolg is berus op hierdie paradigma. As gevallestudies is ses dorpsmeent-projekte en een volhoubare toerisme-projek (die Rooiberg Bewaringsgebied-projek) deur middel van doelbewuste nie-waarskynlikheid-steekproefneming geselekteer.

Die studie is in die volgende ses stappe uitgevoer:

1. Bepaal en omskryf die navorsingsprobleem
2. Selekteer gevallestudies en besluit op tegnieke vir die insameling en analisering van data
3. Tref voorbereidings om die data in te samel
4. Versamel data
5. Analiseer die data
6. Formuleer aanbevelings gegrond op die ingesamelde data en die data-analise.

'n Sintese van die literatuurstudie en die empiriese navorsing het gelei tot die formulering van geïntegreerde beplanningsriglyne vir volhoubare toerisme-ontwikkelings op dorpsmeente, gegrond op die Geïntegreerde Ontwikkelingsbeplanning vir plaaslike regerings in Suid-Afrika. Die riglyne sluit die volgende aspekte in:

- basiese inligting;

- visie en doelwitte;
- mikpunte;
- wetgewing en beheermaatreëls;
- impakbestuur en –versagting;
- kommunikasie en besluitneming;
- implementering, met inbegrip van geldelike aansporings;
- monitering en evaluering; en
- terugvoer en beheer.

Die navorser is deur beperkte tyd en fondse verhinder om die riglyne met belanghebbendes te bespreek ten einde hulle ondersteuning daarvoor te verkry. Dit word egter beklemtoon dat die riglyne as raamwerk kan dien vir omvattende beplanning van volhoubare toerisme-ontwikkeling op dorpsmeente in Namakwaland.

Sleutelwoorde: *Volhoubare toerisme, grondhervorming, grondherverdeling, dorpsmeente, volhoubare toerisme in randgebiede, volhoubare toerisme deur middel van Gemeenskapsgebaseerde Bestuur van Natuurlike Hulpbronne, volhoubare woestyntoerisme, Geïntegreerde Ontwikkelingsbeplanning.*

ACRONYMS

AALS	Affirmative Action Loan Scheme (Namibia)
ACA	Annapurna Conservation Area (Nepal)
AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANC	African National Congress (South Africa)
CAMPFIRE	Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources
CBNRM	Community-based Natural Resource Management
CMCs	Commonage Management Committees (South Africa)
CPA	Communal Property Association (South Africa)
DEAT	Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (South Africa)
DLA	Department of Land Affairs (South Africa)
DFID	Department for International Development (United Kingdom)
EU	European Union
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HDI	Human Development Index
HIV	Human Immuno Virus
HSRC	Human Sciences Research Council (South Africa)
IDP	Integrated Development Plan (South Africa)
INCRA	Instituto Nacional de Colonizaçã e Reforma Agraria (National Institute for Colonization and Agrarian Reform) (Brazil)
LRAD	Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (South Africa)
LSU	Large Stock Unit
MEC	Member of the Executive Committee (South Africa)
MST	Movimento do Trabalhadores Rurais Sem Terra (Movement of Rural Landless Workers) (Brazil)
NACOBTA	Namibian Community Based Tourism Association
NCTA	Northern Cape Tourism Association (South Africa)
NGO	Non-governmental Organisation
PDA s	Provincial Departments of Agriculture (South Africa)
PLAAS	Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies (South Africa)
PPT	Pro-poor Tourism
RNP	Richtersveld National Park (South Africa)
SANPARKS	South African National Parks
SLAG:	Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (South Africa)
SMMEs	Small, Medium, Micro Enterprises
SPP	Surplus Peoples Project (South Africa)
SSU	Small Stock Unit
SWAPO	South West African People's Organisation (Namibia)
SWOT	Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats
SNTR	South-North Tourism Route (South Africa)
TFCA	Transfrontier Conservation Area
TRANCRAA	Transformation of Coloured Rural Areas Act (South Africa)
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
USA	United States of America
WCED	World Commission on Economic Development
WSSD	World Summit on Sustainable Development
WTTC	World Travel and Tourism Council
ZANU	Zimbabwe African National Union

Chapter 1

GENERAL ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Since 1994, the South African Government has developed two key strategic policies that embrace the principles of sustainable development: sustainable tourism and land reform. Both policies seek redress and economic development for previously disadvantaged black people but both policies were not integrated to form part of a sustainable development strategy for communities. In terms of the land redistribution programme (as one leg of the land reform programme), the commonage¹ sub-programme has primarily advocated an agrarian style development, even though the contribution of agriculture to the Gross Domestic Product (GDP) has dwindled since the 1960s (Tupy, 2006). This has prevented communities with access to commonages from exploring other livelihood opportunities such as sustainable tourism ventures. This lack of integration means that potentially 400 000 hectares of land and more than 1200 households² in the Northern Cape alone could have been targeted for some sustainable tourism ventures.

This study examines whether the ‘merger’ of two discourses: sustainable tourism and land reform, is possible. Woolmer, Chaumba and Scoones (2003) argue, in relation to wildlife management (as part of sustainable tourism) and land reform in Zimbabwe, that the two discourses are embedded in two very opposing models of development. Land reform emphasises direct redistribution, equity and land for crops, while wildlife management focuses on

¹ ‘Commonage’ is municipal land that the DLA purchases for cash-strapped municipalities so that the municipality’s poor residents can access the land for agricultural purposes. The land has a conditional title deed or servitude attached to it so that the municipality cannot alienate it for purposes other than land reform.

² In the Northern Cape, as part of land redistribution through the commonage sub-programme, the Department of Land Affairs distributed 410 000 hectares of land to 1205 households in 2004 (Department of Land Affairs, 2004:27). Chapter Five outlines comprehensive statistics on land reform in the Northern Cape.

the maximisation of foreign earnings, encouraging public-private partnerships and trickle-down.

Within the South African context, land reform strategic goals not only incorporate equitable distribution of land ownership, but also recognise the “need for land reform to reduce poverty and contribute to economic growth,” (Department of Land Affairs, 1997:7). It is clear that the intention of the South African government in terms of its land reform agenda is asset and wealth redistribution. The study argues that it is possible to achieve asset and wealth redistribution not only through agriculture but also through sustainable tourism. It is, firstly, necessary to understand the two discourses in order to deduce possible commonalities and, secondly, to assess whether the commonalities (if any) can be further developed into planning guidelines for sustainable tourism opportunities on commonages.

1.2 LAND REFORM AS PART OF THE GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT DEBATE

The majority of the world’s poorest³ people, especially in Asia, Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa, practice farming and depend on the productive use of land for economic and social survival (Department for International Development, 2002). Inequalities in land-holding patterns and land tenure insecurity have led governments in the above-mentioned developing nations to focus on land reform policies in attempting to reduce poverty and to stimulate the economy.

Why is land reform undertaken in developing countries like South Africa? Richter (1982) provides four reasons:

- many countries have huge landless populations that want to own the land that they farm rather than continue as farm workers or labour tenants;

³ World development indicators for 2000-2001 estimate that 70% of people living on less than \$1 or R6 per day are farmers (World Bank, 2001).

- governments want to defuse political unrest and win the support of rural/landless people;
- governments often favour land reform as a means of securing foreign aid; and
- some countries have used land reform on the assumption that small owner-operated farms, though denied the economies of large-scale production, are farmed more intensively and productively.

One other pivotal reason for the utilisation of land reform as a development strategy, especially in the southern African context, is that land ownership patterns remain highly skewed in favour of white commercial farmers⁴. In all the countries that pursue a land reform policy it is essentially an instrument designed to eliminate obstacles to economic and social development arising from defects in the agrarian sector.

Land reform has gained prominence in the international developmental circles after its marginalization from 1980 to 1990. In Latin America, Mexico, Brazil and Peru adopted market-oriented⁵ land reform policies. Similarly, in southern Africa in the 1990s, Zimbabwe⁶, Namibia and South Africa embarked on market-assisted land reform initiatives to balance the playing field in terms of white and black land ownership patterns. In all of the countries cited, land reform is a socially and economically desirable policy that is necessary to improve land tenure security and/or gain ownership of land for growth, equity and poverty reduction.

Land redistribution policy, although critical, is only one aspect of a comprehensive development strategy. From 2001, insufficient attention has

⁴ In South Africa, in the 1990s, 60 000 white commercial farmers who constitute only 0.5% of the white population own about 80% of the agricultural land, while 11 million rural blacks owned 13% of the land (Department of Land Affairs, 1997). In Zimbabwe, approximately 4 500 white commercial farmers controlled 42% of agricultural land while in Namibia 4 128 white farmers own 45% of commercial farmland (Moyo, 2001).

⁵ The government assists landless people to acquire land through subsidies and/or loans at market-related prices.

⁶ Zimbabwe's land reform programme followed the market-oriented approach until 1999/2000 when the War Veterans Movement, supported by the Zimbabwean Government, commenced with illegal occupations of commercial farmland.

been given to the role of land in diversified income-generating strategies (Baranyi, Deere & Morales, 2004). Deininger (2003) noted that Brazilian government planners implementing the Brazilian land reform policy have neglected the diversity of livelihood options that are available to the rural poor.

In Mexico and Argentina, employment in industry, manufacturing, trade, tourism and other services offers options for labour or professional development, which, for many, are more attractive than agricultural work, particularly wage-earning agricultural work. This has changed the rural landscape. They are characterised by the growth of towns and medium-sized cities. There are often strong ties between these towns and cities and their rural hinterlands through non-agricultural trade, transportation systems, and a wide-range of services related to production, consumption and recreational needs (Berdegúé, Reardon, Escobar & Echeverria, 2000). Berdegúé *et al.* (2000) contend that the services related to production, consumption and recreational needs provide not only better economic opportunities for the rural people but also options for narrowing the quality of life-gap between the rural and urban environments.

There are no examples available in the international arena of sustainable tourism strategies that have been developed and implemented within a land reform context. The only exception is Zimbabwe that has included ecotourism⁷ as part of its Land Reform Resettlement Programme in 2001 but there are no current documented case studies of this. Most of the countries that have implemented land reform policies do so in response to the deficiencies within the agricultural sector linked to agricultural land ownership. A country's economic development strategy or poverty reduction strategy caters for tourism development. There is generally no correlation between tourism initiatives and land redistribution.

⁷ Ecotourism is widely regarded as a sub-set of sustainable tourism (McCool and Moisey, 2001; Swarbrooke, 1999; Weaver, 2001b). This will be discussed in Chapter 3.

1.3 LAND REFORM IN SOUTH AFRICA

Prior to the democratic elections in 1994, the South African liberation movement had prioritised land reform because of the importance attached to the resolution of the land question in South Africa. The African National Congress (ANC) utilised land reform as an instrument to address the partiality of forced removals and the historical denial of land access. The land reform programme sought to address the tenure insecurity of rural farm dwellers, eliminate overcrowding and provide residential and productive land to the poorest sections of the rural population.

The Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) document and the Government's *White Paper on South African Land Policy* (Department of Land Affairs, 1997) articulated the concept of land reform. Land and agrarian reforms are national priorities and are further entrenched in Section 25 (4) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996 (Act No.108 of 1996). Section 25 (4) emphasises that:

“(a) The public interest includes the nation's commitment to land reform, and to reforms to bring the equitable access to all South Africa's natural resources; and

(b) Property is not limited to land.”

A three-pronged market-assisted land reform programme aiming at tenure reform, restitution and land redistribution, was launched in 1994 (Ramutsindela, 2003).

1.3.1 Tenure Reform

The tenure reform programme seeks to validate and to harmonise forms of land ownership that evolved during colonialism and apartheid. It is an attempt to redress the dual system of land tenure in which whites owned land as private property as opposed to communal land allocation among blacks (Ramutsindela, 2003). The majority of rural blacks lived and still live on communal land, registered as the property of the State under the erstwhile

South African Development trust. Furthermore, tribal chiefs continue to act as custodians of communal land (Department of Land Affairs, 2003c).

1.3.2 Restitution

Land restitution forms the second pillar of the land reform programme. It aims to redress the imbalances in land ownership that were created by policies and legislation of forced removals such as the infamous Natives Land Act, 1913 (Act No. 39 of 1913). The nature of restitution is determined by three broad categories of the effects of land dispossession - namely, dispossession leading to landlessness, inadequate compensation for the value of the property, and hardships that cannot be measured in financial or material terms (Department of Land Affairs, 1997). Some communities, such as the Makuleke of the Kruger National Park, gained land rights in protected conservation areas through the restitution process and are developing tourism development strategies.

1.3.3 Redistribution

Land redistribution was conceived as a means of opening up the productive land for residential and agricultural development. The national government set itself a target of redistributing 30% of the country's commercial agricultural land (about 24 million hectares) (Department of Land Affairs, 1997) over a five-year period (i.e. from 1994 to 1999). This target has been extended since the review of the programme in 2000 to redistribution of 30% of agricultural land by the year 2014 (Department of Land Affairs, 2003c) and encompasses all agricultural land redistributed through all three programmes. The redistribution programme will be discussed in Chapter 2.

This study primarily focuses on the redistribution programme, in particular the commonage sub-programme, as the programme has led to land transfers in the Northern Cape, primarily in the Namaqualand region. There are approximately 150 commonage projects that the Department of Land Affairs (DLA) has implemented since 1997 (Department of Land Affairs, 2004) and all of them are grazing projects or small-scale crop projects. It is not clear why

the focus has been purely on agriculture, because the commonage policy statement reads as follows: “The Department of Land Affairs commits itself to ensure that commonage land needed by previously disadvantaged communities for agricultural *and other entrepreneurial business purposes* [researcher’s emphasis] is made available for such purposes” (Department of Land Affairs, 2000:8).

The focus of this study, therefore, is to develop planning guidelines for communities to use commonages for sustainable tourism ventures. The study is not advocating sustainable tourism as a panacea to the economic and social problems of Namaqualand, but merely as another strategy to combat poverty and unemployment, linking to other sectors in the regional economy.

1.4 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM AS PART OF THE GLOBAL DEVELOPMENT DEBATE

It is widely accepted that sustainability is one of the most important issues that the tourism industry faces. Weaver and Lawton (2000) note that, in the past, the focus on sustainable development has tended to concentrate on conventional economic activities such as agriculture, mining, forestry, fisheries and manufacturing, to the exclusion of the tourism industry. Sustainable tourism has its roots in a conservation vision that emerged thousands of years before the birth of Christ. One of the earliest examples of sustainable tourism, occurred in Mesopotamia with hunting and maintaining recreational areas in reserves (Butler, 1991). However, the concept of sustainable tourism is a recent occurrence of the 1990s.

1.4.1 Definitions of the term sustainable tourism

The term ‘sustainable tourism’ was initially coined after the concept of sustainable development became popularised, brought to prominence with the publication in 1987 of the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), entitled: *Our Common Future*, better known as the Brundtland Report (McCool and Moisey, 2001). It recognised for the first time the importance of international environmental policy and the connection

between development, international debt and the environment (Brown, 1996). The Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987:8) defined sustainability as “meeting the needs of the present without compromising the ability of the future generations to meet their own needs.”

Murphy (1995) adds that the Brundtland Report placed the concept of sustainable development firmly on the centre stage. Swarbrooke (1999:353) maintains that there is a need to start viewing sustainable tourism as part of a larger sustainable development system, an open system where every element affects the other elements. For example, regulations proposed to reduce the number of tourists to areas consisting of fragile ecosystems could have a positive affect on the environment but will reduce the economic benefits for host communities that live near or within that ecosystem.

Sharpley (2000) postulates that definitions of sustainable tourism can be divided into two strains of thought: one that is ‘tourism centric’ and focuses on tourism purely as an economic activity, and the other that attaches importance to tourism as an element of the wider sustainable tourism policies. Hunter (1997:859) also referred to sustainable tourism as an “adaptive paradigm, encompassing a set of meta-principles within which several different development pathways may be legitimised according to circumstance”.

Swarbrooke (1999) identifies six other terms that are associated with sustainable tourism (See Figure 1.1) but contends that the concepts are only partially connected to sustainable tourism. Ecotourism is one of the overlapping forms that will be further discussed in Chapter 3 of the study. McCool and Moisey (2001) have also added their definitions to the debate on sustainable tourism and they aver that there are three ways of defining the concept:

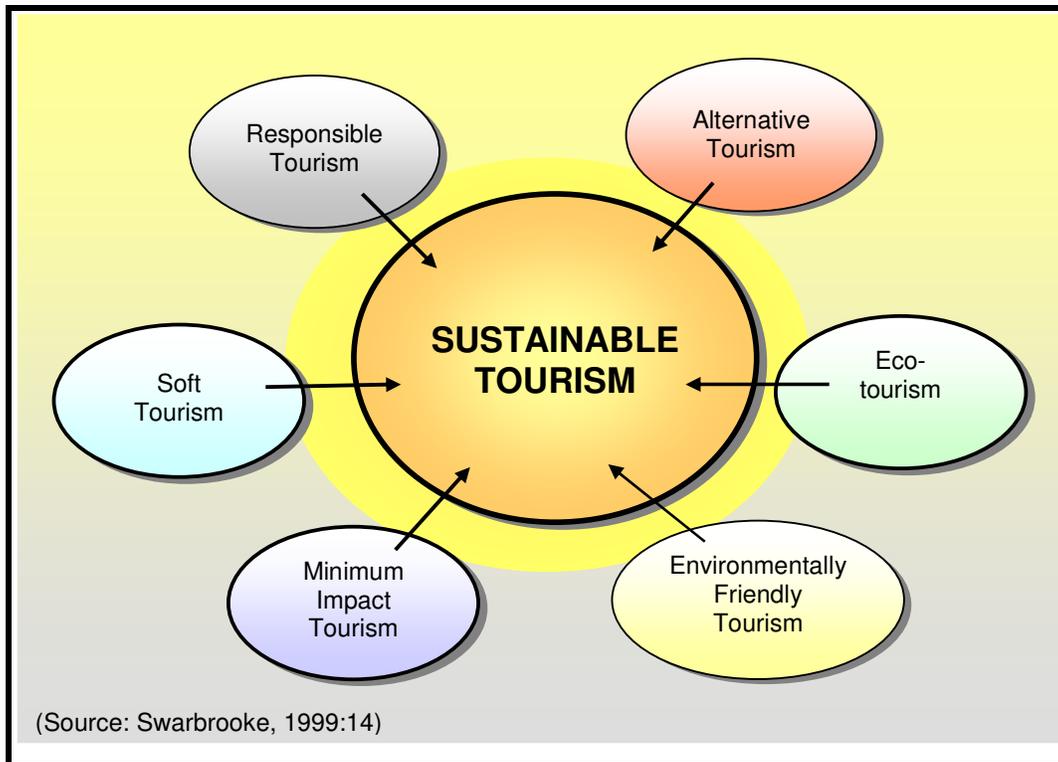


Figure 1.1: Relationship between sustainable tourism and other tourism forms

- *Sustaining tourism businesses over a long period.* This position suggests that the primary task is to build and manage tourism businesses that can be maintained over a long period. The problem with this approach is that it does not recognise tourism as a tool to enhance economic development (McCool & Moisey, 2001).
- *Sustainable tourism that is a gentler form of tourism, small-scale, low impact, environmentally and culturally sensitive and takes into consideration the views of local people in policy decision-making.* This view recognises the limitation of natural resources and the necessity of local planning and decision-making within tourism. However, the comparative nature of this view with mass tourism does not allow proper development of this concept (McCool & Moisey, 2001).
- *Tourism as a tool for economic development.* This school of thought sees tourism as a tool of social and economic development and not as an end in itself. Tourism must be integrated with the broader economic

and social development programme in order to become sustainable, and can be regarded as a method, to protect the natural and social assets upon which the tourism industry exists (Hunter & Green, 1995; McCool & Moisey, 2001).

1.4.2 Principles of sustainable tourism

The study concedes that the concept of sustainable tourism is clearly a very broad, imprecise developmental concept. It is not the intention of this study to posit a definition but to harness the broad principles and relate this to land redistribution. The study therefore supports the principles that underpin sustainable tourism management (Box 1.1) as advocated by Bramwell, Henry, Jackson, Prat, Richards and Van der Straaten (1998). The principles can also be used to describe land reform since land reform is located within political, social, economic and cultural sustainability and espouses the principles in theory. The primary aim of a land reform policy is to ensure that the targeted people use the natural resource (land) efficiently and for social and economic development.

Box 1.1: Ten principles behind sustainable tourism management

- Policy, planning and management are vital.
- Recognizing that there are limitations to growth and that tourism must be managed within these limits.
- Embracing long-term rather than short-term planning.
- Ensuring that the concerns of sustainable tourism management are not just environmental, but also economic, social, cultural, political and managerial.
- Satisfying human needs and aspirations through equity and fairness.
- Empowering all stakeholders in decision-making process and ensuring that they have been adequately consulted on the sustainable development issues.
- Recognizing that in reality there are often limits to what will be achieved in the short and medium term.
- Understanding how market economies operate, of the cultures and management procedures of private sector businesses and public and voluntary sector organizations, and of the values and attitudes of the public is necessary in order to turn good intentions into practical measures.
- Acknowledging that there may be trade-offs and compromises over the use of resources to prevent potential conflicts.
- Balancing the costs and benefits in decisions on different courses of action and considering how much different individuals and groups will gain or lose.

(Source: Adapted from Bramwell *et al.*, 1998)

The body of knowledge related to the linking of sustainable tourism and land redistribution is limited, and there is a need to understand how communities who participate in land redistribution projects can benefit from sustainable tourism and perhaps create successful sustainable tourism businesses on land that has been set aside for their use such as the commonages. Other reasons for the selection of sustainable tourism as the central research theme of this study include:

- emphasis is placed on the ecosystem rather than on the environment and human beings are recognised as important within this ecosystem;
- sustainable tourism has land-based tourism forms such as ecotourism, wildlife tourism and desert tourism that can be easily integrated within a land reform strategy;
- sustainable tourism involves numerous stakeholders from government bodies, host communities, tourism industry, experts, tourists, pressure groups and the media that contribute to the enhancement of the tourism industry; and
- sustainable tourism has its foundations in sustainable development and acknowledges other sustainable development elements of agriculture, societies/communities, conservation, economic systems and the environment and natural resources as being important building blocks of the same system of sustainable development.

1.5 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM DEVELOPMENT IN SOUTH AFRICA

Tourism comprises an extensive range of economic activities and can be considered the largest industry in the world. In 2004, the South African travel and tourism industry's contribution to GDP, including induced and indirect effects, was R93,6 billion or 7,4% of the total and is expected to climb to 10% by 2010 (Department of Trade and Industry, 2005). It is further projected that in 2010 the South African tourism economy will employ more than 1, 2 million people directly and indirectly (Tourism South Africa, 2003). Ecotourism shows great potential as a source of foreign exchange and investment, especially as South Africa is seen as part of a richly diverse region (Countryprofiler, 2003).

1.5.1 The importance of sustainable tourism for South Africa

Sustainable tourism is identified as a priority sector for national economic growth and development in South Africa. The *White Paper on Tourism* (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996:3) provides the policy framework for tourism development and defines sustainable tourism as “tourism development, management and any other tourism activity which optimise the economic and other societal benefits available in the present without jeopardising the potential for similar benefits in the future”.

South Africa also subscribes to the Global Code of Ethics for tourism that embraces the principles of sustainable development. The World Tourism Organisation developed the Global Code of Ethics for tourism to protect the environment, tourists and workers’ rights as well as endorse global legislation from other bodies such as Agenda 21 (Heath, 2001). The basic principles of the code are given in Box 1.2:

Box 1.2: The basic principles of the global code of ethics for tourism

- Tourism’s contribution to mutual understanding and respect between people and societies
- Tourism is a vehicle for individual and collective fulfilment
- Tourism as a factor of sustainable development
- Tourism as a user of the cultural heritage of mankind and contributor to its enhancement
- Tourism as a beneficial activity for host countries and communities
- Obligations of stakeholders in tourism development
- Rights to tourism
- Liberty of tourism movements
- Rights of workers and entrepreneurs in the tourism industry

(Source: Heath, 2001)

The White Paper (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996) maintains that sustainable tourism is an engine of growth that is capable of rejuvenating other sectors of the economy. It also identifies a number of constraints that would hamper sustainable tourism development and its potential to achieve such objectives as job creation, black economic

empowerment and small, medium and micro-enterprise (SMME) development. According to the White Paper (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996:5-12), factors such as the following constrain the expansion and transformation of the South African tourism industry:

- limited integration of local communities and previously neglected groups into tourism;
- lack of market access and market knowledge;
- lack of interest on the part of existing establishments to build partnerships with local communities and suppliers;
- lack of information and awareness; and
- lack of appropriate institutional structures.

It is argued that unless such impediments are addressed, tourism will remain a 'missed opportunity' for the vast majority of South Africans (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996:4).

1.5.2 Measures to enhance sustainable tourism in South Africa

Despite the multiplicity of actions envisaged by the White Paper on Tourism, disadvantaged communities and population groups remain highly marginalised from the 'mainstream' tourism industry and the national, high profile initiatives that underpin its notable growth. Land reform recipients also form part of the disadvantaged communities that were marginalised from sustainable tourism initiatives.

As outlined in the respective White Papers on Tourism and on Land Policy, both strategies are seeking redress and economic development for the previously disadvantaged communities of South Africa and both emphasise the sustainability issues. These are laudable but not easy targets and the targets become even more difficult to attain when common policy imperatives are not integrated at a local level to enhance sustainable development.

The Plan of Implementation adopted at the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD) held in Johannesburg (South Africa) in 2002, identified

measures to promote sustainable tourism development. The Plan seeks to increase “the benefits from tourism resources for the population in host communities while maintaining the cultural and environmental integrity of the host communities and enhancing the protection of ecologically sensitive areas and natural heritages” (United Nations, 2002:1). The WSSD Plan exemplifies that governments must take proactive steps towards better governance and sustainable development. Achieving the sustainable tourism goals set in the plan would require systematic action and the availability of adequate resources at community level, national level and international level.

South Africa has since then developed a manual for responsible tourism based on the sustainable tourism approach and WSSD recommendations. The Responsible Tourism Manual (Spenceley, Relly, Keyser, Warmeant, McKenzie, Mataboge, Norton, Mahlangu and Seif, 2002) outlines three factors that would contribute to sustainable or responsible tourism and what the document refers to as the *triple bottom line*:

- economic factors
- socio-cultural factors
- environmental factors

This study seeks to outline that while agricultural development is necessary for land reform, sustainable tourism development should form part of a land redistribution strategy and have its own set of planning guidelines. Williams (1998) purports that the aim of modern planning is to seek optimal solutions to perceived problems and it is designed to increase and maximise development benefits, which will produce predictable outcomes. McCabe, Poole, Weeks and Leiper (2000:235) further suggest that a plan provides direction “a plan...enables us to identify where we are going and how to get there, in other words it should clarify the path that is to be taken and the outcomes or end results.” By integrating the elements of land redistribution and sustainable tourism (Section 3.10), the study recognises the IDP principles as a possible tool to integrate sustainable tourism and land redistribution (Section 3.11).

1.6 FORMULATION OF THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

The problem remains that after a decade of adopting a primarily agrarian land redistribution approach to rural development; black people have not derived the full socio-economic benefits from this kind of reform. Approximately 50 years ago, agriculture was the largest sector of the South African economy in terms of employment and its contribution to the GDP. In 1960, it accounted for 10% of the GDP. Primary agriculture contributed only 2.6% of the GDP in 2005 but accounted for 8% of South Africa's exports and employed 9% of the country's formal employees (Tupy, 2006).

South Africa's agricultural production is relatively good but farming conditions are far from ideal. Rainfall is unreliable and recurring drought can severely limit production of important cash crops such as maize and wheat and impact on livestock production, especially if there are unfavourable grazing conditions. The subsistence and emergent farmers in Namaqualand primarily operate in the livestock production sector. However, they cannot really survive in a livestock sector that is overwhelmingly in favour of large-scale producers.

It has also become a problem to recruit the youth and retain them within the agricultural sector because farming is deemed an unfashionable profession⁸. This can be clearly evidenced from the limited number of land grant applications from the youth (Department of Land Affairs, 2003b).

The land redistribution programme primarily operates in the agricultural industry and has not taken advantage of the booming tourism industry. There are no sustainable tourism projects on redistributed commonage land. One opinion that can be offered in this regard is that since approximately 90% of land reform beneficiaries come from rural areas, agriculture is/was traditionally the only means to survival and income generation for rural people. It is seen as a 'safety net'. There are also currently no technical skills within the Department of Land Affairs to assess and implement sustainable tourism

⁸ This was cited as a reason during several informal interviews with youth living in Eksteenfontein in the Richtersveld area during the fieldwork phase of the study in November 2004.

projects.⁹ The United Kingdom's Department for International Development (DFID, 2002) questions the effectiveness of agriculture's role in the redistribution of land and black economic development but suggests that there is no realistic alternative for the people living in rural areas other than to make agriculture work.

This study contends that realistic alternatives to agricultural development could have been ascertained through the Integrated Development Plan (IDP)¹⁰ processes at local government level. One such alternative is sustainable tourism that aims to foster rural economic development but without compromising the other sustainable development elements of agriculture and the communities. Land is a strategic but finite resource and effective use of land, through the commonage sub-programme, for tourism development may improve the livelihoods of poor communities rather than agricultural development in selected instances through well designed integrated local plans.

1.7 RESEARCH AIM AND QUESTION

The fundamental aim of the research *is to provide planning guidelines for sustainable tourism development on redistributed commonages in Namaqualand*. The study aims to establish whether, through careful planning and the establishment of effective guidelines, successful sustainable tourism ventures can be established on one or more of the six commonage projects selected for the study or other commonages that display similar potential.

The pivotal research question and its investigative sub-questions in this are:

What role can sustainable tourism play in commonage projects?

⁹ The researcher has been an employee of the Department of Land Affairs since 1997 and is aware that the Department primarily employs agricultural economists and social scientists to assess and implement land reform projects.

¹⁰ An IDP is a five-year strategic development plan for a municipality and serves as the principal strategic management instrument. It is legislated by the Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) and it supersedes all other plans that guide development at a local level (Department of Provincial and Local Government *et al.*, 2001). Section 3.11 provides a more comprehensive outline of these planning processes.

This question is pivotal in examining the relationship (if any) between sustainable tourism and the commonage sub-programme. The sub-questions include:

- What are the positive and negative aspects of land redistribution?
- Can sustainable tourism and land redistribution through commonages be integrated and could this integration lead to sustainable livelihoods¹¹ for people accessing commonages?
- What are the successes and failures of sustainable tourism initiatives in the Northern Cape, especially in the Namaqualand region?
- What are the successes and failures of agrarian-driven commonage projects in Namaqualand?

1.8 THE OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

To realise the aim of the study and to postulate planning guidelines for sustainable tourism development on redistributed commonage land in Namaqualand, the following objectives are proposed:

- To explain the research problem and to provide background information on the discourses of land redistribution (in the global arena and in the South African context) and sustainable tourism development in order to extract the commonalities and set the stage for a possible confluence of these two national priorities (Chapter 1).
- To expound the debates on land redistribution and commonages based on the Brazilian, Namibian, Zimbabwean and South African experiences and to investigate any linkages to sustainable tourism (Chapter 2).
- To establish the relevance of sustainable tourism for land redistribution (Chapter 3).
- To utilise in-depth questionnaires and interview methods to collect and assimilate the data (Chapter 4).

¹¹ Section 2.6.3.1 provides an explanation of the term 'sustainable livelihoods'.

- To provide an overview of agricultural land reform in Namaqualand (Chapter 5).
- To present the findings of the qualitative research on six commonage projects to measure, analyse and interpret the successes and challenges of these projects in order to gain an understanding of the present livelihood strategies on commonages in Namaqualand and to measure and examine the commonage users perceptions of sustainable tourism (Chapter 5).
- To provide an overview of sustainable tourism development in the Northern Cape and Namaqualand (Chapter 6).
- To describe, analyse and interpret the successes and challenges of existing sustainable tourism initiatives in the area (Chapter 6).
- To propose integrated planning guidelines for a sustainable tourism strategy on commonages, to review the aim, objectives, research questions and outline the limitations of the study (Chapter 7).

1.9 METHODOLOGICAL THEORY

1.9.1 Critical social science theory

Graburn and Jafari (1991:1) state that “no single discipline alone can accommodate, treat or understand tourism; it can be studied only if disciplinary boundaries are crossed and if multidisciplinary perspectives are sought and formed.” While the study recognises that sustainable tourism, within the discipline of Tourism Management, cannot be easily defined, it accepts the fact that environmental sustainability is inexorably bound up with the concepts of economic, social, cultural and political sustainability (Richards & Hall, 2000). Sustainable tourism is complex because the concept is loosely based on the concept of sustainable development and therefore social theories and theories of economics, culture and politics would be intertwined within this paradigm.

The methods employed during this research are grounded within the critical social science framework. Critical social science is a “critical process of inquiry that goes beyond surface illusions to uncover the real structures in the material world in order to help people change conditions and build a better world for themselves” (Neuman, 2003:81). It is an amalgamation of concepts from the philosophical and social sciences. Like positivism¹², critical social science adopts a realist position but with a difference. Whereas in terms of positivism, social ‘reality’ is waiting to be discovered and it is patterned and has order (Mulkay, 1979), reality within critical social science is seen as an evolving reality that is shaped by political, social, cultural and similar factors.

Critical researchers conduct research to critique and transform social relations. The study provides a critique on social relations and development within a land reform context with the intention of formulating sustainable tourism planning guidelines for commonages. Commonage projects have never implemented sustainable tourism as a development strategy and land redistribution policy has never embraced this concept. The case-study approach was adopted as the methodology of choice for the study and this approach clearly fits within the critical social science paradigm.

1.9.2 Case-study approach

Namaqualand in the Northern Cape Province of South Africa was chosen as the case-study area¹³ for the following reasons:

- livestock farming is one of two primary livelihoods practiced there, the other being mining;
- the rich cultural heritage of the Nama and San communities;
- the unique desert ecosystem with protected species of plants and animals not found elsewhere in the world;

¹² A positivist approach is seen as an organised method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations or individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity (Neuman, 2003:71).

¹³ Chapter 4 elaborates on the choice of the study area.

- Namaqualand has managed to develop a sustainable tourism venture linked to conservation; and
- Majority of the towns in Namaqualand form part of the South-North Tourism Route (SNTR). The SNTR initiative, developed in 1999 by the South-North Tourism Working Group and funded by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT) is a community-based tourism route that was premised on the concept of equitable, sustainable and responsible tourism in conjunction with local people from the route. The SNTR takes visitors on a journey through the eyes of its indigenous people while promoting a balance between environmental and cultural issues (Heaton, 2004). The route stretches approximately 965 kilometres from Cape Town to !Ganigobes in southern Namibia and consists of community tourism projects at various stages of development.

Namaqualand is also a peripheral area¹⁴. Peripheral areas can be classified as largely underdeveloped areas that consist of unique natural capital, where sustainable tourism can provide income and employment opportunities for the communities in that region. Namaqualand's Human Development Index (HDI)¹⁵ is 0,62 with 36% of its 120 000 inhabitants living below the poverty breadline of R800 per month (Northern Cape Provincial Government, 2004). Namaqualand is therefore considered to be an area with medium to high development but the index is still slightly lower than the average HDI for South Africa as a whole of 0.65 (United Nations Development Programme, 2005). On closer inspection of the HDI for Namaqualand, it was noted that the HDI was only calculated for one town in Namaqualand (Springbok), which happens to be the main town in this region and the most developed. It does include the other 26 towns in terms of the calculation, presenting a skewed HDI for Namaqualand as a district and therefore is not the accurate HDI for Namaqualand.

¹⁴ Chapter 3 discusses sustainable tourism in peripheral areas.

¹⁵ The United Nations Development Programme calculates the HDI based on the average indices of life expectancy, education, adult literacy levels and GDP (United Nations Development Programme, 2005). An HDI of 0,6 and above is given medium to high development ratings.

Within the study area, six commonage projects and a sustainable tourism venture were chosen as case studies. The case-study approach¹⁶ was adopted because the case-study is viewed as a holistic inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its natural setting (Cresswell, 1998). Harling (2002) highlights the relevance of the following concepts within this definition:

- The *phenomenon* can be many different things: a programme, an event, an activity or an individual. In terms of the study, it focuses on a government programme (commonages) and how it affects the livelihoods of people that were targeted to participate in this programme.
- The *natural setting* is the context within which this phenomenon appears. In this case, the commonage sub-programme is targeting primarily peripheral agricultural areas. However, Namaqualand is both peripheral and semi-desert.
- The phenomenon and setting are a *bound system*; meaning that there are limits to what is considered important and workable. The boundaries are set in terms of time, place, events and processes. The Commonage Programme has been in existence since 1996 and will cease in 2014 when the goal of redistributing 30% of agricultural land must have been realised. Land redistribution has also been a major political initiative since 1994 but political goal posts have shifted in the last two national elections and the major thrust now is the Accelerated Shared Growth Initiative of South Africa.
- *Holistic inquiry* involves the collection of in-depth and detailed data that are rich in content and involve multiple sources. Different types of data were obtained and triangulated utilising direct observations, participant observations, interviews, audio-visual material, documents and reports.

¹⁶ Chapter 4 further outlines the Case-study approach.

1.10 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study is structured according to the following chapters:

<p>Chapter 2: A critical assessment of land redistribution in Brazil, Namibia, Zimbabwe and South Africa</p>

The chapter reviews the existing literature on land redistribution in Brazil and southern Africa and critically assesses its successes and challenges. It examines the necessity for land redistribution as a contributor to social, political and economic stability and astutely assesses the type of land redistribution projects implemented in the countries cited, drawing on the lessons for South Africa's land redistribution agenda. It questions the sustainability of land redistribution projects and whether such projects were integrated with other livelihood strategies and economic development, more specifically sustainable tourism. The chapter concludes with the relevance of integrated planning through the Integrated Development Plan (IDP) approach for land redistribution.

<p>Chapter 3: The relevance of sustainable tourism for land redistribution</p>

Key literature sources on sustainable tourism are explored. Some of the angles embraced include tourism and sustainable livelihoods, ecotourism, sustainable tourism through CBNRM, tourism in peripheral areas and desert tourism. The chapter explores the need to recognise these various options because of the uniqueness of Namaqualand as a semi-desert and peripheral area. It further attempts to seek the relevance of the concept of sustainable tourism for land redistribution and the possible integration of these two concepts through the IDP tool.

Chapter 4: Study methodology

The chapter provides an outline of the study methods embraced. The case-study approach was utilised to present unambiguous findings and posit sound guidelines.

Chapter 5: Commonage projects in Namaqualand

The agricultural milieu of the Namaqualand region of the Northern Cape and its diversity in terms of people and history precedes the findings from the selected commonages. The identified commonage projects are critically examined based on data obtained from the field visits. The chapter provides an overview of the impact of commonage policy on the lives of rural people while trying to outline the positives and negatives of an agrarian approach to commonage development through a SWOT analysis of the results. The chapter also outlines the communities' perceptions of the possibilities for sustainable tourism ventures on the commonages.

**Chapter 6: Sustainable tourism in Eksteenfontein (Richtersveld),
Namaqualand**

The chapter commences with an outline of the sustainable tourism initiatives and potential in the Northern Cape and Namaqualand. An analysis of the findings of the Rooiberg Conservancy project in the Richtersveld (Eksteenfontein) area was presented. Various stakeholders involved in the initiative were interviewed and participant-observation techniques were utilised to triangulate the information in this chapter. A SWOT analysis was further applied on the results.

Chapter 7: Synthesis

Based on the synthesis of the literature findings and empirical case studies, this chapter posits possible guidelines for sustainable tourism as a livelihood strategy on redistributed commonage land. The study concludes with a review of the objectives, aim and research question. The chapter also outlines the shortcomings of the research and suggests areas for further research.

1.11 CONCLUSION

Chapter 1 provided a summary of the concepts of land reform (land redistribution) and sustainable tourism to gauge an understanding of how these concepts function as policies within a global and South African context. The aim of the summary was to pave the way for a discussion on the research problem, research aim, research questions and objectives. The conceptual summary also provided the groundwork for a detailed description and critical analyses of these concepts in Chapters 2 and 3 that helped in the modification of the research process. This chapter also presented a short exposé on the case-study approach that falls within the critical social science school of thought and concluded with a description of the layout of the subsequent chapters of the study. The choice of the study area Namaqualand was also discussed (1.9.2).

The next chapter investigates the sustainability of land redistribution in the Brazilian, Zimbabwean, Namibian and South African contexts by questioning the theory of sustainable development within a land redistribution context, assessing whether the current land redistribution policies are feasible for rural people and seeking possible linkages with sustainable tourism.

Chapter 2

A CRITICAL ASSESSMENT OF LAND REDISTRIBUTION IN BRAZIL, NAMIBIA, ZIMBABWE AND SOUTH AFRICA

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Redistributive land reform has been a key development issue for decades (World Bank, 2003). Different approaches to land reform have yielded successes but there have been failures and the impact on poverty has often been limited. Land reform impacts on the livelihoods of both, rural and urban residents should be integrated into countries' poverty reduction strategies. A successful land policy must respond to population growth and economic development. As cities expand and non-agricultural economies expand the pressure to convert land to new uses increases (Quan, 2002).

The aim of this chapter is to examine land redistribution policies in Brazil, Namibia, Zimbabwe and South Africa and the necessity for such reforms in these countries. The selection of the southern African countries was based on their similar history of dispossession through colonial rule (Namibia, Zimbabwe and South Africa) and apartheid policies (Namibia and South Africa). The South African and Zimbabwean market-assisted land redistribution efforts were modelled on the Brazilian/World Bank concept of 'negotiated land reform' and it was therefore necessary to provide an analysis of Brazil's land redistribution programme. The chapter further focuses on the sustainable development concept and will assess whether land redistribution has been sustainable in Brazil, Namibia, Zimbabwe and South Africa. Some strategic lessons (Section 2.7) for South Africa's land redistribution agenda are garnered from the case studies, ultimately leading to the synopsis of the concepts of land redistribution and sustainable tourism in Chapter 3 (Section 3.10).

2.2 LAND REDISTRIBUTION IN BRAZIL (1985-2005)

Poverty in Brazil has strong rural and regional dimensions. About 40% of Brazil's poor live in rural areas, and the incidence of poverty in those areas is more than double that of the large cities (International Land Coalition, 2002). There is also a great disparity in terms of the distribution of land where small farms of less than ten hectares owned or leased by subsistence farmers occupy 3% of the total agricultural area and 1% of the large estates owned by wealthy landowners occupy 50% of the total agricultural area (Groppo, 1996).

2.2.1 Reasons for pursuing a land redistribution agenda

This unequal distribution of land resources often prompted the rural poor to invade land, often leading to confrontational and violent conflicts between the wealthy landowners and landless people (Thomas & Van den Brink, 2002). Due to the intransigence of the Brazilian government, it had been the task of social movements to coerce the government to observe its legal obligations regarding land reform. The *Movimento do Trabalhadores Rurais Sem Terra* (Movement of Rural Landless Workers or MST) formed in 1984, forced the Brazilian government's hand by occupying and expropriating one of the largest agricultural estates in Brazil.

2.2.2 Land redistribution policies in Brazil

At the end of a twenty-year military dictatorship in 1985 and with the return of democracy the new Brazilian government launched into the first National Plan of Agrarian Reform (1985-1989). The Plan resulted in a constitution that allowed for the expropriation of large land holdings that did not fulfil a social function or were unproductive, based purely on that first occupation of the MST (Frank, 2002). The Plan further targeted 1,4 million families to be settled over a period of five years but by December 2005 the government had only settled 200 000 families instead of 400 000 (Prestes, 2005).

A land reform institute called the *Instituto Nacional de Colonização e Reforma Agraria* (National Institute for Colonization and Agrarian Reform or INCRA),

established in the 1960s, was retained as the institutional vehicle to drive the redistribution process. The steps involved in the process of expropriation, which was applicable to unproductive land or land that was utilised to less than 80%, are as follows (Deininger, 1999):

- first there is a visit by an INCRA mission to assess the value of the land and improvements;
- expropriation follows after the President of Brazil signed a decree and it was confirmed by the federal court; this process could take up to a year;
- once the above has been completed, landowners are compensated with a real interest rate of 6% bearing a discount of 25% to 40 % in the market;
- INCRA acquires the land and proceeds with infrastructure development for the next year or two;
- beneficiaries are then selected based on their agricultural skills although in practice all cases are limited to upgrading or confirming the rights of existing settlements; and
- beneficiaries are then eligible for credit subsidised up to 70 % of the land purchase price.

World Bank proponents criticised the INCRA expropriation route for the following reasons:

- the inefficiency of state bureaucracies reflected in the slow pace; costliness and limited enforcement capabilities;
- the impossibility of avoiding opportunism and destructive rent-seeking behaviour amongst beneficiaries;
- lack of control exercised by beneficiaries in terms of site selection;
- stringency of strict tenure controls that can encourage informality;
- the lack of supportive technical assistance;
- weak managerial capabilities of beneficiaries; and
- the strategic guile and bullying of large landowners to outwit the land reform initiatives (Deininger, 1999; Groppo, 1996; International Land Coalition, 2002).

In 1998, based on advice and soft loans from the World Bank, the Cardoso government announced its own new agrarian policy called *Novo Mundo Rural* or New Rural World. The policy centred on the concept of negotiated land redistribution that “relies on voluntary land transfers based on negotiation between buyers and sellers, where the government’s role is restricted to establishing the necessary framework and making available a land purchase grant to eligible beneficiaries” (Deininger, 1999:3). Based on this concept, the Brazilian government attempted to decentralise land reform to local authorities in order to expedite delivery and to ensure that beneficiaries now negotiate land prices with the landowners (Frank, 2002). The model appeared to be less confrontational than the INCRA model (Deininger, 1999; International Land Coalition, 2002).

2.2.3 Challenges for Brazilian land redistribution

While some target objectives of the negotiated land redistribution policy were met and costs for implementation were significantly lower than with the INCRA approach, questions about the overall utility and effectiveness of the approach remain (International Land Coalition, 2002). The underlying assumption of this policy is that landowners will subdivide and sell off portions of land to small producers who seek to establish family enterprises. The policy also assumes that the land market is conducive to small producers. This was not the case for beneficiaries of the Brazilian redistribution programme. Even though beneficiaries were offered subsidised loans for approximately 70% of the land purchase price, overly high transaction costs and a range of market failures inhibited the optimal allocation of land resources, thereby penalising the market opportunities of small producers (International Land Coalition, 2002).

Although the Brazilian government’s land redistribution programme had limited success in transferring land to the rural poor, the government failed to provide adequate support to the beneficiaries. Frank (2002) also postulates that the beneficiaries had little or no knowledge of how the programme functioned and that not all participants knew the terms of the loans or what interest they should be paying. Borras (2003:389) further contends that the

core process of the model focuses on ‘negotiation’ between the parties and that “it is inconceivable that a landless poor peasant can have the same degree of bargaining power as a rich landlord in negotiation for land purchase”.

Brazilian land redistribution was primarily targeting the agrarian sector. By placing the issue of land reform in a framework constructed through the land market, the Brazilian government and the World Bank have attempted to quell any discussion of the meaning of land redistribution that is separate from private property and commercial agricultural production. It has also not presented the landless poor with other livelihood choices. There is an urgency to redistribute land in Brazil but the government is not forward-looking. Some critics question what will bind future generations to the land that their parents and grandparents manage to secure through redistribution (Wagner, 2000). Lack of opportunities on redistributed land may force an exodus of youth into the cities to seek possibilities beyond agriculture.

Wagner (2000) contends that ecotourism¹⁷ may offer future possibilities for creating a diversified economic base in Brazil but notes that aggressive long-term planning, designing of appropriate educational and training programmes, securing adequate funding and developing the necessary infrastructure are necessary prior to embarking on ecotourism ventures. In general, Brazil’s tourism industry has steadily grown and in 2005, Brazil received approximately 5,5 million foreign visitors garnering just below four billion US dollars (“Brazilian Tourism”, 2005). Beach tourism is still the most popular tourism form in Brazil.

Brazilian tourism authorities have stated that ecotourism estates such as the Conservation International *Fazenda Rio Negro* project, a 7 700 hectare estate with its successful combination of nature conservation and tourism, have lured tourists to Brazil and will continue to do so if more estates of this type are developed (“Brazilian Tourism”, 2005). It is such initiatives that the officials

¹⁷ Chapter 3 discusses the concept of ecotourism as a component of sustainable tourism.

from Brazil's land reform ministry are investigating as alternative development options for its landless poor.

2.3 LAND REDISTRIBUTION IN NAMIBIA (1990-2005)

Namibia has experienced land dispossession through colonialism and apartheid similar to South Africa. Namibia also has similar land use patterns to Namaqualand in the Northern Cape, based primarily on pastoral agrarian style development (Boonzaaier, Berens, Malherbe & Smith, 1996). "Diversified strategies are essential in Namibia because of the semi-arid to arid conditions in which even the highest rainfall areas are marginal for rain-fed crop growing and drought is a common occurrence" (Ashley, Boyd & Goodwin, 2000:9).

2.3.1 Reasons for pursuing a land redistribution agenda

During the colonial period large tracts of agricultural land were expropriated for about 4 128 white commercial farmers while the indigenous farmers (120 000 households) were left to farm on marginal communal lands managed by traditional leaders (Ministry of Lands Resettlement and Rehabilitation, 2002). In 1990, Namibia obtained independence and the South West Africa People's Organisation (SWAPO) government announced its intention to "transfer some of the land from those with too much of it to the landless majority" (Adams & Devitt, 1991:10). The SWAPO government further agreed to a constitution in which the property of citizens could not be expropriated without just compensation. With the support of the opposition parties, it conducted a national consultation on the land question, culminating in the National Conference on Land Reform and the Land Question in Windhoek in June 1991 (Adams, 2000).

2.3.2 Land redistribution policies in Namibia

The 1994 SWAPO manifesto contained a commitment to allocate 20 million Namibian dollars a year for five years to the National Resettlement Policy (NRP) in terms of the Agricultural (Commercial) Land Reform Act, 1995 (Act No. 6 of 1995). The Act provided for the purchase and redistribution of

freehold farms, based on a willing seller, willing buyer principle. The government also adopted the following principles in relation to land redistribution (Jones, 2003):

- individuals on communal land with commercial farming aspirations should be assisted to buy freehold land and withdraw their livestock from communal land;
- unused land in communal areas should be opened up;
- land ownership that is not economical would be prohibited;
- foreign land ownership on commercial agricultural land would be limited; and
- excessive land ownership would be limited.

In terms of the Act, white farmers wanting to sell their land must first offer them to the government that will consider purchasing the farm at the stipulated price (willing-buyer-willing-seller). If the government decides not to purchase the farm, a waiver is issued to the seller that would allow the seller to sell the farm to anyone else. Table 2.1 presents the number of farms waived or purchased by the Ministry of Land from 1999 to 2003 (Sherbourne, 2004).

Table 2.1: Farms waived or purchased by Namibian Government

Year	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
Farms waived	142	118	96	102	125
Farms purchased	6	16	24	8	15
Farms bought as percentage of farms offered	4%	12%	20%	7%	11%

Most of the government farm purchases are advertised and interested people could apply to resettle on the acquired farms. People wanting to apply to the programme must demonstrate that they are landless but have livestock and/or an income. A regional resettlement committee assesses applications and makes recommendations to a national resettlement committee. Individuals will

be allocated certain parts of a farm (camps) and a 99-year right to utilise the land in terms of a contract signed between the individual and the Ministry of Lands, Resettlement and Rehabilitation (Sherbourne, 2004).

Another scheme initiated by the Namibian government in 1992 was the Affirmative Action Loan Scheme (AALS). Agribank, a state subsidised bank, provided subsidised loans to Namibians who possess more than 150 large stock units or 800 small stock units of livestock (Werner, 1999). The subsidised rates vary from 2% below prime for part-time farmers to 4% below prime for full-time farmers (Legal Assistance Centre, 2005). The aim of the AALS scheme is three-fold (Legal Assistance Centre, 2005):

- to promote the ownership of Namibian farmland by formerly disadvantaged Namibians;
- to encourage communal farmers with large livestock herds to move to commercial farmland to free communal land for smaller upcoming farmers; and
- to encourage formerly disadvantaged farmers to contribute to the country's economy.

Two contradictory views on the success of these schemes are illustrated. The one view, posited by Werner (1999), stated that the scheme showed positive results and the repayment of loans was on track, while a recent study by the Legal Assistance Centre of Namibia (2005) argued that the farmers were unable to meet their loan obligations and Agribank has repossessed a number of the farms. The Namibian Minister for Agriculture, Helmut Angula, also admitted in the Namibian Parliament in 2004 that the scheme had its faults claiming that poor cooperation between his Ministry and Agribank resulted in poor performance of the scheme (Dentlinger, 2004).

Almost half the recommendations of the 1991 National Conference related to the resolution of land-related issues in communal areas. Problems included (Adams, 2000):

- the need to guarantee land to local people,

- to abolish land allocation fees demanded by chiefs,
- to grant land to women in their own right,
- to establish a system of land administration,
- to control 'illegal fencing' of grazing areas,
- and to move the herds of wealthy farmers to commercial farms.

In response to the above-mentioned problems, the Namibian government promulgated the Communal Land Reform Act in 2002 (Act No. 50 of 2002) to modernise the allocation of rights in respect of communal land. Land Boards were established in terms of this Act, to aid land administration and delineate the powers of chiefs, traditional authorities and the Land Boards in relation to communal land (Adams, 2000). In a study conducted by Massyn, Corbett and Hailulu (2004), the authors established that land tenure in Namibia's communal areas is widely regarded as vulnerable.

It is this perception, especially amongst the private tourism companies and the banking sector, which is inhibiting acceptable tourism development on communal land. There appears to be uncertainty with regard to the rights of private tour operators (leaseholders) on such lands in the wake of the Communal Land Reform Act. One of the concerns focuses on the maximum period of lease that is limited to ten years and the Minister of Lands must approve any right of leasehold exceeding ten years (Massyn, Corbett & Hailulu, 2004). Ecotourism operators believe that fair lease periods for ecotourism generally range from 15 to 50 years (Mafisa, 2002). Fair lease periods can be negotiated with the Ministry of Lands but arguably, this is a necessary condition to ensure that historically disadvantaged Namibians obtain an equitable chance to embark on such ventures.

2.3.3 Challenges for Namibian land redistribution

Jones (2003) contends that Namibia's land redistribution strategy is problematic for the following reasons:

- the target groups for communal land access are deliberately vague to include anyone on communal land;

- a centralised bureaucracy that contributes to the slow pace of delivery; and
- there appears to be no specific plan for deciding which farms to purchase for the land acquisition programme.

There are also strong criticisms that the land reform efforts have favoured the elite of the country (bureaucrats and politicians) and therefore the policy encouraged nepotism (Pompey, 2005). In relation to the poorest of the population with land needs, the state purchased land to settle one or more families and only 1 500 families have actually benefited from this system which is well below the government's objectives to settle 240 000 people (Pompey, 2005). Participants in the land reform schemes are also not clear on their land tenure rights. There is often inadequate technical support, lack of skills of participants and, in many cases, a lack of infrastructure on the land.

One constraint as identified through a study done by Haring and Odendaal (2002) is the exclusion of other ministries such as the Ministry of Environment and Tourism in the land reform process. Tourism has become the country's third greatest source of hard currency (Pompey, 2005). Namibia essentially targets up-market tourism with animal safaris and tours into the Namib Desert. Adams (2000) clearly proposes that there is a need for creative solutions to the land-use problems posed by the need to achieve land reform in a semi-arid pastoral environment because the traditional pastoral agrarian land reform has reached its limitations. Despite the problems associated with the land reform in Namibia, the policy has considerable potential for promoting sustainable use of land, especially in relation to wildlife and tourism conservancies, but a clear plan on how to accomplish this has not been forthcoming from the Namibian Government.

2.4 LAND REDISTRIBUTION IN ZIMBABWE (1980-2005)

2.4.1 Reasons for pursuing a land redistribution agenda

Zimbabwean land dispossession began with the onset of imperialism and colonialism. Unlike South Africa, colonial European interest in Zimbabwe developed only in the late 19th Century when Cecil John Rhodes sent the first European settlers of farmers, artisans, miners, professionals and 300 police officers from South Africa to the area in 1890. Rhodes had three objectives for the region:

- to cut out Afrikaner influence in the interior of Southern Africa;
- to prospect for gold and other precious minerals; and
- to expand British influence in the region. (Centre for Housing Rights and Evictions, 2001).

Zimbabwe initially offered very little in terms of mineral wealth and the settlers soon turned towards farming. Mashonaland and Matabeleland were invaded and black Zimbabweans were confined to so-called 'tribal' or 'native' reserves. There was a systematic removal of land resources from the majority black community by the minority white community (Morombo, 2002). Colonial land laws such as the Land Apportionment Act and Land Husbandry Act relegated the black farming community to marginal land or communal areas in low rainfall areas (Morombo, 2002). In general, they were the least developed areas of Zimbabwe and at Independence, the new Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) government pledged to redress colonial imbalances through rural development initiatives and a land redistribution scheme (Drinkwater, 1991; Stoneman & Cliffe, 1989).

2.4.2 Land redistribution policies in Zimbabwe

The Lancaster House Agreement that was adopted at independence proved that established colonial entitlements were difficult to dislodge and hence the constitutional entrenchment of private property rights and the moratorium on

land (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). A 'sunset clause' inserted into the Agreement forced the Mugabe government:

- to afford special protection to white Zimbabweans for the first ten years after independence;
- not to engage in any compulsory land acquisition;
- to pay adequate compensation for any commercial farmland acquired from white Zimbabweans, and
- to acquire land in terms of the 'willing buyer', 'willing seller' approach (Centre for Housing Rights and Evictions, 2001).

In 1990, the Government of Zimbabwe pursued a land policy based on non-market principles based and the following objectives:

- to ensure equitable and socially just access to land resources;
- to democratise land tenure systems and ensure tenure security for all forms of land holdings;
- to provide for participatory processes of management in the use and planning of land; and
- to provide sustainable and efficient use and management of land (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991).

2.4.3 Challenges for Zimbabwean land redistribution

Despite the new laws, land resettlement and land acquisition had slowed down. In the first decade of independence, the Zimbabwean Government acquired 40% of the target of eight million hectares of land, resettling more than 50 000 families on more than three million hectares of land (Centre for Housing Rights and Evictions, 2001). By the end of the 1990s, the pace of land reform had declined and the government had settled 71 000 families (as opposed to the target of 162 000) on approximately 3,5 million hectares of land, of which only 19% was classed as prime agricultural land (Human Rights Watch, 2002). In parallel with the formal resettlement schemes, informal resettlement occurred in the decade after independence on under-populated communal areas, state-owned land and commercial farmland (Palmer 1990; Moyo 1995). The former reserves remained over-crowded and with poor

agricultural potential and people's livelihoods were primarily supplemented through dryland farming and livestock keeping but in some districts people remained poor despite a small remittance from farming (Cousins, Weiner & Amin, 1992). By 1999, 11 million hectares of prime agricultural land were still in the hands of approximately 4 500 primarily white commercial farmers (Human Rights Watch, 2002).

From the late 1990s up to 2000/2001, the War Veterans Movement in Zimbabwe began a systematic and often violent occupation of white-owned commercial farms after declaring their dissatisfaction with the land reform efforts. Newly resettled Zimbabweans were assigned plots of former commercial farmland without land titles. Instead, Zimbabweans were forced to lease the land from year to year from the government. With no means to borrow against the title deeds, the newly settled farmers could not obtain production loans for seeds or farming equipment (Richardson, 2005).

With the continued farm seizures, banks were reluctant to lend to the remaining commercial farmers whose land had been 'listed' for compulsory acquisition by the government or occupied by the war veterans (The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2003). Richardson (2005) estimates that from 1999 to 2000 approximately US\$5 billion in wealth vanished from the agricultural sector because of the farm seizures.

The ZANU Government formally adopted the Fast Track Land Reform Programme in 2001 and legitimised the process through its Constitution. Section 16(A) of the Zimbabwean Constitution now allowed, the President of Zimbabwe, Robert Mugabe, to extend the grounds on which land could be compulsorily acquired, absolved the government from providing fair compensation except for farm improvements and challenged the 'former colonial power' (Britain) to provide such compensation (Human Rights Watch, 2002). By 2003, the Zimbabwean government had acquired 6 422 farms or 10 million hectares of land via the Fast Track Programme (African Institute for Agrarian Studies, 2004).

The disorderly process of the ‘fast track’ land redistribution efforts “is not sustainable unless there is a stronger basis for optimism on the part of settlers about their future leading them to form viable community organisations aimed at ensuring the sustainability of [the] new settlements” (United Nations Development Programme, 2002:24). Disregard for the rule of law is ultimately more serious for poor black rural Zimbabweans than it is for white commercial farmers who are more likely to have the means to leave Zimbabwe and escape the violence (Human Rights Watch, 2002).

One positive difference between the current redistribution programme and the previous one adopted at independence in 1980 is that the current programme does not have a purely agrarian focus. The Land Reform Resettlement Programme and Implementation Plan Phase Two (Ministry of Lands, Agriculture and Rural Settlement, 2001) aim to:

- reduce the extent and intensity of poverty among rural families and farm workers by providing them with adequate land for agricultural use; and
- promote environmentally sustainable utilisation of land through agriculture and ecotourism following collective approach between the Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Lands, Agriculture and Rural Settlement.

This joint collaboration is an encouraging sign for rural communities in Zimbabwe who want to embark on sustainable tourism ventures on redistributed land. Given the lack of support from the current government, it would take humanitarian aid organisations such as the United Nations or development agencies such as the World Bank to assist in such developments. The South African Government and Southern African Development Community would need to play a facilitative role in this process to share best practices in relation to the process of negotiated land redistribution.

2.5 LAND REDISTRIBUTION IN SOUTH AFRICA (1994-2005)

Land ownership patterns in South Africa are skewed in terms of race. Unemployment is very high among blacks in the cities and in the former homelands. Over 13 million people are crowded into areas where rights to land are unclear and contested and where land administration is in disarray (Quan, 2002). While Brazil, Namibia and Zimbabwe are characterised by unequal distribution of agricultural land, the erstwhile apartheid government created a dual structure of highly mechanised white farms compared to the large overcrowded black homelands, dormitory towns and self-governing territories (Deininger & May, 2000; Mbeki, 1984).

The South African Government sought, through restitution, tenure reform and redistribution, to redistribute 30% of agricultural land by 1999 (Department of Land Affairs, 1997).¹⁸ As of 31 March 2005, less than 4% of land had been redistributed, although approximately 60 000 households received grants for land acquisition, mainly for shelter (Department of Land Affairs, 2005a).

2.5.1 Reasons for pursuing a land redistribution agenda

The *White Paper on South African Land Policy* (Department of Land Affairs, 1997) describes the purpose of the land redistribution programme as to provide poor (not defined) people with access to land for productive and residential use to improve their income and quality of life. The programme aims to assist various target groups such as women, farm workers and labour tenants as well as emergent black farmers. One of the outputs of the land redistribution programme, as stipulated in the *White Paper* (Department of Land Affairs, 1997), is to enhance household income security, employment and economic growth throughout the country.

The 'willing buyer willing seller' principle forms the basis for land redistribution and the government assists in the purchase of land through a subsidy. This is

¹⁸ See Chapter 1 for an explanation of each of the three programmes of the South African Land Reform Programme.

also termed market-assisted land reform based on advice from the World Bank that reflects the view that poor people are unable to finance land with mortgage loans because the market value of the land exceeds the value of what it is capable of producing (Binswanger, Deininger & Feder, 1993). In 1994, The World Bank further recommended the use of cash grants to aid historically disadvantaged farmers to finance land purchases based on their experiences in Latin America (Lyne & Darroch, 2003).

2.5.2 Land redistribution policies in South Africa

Between 1994 and 1999 the DLA pursued a policy of market liberalization in commercial agriculture and simultaneously implemented the settlement/land acquisition grant (SLAG) of R16 000 per beneficiary household.

2.5.2.1 The Settlement/Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG): 1994-1999

In typical SLAG projects numbers of households grouped together in order to be able to afford the purchase price of the property. Sometimes mortgage loans supplemented the grants if the grants alone could not make up the purchase price or if beneficiaries were interested in investing in joint ventures with white commercial farmers.

The SLAG approach presented the DLA with serious problems. The small size of the grant resulted in large group formations, often riddled with internal conflict and the creation of passive members that made no meaningful contribution to farm production. Bureaucratic processes within the DLA meant that the delivery rate of these projects was slow and project cycles sometimes ventured into years rather than months. By the end of 2000, the DLA had approved 484 projects in terms of the SLAG programme (Turner & Ibsen, 2000).

There was insufficient coordination between the provincial Land Affairs branches (known as Provincial Land Reform Offices, or PLROs) and the provincial Departments of Agriculture (PDAs); leading to poor to non-existent

post-transfer support to projects (Human Sciences Research Council, 2003a). This led the DLA to place a moratorium on the implementation of SLAG projects in 2000 and review the redistribution programme. The SLAG programme has been gradually phased out and in 2001, the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) sub-programme was launched.

The current redistribution programme can be divided into two components:

- a) *Agricultural development*: There are essentially two sub-programmes that fall within this ambit, i.e. LRAD and the commonage sub-programme. LRAD offers subsidies¹⁹ to aspirant subsistence or emergent farmers to purchase agricultural land from white farmers. However, one successful LRAD project has started a guesthouse on the farm as part of diversifying their farming operations. The commonage sub-programme assists district and local municipalities to purchase agricultural land for common agricultural use by their poor residents. There are no tourism ventures on commonage land. These two policies are developed for agricultural development and approximately 95% of the redistribution programme centres on it.
- b) *Non-agricultural development*: This aspect of the programme is not developed and not implemented according to a defined strategy as compared to the agricultural component. The DLA advances a R16 000 subsidy per household for settlement and non-agricultural activities such as 'ecotourism' (not defined in the policy). However, only the settlement aspect is actually implemented, as the demand comes from the provincial Departments of Housing and municipalities.

The majority (83,3%) of the redistribution projects embarked upon since 1994 have included an agrarian element (See Figure 2.1). The non-agricultural component (13,9%) that the graph illustrates is essentially settlement projects

¹⁹ LRAD provides subsidies on an individual basis to qualifying beneficiaries. The subsidies range from R20 000 to R100 000 and are based on own contribution in kind, labour and/or cash. It differs from the SLAG programme that was household-based (one grant per household). In this way a household may end up with two or more grants between R20 000 to R100 000, depending on that individual's own contribution.

undertaken since 1994. The 2,8% in terms of 'other' redistribution projects implemented under this programme has not been classified according to the statistics obtained from the DLA's monitoring and evaluation section.

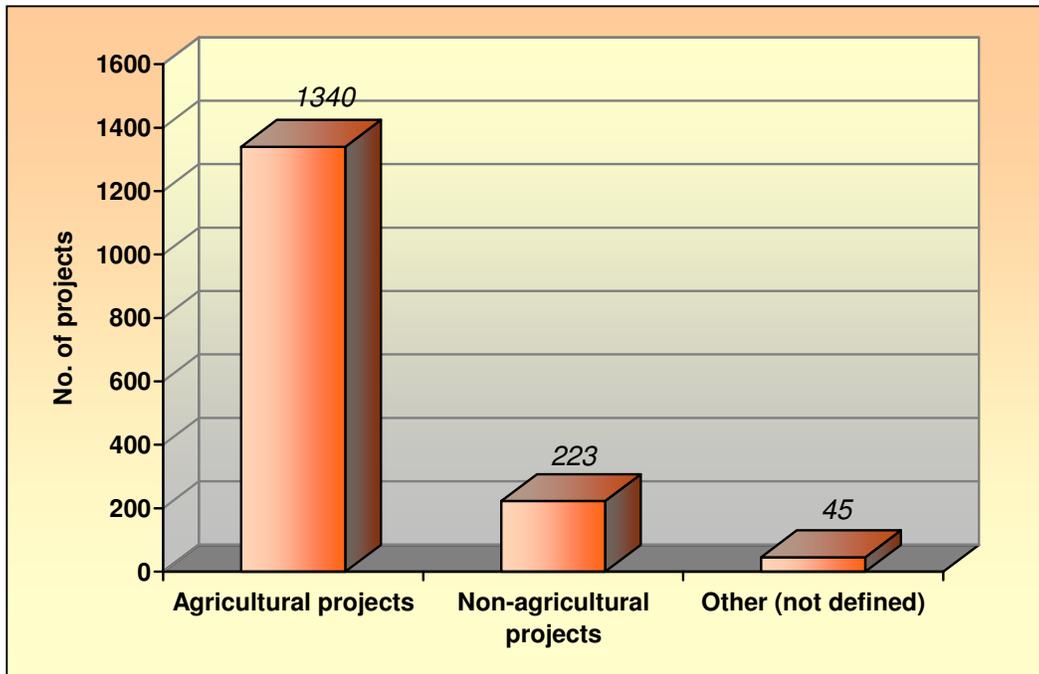


Figure 2.1: Comparison of agricultural and non-agricultural land redistribution projects as at March 2003

(Source: Department of Land Affairs, 2004)

2.5.2.2 Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD): 2001

The agreed objectives of the LRAD as reflected in the LRAD framework document (Ministry for Agriculture and Land Affairs, 2001) are to:

- increase access to agricultural land by black people (Africans, Coloureds, and Indians) and to contribute to the redistribution of approximately 30% of the country's commercial agricultural land (i.e. formerly 'white commercial farmland') over the duration of the programme (by 2014);
- contribute to relieving the congestion in over-crowded former homeland areas;
- improve nutrition and incomes of the rural poor who want to farm on any scale;

- overcome the legacy of past racial and gender discrimination in ownership of farmland;
- facilitate structural change over the long term by assisting black people who want to establish small and medium-sized farms;
- stimulate growth from agriculture;
- create stronger linkages between farm and off-farm income-generating activities;
- expand opportunities for promising young people who stay in rural areas;
- empower beneficiaries to improve their economic and social well-being;
- enable those presently accessing agricultural land in communal areas to make better productive use of their land; and
- promote environmental sustainability of land and other natural resources.

The DLA provides grants to essentially self-selected beneficiaries who qualify in terms of the LRAD eligibility criteria. This grant consists of a sliding scale of matching grants. The LRAD grant allows for black South African citizens to access land specifically for agricultural purposes, or to foster and improve agricultural development on land already accessed. The grant can be accessed, on an individual basis, on a pre-defined sliding scale from a minimum of R20 000 to a maximum of R100 000, depending on the participants' own contribution. The grant would be used to cover expenses such as land acquisition, land improvements, agricultural infrastructure investments, capital assets, short-term agricultural inputs and lease options.

The LRAD framework document claims that the LRAD is flexible enough to accommodate a range of project types but only within the agricultural value chain. The document does not state that projects with agrarian as well as other entrepreneurial initiatives would also be encouraged. It advocates full-time farming. The LRAD programme, as with the previous SLAG programme, is modelled on the neo-liberal approach of the World Bank. International lending agencies such as the World Bank and International

Monetary Fund made loans available to various low-income countries in return for reforms that favour market-oriented growth.

Fukuyama (1992) noted that this influenced the developing world to mimic the ‘first world’, so that it can catch up through adoption of the same kinds of economic and management techniques. However, the influences of such agencies are not necessarily negative and in some instances, they do have the ability to encourage economic modernisation in developing countries and to act as a regulatory force. The DLA has made positive strides in eliminating the policy and implementation mistakes of the SLAG programme. The table below highlights the differences in relation to the implementation of SLAG and LRAD projects.

Table 2.2: The differences between the Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG) programme and the Land Redistribution for Agricultural Development (LRAD) sub-programme

SLAG PROJECTS	LRAD PROJECTS
A grant amount of R16 000 per household	Grants of R20 000 to R100 000 per individual
Own contribution not required	Own contribution is required
SLAG is linked to the housing subsidy register	LRAD grant is de-linked from the housing subsidy
Grants allocated to households	Grants allocated to individuals
Planning grants of 9% of the grant amount (R16 000)	Planning grant of 15% of the total LRAD project costs
No graduation in grant size	Graduation in grant size up to R100 000 for individuals who need more land and have not accessed the full R100 000 grant
Implementation over-centralized	Implementation decentralised to provinces and district offices within provinces
Covers all land reform projects	Specific to productive land-use agricultural projects

(Source: Mokoena & Thomas, 2001)

2.5.2.3 Challenges for the South African land redistribution programme in terms of the LRAD sub-programme

In the development of the LRAD sub-programme, the government consulted very broadly with a range of role-players. The policy was not extensively debated at local community level and has largely ignored the multiple livelihood strategies of rural people. In fact, some dissidents would deem the LRAD as 'anti-poor'. However, a recent study on the efficacy of the grant system for LRAD, revealed that the majority of the grant beneficiaries are people from rural areas, primarily employed as farm labourers or unemployed (Department of Land Affairs, 2003b). The study also showed that people who had invested more own contribution in the form of capital and assets were progressing at a better rate than the farmers who had accessed the R20 000 entry-level grant (with labour as own contribution). The farmers who had accessed the entry level grant were in fact engaging in non-farming activities such as brick-making and *spaza* (informal) shops and earned incomes from off-farm employment such as working on other farms to supplement household incomes and subsidise farming activities (Department of Land Affairs, 2003b).

“Should sustainability problems develop around livelihoods aspects of land reform, the importance of developing alternative delivery modes under LRAD would increase accordingly.” (Human Sciences Research Council, 2003a:73). McCusker (2001), writing on the livelihood systems of five rural communities who received land through the land redistribution programme in Polokwane, noted that only 17% of the respondents stated that farming provided them with either 'some' or 'most' of their family's income. The other activities that these people engage in include handicrafts, beer brewing, traditional healing and selling petty commodities. At least 21% derived their income from working on neighbouring farms while 13% depended on pensions to supplement their household income (McCusker, 2001).

One of the major criticisms of the LRAD sub-programme is the lack of adequate post-transfer support to grant beneficiaries after they have settled

on the farms (Hall, Jacobs & Lahiff, 2003; Human Sciences Research Council, 2003a). Provincial Departments of Agriculture and local municipalities have not properly integrated these isolated pockets of settlement into local planning processes and therefore basic services such as water, sanitation and electricity as well as agricultural services such as extension are not available to the majority of the LRAD beneficiaries (Department of Land Affairs, 2003b; Human Sciences Research Council, 2003a).

The DLA appears to be committed to providing post-transfer support and to better coordinate activities so that key stakeholders could be roped into assisting in the provision of services and technical support. One of the starting points will be the DLA's active participation in the IDP forums and the development and signing of service level agreements amongst the applicable role-players (Department of Land Affairs, 2003a; Department of Land Affairs, 2005a). This commitment still appears to be on paper and significant inroads towards implementation of these deliverables must now be made if the DLA wants to meet its target of the redistribution of 30% of commercial agricultural land by 2014.

2.5.2.4 DLA's commonage sub-programme: 1997-

Commonage can be defined as follows: "commonage or common pasture lands are lands adjoining a town or village over which the inhabitants of such town or village either have a servitude of grazing for their stock, and more rarely, the right to cultivate a certain portion of such lands, or in respect of which the inhabitants have conferred upon them by regulation certain grazing rights" (Dönges & Van Winsen, 1953:303). In South Africa, it is essentially land set aside for communal agricultural usage but owned by the local or district municipalities.

Historically, municipalities administered commonage agricultural land for the benefit of white residents. A system for commonage management, including provision for the allocation and administration of rights to use commonage, was developed and maintained over many decades. From around the 1950s

municipalities stopped making commonages available to white residents and leased it to commercial farmers to generate income (Department of Land Affairs, 2005b).

Since 1996, through the Government's land reform programme, municipalities have approached the DLA for financial and technical support to acquire and develop land as an economic resource for poor black residents. According to the *White Paper on South African Land Policy* (Department of Land Affairs, 1997:48), "In large parts of the country, in small rural towns and settlements, poor people need to gain access to grazing land and small arable/garden areas in order to supplement their income and to enhance household food security." In addition, the Department of Land Affairs sought to encourage local authorities to develop conditions that would enable poor residents to access existing commonage, currently used for other purposes.

The Department also pledged to provide funds to enable resource-poor municipalities to acquire additional land for this purpose. In 1996, the DLA initiated its first commonage project in the town Pofadder in the Northern Cape. The DLA agreed to buy out an existing commonage lease concluded with a white commercial farmer on condition that the Pofadder municipality undertook to make the commonage available to members of a black small farmers association (Anderson & Pienaar, 2003; Department of Land Affairs, 2005b). Since then the Department has embarked on more than 150 commonage projects throughout the country but with the majority being implemented in the Northern Cape primarily due to high land prices in the Northern Cape.²⁰

A clear distinction should be made between traditional commonage and commonage land purchased in terms of the land redistribution programme. In relation to traditional commonage, municipalities are sanctioned to set aside land they own for the pasturage of stock and for the purposes of establishing food gardens (Anderson & Pienaar, 2003). In relation to the DLA commonage

²⁰ Section 5.3 discusses this further in relation to land reform in the Northern Cape.

programme, the primary aim is to provide access to land for supplementing income and to act as a 'nursery' for the emergent farmers. The underlying principles are as follows (Department of Land Affairs, 2000):

- there must be an identified community (users), that articulates a need for additional land for a specified and identified agricultural need;
- land provided through the commonage programme is not for ownership but allows access to land;
- this means that a legal person i.e. the municipality will be the legal owner of the land, with the identified user getting access to land for agricultural purposes;
- providing land for a municipality must be included in the district plan; and
- ownership will vest with the municipality and a management committee will administer and monitor the use of the land.

Many people such as the evicted or unemployed farm workers drift to nearby towns and because of their agricultural background look to commonages as a basis for eking out a living in these towns (Atkinson, 2005). Commonages have therefore become a strategic resource that can foster pro-poor development.

2.5.2.5 Challenges for the South African land redistribution programme in terms of the commonage sub-programme

Some of the criticisms levelled at DLA commonage projects are:

- municipalities do not integrate commonage projects into their IDPs and refer to them as 'unfunded mandates';
- municipalities do not have sufficient capacity to manage commonages in a sustainable way;
- there is no post-land transfer-support to enable beneficiaries to successfully farm on commonage land and to build municipal capacity to manage the land (Anderson & Pienaar, 2003);

- “they make municipalities poorer because municipalities now have to divert scarce resources to negotiate, organise and maintain the new asset” (Heartland and Karoo Research Institute, 2005:6);
- people would prefer to own land rather than lease it;
- the commonage policy is inflexible and does not provide scope for a multiple/sustainable livelihoods approach; and
- no monitoring and evaluation system is in place, therefore users and free-riding non-users consequently overgraze the land and degrade the natural resource thereby encouraging Hardin’s ‘tragedy of the commons.’²¹

While the government is chasing a target of redistributing 30% of commercial agricultural land by 2014, the questions of what type of projects are being delivered and their contribution to the socio-economic growth of rural people remain to be answered. In relation to the commonage sub-programme, a small farmer, once he/she has managed to secure enough ‘own contribution’, can enter the LRAD sub-programme to develop as a commercial farmer. The commonage sub-programme is silent on any other livelihood strategies that could be implemented on commonage land. The study argues that such silence promotes the agricultural sector as the sole provider for rural households.

What this means for policymakers and strategists is that any pro-poor development should first undertake a detailed analysis of social relations in a particular context and, secondly, understand that the modes of livelihoods that typically prevail both within households and between households are highly diverse. Many people amongst rural farming communities derive a part-livelihood from farming, a part from migrant labour/mining and a part from other activities such as arts and crafts.

²¹ Hardin (1968) postulated that pastures or public spaces such as national parks open to all without restrictions degrade the resource. In relation to agricultural commonages, Hardin contends that the tragedy lies in forcing individuals to increase their livestock without limit “in a world that is limited. Ruin is the destination toward which all men rush, each pursuing his own best interest in a society that believes in the freedom of the commons. Freedom in a commons brings ruin to all” (1968:4). Hardin concludes that the commons should actually be privatised and felt that this would result in sound environmental and ecological management. However, the study does not agree with Hardin’s sentiments and argues that private property ownership does not equal sound environmental practices.

The study notes that there is a close correlation between the diverse modes of livelihood and the idea of diversification and sustainability of livelihoods over time amongst farming communities. Bryceson (1999) contends that in sub-Saharan Africa, 60% to 80% of rural household income in the late 1990s was derived from non-farming sources. However, it is not only poor households that are forced to diversify, but also 'richer' households, for example, some businesspersons who are 'weekend farmers'. Such trends have led to the coining of the term 'sustainable livelihoods'.

The phrase 'sustainable livelihoods' was formulated by Robert Chambers and others through a research programme undertaken by the Institute of Development Studies at Sussex, involving work in Bangladesh, Ethiopia and Mali in the mid-1980s and further developed by Chambers and Conway in 1991 (Chambers & Conway, 1991). Both Scoones (1998:5) and Carney (1998:4) have adapted Chambers' definition of the concept of sustainable livelihoods to read as follows "a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future while not undermining the natural resource base".

The sustainable livelihoods approach recognises the importance of policies and institutions in governing poor people's access to livelihoods assets and in influencing their livelihood strategies. Pasteur (2001) contends that livelihoods analysis involves identifying and understanding the assets and options available to poor people and the vulnerability context within which they operate.

2.6 SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT AND LAND REDISTRIBUTION

Since the emergence of land redistribution in southern Africa from the 1980s onwards (South Africa and Namibia in the 1990s), the question of sustainable land redistribution has plagued development planners. In 2003, the DLA developed a framework for accelerating land reform for 'sustainable

development'. This framework recognised how important it was that the implementation of a sustainable land reform programme is dependent on an integrated approach to land reform, in close collaboration with key government and non-governmental stakeholders (Department of Land Affairs, 2003a). A think-tank on land reform in southern Africa, held in 2003, revealed that there is a general misfit between land redistribution policy and rural development. The current government is pursuing a compensatory (30% target) rights-based approach to land reform rather than a sustainable development approach (Human Sciences Research Council, 2003b).

Sustainable development clearly embraces the environment, people and economic systems (Hunter, 1997; Murphy, 1995; Swarbrooke, 1999). Hunter (1997) outlines eight key issues in the interpretation of sustainable development:

- the role of economic growth in promoting human well-being;
- the impact and importance of human population growth;
- the effective existence of environmental limits to growth;
- the substitutability of natural resources (capital) with human-made capital created through economic growth and technical innovation;
- the differential interpretation of the criticality of various components of the natural resource base and, therefore, the potential for substitution;
- the ability of technologies (including management methods such as environmental auditing) to decouple economic growth and unwanted environmental side-effects;
- the meaning of the value attributed to the natural world and the rights of non-human species, and
- the degree to which a systems (ecosystems) perspective should be adopted and the importance of maintaining the functional integrity of ecosystems.

Table 2.3 outlines an adaptation of Murphy's (1995) components for sustainable development, based on the Brundtland Report mentioned in

Chapter 1 and draws a comparison of the components to the land redistribution policies of Brazil, Namibia, Zimbabwe and South Africa.

In all four case studies, land redistribution does not fare favourably in relation to the components of sustainable development and more of the sustainable development components need to be integrated into the policies. It is acknowledged that the components cited in the table primarily focuses on the environmental issues more than the economic and social components and that these components should also be incorporated into a land reform agenda.

Table 2.3: Comparing the main components of sustainable development with current land redistribution policy and implementation

Sustainable Development Component	Brazil	Namibia	Zimbabwe	South Africa
Setting ecological limits and equitable standards	No environmental guidelines for land redistribution	No environmental guidelines for land redistribution	No environmental guidelines for land redistribution	Environmental guidelines exist but not integrated into the planning processes
Redistribution of economic activity and reallocation of resources	81 000 families settled instead of 115 000 families	9 000 people settled instead of 240 000 people	Violent occupation of 6422 farms with minimal benefits to poor Zimbabweans	3 million hectares of land redistributed instead of 12 million hectares as at 2005
Conservation of basic resources	None	None	None	Environmental guidelines ignored.
Community control	Limited	Limited	None	Limited
Broad national/international policy framework	Lack of integration of planning for land redistribution with other sustainable development initiatives	Lack of integration of planning for land redistribution with other sustainable development initiatives	Lack of integration of planning for land redistribution with other sustainable development initiatives	Lack of integration of planning for land redistribution with other sustainable development initiatives
Economic viability	The government provides subsidised loans to kick-start farming operations but many of the projects have not been economically viable	The government provides subsidised loans to kick-start farming operations but many of the projects have not been economically viable	The government allocates farms but do not provide support. Only a few have benefited while the majority of the rural poor have not	The government provides grants to kick-start farming operations but because of the limited grant size, many farming operations have not been economically viable

2.7 STRATEGIC LESSONS FOR SOUTH AFRICA'S LAND REDISTRIBUTION PROGRAMME

The South African land redistribution programme can draw some strategic lessons from the case studies cited in this chapter. The Ministries responsible for land reform in Brazil, Namibia and Zimbabwe have acknowledged the deficiencies of their agrarian-driven land reform efforts and the literature has depicted that the balance between redistributive justice and sustainable economic development has been difficult to attain in these countries. However, the above-mentioned governments have recognised the deficiencies in their land redistribution policies, one of them being the non-alignment of the policies with other sustainable development options such as tourism.

The Brazilian government has noted that the concept of ecotourism estates can successfully blend the sustainable tourism and land redistribution concepts, but with long-term planning, sufficient funding and the necessary skills development programmes. The Namibian government has not only conceded that traditional pastoral agrarian land reform has reached its limitations but has constructively begun developing the idea of sustainable tourism through conservancies as a possible alternative strategy for this semi-arid region. These research findings are also pertinent for Namaqualand because of the environmental and land-use similarities between these regions.

Zimbabwe can perhaps impart the most significant lesson in integration of development objectives despite the country's chaotic approach to land redistribution. The Zimbabwean government has made a significant policy shift by promoting ecotourism through its Land Reform Resettlement Programme even though the policy is not yet at implementation phase.

In South Africa, municipalities own commonages and it therefore becomes incongruous for the exclusion of this resource from the IDP planning processes. The criticisms levelled at the DLA commonage and LRAD sub-

programmes and the issues relating to the sustainability of land redistribution projects should have been addressed in a well-constructed integrated commonage sector plan as a chapter of the local IDPs. A commonage sector plan is a plan that contains concrete and specific project proposals relating to land reform in respect of quantitative and qualitative targets, timing, location, costs and responsible implementing agencies. Leading from the conceptual framework (Section 3.10), Section 3.11 outlines the key elements contained in municipal IDPs that form the basis of a commonage sector plan for sustainable tourism and the planning guidelines posited in Chapter 7. An integrated approach would have better informed the municipalities and the DLA of other potential uses or livelihood options for commonage users.

2.8 CONCLUSION

This chapter profiled the land redistribution policies of four developing countries. It attempted to show that the social, political and economic value of land redistribution is necessary but complex. It also illustrated that agriculture is the cornerstone of such policies in all four countries. While land redistribution in Brazil, Namibia, Zimbabwe and South Africa were based on addressing land disparities, the literature has demonstrated that the balance between redistributive justice and sustainable economic development has been difficult to strike. Land policies that started with good intentions have not been aligned to other national priorities and developmental objectives.

This chapter has confirmed that redistributive land reform in Brazil, Namibia, Zimbabwe and South Africa has inadequately integrated sustainability issues into the policies and that there remain countless challenges. The literature has highlighted that sustainable tourism should be considered as one of the major land-uses and should be integrated into the land reform agendas of these developing nations. It therefore leads to the conclusion that, unless land redistribution policies move away from a primarily agrarian focus, some land redistribution projects will become unsustainable, thereby leaving land reform beneficiaries without a sustainable future.

The next chapter presents the key debates on sustainable tourism, including the sustainability of tourism in peripheral and desert areas, its relevance for land redistribution through commonages in Namaqualand and the integration of these concepts through the IDP tool.

Chapter 3

RELEVANCE OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM FOR LAND REDISTRIBUTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 discussed the concept of land redistribution and concluded that a purely agrarian focus of such a strategy in South Africa would render future land reform efforts on commonages unsustainable. The international case studies in Chapter 2 provided further evidence that the integration of sustainable tourism through the IDPs into the commonage sub-programme would be able to create a diversified economic base and sustainable livelihoods.

The purpose of Chapter 3 is to ascertain the relevance of sustainable tourism for land redistribution and to establish how sustainable tourism could influence the macro-economy (economic policies), micro-economy (livelihoods), society and the environment. The chapter further discusses two subsets of sustainable tourism, ecotourism and sustainable tourism through Community-based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM), because these tourism forms also necessitate numerous hectares of land-use in peripheral areas. These tourism forms are also discussed because the study acknowledged in Section 1.4.2 that sustainable tourism is a broad and imprecise development concept and the intention is therefore to harness as many of its broad principles for land redistribution.

Tourism in peripheral areas was also examined because land reform primarily targets peripheral areas and the case-study area of Namaqualand can be defined as a peripheral area. Namaqualand has also been classified as a semi-desert region and therefore the inclusion of the section on desert tourism where the question of whether sustainable tourism can be attained in desert and peripheral areas is answered through three different case studies. The

chapter concludes with a discussion on the conceptual framework and the relevance of sustainable tourism for commonage development.

3.2 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM AS A TOOL FOR MACRO-ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

Tourism is the leading economic driver for the 21st Century (Ashley *et al.*, 2000; Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology, 1999; Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996; Heath, 2001; Knowles, Diamantis & El-Mourhabi, 2001; Swarbrooke, 1999; Tourism South Africa, 2003). The World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) generally estimate tourism's direct and indirect contribution at 11% of the gross domestic product (Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology, 1999). South Africa's tourism growth is expected to increase and to make a significant contribution of between 10% and 20% by 2010 (Department of Arts, Culture, Science and Technology, 1999).

Worldwide arrivals have grown from 613 million in 1997 to 700 million in 2000, with projections of 1 billion in 2010, and 1.6 billion in 2020 (Knowles *et al.*, 2001). As with other development options, this type of development fosters both positive and negative impacts. Saarinen (2006) notes that by recognising and managing the negative impacts of sustainable tourism, the goals of sustainable development can be achieved.

3.2.1 Positive macro-economic impacts of sustainable tourism

According to the World Bank figures, the top ten economies are likely to be dominated by the Asian countries of China, Japan, India, Indonesia, Germany, South Korea, Thailand and Taiwan (Heath, 2001). Strategically, tourism industries are adapting in order to succeed. Within the hospitality industry, for instance, the Marriott chain of hotels increased its supply of hotel rooms in 1999 in the Asian region (Korea, Thailand, Indonesia and Malaysia) from 3 700 to 21 000 in order to keep up with the Asian boom (Knowles *et al.*, 2001). The Asian boom has resulted in a discernable class of Asian travellers

with disposable income touring other developing countries (including South Africa).

Further macro-economic benefits of sustainable tourism as compiled by Swarbrooke (1999:10) from the *Globe '90 Conference* include:

- contributing to improving a country's balance of payments;
- ensuring a fair distribution of benefits and costs;
- generating local employment, both directly in the tourism sector and in various support and resources management sectors;
- Seeking decision-making among all segments of the society, including local populations, so that tourism and other resource-users can co-exist; incorporating planning and zoning which ensure tourism development appropriate to the carrying capacity of the ecosystem;
- creating recreational facilities that can be used by local communities as well as domestic and international visitors; and
- encouraging and providing funds for the preservation of archaeological sites and historic buildings and districts.

Sustainable tourism encourages through nature tourism ventures productive use of land that may be marginal for agriculture, enabling large tracts to remain covered in natural vegetation. Environmentally sustainable tourism also demonstrates the importance of natural and cultural resources to a country's economic and social well-being and this can help to preserve them. As the environment is a basic component of the tourism industry's assets, tourism is utilised as a yardstick to measure the economic value of protected areas. An example is the Dorrigo National Park in New South Wales, Australia that contributes an estimated 7% of the gross regional output and 8,4% of regional employment (United Nations Environment Programme, 2002).

3.2.2 Negative macro-economic impacts of sustainable tourism

Sustainable tourism ventures can have similar negative macro-economic impacts on host communities in less developed countries as with host

communities in developed countries (United Nations Environment Programme, 2002). One direct consequence of this is leakage.

“Where tourist food is imported, luxury hotels are foreign-owned and holidays paid for as ‘all inclusive’ in a tourist’s country of origin, local communities and businesses do not benefit and are excluded from the supply chain. Tourism revenue does not reach them. This phenomenon is known as ‘leakage’ (See Figure 3.1) and sometimes as little as 10% of total tourist spending reaches the destination or ‘host’ community” (World Wide Fund, 2001).

There are two types of leakages: import and export leakages. In terms of import leakage food, drink or equipment is imported to meet the standards of tourists. The United Nations Conference on Trade and Development reported that, on average, import-related leakage are between 40% and 50% of gross tourism earnings for small economies and between 10% and 20% for developed economies (United Nations Environment Programme, 2002).

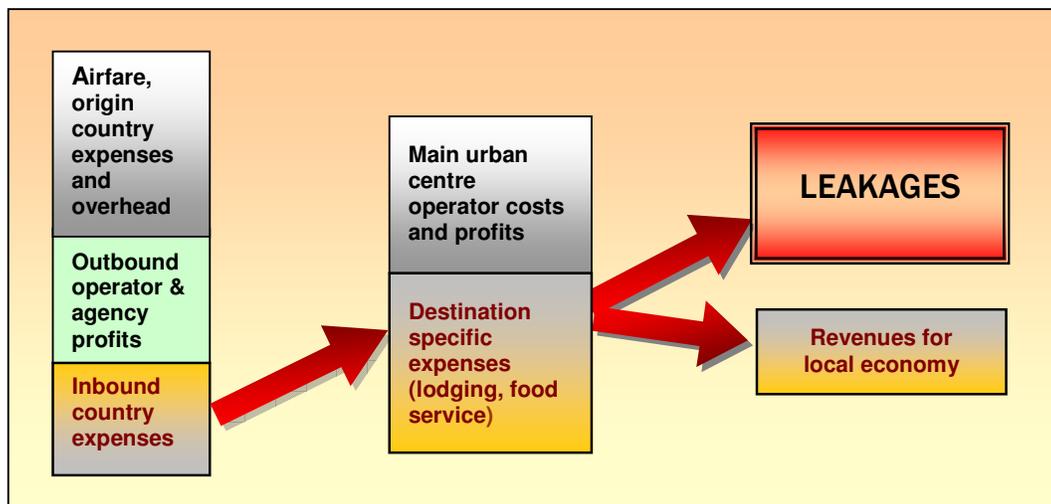


Figure 3.1: How leakages occur

(Source: United Nations Environment Programme, 2002:2)

A 1996 United Nations report evaluating the contribution of tourism to national income and foreign exchange found significant leakage connected to the import of materials and equipment for construction, import of consumer goods, repatriation of profits earned by foreign investors, overseas promotional

expenditures and amortization of external debt incurred in the development of hotels and resorts (Barnwell, 2000). It is, however, not clear whether the leakage effect and the supposed high level of foreign ownership are greater problems in tourism than in other sectors (Bennett, Roe & Ashley, 1999).

Other negative economic impacts include the cost of developing infrastructure, the Gautrain and upgrading of Johannesburg International Airport being two local examples, and increasing prices for basic services and goods as tourists often cause price hikes that negatively affect local residents. The seasonal nature of the tourism industry also presents problems to economies that are heavily reliant on the tourism industry.

3.3 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM FOR MICRO-ECONOMIC (LIVELIHOODS) DEVELOPMENT

Sustainable tourism affects the livelihoods of the rural poor economically, environmentally, socially and culturally. “Such impacts are not inevitable, will not occur in each place, and will affect different poor people within an area” (Bennett, Roe & Ashley, 1999:53). Ashley *et al.* (2000) contend that sustainable tourism should be viewed as a part of a diversification strategy of poor rural communities and not as a substitute.

Communities that have few livelihood options may risk becoming too heavily dependent on tourism and this is not necessarily wise, since the tourism industry is also characterised by risk and uncertainty. Conversely, if sustainable tourism is of little significance to the livelihoods of the communities, then their level of commitment to a partnership is likely to be low. Successful involvement in a sustainable tourism venture requires the community to be able to take on, and absorb, some of the risk associated with the industry but at the same time to have sufficient incentive to put effort and energy into the venture (Roe, Grieg-Gran & Schalken, 2001).

3.3.1 Ways in which sustainable tourism can affect livelihood security

Table 3.1 is based on the livelihoods framework to aid in illustrating how sustainable tourism can affect the many components of people’s lives in terms of their opportunities, other livelihood strategies and assets.

Table 3.1: Ways in which sustainable tourism can affect livelihood security

Sustainable tourism’s affect on	Possible <u>positive</u> impact	Possible <u>negative</u> impact
Livelihood goals	Support livelihood goals and create social spin-offs such as cultural or heritage sites that encourage local people to preserve their cultures	Undermine economic security, self-determination and health, e.g. by creating dependency on a volatile industry
Livelihood activities	Expand economic options and complement other activities in terms of earnings in agricultural lean season	Conflicts with other activities such as agriculture if land and natural resources are utilised for tourism development
Capital assets	Build up assets (natural, physical, financial, human and social)	Erodes assets
Policy and institutional environment	Improves the context or residents’ ability to influence it	Exacerbate policy constraints. Policy-makers may adopt a silo-approach
Long-term livelihood priorities	‘Fits’ with people’s underlying long-term priorities. Diversification of risk in agricultural sector in times of drought could be one way of accomplishing this	Creates or exacerbates threats to long-term security, e.g. wildlife tourism can have much more devastating effect on the environment than agricultural activities such as livestock farming

(Source: Ashley & Roe, 1998; Carney, 1998)

3.3.2 Ways in which sustainable tourism supports or conflicts with Other livelihood activities

3.3.2.1 Supports other livelihood options in Namibia

While the interests of the Namibian government focuses on the macro-economic objectives of sustainable tourism there has been growing interest in the contribution of sustainable tourism to *local development*. The main tourism product in Kunene and Caprivi in Namibia is wildlife. Tourism enterprises are

generally lodges, safari camps, campsites, and the associated service enterprises. Tourism in communal areas, and particularly community involvement in tourism, has been actively promoted since the 1990s, both by Government and NGOs (Ashley *et al.*, 2000). Ashley *et al.* (2000) demonstrate in Table 3.2 how sustainable tourism supports other livelihood activities in Namibia.

Table 3.2: How sustainable tourism supports other livelihood activities in Namibia

Livelihood activity	Complementarities between tourism and other activities
Livestock	Cash for investing in herds Jobs near farm so tourism worker can continue as farmer Cash in dry years limits livestock de-stocking Can boost community management of rural natural resources, including grazing
Agriculture (crops)	Cash for investment
Rural natural resource harvesting	Can boost community management of rural natural resources
Employment in small enterprise	Transferable skills Market expansion
Livelihood strategy:	
Cope with drought Diversify and minimise risk Maintain liquidity and flexibility.	Income continues in drought Additional livelihood opportunity

(Source: Ashley & Roe, 1998)

3.3.2.2 Conflicts with other livelihood options in Indonesia and Ethiopia

There are cases where the communities lost access to local natural resources and their livelihoods because of sustainable tourism ventures. In Bali, Indonesia, prime agricultural land and water supplies have been diverted for large hotels and golf courses while at Pangandaran (Java, Indonesia), village beach land, traditionally used for grazing, repairing boats and nets, and festivals, was sold to entrepreneurs for the development of a five-star hotel (Shah, 2000).

Another example of this type of sustainable tourism planning at the expense of communities' livelihoods is the development of the five-star Sheraton Hotel in Addis Ababa, Ethiopia, where about 40 families were moved from the site to build the hotel. The relocated people were offered substandard bamboo housing in redress for their traditional wooden homes and many lost their previous livelihoods growing mangoes and rice for the local markets (Smith & Duffy, 2003).

3.3.3 Livelihoods and the pro-poor tourism angle

Linked to the livelihoods debate is the pro-poor angle. Scholars such as Ashley, Goodwin and Roe (2001) contend that tourism is more pro-poor than other rural development strategies. Pro-poor tourism (PPT) is defined very broadly as 'tourism that generates net benefits to the poor'. Benefits may be economic but they may also be social, environmental and/or cultural. Tourism's strong contribution to economic growth is evident, but development thinking increasingly recognises that growth is necessary but not sufficient to eliminate poverty. PPT differs from but overlaps with ecotourism and community-based tourism (Ashley *et al.*, 2001).

Strategies for PPT focus on three areas, increased economic benefits, non-economic impacts and policy processes. In relation to economic benefits, businesses and employment opportunities for the poor are expanded and it goes beyond the project areas into the wider community. Strategies focusing on the non-economic impacts include capacity building initiatives and empowerment of individual members of the community and lastly strategies focusing on reforming policy processes include an integrated planning framework and supportive measures that promote participation of people in decision-making processes that concern their development (Ntshona & Lahiff, 2003).

Different forms of tourism will have varying impacts on land redistribution beneficiaries. There appears to be no single answer to the question 'what type of tourism generates most opportunities for the poor?' Tourism opportunities

are varied, so there is need for an assessment of land redistribution projects in each location to identify which sector(s) to support. However, because land redistribution is linked to natural resource management in rural areas, some common forms of tourism have emerged that can be utilised in this context, such as ecotourism and sustainable tourism through Community-based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM).

3.4 SOCIO-CULTURAL IMPACTS OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

3.4.1 Positive socio-cultural impacts

The San people of Namibia and aboriginal people of Australia recently regained management or ownership of traditional national park land and conservancies, operating eco-lodges and serving as guides and rangers while maintaining their heritage (United Nations Environment Programme, 2002). Recognition of the role and importance of the development of world peace through tourism was declared through the “Columbia Charter”, that was prepared at the First Global Conference: *Tourism - a Vital Force for Peace*, held in Vancouver in 1988 (Institute for Peace through Tourism, 1988). The late U.S President, John F. Kennedy, remarked in 1963 on the world significance of tourism becoming one of the great forces of peace in this age (Theobald, 1998).

The political perspective on tourism and world peace focuses on tourism as a promoter of national integration and international understanding, goodwill and peace. This perspective acknowledges the importance of tourism as a means of establishing and improving political relations with other countries. This point was illustrated by the manner in which China opened its doors to the Western world in the 1970s. This has subsequently resulted in the British handing over Hong Kong (a British Protectorate) to China in 1998. It can be said that political stability, improved relations between nations and international peace accelerate travel and tourism.

Another positive impact of sustainable tourism occurs when the host communities’ reinforce their culture and traditions. This can lead to the

conservation and sustainable management of natural resource assets and the revitalisation of local heritage, culture and arts and crafts. Sustainable tourism also encourages civic involvement and pride by raising local awareness of the financial value of cultural and natural sites and the stimulation of cultural pride even amongst the youth. The involvement of local communities cannot be adequately stressed, as this is a necessary pre-condition for the success of any sustainable tourism venture (United Nations Environment Programme, 2002).

3.4.2 Negative socio-cultural impacts

Sustainable tourism can cause change or loss of local culture and values through:

- *Commodification*
Local cultures and religious festivals are turned into commodities to conform to tourist expectations. An example of this is the Hindu festival of Shivarathri held on the island of Mauritius each February where thousands of pilgrims flock to the island on the pretext of religious absolution and the local communities' trade in religious goods on or near religious sites.
- *Standardization*
Local cultures try to standardise accommodation, food and landscape so that the surroundings would not be too strange or new for tourists. In this way, their cultures adapt to what the tourists require.
- *Loss of authenticity and staged authenticity*
Adaptations of cultural expressions and manifestations to the tastes of tourists or even staging shows as if they were 'real life', constitutes staged authenticity. An example of this is the traditional Zulu dancers on the KwaZulu-Natal beachfront. However, there may be cases where "historical and cultural staging may succeed in presenting the visitor with the salient features of the community while also reducing the need

for encroachment on the private space of the host population” (Bramwell & Lane, 1993: 24).

- *Adaptation to tourist demands*
Cultural erosion may occur when the demand for souvenirs, arts and crafts and other cultural items grow and local communities adapt their wares to suit the tourists’ demands.
- *Prioritisation of economic considerations over environmental considerations*
Communities that live close to nature may find that an increase in tourism in their communities may allow them to become lax in the monitoring of tourist behaviour in natural areas in their communities because they fear that if they impose strict rules the tourist-numbers would dwindle.
- *Loss of decision-making in government run community-based sustainable tourism ventures*
Government-run programmes often mislead communities into thinking that decision-making in terms of the ventures lie within the community but in reality, planning and ultimately implementation still vests with the government body. This ultimately leads to a loss of interest on the part of the community to manage the venture in a sustainable manner.
- *Cultural clash with tourists*
An increase in tourism in areas with indigenous populations may lead to cultural clashes, especially if the communities begin to view the tourists as interlopers.
- *Job level friction*
Sustainable tourism ventures result in job creation in local communities but also job friction if there is nepotism in terms of job allocation (Smith

and Duffy, 2003; Stabler, 1997; United Nations Environment Programme, 2002).

3.5 ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACTS OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

3.5.1 Positive environmental impacts

In February 2005, participants gathered in Muscat, Oman, for the conference on Built Environments for Sustainable Tourism, jointly organised by the World Tourism Organisation Sultanate of Oman and United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO). The outcome of this conference was the *Muscat Declaration on Built Environments for Sustainable Tourism* (World Tourism Organisation, 2005).

The Muscat Declaration (World Tourism Organisation, 2005:2) sought to:

- at the strategic level, promote the use of strategic tourism planning procedures for ensuring sustainable tourism for the built environment;
- ensure legislative and regulatory frameworks safeguard and enhance the natural, cultural and built heritage through, wherever appropriate encouraging sensitive adaptation of heritage sites to reinforce destination image and generate resources for conservation;
- provide appropriate incentives to ensure that the principles of sustainability are central to large-scale as well as small-scale tourism development;
- ensure the highest integration possible of the tourism facilities in the landscape to minimise its impact, while respecting the natural and biological components of its environment; and
- integrate the requirements and opportunities offered by the tourism sector within a multi-faceted economic development plans, thus ensuring a sustainable development and regeneration process.

Monitoring and feedback mechanisms are the missing elements of this Declaration. These mechanisms are important elements that form part of a detailed integrated plan as discussed in Section 3.11.5.2.

The International Hotels Environmental Initiative publishes videos and wallboards to help in 'greening' the hotel industry through the introduction of an environmental culture into each partner hotel, effective waste management techniques and energy and water conservation. However, this initiative has been criticised for taking too narrow a view of sustainability by focusing on the environment where it should also have been looking at labour-relations issues and operations management (Swarbrooke, 1999:112).

Other positive impacts of sustainable tourism on the environment include:

- Contribution to the conservation of sensitive areas and habitat. Revenues from park-entrance fees and similar sources can be utilised towards maintenance of such areas.
- Contributions to government revenues may be boosted through taxation of recreational equipment and licensing fees for activities such as hunting and fishing.
- Sustainable tourism has the potential to increase public appreciation of the environment and spread awareness of environmental problems.
- Provision of alternative employment to development scenarios that may have greater environmental impacts. The Eco-escuela de Español, a Spanish language school created in 1996 as part of a Conservation International project in San Andres, Guatemala, provides eco-tour guide training and language skills to 100 residents that were previously engaged in mostly illegal timber extraction and hunting (United Nations Environment Programme, 2002).

3.5.2 Negative environmental impacts

“Negative impacts from tourism occur when the level of visitor use is greater than the environment’s ability to cope with this use within the acceptable limits of change” (United Nations Environment Programme, 2002:1). Increased construction of tourism and recreational facilities has increased pressure on land resources such as minerals, fossils, fuels, fertile soil, wetlands, wildlife and forests. Forests often suffer from the negative impacts of tourism in the

form of deforestation caused by fuel wood collection and land clearing (United Nations Environment Programme, 2002).

Sustainable tourism can also create the same forms of pollution as any other industry: air emissions, noise, littering and solid waste, release of sewage (discussed above), oil and chemicals and even visual pollution. Water-based recreation can cause a wide variety of impacts (Arthington, Miller & Outridge, 1989). Propeller-driven boats damage aquatic plants and release exhaust and petroleum residues into the water. Water pollution is also created through discharge of sewage and human waste from boat toilets and waterside accommodation and campsites.

In terms of wildlife tourism, there should be sensitive management of the scale of tourism, which can both threaten wildlife and give rise to stress in animal populations. The type of tourism can also threaten wildlife: birdwatchers tend to be less obtrusive than animal watchers (Barnes *et al.*, 1992). A range of conservation, wilderness and parks organisations in Australia assert that most forms of tourism are essentially incompatible with natural area conservation objectives and should be excluded (McKercher, 1993). However, the study supports the notion of community involvement in sustainable tourism ventures to minimize negative environmental impacts.

Other negative environmental impacts of sustainable tourism are discussed in Section 3.6.

3.6 ECOTOURISM

3.6.1 Definitions

Weaver (2001b:80) contends that sustainable tourism is perceived as “tourism that does not negatively affect the environment, economy, culture and society of a particular destination”. Ecotourism can also be considered a form of sustainable tourism since these concepts have overlapping goals. Although many authors have tried to formulate a definition of ecotourism, several

definitions and substantial disagreement are found within the literature. In reality, ecotourism has become widely adopted as a generic term to describe tourism that has, as its primary purpose, an interaction with nature, and that incorporates a desire to minimise the negative impacts (Orams, 1995). The term also implicitly assumes that local communities should benefit from tourism and that this will help to conserve nature in the process.

Ceballos-Lascuráin (1996:12) is credited for having coined the term 'ecotourism' but Fennel (2002) questions this claiming that the term may have been conceived in 1965 in *Links Magazine* by Hetzer. According to Blamey (1997:6), the National Ecotourism Society of Australia, defines ecotourism as "nature-based tourism that involves education and interpretation of the natural environment and is managed to be ecologically sustainable".

Fennel (2002:15) defines the term as "an intrinsic, participatory and learning-based experience, which is focused principally on the natural history of a region, along with other associated features of the man-land nexus. Its aim is to develop sustainably (conservation and human well being) through ethically based behaviour, programmes and models of tourism development that does not intentionally stress living and non-living elements of the environments in which it occurs. In this sense ecotourism need not necessarily be linked to the cultural environment and only in certain cases is this applicable because of the interrelationship of people and the environment but this is debatable. The three important but arguable concepts in this definition are:

- *Nature-based*: The question remains: what constitutes a nature-based experience? Blamey (1997) questions whether a drive through a forest qualifies as nature-based or must the driver actually pull over and walk through it?
- *Environmentally-educated*: Difficulty arises in establishing whether a particular nature-based activity involves a significant educative or interpretative component. For instance, tourists are not expected to learn about various plants and animal species in the Kruger National

Park but they would probably leave with some knowledge even if this were through visual learning.

- *Sustainably managed*: The third dimension of this definition relates to matters falling under the general term of ecological sustainability, most notably the positive and negative impacts of tourism on local communities and the natural environment.

Based on the above discussion ecotourism could be defined as a *participatory and enlightening travel experience to a natural resource that has socio-cultural, historical and environmental significance for the local communities, with the aim of providing long-term benefits to the resource base, local communities, tourists and the tourism industry. These benefits may be social, economic, educational and/or conservational* [researcher's emphasis] (Blamey, 1997; Ceballos-Lascuráin, 1996; Fennel, 2002; Orams, 1995); Weaver, 2001b). In terms of this definition the industry, community and the resource are to be seen as interdependent factors that will contribute to the sustainability of ecotourism in a particular area. Bewsher (in Queiros, 2000:7) uses a fire analogy to explain this interdependency:

- firstly the resource base, both cultural and natural, is regarded as the fuel of the fire;
- secondly, the tourism industry and tourists provide the energy or spark to ignite the fire; and
- finally, the local communities are seen as the oxygen that sustains the fire.

Many developing countries are promoting Ecotourism as an impetus to expand both conservation measures and tourism development simultaneously. A growing majority of people feel the need to get 'back in touch with nature' before it is too late. Travellers from developed countries, in particular the USA, Japan and Europe, are increasingly placing greater importance on the quality of the natural and cultural environments of vacation destinations (Theobald, 1998).

It is said that ecotourism can be more damaging than mass tourism since it often occurs in fragile and/or unique environments. Small-scale operations in environmentally sensitive locations may eventually turn into much larger and more destructive operations (Hunter & Green, 1995). Although it seems reasonable to assume that the majority of existing and potential ecotourists have 'green' values, it could be a mistake to do so. Research into the potential ecotourism markets in Australia indicates a low level of environmentally sensitive values among such tourists. Thus, it seems that a market exists for this new tourism based on tourist motivations other than environmental concerns (Roberts & Hall, 2001).

3.6.2 Ecotourism and the sustainability factor

As the global population increases and demands for ever-greater material wealth continue to escalate, threats to the sustainability of ecotourism sites grow. There are four highly debatable principal factors that Tidell and Wen (1997) advance on why care is needed when applying sustainable tourism indicators.

- (a) *Economics*: Ecotourism cannot be sustained if it is not profitable for ecotourism operators. In a world dominated by economics, the profitability of any ecotourism development has to be considered carefully and unprofitable ecotourism operators will be sustained only if they are subsidised by governments. In theory, ecotourism should reduce leakages and create tourism-related employment (Lindberg, Enriquez & Sproule, 1996). Because ecotourism tends to be developed on a smaller scale, it can have significant impacts on the local economy but little impact on regional and national development.
- (b) *Environmental conservation*: While ecotourism development some-times provides a profitable way to conserve a natural area, it can also degrade the area, as mentioned earlier, thus coming into conflict with the nature conservation goal and possibly making the area unattractive for tourism in the long term. Some ecotourists seek a wilderness experience and too many tourists can detract from this.

Visitors may be encouraged to “take only photographs, leave only footprints”, but even footprints leave their mark, particularly in fragile environments such as the Namib Desert or Antarctic moss-banks (Weaver, 2001b). The fact that tourists have chosen an expensive wildlife-based holiday does not necessarily mean that they care about the long-term impact of their tours. Many feel that they have paid a lot of money for what they perceive as a great adventure, and assume that they have an inalienable right to see and do whatever they want (Panos, 1995). Various policies and management techniques can be used to respond to these issues. Management plans should not only emphasise the preservation and conservation of resources but should also take into account that resources are complex and dynamic, evolving with changes in the needs, preferences and technological capabilities of society.

- (c) *Social acceptability*: Social acceptability of ecotourism, particularly by local communities, can also influence its sustainability. Social acceptability is likely to be related to perceived economic benefits to the local community. In some cases, local communities are hostile to ecotourism development because they believe they will have little economic gain from it and that it is a threat to their lifestyle and livelihoods (one example being the Khomani San). Furthermore, they may be excluded from using resources that they traditionally used or are otherwise restricted in their economic activities in order to conserve natural resources that support ecotourism. Lui (2003) suggests that in-depth studies is conducted, on whether communities are sufficiently empowered to take control of a sustainable tourism development, prior to the commencement of such developments.
- (d) *Political sustainability*: Politics also influences the sustainability of ecotourism, particularly the conservation of natural resources required to support ecotourism. In the absence of adequate lobby groups in favour of such conservation, areas suitable for ecotourism may be used for economic activities incompatible with the development of ecotourism.

Views vary about effective strategies to obtain sustained political support for ecotourism and conservation of natural resources on which it depends. The world tried to do this with the World Summit on Sustainable Development. One view is that some use of these natural resources is necessary to ensure that they continue to be conserved at all. Minor consumptive-use of natural resources may be allowed as is demonstrated through commercial fishing in designated zones in the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park in Australia.

3.6.3 Ecotourism: local and international case studies

3.6.3.1 The Amadiba Horse and Hiking Trail, Eastern Cape, South Africa

Ecotourism primarily involves affluent people who travel from developed countries to developing countries and this puts South Africa and, indeed, Namaqualand in pole position to prime itself as a leading ecotourist destination in the next decade. Ecotourism is the fastest growing sector of the tourism industry and, if carefully planned, it can be used to preserve fragile land and threatened wildlife areas, and provide residents of developing countries with opportunities for community-based development (Theobald, 1998). One such example is the Amadiba Horse and Hiking Trail located along the Wild Coast of the Eastern Cape Province in South Africa.

The Amadiba Horse and Hiking Trail is billed as an “ecologically sensitive project that embraces the concept of pro-poor tourism” (Ntshona & Lahiff, 2003:3). A non-governmental organisation called PondoCROP approached the Amadiba people through the local chief and proposed the idea of a community-based tourism project based on a 23 kilometre horse and hiking trail along the Wild Coast. The idea was initially met with some resistance, as the community did not grasp the full benefits of the proposed ecotourism venture.

Tourists are charged R1 380 for a six-day hiking trip, resting at two different campsites along the trail (ibid). The impact of the trail on livelihoods is

interesting. The trail is perceived to be a good source of income to support activities such as cultivation and livestock farming (See Table 3.3)

Table 3.3: Livelihood sources of households involved in the trail (Mpindweni Village)

Household	Area of operation	Livelihood sources
1	Cleaner	Cultivation, cattle, goats, pension, trail remittances
2	Tent owner	Cultivation, cattle, goats, pension, trail remittances
3	Security guard	Cultivation, cattle, goats
4	Camp manager	Cultivation, cattle, pension, spaza shop
5	Horse owner	Cultivation, cattle, goats, pension (x3), trail remittances (x2)
6	Two horse owners	Cultivation, cattle, goats, pension (x2), trail remittances (x3)
7	Caterer	Cultivation, cattle, trail remittances
8	Horse owner	Cultivation, cattle, goats, pension (x2)
9	Horse owner	Cultivation, cattle, trail remittances
10	Horse owner	Cultivation, cattle, goats, pension (x2), trail remittances, spaza
11	Tour guide	Cultivation, cattle, goats, pension, trail remittances (x2)
12	Horse owner	Cultivation, cattle, goats, pension, trail remittances
13	Horse owner	Cultivation, cattle, goats, pension, trail remittances

(Source: Ntshona & Lahiff, 2003:15)

The trail has also attracted substantial European Union (EU) funding for the expansion of the trail as part of the EU's support to the Wild Coast Spatial Development Initiative. The EU funding has come with some strings attached, notably changes to the structure and management of the company that manages the trail. This has resulted in a more commercial or centralised

approach to decision-making as opposed to the participatory decision-making processes that included the wider community during the initial phases of the project. However, these impacts have not been assessed (Ntshona & Lahiff, 2003).

It would appear as if remittances from the trail were being used to supplement household income, notably into livestock farming. This strategy seemed to complement the tourism venture rather than hinder it and the village chiefs have not discouraged the venture despite the area being billed as an eco-sensitive area.

Participatory rural appraisal techniques, to increase community participation in the venture, were used rather than workshops or the media. The local chief also discussed the economic and social benefits with the community rather than PondoCROP. One criticism that can be levelled at this initiative is the influence of the donor and this could have a positive or negative impact on the venture in the future.

3.6.3.2 The Lekgophung Tourism Lodge Initiative, North West Province, South Africa

The Lekgophung Tourism Lodge Initiative in the Madikwe Game Reserve in the North West Province, South Africa, is one example of a community owned wildlife tourism initiative stemming from the livelihoods philosophy. The Lekgophung Lodge has its origins in the DFID-funded Madikwe Initiative, which is providing support to strengthen local communities bordering on the Madikwe Game Reserve in the North West Province of South Africa. The project's purpose is to empower residents of three local villages, including Lekgophung Village, to maximise returns from the Game Reserve, while the ultimate goal of the initiative is to establish sustainable social, environmental and economical development in the Madikwe area ("Lekgophung Tourism Lodge, South Africa", 2001).

From the inception of the Madikwe Game Reserve in 1991, a progressive intention was to develop the park as a vehicle for promoting conservation with

local economic development, built on a partnership between the state, the private sector and local communities. A study by Setplan (1991) compared the economic rates of return of two land-use options for a large area of degraded white-owned commercial farms in the Madikwe area, extensive cattle ranching and wildlife-based conservation tourism. Tourism was projected as having the potential to generate more than 1 200 jobs as compared with only 80 lower-paying jobs from cattle ranching (Massyn & Swan, 2002). The community, through a trust, owns 100% of a development company set up to operate the Lekgophung Lodge in a prime tourist area within the Madikwe Game Reserve. In addition the community has derived the following benefits from this initiative (Massyn & Swan, 2002):

- The creation of sustainable partnerships between the park authority and private investors and the communities
- Skills development and training
- Enhanced local participation through the selection of members of the community on the Lodge development steering committee.

This initiative has emphasised that the application of a rights-based approach has led to communities securing long-term lease rights within the protected area from the Parks board, investment capital and other support services. It was therefore important to strike a comfortable balance between land rights and economic development, and the communities and authorities have positively accepted this approach.

3.6.3.3 *The Annapurna Conservation Area Project in Nepal*

Nepal is a small landlocked Himalyan kingdom that lies between India and China. The country is densely populated (approximately 23 million people) and is classified as one of the world's poorest nations, yet rich in natural and cultural diversity (Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004). The Annapurna Conservation Area (ACA) is Nepal's largest protected area, covering 7 629 square kilometres (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific, 1995). This region contains some of the world's highest snow peaks (over 8 000 metres) and the deepest valley: the Kali Gandaki River (Krishna,

Basnet & Poudel, 1999). ACA is home to 40 000 people of different cultural groups who are heavily dependent on forest resources to meet their daily needs. The most common occupation is farming (Roe & Jack, 2001). In 1985, the King of Nepal issued a directive to strike a balance between tourism, economic development and nature conservation in Annapurna and a nature conservation trust was instituted in order to realise the development of the ACA.

The empowerment of local people to enjoy rights and responsibility for managing forest resources were considered fundamental to the project. To achieve this, the ACA adopted three guiding principles (Krishna *et al.*, 1999):

- People's participation: The project involves the local people in the planning, decision-making and implementing processes and the local people's particular responsibilities to manage the conservation area through the local institutions.
- Catalysts or matchmakers: ACA acts as a matchmaker to meet the needs of the inhabitants and to manage over 100 000 annual visitors.
- Sustainability: Only those projects and programmes that people can manage after the external support is withdrawn are supposed to be implemented. In every initiative, communities are motivated to contribute in kind to programmes to ensure continuation of optimal management of the schemes.

ACA's long-term objectives are (Roe & Jack, 2001):

- to conserve the natural resources of the ACA for the benefit of present and future generations;
- to bring sustainable social and economic development to the local people; and
- to ensure that the tourism aspects has minimal negative environmental impact and delivers maximum local benefits.

Roe and Jack (2001) and Krishna *et al.* (1999) contend that the project's most immediate and visible results were to reduce the environmental impact of

foreign visitors and to increase the local economic benefits from the venture. There is some concern that a large percentage of the ecotourism benefits go to a small sector of the population. It may also be contested that the majority of the 40 000 inhabitants of this area are not actively involved in this project (Krishna *et al.*, 1999). In addition, the tourism activities have been blamed for the inflation of prices of basic goods and services in the rural areas, creating financial adversity for local people (Nyaupane & Thapa, 2004).

The project faces some challenges. Krishna *et al.* (1999) point out that the positive impacts have had negative side effects. With the improvement of the forests and control over hunting, wild animal populations have increased, leading to crop and livestock damages. ACA has limited human resources to manage the area and therefore not every aspect of the area is given full attention.

Despite these challenges, the ACA has been cited as a successful model of ecotourism. One positive impact of this project resulted in the strengthening of the village institutions for future development (United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and Pacific, 1995). In order to minimise negative impacts and maximise economic benefits to the local people, the Nepalese government has adopted a reactionary ecotourism policy. An eco-trek model was established within the ACA. Subsequently seven community-owned campsites and one community-owned lodge were developed within the eco-trek area.

A study carried out by Nyaupane and Thapa (2004) on the eco-trek model concluded that small-scale community-based ecotourism is associated with fewer negative environmental, economic and socio-cultural impacts but simultaneously yield fewer positive economic benefits. However, it can be argued that while the economic benefits may have been few initially, these benefits did not exist prior to the commencement of the model. Moreover, the community's sense of ownership and increased levels of empowerment should be viewed as critical factors in determining the success of this model and providing key lessons to other community-based ecotourism ventures.

3.6.3.4 *The Cofan of Zabalo in Ecuador, South America*

Ecuador has been a well-known nature tourism destination for over 20 years because of the early popularity of the Galapagos Islands. The Galapagos Islands, a national park, are the foundation of the nature tourism industry in Ecuador (Epler Wood, 1998). A brief description of one of the longest running community-based ecotourism project involving the Cofan people of Zabalo province in Ecuador illustrates how ecotourism is developing at a community level in Ecuador.

The Cofan project is one of the longest running community-based ecotourism projects in the world, and has been in existence for 20 years. The Cofan community embarked on a dynamic ecotourism project in the heart of the Amazon rainforest area of Ecuador. In the 1980s, the Cofan people became involved in resisting Petroecuador's efforts to prospect for oil in Cofan territory and ultimately won the right to manage their own natural resources. After winning the freedom to determine their own destiny, the Cofan of Zabalo worked hard to protect their natural resources by creating a system of land-use that restricts hunting (Epler Wood, 1998). Randall Borman, an American missionary, initiated the ecotourism project.

The project has a strong conservation slant: the community defined separate zones for ecotourism and hunting, with fines levied on members who hurt or kill species such as toucans and parrots or for exceeding quotas in the hunting zone (Blangy, 1999; Epler Wood, 1998; Wesche, 1997). Some environmentalists contend that the revenue earned from tourism in the Amazon rainforest could eventually outstrip oil earnings (Blangy, 1999).

Until 1992, the Zabalo experience was exclusively sold to Wilderness Travel, a North American outbound tour operator. After experimenting with several private business profit-sharing approaches, Borman, established a community company in 1992 with ten community associates and entered into a joint venture with a company that provided hiking packages (Epler Wood, 1998).

All associates were required to work on the enterprise and, in return, they earned a percentage of the profits (Wesche, 1997).

In addition, community members benefited from ecotourism without becoming full-time associates several other ways. For example, the community completed four new tourist cabins by 1997 and received all profits from the rental of the cabins (Epler Wood, 1998). Community members made and sold crafts in a small co-operative craft store. Tourists were also charged fees for short guided walks and visits to a small, traditional arts museum in the province (Wesche, 1997). Total profits from these businesses were estimated at \$500 per year, per community resident (Wesche, 1997).

The hiking joint venture floundered in 1994 (“Cofan History”, 2000). Although the number of overnight visitors was low in 1996 and 1997, the craft co-operative has remained successful (Epler Wood, 1998). Like all businesses, diversification of income streams within the community provided a stable economic base, even in years showing lower profits. At present, the Cofan people of Zabalo are continuing their goals of conservation and wise use of their environment. Ecotourism and crafts continue to be the main economic activities, while hunting, fishing, and subsistence agriculture provide for the daily needs of the village. The growth of an identity along with a pride in their history and traditions is very apparent in this community (“Cofan History,” 2000).

The lessons learned from the Borman case-study are important to the future of community participation in ecotourism. The success of Zabalo can be attributed to Borman’s leadership and his knowledge of the international business world (Epler Wood, 1998). The creation of a small community business partnership serves to reward those who work the hardest, while not undermining the larger community’s ability to benefit from co-operative enterprises, such as sale of crafts and cabin management. The formula of mixing co-operative approaches with community business partnerships is being successfully implemented in other parts of the world (Blangy, 1999).

3.6.4 Key challenges facing the ecotourism industry

Moutinho (2000) avers that while the ecotourism industry will flourish, the destruction of natural resources vital to tourism will not be stopped immediately. Consequently, some traditional destination areas may decline due to environmental disasters, spoilage, and so forth. This may give rise to artificial leisure environments “as a partial (and weak) compensation for the degraded natural milieu” (Moutinho, 2000:7).

Ecotourism has not spared the environment and biodiversity. The rise in tourist arrivals in these preserves - more so with globalisation - has increased deforestation, pollution and disruption of the ecological balance. In the Masai Mara National Park in Kenya and in the Ngorongoro Conservation Area in Tanzania, forests adjacent to lodges and camping grounds have been cut down due to the demand for firewood (De Chavez, 1999).

The massive influx of tourists and their vehicles has also caused destruction of grass cover, affecting plant and animal species in the areas. Hotels have dumped their sewage in Masai settlement areas while campsites have polluted adjacent rivers. Masai culture has been threatened and commercialised. Negative Western values have influenced the Masai youth, leading to a loss of traditional values, prostitution, and the spread of the Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome (AIDS) virus (De Chavez, 1999).

Government policy-makers and ecotourism industry officials must accept the challenge, the responsibility and the mandate of bringing market forces into congruence with the need for environmental protection and social equity. Moyo (2001), writing on the Zimbabwean ecotourism policies, claims that ecotourism allocates monies to trickle into black communities while most of the benefits are with the external financiers and safari operators. De Chavez (1999) notes that unless indigenous peoples have a direct participation in the planning, implementation, and regulation of tourism activities that affect them, and unless benefit-sharing mechanisms are in place, tourism can never appeal to their interest. Indigenous peoples will continue to be mere cogs in

the wheel of this billion-dollar industry. If benefit-sharing mechanisms are in place ecotourism may well become an example of how development can be achieved on a sustainable basis to the benefit of visitors, hosts and industry alike.

One common form, Community-based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM) that is found within the ecotourism and rural tourism literature, is ascertained to have some relevance to the land reform programme as it is focused on the sustainable utilisation of land for tourism development. Sustainable tourism through CBNRM will be discussed here in critical detail as it has been successfully and not so successfully implemented in parts of the African continent.

3.7 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM THROUGH COMMUNITY-BASED NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT (CBNRM)

The founding assumption of CBNRM is that people who live close to a resource and whose livelihoods directly depend upon it have more interest in sustainable land use and management than the government or distant organisations. Advocates of CBNRM argue that it offers the best prospect for meeting conservation objectives while improving the position of impoverished rural communities who have been denied the fundamental right to substantive participation in decisions that impact on their well-being and livelihoods. Arguments in favour of CBNRM thus combine environmental sustainability, social justice, and development efficiency with assertions about practicality and good sense (Lynch & Talbott, 1995).

Lynch and Talbott (1995:8) acknowledge that the evidence for the efficacy of CBNRM in achieving combined livelihood and conservation goals is “anecdotal and inconclusive”. Colchester (1994) is careful to point out the dangers of ‘lairdism’: the cooption, corruption and undemocratic tendencies of traditional leaders, not least when their communities are granted (or restored) rights in land, and cautions that new democratic community institutions would need to control such excesses.

The CBNRM concept primarily takes place on communal lands and has relevance for sustainable tourism development on commonages that are set aside for community use but owned by the municipalities. The following case studies highlight the significance and pitfalls of sustainable tourism and ecotourism ventures on communal lands through the CBNRM concept.

3.7.1 Zimbabwe

One of the most famous examples of CBNRM is Zimbabwe's Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE). The CAMPFIRE was said to make wildlife an agricultural option that complemented crop production and livestock rearing (Woolmer *et al.*, 2003). Game ranching in general and the lowveld conservancies in particular, have always been politically controversial in Zimbabwe. The highly visible disparities between relatively 'empty' ranches, stocked with low levels of 'wild' animals separated by electric fences from overpopulated, poor communal areas create an obvious source of conflict and has been described as representing Zimbabwe's 'land question' in microcosm (Woolmer *et al.*, 2003).

Hunting and game viewing, with the bonus of cultural tourism, were promoted as the most lucrative land uses in Zimbabwe's arid regions where dryland agriculture was perceived to be of no use. The CAMPFIRE aims to bring land into the foreground and to provide an alternative to destructive uses of the land by making wildlife a valuable resource (Woolmer *et al.*, 2003). Wildlife tourism appears to be the most economically and ecologically sound land-use option in much of Zimbabwe (Roe & Jack, 2001). Through CAMPFIRE Zimbabwe seeks to involve rural communities in conservation and development by returning to them the stewardship of their natural resources, harmonising the needs of rural people with those of ecosystems.

The CAMPFIRE approach has been a bone of contention since the start of the accelerated 'land reform' efforts in Zimbabwe in 2000 and its potential benefits for tourism and sustainable livelihoods need to be assessed in the light of the political situation in that country (Moyo, 2001). Until the recent political crisis,

the tourist industry was a major revenue earner for Zimbabwe, and in 1993 tourism was the third largest foreign exchange earner after agriculture and mining, but with droughts affecting agriculture in 1994 and 1995, tourism became the second largest earner (Woolmer *et al.*, 2003). In 1995, tourism reached a new peak with a record of one million visitors (World Tourism Organisation, 2001). However, after sustained growth as one of Africa's most popular destinations, Zimbabwe began to stagnate with visitor arrivals declining from 2,1 million to 1,86 million in 2001 because of the expanding political violence and more general economic decline (Smith & Duffy, 2003). This negatively influences tourism initiatives in the CAMPFIRE areas, which had always been a small niche market in the wildlife tourism industry.

Katerere, as quoted in Woolmer *et al.* (2003:7), states: "In essence by focusing on increasing the flows of money under the guise of CBNRM partnerships, CAMPFIRE has not contributed to transforming the rural economy. Instead, it has successfully given legitimacy to minority interest that has extended their tourist investments into the very communal areas. In short, those with land have been able to increase their access to land and wildlife resources... [This has] only worsened the ever-widening disparity between the poorer majority farmers and the rich". It is evident that sustainable tourism can, through CBNRM projects, create and sustain livelihoods. There are also obstacles such as conflicts over natural resources, inept management structures, inadequate markets, community exploitation. A range of other factors including balancing the land rights of the community against the conservation principles need to be weighed carefully.

3.7.2 Tanzania

In Tanzania's Grumeti village a new wildlife tourism facility, 'Dream Camp', was developed on land adjacent to the Grumeti Game Reserve. This camp is currently running as a three-way joint venture between a commercial company, the village council and a bilateral donor, who has provided the bulk of the investment funds on a soft loan basis (Emerton & Mfunda, 1999). In this enterprise the village council holds the equity and is paid land rent and bed

levies. In addition, the village council negotiated that casual and permanent employees (both management level and administrative level staff) be drawn from the community. The Camp has also managed to start a micro-credit scheme for villagers and sources food and crafts locally (Emerton & Mfunda, 1999). The success of this venture is largely dependent on the management of the three-way joint venture and ensuring that each partner is adequately catered for within such agreements without one reaping all or the majority of the benefits. The other advantage of this project is the use of the local labour and craft sector and the extension of micro-credit to villagers thereby guaranteeing firm support for the project from the villagers.

The 'Dream Camp' project has generated \$40 000 in revenue in 2004 that was used towards the following community initiatives (Africa Geographic, 2005):

- school building projects at two schools;
- over 200 desks provided;
- vegetable gardens;
- water-well for 2 000 people;
- clinic built;
- waste removal services;
- educational centre;
- employment opportunities provided; and
- implementation of Edu-peg – a self-corrective early learning tool.

However, other communal areas in Tanzania were not so lucky. In Nyakitono village a 5 000 hectare hunting block was conceded to a hunting operator, envisaging that, while hunting activities would give rise to little interference with local livelihoods, tourist development could provide a valuable source of income and employment for villagers. Once the concession was provided, the operator proceeded to close off his concession and bar village access (Emerton & Mfunda, 1999).

3.7.3 Namibia

Namibia's sustainable development depends on the country's rich natural capital and nature tourism is thought to be a tool to reconcile conservation and poverty alleviation (Lapeyre, 2006). The CBNRM programme in Namibia was initiated by non-governmental organisations that work in communal areas. The aim of the Namibian CBNRM programme is essentially the protection of biodiversity and maintenance of ecosystems and life support processes through the sustainable use of natural resources for the benefit of rural communities (Jones, 1998). The underlying philosophy is based on the CAMPFIRE philosophy of the tough balancing act of conservation principles and economic benefits to local communities. Between 1992 and 1998, many community-based tourism enterprises were initiated in the north-west and north-east regions of Namibia that targeted the 'adventure' travellers. These enterprises largely consisted of basic campsites where a nominal fee was charged and this was supposed to create some benefits for the larger community (Jones, 1998).

Statistics gathered in 2001 reveal that Namibia's community-based tourism industry comprises 14 campsites, 5 rest camps, 6 craft centres, 3 tour guide centres and 4 traditional villages (Roe *et al.*, 2001). Although all were functional as at 2001, some were in various stages of dilapidation and few were still economically viable. The reasons advanced by Roe *et al.* (2001) as garnered from a survey undertaken by the Namibia Community-based Tourism Association (NACOBTA) are the following:

- falling tourism numbers due to sub-standard product offered to tourists;
- facilities were poorly maintained; and
- unreliable staff and community members did not respect the privacy of tourists.

NACOBTA has since been attempting to increase the viability of these community-based enterprises through encouraging tour-operator support and the development of a centralised booking system to enable the reservation of

sites and services and the pre-payment of these through a voucher system. However, it is unknown if training of community members in terms of managing those sites and a communication strategy on the benefits of tourism is part of the NACOBTA effort to increase the marketability of these community ventures.

Another worrying concern in relation to CBNRM in Namibia is the issue of land tenure security within these sites. The power to allocate customary land rights lies with the chiefs or traditional authorities but any such allocation must be ratified with the appropriate Land Board.

3.7.4 South Africa

Recent successful land claims by indigenous communities, such as the Makuleke Community in the Pafuri area in South Africa of the Kruger National Park, have resulted in new hopes for communities, tourism and conservation. The Makuleke proposed to continue managing their land as protected areas and the Minister for Agriculture and Land Affairs responded by gazetting the incorporation of previously unconserved state land into the Kruger National Park, thereby increasing the area of the Park (Palmer, Timmermans & Fay, 2002). The Makuleke deal, which includes training and capacity development for the Makuleke, will enable them to participate in conservation as equal partners. This will further enable the community to obtain material benefits from the tourism ventures and lease agreements (Palmer *et al.*, 2002). Wilson, Tapela and Van Rooyen (2002) argue that the Makuleke's biggest constraint presently is an economic one and this will be difficult to reconcile with the conservation principles. It is proposed that the Makuleke Conservation and Tourism Programme "generate and devolve benefits to the community within a tolerable timespan" (Wilson *et al.*, 2002:10).

The importance of sustainable tourism through CBNRM in South Africa is understandable, considering that there are signs that city dwellers are choosing rural or peripheral locations for their holidays in preference to South African cities. "At the same time, locations in the interior which are attractive

either for their scenery, wildlife, or just for their rustic setting, are becoming popular among visitors, not only from South Africa but also from abroad” (Travel and Tourism Intelligence, 1999:89).

3.7.5 The relevance of sustainable tourism through CBNRM for commonage development

The argument advanced by Lynch and Talbott (1995), cited earlier in the study, that the CBNRM principle of combining conservation and livelihoods was anecdotal and inconclusive, is in itself ill-founded. The four case studies demonstrate that sustainable tourism through CBNRM, if managed correctly, can work for rural communities. The case studies reveal that embarking on such ventures with communities need sufficient planning, embracing participatory techniques.

Training and an understanding of the benefits, i.e. social, ecological and financial, must be clearly explained to the communities who are involved in such initiatives so that realistic business plans are developed and communities are not duped into believing that this is a ‘get-rich-quick’ venture. The case studies also reveal that there should be dedicated monitoring and evaluation by government to prevent unscrupulous tour operators from forming partnerships with these communities with minimal benefits flowing back to the communities.

In many cases across Africa, rural or peripheral communities understand their environment better than environmentalists with academic qualifications, and their participation in planning for their own land use and livelihoods should not be hearsay but inclusive from project inception. For planners and environmentalists to gauge a better understanding of these communities, it is important to know the environment that these communities live in. As demonstrated through the different case studies on sustainable tourism through ecotourism and CBNRM ventures, the majority are based in peripheral areas.

3.8 TOURISM IN PERIPHERAL AREAS

Peripheral areas are defined by several characteristics that affect sustainable tourism and other industry sectors (Botterill, Owen, Emmanuel, Foster & Gale, 1997; Hall & Boyd, 2005; Hall & Jenkins, 1998). All of these factors apply to the Namaqualand case:

- Peripheral areas tend to lack effective political and economic control and often people in these areas (organisations and/or individuals) tend to feel a sense of isolation.
- Peripheral areas are geographically remote from mass markets, thereby increasing transportation and communication costs. Namaqualand has distances of 60 to 100 kilometres between towns with the town of Springbok being the economic and communication hub of the region.
- Increased migration of people, especially young people seeking improved education and employment opportunities. Some villages in Namaqualand consist only of 800 people because of population migration.
- Botterill *et al.* (1997) point out that there is a tendency in peripheral areas to import products rather than be innovative and develop products locally.
- Lastly, Duffield and Long (1981) speculate that the irony of peripheral areas lies in the fact that the lack of development in these areas tend to increase their tourism appeal because of the relative unspoilt character of the landscape and distinctive local cultures.

Hall and Jenkins (1998) postulate that because of the economic difficulties experienced by peripheral areas, national and local government tend to be more prolific in their assistance in these areas by, for example, establishing local economic development agencies in such areas. This is certainly not the case in Namaqualand as evidenced from the case-study visits.

Keane (1992) acknowledges that a variety of terms is used to describe tourism in peripheral areas: agritourism, farm tourism, rural tourism, soft tourism, alternative tourism and many others that have different meanings in different countries. Any definition of rural tourism needs to recognise the essential qualities of what is 'rural'. Rural places have traditionally been associated with specific rural functions such as agriculture. However, new approaches in social theory have argued that rural areas are inextricably linked to the national and international political economy (Page & Getz, 1997).

Cloke (1992) argues that changes, such as the following, in the way society and non-urban places are organised and function have rendered traditional definitions of rural areas less meaningful:

- Increased mobility of people, goods and messages has eroded the autonomy of local communities.
- Delocalisation of economic activity makes it impossible to define homogenous economic regions.
- New specialised uses of rural spaces (as tourist sites, parks and development zones) have created new specialised networks of relationships in the areas concerned, many of which are no longer localised.
- People who 'inhabit' a rural area include a diversity of temporary visitors as well as residents.
- Rural spaces increasingly perform functions for non-rural users.

One approach favoured by Cloke (1992) is the analysis of the way in which rural areas become products, stating that rural areas are places to be 'consumed' and where production is based on establishing new places for tourism. Ashley (2000) postulates that tourism generally generates three types of cash income for households on the periphery or rural areas, and community tourism can generate an additional fourth type for the community:

- *Regular wages for those with jobs.* A tourism venture rarely generates permanent jobs for more than a small proportion (1% to 5% in prime

areas) of households in a community. However, if those households are not involved in the agricultural sector of the enterprise, then this can be a cash boost to those families and this can lift them socio-economically from an insecure to secure status. These earnings, in turn, are partially recycled within the local community, creating a multiplier effect.

- *Casual earnings from selling grass, food, wood, crafts, etc.* Grass sellers, crafters, casual labourers and others sell their products or labour to tourists and tourism enterprises. These additional opportunities are likely to benefit a higher percentage of local households than the fulltime jobs and are most important to poor people who have few options for earning cash.
- *Profits from ownership of a tourism enterprise.* Community-owned enterprises are likely to be small-scale such as an arts and crafts studio, so in practice most are similar to the category of casual earnings. Those owned by the community (such as joint-venture lodges) fall into the category of collective income.
- *Collective income earned by the community.* A conservancy earns collective income or community-trust income when it leases tourism or hunting rights, or earns profits or a bed-levy from a tourism enterprise in the area.

There have been cautionary comments regarding tourism development in peripheral areas. Baum and Moore (1966:5) observed in the United States in the 1960s: “there are and there will be increasing opportunities for recreation [and tourism] development, but this industry should not be considered to be a panacea for the longstanding problems of substantial and persistent unemployment and underemployment besetting low-income rural areas.”

To ensure the sustainability of tourism within peripheral areas, both government and development practitioners would need to integrate tourism within the larger development context of the region. This would mean streamlining national and local priorities. In a semi-desert location such as the Namaqualand, this could lead to agriculture and land reform as national priorities being integrated into the mining and tourism sectors of the region. It is therefore important to note how other arid or semi-desert areas plan around their environments to obtain the maximum benefits for their communities that are living under those circumstances.

3.9 DESERT TOURISM

This section outlines sustainable desert tourism strategies embarked upon in three countries: Algeria, Australia and Namibia. The choice of Australia is primarily because Australia is much more advanced in terms of their desert tourism strategy while Algeria, although practicing desert tourism since the 1970s, is still in the developmental stages of desert tourism. Namibia was selected because of similarities in terms of its ecosystem and climate to Namaqualand.

The study supports the World Tourism Organisation assessment that refers desert areas as presenting numerous opportunities for sustainable tourism (World Tourism Organisation, 2002). Deserts present a striking and often surprising variety of landscapes, flora, fauna and cultural heritage. The low population density of these areas makes them ideal territory for tourists who enjoy discovering large pristine areas. Desert areas are therefore suitable for the development of sustainable tourism ventures.

Weaver (2001a:253), on examining current desert ecotourism activity, summarises seven distinctive patterns of association in terms of desert attractions:

- exceptional geological features associated with arid climates; these include the Grand Canyon in Arizona in the United States of America (USA), the ancient sand dunes of the Skeleton Coast (Namib Desert,

Namibia), the Richtersveld in Namaqualand and Uluru (Ayer's Rock) in Central Australia;

- wildflower and other episodic floral displays, examples include Namaqualand and Western Australia;
- ancient, large or unusual vegetation including the 2000-year old *Welwitschia* plants of the Namib Desert, *Pachpodium Namaquam* or *half-mens tree* of Namaqualand and the giant saguaro cacti of south-western USA;
- caravans and other desert trekking; one example being the Tuareg camel trek offered in the Algerian Sahara Desert;
- indigenous inhabitants including the Tuareg, the Aborigines of Australia and the Bushmen of the Kalahari (Hitchcock, 1997);
- oases where there are a number of ecotourism sites; one of the most famous is the Al-Maha resort in the United Arab Emirates, which includes sixteen square kilometres of nature reserve stocked with reintroduced Arabian oryx and sand gazelle; and
- areas where desert ecotourism is largely associated with formally protected areas.

Desert areas are particularly prone to the weak regeneration of water resources and the nature of the desert ecosystems is extremely fragile. Chapter 12 of Agenda 21, adopted by 178 governments at the 1992 Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro, discusses the problem of desertification. Chapter 12 specified that desertification affects about one-sixth of the world's population and identified six programme areas to further combat desertification and find sustainable developmental solutions to those communities living in these areas. The programme areas are (United Nations, 1992):

- strengthening the knowledge base, developing information and monitoring systems for regions prone to desertification and drought, including the economic and social aspects of these ecosystems;
- combating land degradation through, *inter alia*, intensified soil conservation, afforestation and reforestation activities;

- developing and strengthening integrated development programmes for the eradication of poverty and promotion of alternative livelihood systems in areas prone to desertification;
- developing comprehensive anti-desertification programmes and integrating them into national development plans and national environmental planning;
- developing comprehensive drought preparedness and drought-relief schemes including self-help arrangements for drought-prone areas and designing programmes to cope with environmental refugees; and
- encouraging and promoting popular participation and environmental education focusing on desertification control and the management of the effects of drought.

In 2002, in preparation for the International Year of Ecotourism, a seminar was held in Algeria on the *Sustainable Development of Ecotourism in Desert Areas*. During this seminar, 23 reports and case studies were discussed. The case studies focused on the following three themes (World Tourism Organisation, 2002):

- **Theme 1:** Planning and regulation of ecotourism in desert areas and the challenge of sustainability.
- **Theme 2:** Product development, marketing and promotion of ecotourism; fostering sustainable products and consumers.
- **Theme 3:** Monitoring the costs and benefits of ecotourism to ensure they are equitably distributed amongst all players.

The main conclusions of the seminar can be summarised as follows (World Tourism Organisation, 2002:10):

- Recognition that deserts have great potential for ecotourism development and that this should be exploited on strict sustainability criteria.
- The need to treat desert tourism as a distinct activity that is different from ecotourism, because of the unclassified and unprotected archaeological heritage to be found in deserts and the specific

populations living there. A full definition of ecotourism should be drawn up to include the specific features of territories such as deserts.

- Local communities are affected by any decision and should therefore be automatically consulted and mechanisms of such consultation should be made clear to local and foreign developers alike.
- The adoption of a national mechanism that ensures a good level of coordination amongst government stakeholders. Political agreement is necessary if a country is to develop quality and sustainable tourism.

It was also suggested that 2004 be declared International Desert Year, but this was never realised. Instead, the United Nations has declared 2006 as the *International Year of Deserts and Desertification*. The United Nations stated that there is a need to raise global awareness of the advancing deserts, of ways to safeguard the biological diversity of arid lands covering one-third of the planet and protecting the knowledge and traditions of two billion people affected by the phenomenon (United Nations, 2006). Apart from raising awareness and protecting the knowledge of desert inhabitants, how best to capitalise on the phenomenon and create sustainable livelihoods from a desert environment was also purported to be the reasoning behind the *International Year of Deserts and Desertification* (United Nations, 2006).

It is important to note that ecotourism and the preservation of desert ecosystems are successful in countries such as Algeria, Australia and Namibia. These case studies will be discussed below.

3.9.1 Sustainable desert tourism in Algeria

Algeria is the second largest country in Africa with an area of 2 381 740 square kilometres. It borders on Morocco, Tunisia, Libya, Mauritania, Mali and Niger (Ahmed, 2002). Most Algerians are of Berber-Arab ancestry. The Berbers inhabited Algeria before the arrival of the Arabs during the expansion of Islam in the 7th Century (Ahmed, 2002).

Deserts cover more than 80% of Algerian territory and therefore the World Tourism Organisation decided to host the seminar on the *Sustainable Development of Ecotourism in Desert Areas* in Algiers, Algeria in 2002. Desert development and tourism initiatives were instigated in the 1980s in Algeria with a pioneer tourism development in the Sahara Desert. The project was terminated in the 1990s but in 1995, the Algerian Government launched another initiative by announcing a tourism plan for the Deep South (World Tourism Organisation, 2002). This also led to the signing in Algeria of the Ghardaia Declaration on 21 April 2003 on the initiative of UNESCO.

The strategy was aimed at encouraging tourism to the Sahara as this desert area was deemed to have enormous potential for sustainable tourism. Some of the pilot projects that were promoted as an outcome of the Declaration (UNESCO, 2003) are as follows:

- Support for promotion of the intangible heritage within the framework of a desert festival.
- Development and enhancement of innovative transfrontier thematic circuits devised as instruments for local and tourism developments.
- Support for a campaign to promote the Sahara in the context of the Year of the Deserts (2006), highlighting through a joint promotional campaign all the diversity of the areas and specificities of the products.

The Sahara is the world's largest desert, covering over 9 million square kilometres in distance. About 9% of Algerians live in oases within the Sahara while about 1%, called the Tuareg people, remains nomadic (Chatelard, 2004). The Tuareg, who live in the province of Tamanrasset in the Ahaggar part of the Sahara, still lead a rural life. Although households are mainly regrouped in villages, the Tuareg remain nomadic ready to move to follow opportunities in trade, employment or pasture (Keenan, 2001).

Tourism has come as but one other opportunity for acquiring income that requires mobility and flexibility. Keenan (2001:6), an anthropologist writing in the early 1970s, lived with some Tuareg households at the time when desert

tourism was in its initial stages: “(...) for many of these tribesmen (...) the difficult and painful transition from nomadism to the restrictions of village life was somewhat eased by the development of tourism. Hiring out their camels to local tour operators and working as cameleers, guides, cooks and so forth provided a trickle of income sufficient to enable many to remain in their cherished mountain camps.”

For the Tuareg households in the Sahara, desert tourism complements pastoral livelihoods. Chatelard (2004) states that the mobility of desert tourism allows pastoral people to continue occupying a wide space in arid areas because lines of communication and of exchanges are maintained between scattered and complementary centres of production/consumption and markets. This is vital for tour agencies in the area, despite the Internet and the telephone, face-to-face relations are important for their business.

Since 1989, the Algerian Government has liberalised the tourism industry, privatising many of the state-owned and run-down hotels and resorts. In the past, Algerian tourism consisted of the occasional globetrotter crossing the Sahara. The liberalisation and opening up of foreign investments seemed to point towards a boom until the country's most violent civil war occurred in 1992. This affected desert tourism as some European tour groups were abducted by rebel groups for ransom (De Villiers, 2002). However, since the 1999 elections the country has regained some normality.

De Villiers (2002:13) avers that growth rates of tourism to Algeria are increasing: “In 2000 the number of international arrivals reached 866 000 which is an increase of 15,6% on the 1999 figure. Algerians residing abroad represent a large proportion of total tourism arrivals in the country. The further development of desert and adventure tourism could contribute to an increase in the number of tourists to Algeria”.

On the negative side, the Algerian government's centralist strategies are seen as an impediment to desert tourism. The government is viewed as an intruder and the institutional settings that organise tourism as bureaucratic and

procedurally cumbersome. In addition, because of bottlenecks in the banking sector, Tuareg travel agents reinvest little money locally (Chatelard, 2004).

Despite these hiccups, desert tourism can become sustainable in Algeria, if the Algerian government maintains peace in the country and allow flexibility to relinquish some control to permit the local desert tourism industry to flourish.

3.9.2 Sustainable desert tourism in Australia

Three quarters of Australia consists of desert or the 'Outback' as it is commonly called (also called Never-Never or Back of Beyond) (Desert Knowledge Cooperative Research Centre, 2005). The Australian Outback primarily consists of rangelands and savannas, vast populated spaces, an indigenous population, diverse and unique ecosystems. The Australian Outback in Central Australia has been the home to Aboriginal people for many millennia. The marginally fertile parts of the semi-arid Outback region are often utilised for sheep and cattle farming.

Permanent European settlement reached central Australia much later than other parts of Australia (National Museum of Australia, 2005). The construction of the overland telegraph line in 1872 opened up the Australian desert to the world. Within months of its completion, the pastoral frontier had surged forward 600 to 700 kilometres and exploring parties were probing the desert to the west (National Museum of Australia, 2005).

The Outback has a sparse and mobile population, 500 000 people in 5,5 million square kilometres, that is concentrated in a few larger economic hubs such as Alice Springs and Kalgoorlie (National Museum of Australia, 2005). These hubs are intimately interdependent on 1000 remote settlements, whether indigenous (860), pastoral, mining or tourism-based (Desert Knowledge Cooperative Research Centre, 2005). Many of these competitive advantages draw on place (nature tourism or horticultural timing niches) or culture (art, cultural festivals and pastoral homestays/agri-tourism).

Tourism is one of the primary employers in the Outback, to some extent owing to icons such as Uluru (Ayer's Rock), which is considered one of the great wonders of the world. Uluru is a large rock formation in the Northern Territory of Central Australia and is located in the Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park. It is the second largest monolith²² in the world, after Mount Augustus, also in Australia. It is more than 318 metres high and eight kilometres around, with a 2.5 kilometre extension into the ground ("Uluru-Ayersrock", 2006).

The Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park is owned and run by the local Aboriginal community after the Australian government restored the land rights of the Aboriginal community in 1985. The former Australian Prime Minister, Bob Hawke, had promised to respect the request of the community that climbing Uluru would be prohibited but reneged on his promise because access for tourists to climb Uluru was made a condition before the community could receive title of the Park ("Uluru-Ayersrock", 2006). While it is to be commended that Uluru attracts approximately 350 000 tourists per year (Dowling, 2001) thereby contributing to sustaining the tourism venture for the local community, it can also be viewed as a community capitulating under government pressure to crass commercialism of a heritage site.

A positive initiative in terms of desert tourism in Australia is the Outback Destination Management Plan that was launched in 2005 under the auspices of The Ministry of Tourism. Issues identified within the Plan include (Smith, 2005):

- strengthening the position of the Outback as an attractive and desirable destination in key markets;
- growing Outback tourism by building on current market strengths and new special interest opportunities such as paleo-tourism (encompassing aspects of paleontology), bird-watching and astronomy;
- ensuring sustainability and profitability through effective management of Outback information, products and services;

²² A monolith is a monument or natural feature such as a mountain, consisting of a single massive stone or rock. Erosion usually exposes these formations that consist primarily of hard metamorphic rock ("Uluru-Ayersrock", 2006).

- encouraging new product development that is matched to market needs and interests;
- facilitating effective partnerships and alliances within the Australian tourism industry and with established desert destinations, one being Nevada in the USA;
- facilitating a sustainable approach to the development and management of tourism assets; and
- conducting research to inform marketing, planning and development activities. The Desert Knowledge Cooperative Research Centre is a research body that currently fulfils this role.

The Plan also ties in with the Australian Government's Tourism White Paper Implementation Plan that focuses on delivering real outcomes for regional and Outback communities (Desert Knowledge Cooperative Research Centre, 2005).

However, pollution of and the improper management of desert campsites including poor facilities in some areas have spread some negative feelings about desert tourism in Australia (Mills, 2005). Another issue is that some tour operators are becoming greedier and reducing the tourist off-seasons, thereby exploiting the local communities (Smith & Duffy, 2003). By focusing on the Outback Destination Management Plan, linking with other key sectors in the economy such as agriculture and mining, and turning the above-mentioned weaknesses into strengths, Australia can become one of the leading desert tourist destinations in the world.

3.9.3 Sustainable desert tourism in Namibia

Sixteen percent of Namibia is desert and forms part of three distinct topographical zones (Namibian Tourism Board, 2003):

- *Namib Desert*: This is a long narrow coastal desert between 100 to 140 kilometres long and that extends along the entire coastline interspersed with dune belts, dry riverbeds and deeply eroded canyons. In the Nama

language, *Namib* means vast and it is said to be the oldest desert in the world.

- *Central Plateau*: This region runs from north to the south of Namibia with an altitude between 1000 and 2000 metres, and consists of rocky outcrops, mountain, sand-filled valleys and plains.
- *Kalahari Desert*: This area consists of long vegetated dunes of red sand extending through the area and is covered in dense bush-enclosed plains north-east of the Etosha Pan, including the high rainfall areas of the Kavango and Caprivi.

Tourism is the fourth largest sector of the Namibian economy with an annual contribution of 7% or 1,3 billion Namibian dollars to the GDP (Schachtschneider, 2001). Most of the major tourist attractions are government-owned and managed on its behalf by the Ministry of Environment and Tourism. The tourist facilities are primarily located in arid and ecologically sensitive areas where effective resource management, including water demand management, is crucial to sustain tourism operations (Schachtschneider, 2000; Ministry of Lands Resettlement and Rehabilitation, 2005). To accomplish this, the Namibian Government has had to re-write and adapt the water and tourism policies that the country was saddled with since pre-independence from South Africa.

One of the biggest desert tourism attractions in Namibia is the Namib-Naukluft Park. The natural resources and unique landscapes of the Namib Desert and the Naukluft Mountains in Namibia combine in this 50 000 square kilometre conservation area to lure tourists to this semi-desert country (“Namib Desert”, 2006). The park is adjacent to three large urban centres, namely Swakopmund, Luderitz and Walvis Bay. In addition, some of the Topnaar community live within the Park (Ministry of Environment and Tourism, 2003).

The vision statement of the Park promises to “create a world-class Desert Tourism experience which is ecologically and financially sustainable, and which contributes to Namibia’s economic development” (Ministry of

Environment and Tourism, 2003:4). The Park's strategic goals are as follows (Ministry of Environment and Tourism, 2003:5):

- To establish the Namib-Naukluft Park as a world-class Desert park, as a strategic element of Namibia's tourism development;
- To increase significantly the Namib-Naukluft Park's contribution to Namibia's national and regional economic development objectives;
- To ecologically sustain and, where appropriate, improve the management of the unique natural, cultural and historical heritage, by ensuring a self-sustaining funding mechanism and management system for this goal.

While these are admirable goals, there is an important strategic element that is missing to make this Park into a 'world class desert park' and that is the community element. The draft management plan was drawn up by the Ministry of Environment and Tourism without consultation of the communities. Community consultation is a vital component of local development as noted in Chapter 2. It is argued that tourism can only survive and thrive if it is developed with the community on its side and sustainable tourism planning must take on a community-based approach (Murphy, 1985; Veal, 2002; Wearing and McLean, 1997). The following potential benefits of this type of planning are noted by Van der Stoep (2000:312-314):

- community buy-in and empowerment;
- reduced potential of lawsuits being used to block projects;
- improved chances of long-term success;
- increased community awareness of the value of local historical, cultural and environmental attributes;
- increased sense of community identity;
- protection of sacred resources; and
- opportunities for shared resources and retaining profits within the community.

The draft management plan also failed to integrate this plan with the plans of the other ministries such as the Ministry of Lands and Resettlement. This lack of integration has resulted in some unresolved land issues. The Ministry has admitted that the Namibian Tourism Board does not have sufficient marketing skills to promote the Park as a desert tourist attraction (Ministry of Environment and Tourism, 2000). The Ministry further stated that, although the Government of Namibia has made provision for maintenance expenses in the Park, these allocations are not sufficient to sustain and improve road circuits and firebreaks (Ministry of Environment and Tourism, 2000). The Plan has also not included a monitoring framework.

By mending these strategic flaws, Namibian desert tourism can only grow and with more experience over time, can achieve successes similar to other desert tourism destinations.

3.10 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

In order to help identify boundaries for the analytical process and to assist in the identification of key variables that would aid in enhancing the research process (Taylor, Bryan & Goodrich, 1990), Chapters 2 and 3 provide critical analyses of the concepts of land redistribution and sustainable tourism from both the South African and international perspectives.

One of the investigative sub-questions posed in Section 1.7 is: *What are the positive and negative aspects of land redistribution?* Chapter 2 critically examined land redistribution programmes in four countries, Brazil, Namibia, Zimbabwe and South Africa. Table 2.3 illustrated that while some positive inroads in relation to the redistribution of economic activity and the reallocation of resources were made, not one of the four land redistribution programmes have fared favourably, in comparison with five other sustainable development components (Murphy, 1995). The DLA's commonage sub-programme was critically discussed and it was noted that one of the criticisms levelled at the commonage policy is that it is inflexible and does not provide scope for a multiple livelihoods approach (Section 2.5.2.5). The study has

purposefully avoided the debate on sustainable development on private lands versus sustainable development on commonage or communally owned lands because the study aims to draw attention to the myopic nature of the current commonage policy. This was necessary to illustrate that development options such as sustainable tourism can be an option for communities operating from communal lands. Section 2.7 notes that the governments of Brazil, Namibia and Zimbabwe acknowledge the flaws in their land reform policies and are embracing sustainable tourism and ecotourism as future strategies for land redistribution.

Understanding the sustainable tourism concept and its subsets ecotourism and sustainable tourism through CBNRM, partially assisted the study in gaining insight into the research question posed in Section 1.7: *What role can sustainable tourism play in commonage projects?* Chapter 3 attempted to build a case for sustainable tourism by critically examining the concept from negative and positive points of view in terms of its economic, social and environmental impacts. It was demonstrated that while sustainable tourism has created some negative impacts, the case studies have shown positive results for the communities that are benefiting from such ventures. Many of the disadvantages associated with sustainable tourism are actually characteristics of growth and globalization and the negative impacts that arise as a result of sustainable tourism development would also occur with development in other sectors. The literature therefore concludes that ecotourism and sustainable tourism ventures through CBNRM can create sustainable livelihoods for the rural poor.

Tourism in peripheral areas and desert tourism as discussed under Sections 3.8 and 3.9 demonstrate the sustainability of tourism in such areas by providing positive impetus for sustainable tourism in Namaqualand, which is both peripheral and a semi-desert region. The desert tourism case studies (Algeria, Australia and Namibia) also addressed the positive and negative aspects of this type of tourism. Each of these countries have management plans in place but three crucial points emerged that were also relevant for the

development of the sustainable tourism planning guidelines for commonages in Namaqualand:

- the centralisation of desert tourism strategies and the bureaucratic nature of this development have emerged as problems in Algeria. This can be resolved with structured community involvement in the development of the strategies and a devolution of power to these communities to manage strategies over a period of time;
- the improper management of desert campsites and tour operators in Australia should include an accountability framework developed and agreed to by the tourism authorities, communities and tour operators. If penalties were attached this would minimise the misuse of resources and the exploitation of communities. The accountability framework should also include the management and upgrading of tourism facilities; and
- the minimal involvement of local communities in developing desert tourism guidelines in Namibia indicate that authorities should consider revising the guidelines but including the local communities so that community buy-in is obtained.

A common thread linking all the sustainable tourism case studies (Sections 3.6, 3.7 and 3.9) as well as the redistribution programmes of the various country case studies (Sections 2.2 to 2.5) is the notion of communities as the primary resource to justify such developments. Sustaining the communities has therefore become an important element of both policies. The rationale of sustainable tourism development, in all its forms, usually rests on the assurance of renewable economic, social and cultural benefits to the community and its environment (Bramwell *et al.*, 1998; Richards & Hall, 2000) (Box 1.1).

The concept of 'community' itself is problematic and planning processes would need to take cognisance of how to define community whether in spatial, social or economic terms. The South African commonage policy defines the community or target group in both spatial and economic terms preferring to

select poor, unemployed and landless residents of a town or village with minimal municipal resources for commonage development. The word 'community' itself could imply common interest, possession or enjoyment (Soanes, 2001). Planning processes would also need to recognise that communities consist of different groupings and preferences with regard to tourism and its growth limitations (Lew, 1989). The study agrees with Scheyvens (2002) that by empowering the communities, the growth limits of tourism can be defined in a more equitable manner by providing real benefits to the local people.

As indicated in Sections 3.2.2, 3.3.2.2, 3.4.2 and 3.5.2 where the negative impacts of sustainable tourism are outlined, not all local residents benefit equally from or are equally happy with sustainable tourism development. It can be surmised that the literature on both land redistribution and sustainable tourism indicate that people's views and choices on their present and future needs, coupled with the environmental, economic, social and cultural issues, should be carefully considered and planned to encourage sustainable development.

One of the pivotal obstacles identified in terms of both land redistribution (Section 2.6) and sustainable tourism (Section 3.6 in relation to ecotourism, Section 3.7 in terms of the CBNRM case studies and Section 3.9 in terms of the desert tourism case studies) was the issue of integrated planning. South Africa has legislated the integrated planning concept through the Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) and installed the IDP framework as a key component to drive this process of planning. The literature has established that this tool is not utilised in the planning and governance of commonages. This has created the need to discuss in the next section the key elements of the IDP process that will eventually form the basis of the planning guidelines for the formation of a commonage sector plan for sustainable tourism in Namaqualand (Section 7.3).

Chapter 3 also pointed out there are cases of land *restitution* with a sustainable tourism component such as the Makuleke in the Kruger but there

is no documented evidence of land *redistribution* projects with sustainable tourism components. It also highlighted that the pros and cons of sustainable tourism need to be weighed against one another and a proper planning instrument must be put in place to develop such initiatives. From a critical examining of local and international case studies sustainable tourism could be recommended as a development option for future commonage projects in South Africa.

While the conceptual framework aided in providing partial insight into the research question, it also prompted further field studies and the design of appropriate instruments to assist in the collation of the field data. The conceptual framework has further demonstrated that there is an absence of integrated planning guidelines for sustainable tourism on commonages in Namaqualand or any other land redistribution project in South Africa and internationally. The study would therefore be filling a much-needed gap in local economic development of Namaqualand and indeed the Northern Cape Province.

3.11 INTEGRATED DEVELOPMENT PLANNING (IDP) APPROACH

While land redistribution is the competency of national government (through the DLA), commonage is the responsibility of local government through its municipalities. Municipalities must then ensure that communities access commonages and utilise this resource in a sustainable manner. Planning for and governance of the sustainable utilization of commonages therefore take place on three levels (Anderson & Pienaar, 2003; Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2000; Khanya-Managing Rural Change CC, 2004):

- micro or community level: commonage users must be active and involved in managing this development (claiming their rights and exercising their responsibilities) so that planning processes are not dictated to them but by them;
- meso-level or local government level: services need to be facilitated, provided or promoted effectively and the managing of commonages as an economic resource needs to be factored into planning; and

- macro-level or national government level: appropriate policy, capacity-building and monitoring and evaluation support must be provided to municipalities and the communities to manage commonages.

These levels of planning and governance can be factored into the IDP processes (See Figure 3.2) that must be undertaken at local government level, with the municipality and democratically elected community representatives as the 'project managers'.

The *White Paper on Local Government* that was developed in March 1998 by the then Ministry for Provincial Affairs and Constitutional Development²³ highlighted the significance of integrated development planning within the broader system of municipal government. This key policy document provided content to the new developmental roles and responsibilities for local government as set out in the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996.

The policy statements on Integrated Development Planning in the *White Paper on Local Government* provided valuable guidance for the subsequent preparation of IDPs. This would ultimately strengthen the case for integrated development planning as a key tool for developmental local government together with performance management and participatory processes (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2000). The White Paper facilitated the development of the Municipal Systems Act, 2000 (Act No. 32 of 2000) that gives legal effect to the principle of integrated development planning. The IDP Approach is based on the principle of inclusive and representative consultation and/or participation of all residents, communities and stakeholders within a municipality, as well as representatives from other spheres of government, sector specialists, and other resource persons.

²³ Now known as the Department of Provincial and Local Government.

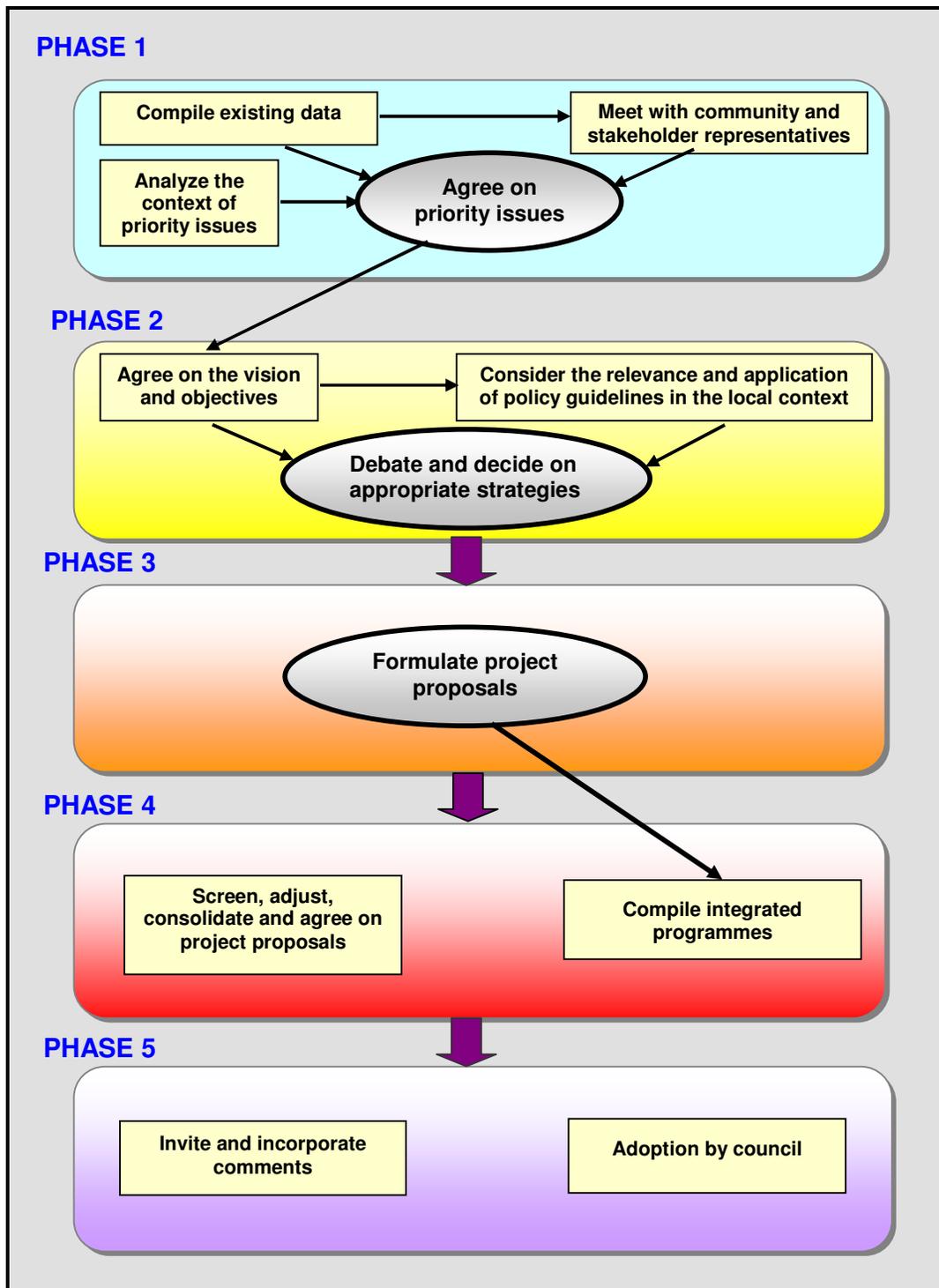


Figure 3.2: Integrated Development Plan (IDP) core components
 (Source: Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2000)

The IDP is made up of core components as illustrated in Figure 3.2. The following five phases are important aspects of arriving at a well-constituted

IDP and can be adapted for sector plans within the IDPs that deal with specific or crosscutting issues.

3.11.1 Phase 1: Analysis

This task relates to an assessment of the existing level of development, which includes identification of communities without access to basic services and other economic opportunities. Baseline information could then be formulated on development needs in particular areas.

The following types of analyses could aid in the establishment of baseline information and assist municipalities in prioritizing commonage development:

- Gap analysis: Relates to the identification of service gaps in an area.
- Stakeholder and community analysis: To identify and prioritise the needs of the different interest groups and potential resources amongst these groups, for example in relation to commonages, how much livestock do people own and what type of agricultural or other skills do they possess. Participation and decision-making are more intense if it involves direct, open and respectful dialogue among the different stakeholders and if the participants learn from one another's interests and attitudes. Community participation in the planning processes can also build on the store of knowledge, insights and capabilities of the different stakeholders. The sharing of ideas among these stakeholders can result in a richer understanding of issues and may lead to more innovative development strategies (Roberts & Bradley, 1991). Gunn (1994) states that a related consideration is how often the stakeholders are involved in the planning process.

Sustained attention needs to be paid in the planning process to the interests and attitudes of all participants, or participants, especially from the communities, who may view their participation as perfunctory. "In relation to tourism planning and management, if it is acknowledged that communities are heterogeneous, then the importance of different interest groups and vested interests needs to be recognised" (Mason,

2003:86). Swarbrooke (1999:50) suggests that in the planning stages for sustainable tourism (or other development), heterogeneous communities can be divided up in terms of:

- elites and the rest of the population;
- indigenous residents and immigrants;
- those involved in tourism and those not involved;
- property owners and property renters;
- younger people and older people;
- employers, employees, self-employed;
- those with private transport and those relying on public transport; and
- majority communities/minority communities.

Drake (1991) discusses a variety of mechanisms for enabling local participation in development projects. These range from the use of community maps, whereby local people are encouraged to express their concerns by mapping them visually together, the use of popular theatre and community workshops, to the participation of local people in formal project research teams (Drake, 1991). It is evident that the most apt mechanism for local participation in sustainable tourism ventures will depend on the intensity at which local participation is taking place and the characteristics of the local community.

- Municipal level analysis: This would include identifying crucial trends, dynamics, and related problems that affect the area of the municipality and the municipal government as a whole. It also involves identifying available resources, competitive advantages and initiatives in the municipal area and of the municipal government to address these problems. Municipalities would look at economic, social, spatial, environmental and institutional aspects and then list them in order of priority. A Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats (SWOT)

model²⁴ may also be used as part of the municipal-level analysis. Maps and other visual tools could aid in this process.

3.11.2 Phase 2: Development strategies

These include the municipality's vision (including internal transformation needs), priorities, objectives and strategies:

- The vision clarifies the long-term direction of the organisation and its strategic intent. Strategic goals and policies evolve from the mission and vision (Pearce & Robinson, 2005).
- Objectives should be set to achieve the priorities determined as part of the IDPs of the municipalities. Objectives should be performance-based and must include clear action plans and timelines for completion. Objectives should relate to the identified problems or needs of people and should be phrased as a solution of these problems. If there is a range of interrelated objectives (for example reducing unemployment by economic investments or marketing objectives for sustainable tourism ventures), the municipalities may decide on a hierarchy of objectives. Objectives have to be set before deciding on strategies. But they may have to be modified as a result of the strategy debate (Department of Provincial and Local Government *et al.*, 2001).

If the focus of the objectives is to position a particular region as a sustainable desert tourism region, then marketing principles would be utilised to shape the objectives. In relation to sustainable tourism, marketing objectives would primarily be (adapted from Middleton and Hawkins, 1998):

- outward-looking, to interpret trends among customer segments, competitors and the overall environment (including the physical, social and cultural environment);

²⁴ A SWOT analysis often provides a quick overview of an organisation's strategic situation (Pearce & Robinson, 2005). See Chapter 4 for a detailed outline of the SWOT model employed during the data synthesis process.

- customer-responsive based on the detailed knowledge of current and prospective customers;
 - forward-looking and innovative in terms of product development and determining added value;
 - concerned to balance the long-run requirements of sustaining the asset base with short-run requirements to satisfy customers and generate profits; based on the perceived needs of the tourists rather than the operational convenience of service providers.
- Municipalities must ensure that legislation and policy guidelines or control measures related to cross-cutting dimensions such as spatial development principles, environmental sustainability, poverty alleviation, gender equity, local economic development strategies, and institutional aspects, are adequately considered when strategies are designed and projects are planned. There are a multitude of Acts, municipal by-laws and policies determined by National Departments that are applicable to both commonages and tourism development. The strategies may include:
 - Impact management and mitigation strategies to minimise any impact development may have on the environment.
 - Communication and decision-making strategies to ensure full and timely disclosure of project information. Decision-making must include meaningful consultation with all the necessary stakeholders that are affected by the development, especially the local communities so as to acknowledge their customs, innovations and traditional knowledge. Sound communication and decision-making strategies would also elicit adequate funding and technical support for projects.

3.11.3 Phase 3: Projects

This is referred to as the 'nuts and bolts' phase, during which the municipality has to make sure that tangible and detailed project proposals are designed

that can be implemented (Department of Provincial and Local Government *et al.*, 2001). Technical, financial and municipal officials and residents are called upon to make inputs in small inter-sectoral teams so as to finalise project details prior to implementation. This is where commonage projects could have been assessed and valuable local input sourced prior to implementation so that the problems cited in Section 2.5.3.1 could have been avoided.

3.11.4 Phase 4: Integration

The municipality has to confirm that the project proposals are in line with its objectives and the agreed strategies, with the resource frames (financial and institutional) and with legislation (Department of Provincial and Local Government *et al.*, 2001). Individual project proposals may have to be harmonised in terms of contents, location and timing in order to arrive at consolidated and integrated programmes for the municipalities and for the sector departments (such as the DLA) or corporate service providers involved in the provision of services within a municipality. This phase is crucial for arriving at an *Integrated* Development Plan.

Some of the outputs of this phase may include:

- A spatial development framework
- Disaster management plan
- Framework for legislative control
- Integrated financial plan (both capital and operational budget)
- Other integrated programmes
- Key Performance Indicators and performance targets.

3.11.5 Phase 5: Approval

An IDP will be adopted or approved if the municipality has sufficiently consulted with the communities, met intermunicipal and intergovernmental coordination requirements, considered existing legislative and policy implications and considered the feasibility and viability of the plan (Department of Provincial and Local Government *et al.*, 2001). A very critical

element of this phase of the IDP is to link planning to the budgets of the appropriate sector departments, donors and municipalities to the identified projects.

3.11.5.1 Implementation

Once the IDP has been approved and funding/budgets aligned, implementation follows a decision to implement the various projects. In this phase of the planning process, the project team along with the community representatives develops an action plan based on the decisions made earlier in the planning cycle and this plan can be further developed into an implementation plan (Garrod, 2003). The implementation plan will further allude to the strengthening of existing institutional relationships or the creation of new ones for the purposes of implementing the projects. Implementation must continuously refer to the objectives set in terms of the IDPs. Implementation can be coupled with capacity-building initiatives within the various projects. Capacity-building activities can be identified through a skills assessment process that can be carried out during the analysis phase. Capacity building should not only focus on the users or targeted communities but also on the public sector that will be driving the implementation process.

3.11.5.2 Monitoring, evaluation, feedback and control

3.11.5.2.1 The monitoring system

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (2002:27) defines monitoring as follows: “Monitoring is a continuous function that uses the systematic collection of data on specified indicators to provide management and the main stakeholders of an ongoing development intervention with indications of the extent of progress in the use of allocated funds.”

A monitoring system should provide ongoing information (via indicators) on the direction of change, the rate of change, and the extent of change (Kusek & Rist, 2004). A monitoring system should ideally be put in place prior to the

development of the sustainable tourism development, with select indicators to track how the development is impacting on the environment, users and surrounding communities and local economic development.

The indicators will help demonstrate how well the development is meeting its objectives or when actions are not proceeding as planned. Indicators can also show where performance can be sharpened or redesigned in order to meet its objectives more effectively (Garrod, 2003). The project leaders should provide progress reports to all stakeholders during the development phase of the project. This will aid in focusing attention on what has been achieved and what still needs to be accomplished.

3.11.5.2.2 Evaluation and review system

“Evaluation is the systematic and objective assessment of an ongoing or completed project, program or policy, including its design, implementation, and results. The aim is to determine the relevance and fulfilment of objectives, development efficiency, effectiveness, impact and sustainability” (The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, 2002:21).

Kusek and Rist (2004:117) postulate that evaluative studies help managers answer eight different types of frequent questions that managers pose:

- Descriptive: Focuses on careful description of a situation, process or event and this is often utilised as the basis of a case-study approach.
- Normative or compliance: This determines whether the project, programme or policy has met with the stated objectives.
- Correlational: It illustrates the link between two situations or conditions but does not specify causality.
- Impact or cause and effect: Establishes a causal relationship between two situations or conditions.
- Program logic: Assesses whether the design has correct causal sequence.
- Implementation or process: Addresses whether implementation occurred as planned.

- Performance: Establishes links between inputs, activities, outputs, outcomes and impacts.
- Appropriate use of policy tools: Establishes whether the appropriate instruments were selected to achieve the aims.

3.11.5.2.3 Feedback and control system

Implementation policies should be designed to adjust to the unexpected rather than react based on a belief in certainties. A feedback and control system enables project managers and policy makers to obtain critical, continuous and real-time feedback on the progress of a given project, programme or policy. In terms of the public sector, this is vital as it allows the policy makers to (Kusek & Rist, 2004):

- Demonstrate accountability and show that they could deliver on political promises;
- Aid organisational learning;
- Explore and investigate what works, what does not work and why. The public sector would need to take actions, as appropriate, to address any problems encountered and to keep on track towards agreed goals; and
- Gain support among stakeholders;
- Promote understanding of the policy or programme; and
- Convince sceptics that the policy/programme/project is workable.

Where necessary, legal and policy frameworks may need to be reviewed and amended to support the feedback and control system.

3.12 CONCLUSION

This chapter extensively assessed the concept of sustainable tourism and its subsets through local and international case studies. It further explored the concepts of sustainable tourism in peripheral areas and desert regions in order to extract lessons for Namaqualand. The chapter also presented a summary of the land redistribution and sustainable tourism concepts discussed at length in Chapters 2 and 3. The conceptual framework argued

that the basic elements of the IDP framework could be adapted to form guidelines for the integration of these concepts into a sector plan for sustainable tourism on commonages. Chapter 4 provides an explanation of the methodology adopted to carry out this study.

Chapter 4

STUDY METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Cooper and Schindler (2001) aver that the design of appropriate research methods is actually the blueprint for fulfilling the objectives and answering pivotal research questions for a study. The research question and investigative sub-questions posed in Section 1.7 require both empirical and non-empirical studies. The objective of this chapter was to develop clear and concise research methods to obtain clear answers to the research question and sub-questions. The conceptual framework (Chapters 2 and 3) helped shape the methodology so that the final deliverable, the positing of unambiguous sustainable tourism planning guidelines for commonages, could be achieved (Chapter 7). The case-study approach was adopted to achieve this deliverable (See Figure 4.1).

4.2 UTILISATION OF THE CASE-STUDY APPROACH

Cresswell (1998) defines a case-study as an exploration of a 'bounded system' or a case (or multiple cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information rich in context. Stake (1995) considers the case-study as an object of study while Cresswell (1998) considers its methodology. According to Cresswell (1998), the bounded system is bound by time and place and it is the case being studied, a programme, an event, an activity or individuals.

It also became evident that the study would be qualitative in nature than quantitative (even though some quantitative methods such as bar graphs and histograms were applied during the data analyses phases). The study supports Neuman's assessment that "qualitative researchers use a language of cases and contexts, employ bricolage [*drawing on a variety of sources*], examine social processes and cases in their social context, and look for interpretation or the creation of meaning in specific settings" (2003:146). It is

also acknowledged that qualitative research and case-study research are not identical but “almost all qualitative research seeks to construct representations based on in-depth, detailed knowledge of cases” (Ragin, 1994:92).

Quantitative researchers must satisfy the methodological requirements of objectivity, reliability and validity unconditionally to ensure that their studies are free from bias and the data has been checked, controlled and undistorted (Smaling, 1989). The equivalent of objectivity in qualitative and case-study research is the concept of ‘trustworthiness’ or the neutrality of the findings (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Babbie and Mouton (2001) declare that, to operationalise ‘trustworthiness’, the research needs to be credible, dependable, confirmable and transferable. The concepts of credibility and dependability are overlapping concepts and Babbie and Mouton (2001) confirm that techniques used to demonstrate that the study is credible are sufficient to establish the existence of dependability.

In order to establish trustworthiness, based on the concepts of credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability, this study achieved this in the following manner:

4.2.1 Credibility and dependability

Babbie and Mouton (2001: 277) state that credibility and dependability would be achieved, if the constructed realities that exist in the minds of respondents were compatible with those that are attributed to them. The researcher found that the best way to achieve credibility was to triangulate the study methods. Triangulation is the application and combination of several research methods in the study of the same phenomenon. Researchers need to understand the usefulness of the data collected in terms of:

- how accurate a picture is presented;
- whether the conclusions in the research are applicable; and
- can others repeat the research and would they obtain similar results?

A weakness in one data-collection method could be avoided by using a second method, which is strong in the area that the first method is weak. Triangulation might be used in this instance to refer to multi-method research in which both qualitative and quantitative research methods are combined to provide a more complete set of findings. For example, when researchers interview people it is taken on trust that the respondent is telling the truth. However, by using another method such as observation of a person's behaviour in everyday life, the information provided could either be corroborated or refuted. This combination of methods is known as triangulation and this study has employed this technique to crosscheck the credibility of the data.

Denzin (1970) extended the idea of triangulation beyond its conventional association with research methods and designs. He distinguished four forms of triangulation:

- *data triangulation*, which entails gathering data through several sampling strategies so that pieces of data at different times and social situations, as well as on a variety of people, are gathered (Guion, 2002);
- *investigator/researcher triangulation*, which refers to the use of more than one researcher in the field to gather and interpret data;
- *theoretical triangulation*, which refers to the use of more than one theoretical perspective in interpreting data; and
- *methodological triangulation*, which refers to the use of more than one method for gathering data.

This study engaged three types of triangulation:

4.2.1.1 Data triangulation

This method involves the use of different sources of data/information including primary and secondary literature sources. Primary information was also elicited through the interview process. The researcher categorised the

responses of the land-reform stakeholders (commonage users, Nama Khoi and Richtersveld Municipalities and government and non-governmental organisations) as part of the evaluation of the performance of the commonage users in relation to the DLA's commonage sub-programme. The responses from the tourism stakeholders (Richtersveld CPA and tourism authorities in the Northern Cape) were also categorised to enable the researcher to draw conclusions and formulate guidelines on sustainable tourism for commonages.

The researcher also obtained data from a workshop that she participated in on the development of the Northern Cape Tourism Master Plan in November 2004. The data was subsequently coded according to qualitative techniques using various themes that were clustered together from the interview schedule of questions.

4.2.1.2 Theory triangulation

Theory triangulation involves the use of multiple professional perspectives to interpret a single set of information. The theories of sustainable tourism, sustainable development, land and agrarian reform and sustainable livelihoods have been applied to interpret the data.

4.2.1.3 Triangulation of observers

The researcher employed three field researchers during this study to provide different perspectives on the case studies. Researchers were paired for the interview sessions, where one would interview and the other would observe the subjects. This process proved to be more objective in analysing the interviews after the session had ended and field notes were compiled.

4.2.2 Confirmability

Babbie and Mouton (2001:278) state that confirmability "is the degree to which the findings are the product of the focus of the inquiry and not the biases of

the researcher”. Six classes of data were reviewed, as part of the study, to ensure that a significant ‘confirmability audit trail’ was left (Lincoln & Guba, 1985):

4.2.2.1 Instrument development information

A preliminary research schedule and semi-structured interview schedules were developed (See Step 2c).

4.2.2.2 Raw data

Recorded audio cassettes, written field notes and the completed questionnaires were also used in this study.

4.2.2.3 Data reduction and analysis products

Transcripts of the interviews, write-ups of the field notes and the completed interview schedules were used to reduce and analyse the data for this study (See Figure 4.3).

4.2.2.4 Data reconstruction and synthesis

Based on the data analysis, themes were developed and the results were summarised in a report format according to the themes before inclusion into Chapters 5 and 6 of this study (See Figure 4.3 and Steps 5a and 5b).

4.2.2.5 Process notes

The researcher wrote down the steps followed in the research process and this is discussed under Steps 1 to 6 of this chapter.

4.2.2.6 Material relating to intentions and dispositions

A research proposal and a research design was formulated initially to guide the development of the study and later reformulated into the research question (1.7) and research objectives (1.8).

4.2.3 Transferability

“This refers to the extent to which the findings can be applied in other contexts or with other respondents” (Babbie & Mouton, 2001:277). Non-probability purposive sampling is one strategy that this study employed to achieve transferability. The researcher wanted to make use of case studies (commonage projects) rather than draw a representative sample from all the commonage users in Namaqualand. This would have been time consuming and commonage users would have been spread all over the province and not necessarily within the SNTR locale.

It was also easier to utilise the non-probability purposive sampling technique (See Step 2b) to firstly select case studies and then purposively select users within these projects because of the rural nature of the projects and the fact that some of the users were unavailable due to work commitments or could not be located at the time of the interviews. Random sampling techniques could not be employed because the variables could not be easily defined. The case-study approach also allowed the researcher to focus gradually on the research question while gathering data on the topic. This is unlike quantitative research that starts with a hypothesis and the topic is narrowed once all the data has been collected.

4.3 THE SIX-STEP CASE-STUDY APPROACH

The following six steps (See Figure 4.1) have been proposed, based on the suggested techniques of established case-study researchers such as Simons (1980), Stake (1995), and Yin (1984):

- Step 1:* Determination and definition of the research questions and literature review;
- Step 2:* Case-study selection and determination of data gathering and analysis techniques;
- Step 3:* Preparations to collect the data;
- Step 4:* Collection of data;

Step 5: Analysis of data; and

Step 6: Proposition of recommendations based on the results obtained from the data.

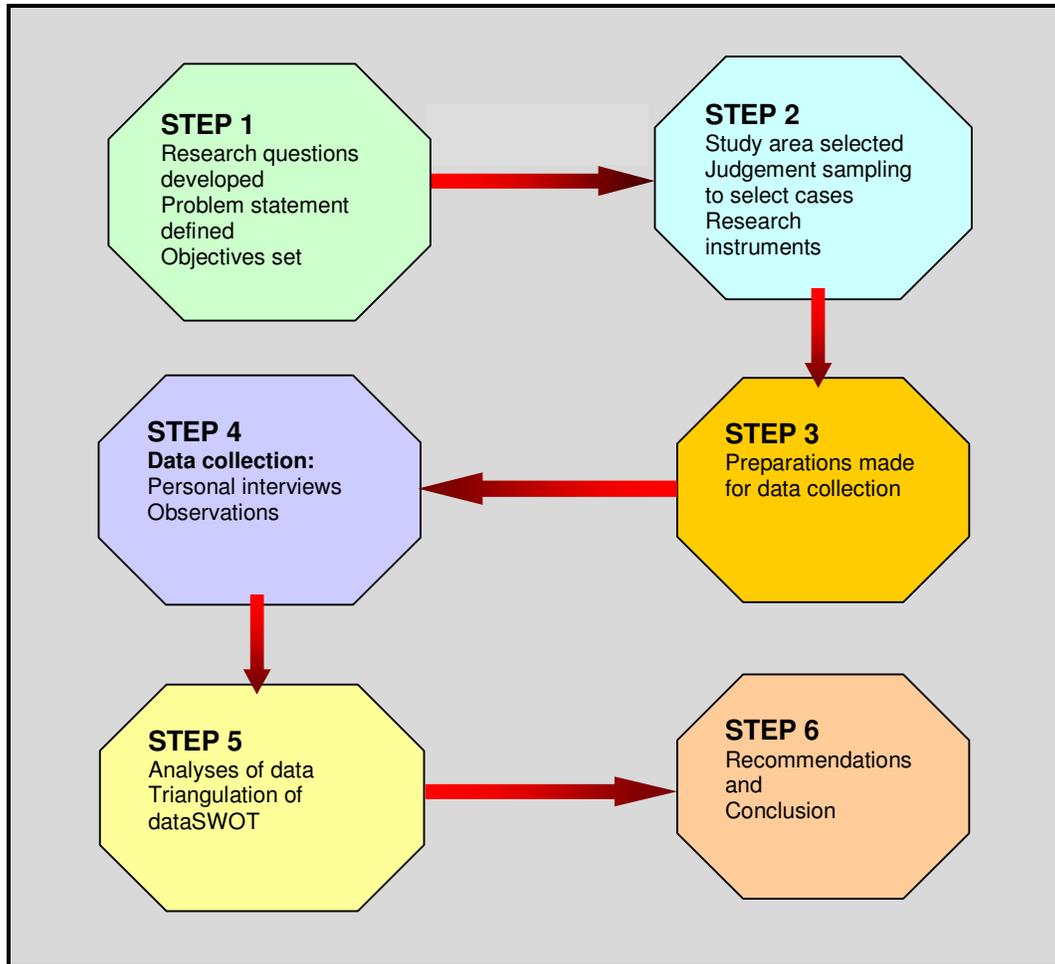


Figure 4.1: Case-study approach

(Source: Simons, 1980; Stake, 1995; Yin, 1984)

Step 1: Determination and definition of the research questions and literature review

General literature on land reform and tourism were sourced so that the researcher could determine the problem and establish the research question. Primary data were obtained from the Departments of Land Affairs and Environmental Affairs and Tourism in the form of policy documents, legislation, white papers and unpublished reports. Secondary data such as

newspaper articles, published reports and books, provided further general knowledge on the problem and grounding that led to the formulation of the research question and investigative sub-questions. Objectives were then determined in a systematic manner so that the study could conclude with concrete answers/recommendations to the research question and sub-questions posed.

Once the objectives were formulated, specific literature on land redistribution through commonages and sustainable tourism had to be acquired and assessed. Primary and secondary data were also utilised for this purpose and were obtained from a variety of sources.

Step 2: Case-study selection and determination of the data-gathering and analysis techniques

(a) Case-study area:

In relation to the empirical research, Namaqualand (See Figure 4.2) in the Northern Cape Province was selected because:

- it is the largest district in the province;
- agricultural activities such as livestock farming have been given more prominence than any other economic sector after the closure of the copper mines in the area;
- Namaqualand has vast untapped sustainable tourism potential in the form of ecotourism, adventure tourism, desert tourism and cultural tourism; and
- Namaqualand is described on the Northern Cape Provincial Government's website as a region of contrasts ("Namaqualand", 2005).

Namaqualand borders on the Atlantic to the west, the Orange River border of Namibia to the north, Oranje and Bo-Karoo Districts to the east, and Western Cape to the south. Namaqualand (also called Namakwa District) is made up of four municipalities with 25 towns: Kamiesberg, Namakhoi, Richtersveld and Khai-Ma. It covers an area of 48 000 km² and has an estimated population of 100 000 people (Rohde, Benjaminsen & Hoffman, 2001).

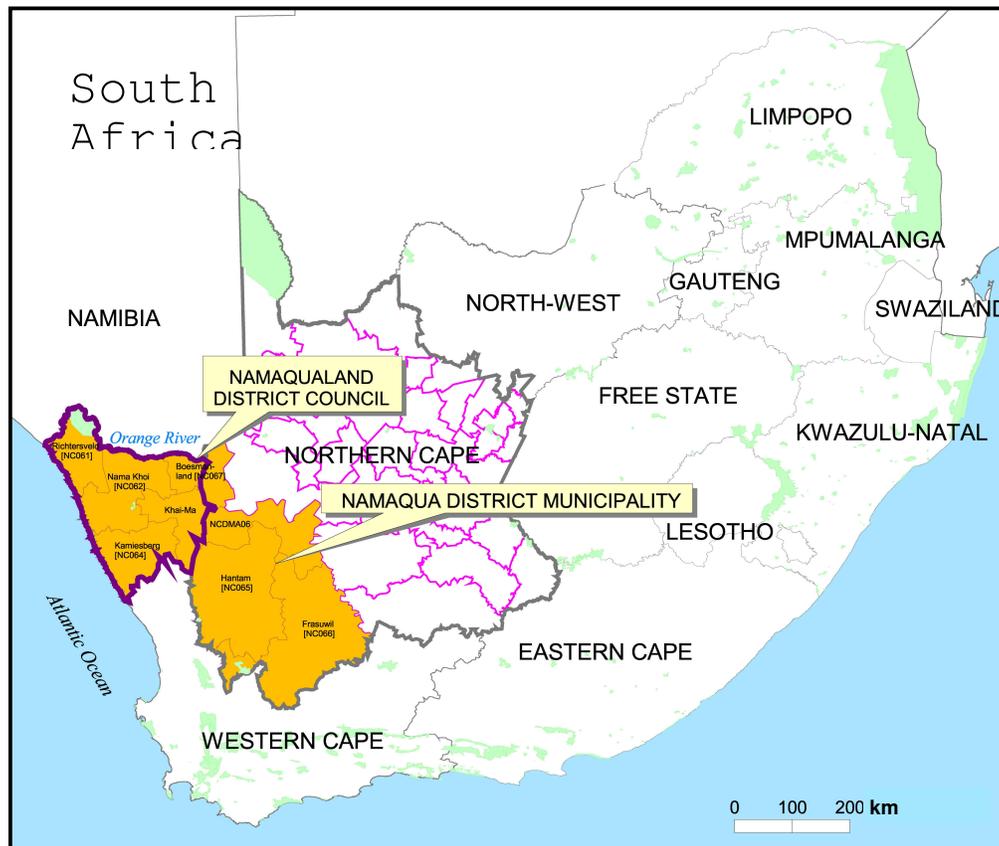


Figure 4.2: Map of Namaqualand

(Source: Namakwa District Municipality, 2005)

As stated in Section 1.9.2, the majority of Namaqualand's towns form part of the SNTR. The emerging SNTR initiative is a community-based tourism route that is being developed based on equitable, sustainable and responsible tourism in conjunction with local people from the route. The aim of this initiative is to establish a self-regulated tourism industry that will ensure that benefits accrue to local people.

The DEAT has developed a Section 21-company to undertake the management of this route. Various initiatives, such as the facilitation of a study tour series for old and young on community-based natural resource management to preserve the valuable natural and cultural heritage along the route and the 'Youth Leaders for the Environment' Programme, are part of the appeal of the SNTR.

(b) Non-probability purposive sampling

The study supports the arguments of Becker (1998) that it would be impossible to study every case and that there should be no generalization of the results from case studies. Based on this, the study employed the non-probability sampling technique called purposive sampling to sample 19 commonage projects out of a possible 21 projects in the Namaqualand region. The 19 projects were located in the towns that form part of the SNTR (See Section 1.9.2). Six commonage projects were selected based on the purposive sampling technique described below. The six commonage projects are located in three towns (Steinkopf, Springbok and Port Nolloth - See Figure 4.2) and are administered by two of the local municipalities: Richtersveld (Port Nolloth) and Nama Khoi (Springbok and Steinkopf) as part of the Namakwa District Council.

Neuman (2003) avers that purposive sampling is an acceptable kind of sampling for special situations. It uses the judgement of an expert in selecting cases or it selects cases with a specific purpose in mind. Neuman (2003) also notes that it is inappropriate if it is used to pick the 'average housewife' or 'typical school'. With purposive sampling, a researcher does not know whether the cases selected represent the population. Purposive sampling was found to be appropriate in relation to the study because the researcher wanted to identify particular commonage projects for in-depth investigation. In an effort to minimise costs, purposive sampling was found to be the most cost-effective method of sampling for the purposes of the research. Purposive sampling allows the researcher to obtain all possible cases that fit the particular criteria using various methods.

The ensuing criteria were used to sample these projects utilising the purposive sampling technique (See **Annexure 1**):

- location in or near to (± 40 km) towns forming part of the SNTR;
- size of the redistributed land. The projects were ranked from one to nineteen (one being the project with the most hectares and nineteen the project with the least amount of land);

- ownership of the commonages belonging to Nama Khoi Municipality and Richtersveld Municipality;
- location to national roads. There are two national roads (N7 and N14) that run through Namaqualand heading towards Namibia; and
- location to other natural wonders that are tourist draw-cards such as nature reserves or national parks. There are two nature reserves (Skilpad Wildflower Reserve and Goegap Nature Reserve) and one national park, the Richtersveld National Park.

The procedures used to select the commonage projects were as follows:

- All towns in the Namaqualand region were listed in alphabetical order in the table (See **Annexure 1**).
- The towns that formed part of the SNTR were then marked with a tick. There were only 10 towns that formed part of this route.
- All the commonage projects were then placed in a separate column next to their town of origin. Ten towns shared 19 projects between them. Two of the SNTR towns, Port Nolloth and Steinkopf, had four of the commonage projects between them (Port Nolloth Commonage, Breekhoorn/Nakanas, Steenbok and Taaibosmond). Port Nolloth and Steinkopf form part of the Richtersveld and Nama Khoi local municipalities respectively. These four projects were automatically selected as the towns they were located in formed part of the SNTR and were within the local municipal areas stipulated in the criteria.
- The commonages were ranked according to size with the largest ranked number 1 and the smallest ranked number 19. The smallest (Draay Commonage) and largest (Taaibosmond) were included in the sample. Taaibosmond formed part of the four commonages referred to earlier.
- The final selection of the sixth commonage project (Springbok commonage) was based on its location next to the Draay commonage. It was located within the Nama Khoi Local Municipality's boundary and situated about 40 kilometres from the SNTR and Skilpad Nature Reserve.

Table 4.1 then reflects the final six projects selected for the field study.

Table 4.1: Sampled commonage projects in Namaqualand

Project Name	Location	Municipality	Date/Year Transferred	Hectares
Taaibosmond Commonage	Steinkopf	Nama Khoi	06.04.2000	46 154,3635
Breekhoorn/ Nakanas	Steinkopf	Nama Khoi	12.03.1999	32 669,1399
Steenbok Commonage	Steinkopf	Nama Khoi	01.06.1999	31 200,0664
Port Nolloth Commonage	Port Nolloth	Richtersveld	28.03.2002	22 668,5887
Springbok Commonage (for Bergsig and Matjieskloof communities in Springbok)	Springbok	Nama Khoi	18.03.1999	7 039,6932
Springbok/ Draay	Springbok	Nama Khoi	28.02.2003	2 876,6678

(c) Development of the research instruments

Once the case studies were selected, appropriate research instruments were developed. Four semi-structured questionnaires for the personal interview phase were developed to aid in data collection. The questionnaires consisted of both open-ended²⁵ and close-ended²⁶ questions. The questionnaires were used during the interviews and provided the researcher with a guide to obtain feedback and delve deeper into any issue that the respondent has put forward.

The interviews with the commonage users and authorities (See **Annexures 2** and **3** for the lists of respondents), guided by the semi-structured questionnaires (See **Annexures 4** and **5**), provided the researcher with

²⁵ An open-ended question is essentially an unstructured question that tries to elicit a free response from the respondents.

²⁶ A close-ended question is structured with a fixed response from a list of possible choices.

information on what the current farming conditions on the commonages were, whether the users were satisfied with livestock farming as a livelihood and obtained their opinions on whether tourism ventures could be established on the commonages they were using. The findings of the interviews and information gleaned from the literature were incorporated in the development of the planning guidelines presented in Chapter 7.

The purposes of the interviews with the Eksteenfontein community (See **Annexure 6** for a list of respondents) through semi-structured questionnaires (See **Annexures 7** and **8**) were to gain knowledge on community tourism through the establishment of Rooiberg conservancy model, to identify strengths and weaknesses in the model and to assess whether this model can create sustainable livelihoods through tourism. The findings also contributed towards the formulation of the guidelines for sustainable tourism on commonages.

Step 3: Preparations to collect the data

Case-study research generates a large amount of data from multiple sources and systematic organisation of the data is important to prevent the researcher from becoming overwhelmed by the amount of data and from losing sight of the research objectives and questions. The researcher had prepared a simple file-based system to assist with the categorisation, sorting, storing and retrieving of data.

Field researchers were employed to assist in the data collection process and a pilot study of a non-sampled commonage project was undertaken to prepare the researchers and remove obvious barriers, problems and ambiguities.

Step 4: Collection of the data

(a) Personal interviews

The advantage of face-to-face interviews is that they have the highest response rate and permit the longest questionnaires (Neuman, 2003). Neuman (2003) cautions about interviewer bias and leading respondents to respond in a certain way, but the researcher avoided this by using another

field researcher to interview half the respondents while she covertly observed the interviews, and vice versa. This also aided in triangulating the information that was received from the respondents. The objectives of these interviews were to establish what were the current farming conditions on the commonages, whether the users were satisfied with livestock farming as a livelihood and to obtain their opinions on whether sustainable tourism ventures could be established on the commonages they were utilising.

Face-to-face interviews were effectively employed to explain questions simply and in Afrikaans (the home language of commonage users and Eksteenfontein residents). The benefits of this interviewing technique are as follows:

- it gave the researcher freedom to explore general views and opinions in more detail;
- it allowed the researcher the flexibility to phrase questions differently during the interview or change some questions to suit the interview; and
- it encouraged two-way communication and respondents were free to ask the researcher questions and eager to divulge sensitive information without prompting. Respondents also gave permission to record the data on tape and the tapes were then transcribed.

Face-to-face interviews, with the semi-structured questionnaires serving as guides, were considered the methods of choice because a survey instrument that could be dropped off and collected later would have served no purpose because of the language barriers. A telephone survey would have been ineffective because many of the respondents did not have either landlines or cellular telephones. In terms of the interviews with the commonage users, each interview lasted $\pm 1\frac{1}{2}$ hours. Some of the interviews took place at the homes of the commonage users while others took place on the commonages. This also offered the researcher an opportunity to observe the conditions on the commonage farms and at the homes of the users and to write down additional observations.

Thirty-four face-to-face interviews were conducted with commonage users from the six commonage projects over a ten-day period in November 2004. Four officials, one each from the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Land Affairs, the Nama Khoi Municipality and the Richtersveld Municipality, were also interviewed.

In relation to the sustainable tourism conservancy venture interviews in Eksteenfontein (See Figure 4.2), two additional field researchers (community volunteers) and the researcher conducted 42 face-to-face interviews with adult (18 years and older) members of the Eksteenfontein community and conservancy management over nine-day period in November 2004. There are approximately 700 people in Eksteenfontein of which 300 are adults. Some of the adults are employed on the mines and some have left the area to pursue tertiary studies or seek employment in other provinces. The 42 people interviewed were either directly involved with the conservancy or had some knowledge of this development. The use of the volunteer community field researchers proved successful as this seemed to have elicited credible and honest responses from the close-knit community and aided in identifying the respondents.

In addition, interviews were conducted with government tourism officials involved with sustainable tourism opportunities for communities in the area. The Steinkopf Farmers Association was approached to provide background on Northern Cape agriculture, in particular its successes and failures in Namaqualand. The Provincial Managers of the Departments of Land Affairs and Agriculture were also approached to give their opinions on land redistribution and agricultural development in the Northern Cape. The managers of the sustainable community tourism initiatives in the Richtersveld National Park were questioned on the positive and negative aspects of this venture.

(b) Observation

The study utilised both participant observation and non-participant observation techniques:

*Participant observation*²⁷: Participant observation involves the researcher's getting to know the people or situation she is studying by entering into the subject's world and participating (either overtly or covertly) in that world (Livesey, 2004). This type of subjective research method allows researchers to place themselves in the shoes of the respondents in an attempt to experience events in a way that is similar to the experiences of the people or the situation being studied.

The researcher employed this technique during the visit to the sustainable tourism venture in Eksteenfontein. The researcher stayed at the guesthouse in the village and participated in a tour to the Rooiberg Conservancy. This type of observation was necessary to experience tourism from a tourist's point of view and to ascertain whether tourists will be enticed into returning, thereby contributing to the sustainability of this venture.

*Non-participant observation*²⁸: This technique was employed during visits to the commonage projects. A simple example of this type of method might be a television documentary that involves a camera crew that observe and record people's behaviour as they go about their daily lives. The method can be covert (secret) where the subjects are unaware that they are being observed or overt (open) where the subject is aware of this observation.

²⁷ The researcher has been trained in this method and has utilized this technique in other studies both professionally (Department of Land Affairs: Review of Farm Equity Schemes in 2005, Review of the LRAD Grant Size, in 2004, LRAD Rapid Assessment in 2005) and academically (Masters dissertation in 1997: Group Credit Associations and their relevance for housing development for the poor in Wiggins, Durban, South Africa).

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Most of the commonage users were interviewed at their homes or places that were convenient for them and made them feel at ease with the researcher and field researchers. Once the interviews were concluded, the researcher and one field researcher accompanied the users to the commonage farms to observe overtly their livestock operations and general conditions on the farms.

Observations by the researcher and field researcher were written in a field note diary and recorded immediately after the occurrence. The notes were then ordered chronologically with the date, time and place on each entry. Kirk and Miller (1986) call these *direct observation notes* which they consider a basic source of field data for any researcher who needs a detailed description of what was heard or seen in specific terms.

Step 5: Analyses of data

Figure 4.3 illustrates the data collection and analysis process.

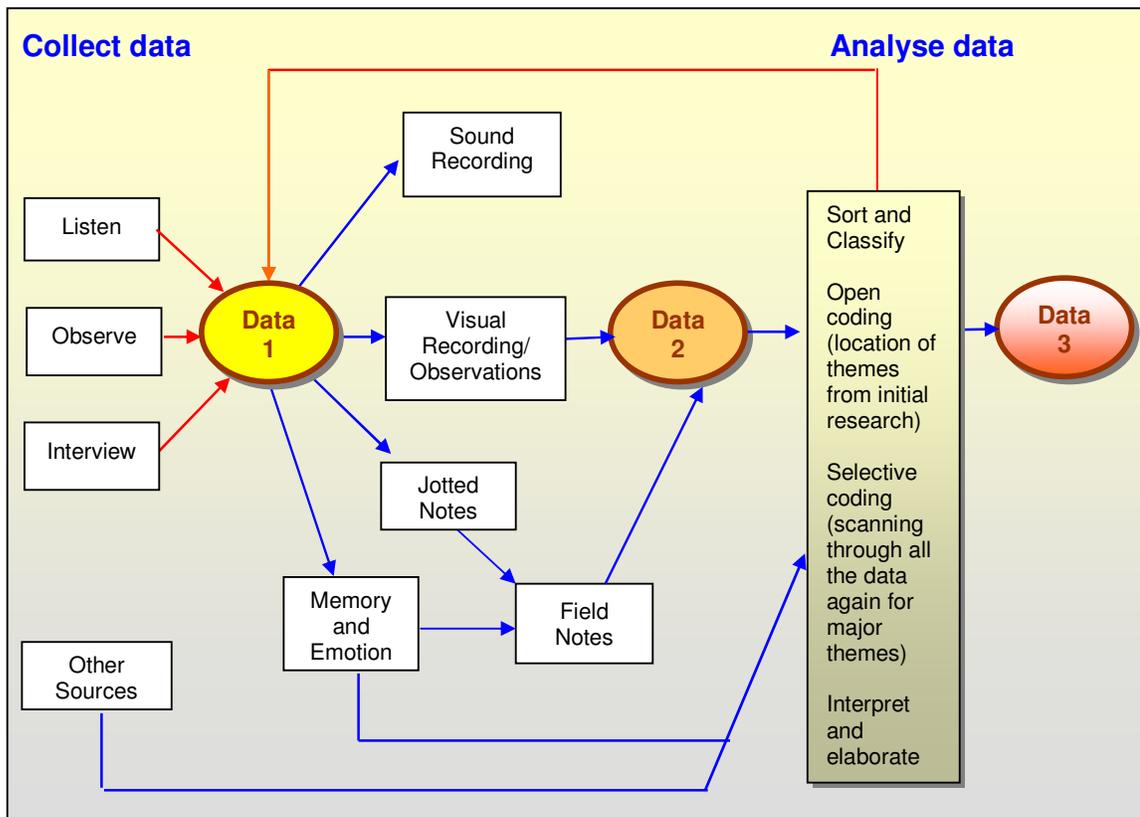


Figure 4.3: Data collection and analysis process

(Source: Adapted from Ellen, 1984)

Data 1: Raw data assimilated through the researcher's experience.

Data 2: Recorded data from field research.

Data 3: Selected processed data presented in a final report.

a) Data synthesis process

The researcher examined the raw data using many interpretations to find linkages between the research object and the outcomes with reference to the original research questions. Throughout the evaluation and analysis process, the researcher remained objective and opened to new insights. The researcher categorised, tabulated and recombined data to address the initial objectives of the study, crosschecked facts and discrepancies in accounts with the other field researchers. Microsoft Excel was utilised during the tabulation process and simple pie charts, histograms and bar graphs were prepared to present graphical pictures of the data.

Secondary data from newspaper articles, project business plans and administrative reports, other media reports and information obtained from the Internet were integrated with the primary data obtained. A SWOT model was then applied to analyse the data further.

b) SWOT analysis

A SWOT analysis is a comparison of an organisation's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats. The SWOT analysis involves an examination of the organisation's external and internal environments. In relation to the internal environment, a thorough analysis of the organisation's internal processes and structures are conducted. The purpose of such an analysis is to establish its strengths and its weaknesses.

In relation to the external environment, a thorough analysis is conducted of the organisation's macro (remote) and operating (market/competitive) environments and this would provide the information needed to identify an organisation's opportunities and threats. An assessment of the external

environment tends to focus on positive and negative external factors that influence the organisation (Start & Hovland, 2004).

Once all the factors have been determined, these factors can then be evaluated based on their impacts and occurrence and appropriate response strategies/policies can then be formulated (Start & Hovland, 2004). Table 4.2 shows the SWOT matrix and its underlying logic.

Table 4.2: SWOT analysis matrix

	Factors that help the organisation achieve its objectives	Factors that prevent an organisation from achieving its objectives
Internal factors under the control of managers	STRENGTH	WEAKNESS
External factors outside the control of managers	OPPORTUNITY	THREAT

(Source: Wickham, 2000)

The matrix has been applied to assess the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats for sustainable tourism on commonages in Namaqualand through SWOT assessments of the selected commonage projects and the conservancy tourism project. While it may not be the best method of analysis, the SWOT model can be quickly applied to obtain a general assessment where the critical factors can be determined. In detailed planning, a socio-economic, gap analysis and/or stakeholder analysis should ideally follow the SWOT analysis. The synthesis of the SWOT analysis and the conceptual framework resulted in the proposed planning guidelines that received attention in Chapter 7.

Step 6: Proposition of recommendations based on the results obtained from the data

Ideally, the researcher wanted to use focus groups in the Namaqualand area to review and comment on the draft guidelines and based on comments received would have made revisions where necessary. However, time and

financial constraints prevented the researcher from adopting this approach. The researcher paid particular attention to displaying sufficient evidence that all avenues have been explored by clearly communicating the boundaries of the sampled projects or cases, and gave special attention to conflicting propositions when it arose.

The analysed data and literature provided the impetus for the formulation of guidelines for inclusion of sustainable tourism ventures on commonages as a contribution to sustainable development in Namaqualand.

4.4 CONCLUSION

Chapter 4 provided a discussion on the methods employed to conduct the study. The range of methods adopted has been carried out within the ambit of the six-step case-study approach. An explanation of the purposive sampling technique, the development of the research instruments, data collection techniques (interviews and observations) and data analyses (triangulation, synthesis and SWOT) was provided in detail.

The next chapter provides the empirical evidence collated from the six commonages visited as part of the study with the aim of understanding whether agricultural activities on commonages has created sustainable livelihoods and to assess the respondents' perceptions with regard to sustainable tourism on commonages.

Chapter 5

COMMONAGE PROJECTS IN NAMAQUALAND

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The objective of this chapter is to present the results of the interviews undertaken with the commonage users of the six identified commonage projects in Namaqualand and authorities that are involved in land and agrarian reform in the district. Perceptions on whether agricultural development has created sustainable livelihoods and whether tourism could lead to sustainable livelihoods were analysed and interpreted utilising the SWOT model (See Step 5C of Chapter 4). An understanding of the current situation on commonages and the communities' perceptions on tourism has aided in establishing a more concrete response to the research question and its investigative sub-question posed in Section 1.7: *What role can sustainable tourism play in commonage projects? What are the successes and failures of agrarian driven commonage projects in Namaqualand?*

5.2 LAND-USE IN THE NORTHERN CAPE

The Northern Cape is an arid region. Figure 5.1 illustrates the major agricultural land-use patterns in this region. The arid nature of the Northern Cape has allowed the livestock industry to thrive. The 2% of arable land is primarily located near the Orange River and features the production of table grapes as the predominant agricultural practice (Department of Tourism, Environment and Conservation, 2004). Only 1% to 3.7% of the total land mass of the Northern Cape is set aside for conservation (Blignaut & Wilson, 2000; National Botanical Institute, 2004). Urbanisation in the province is quite low at 0.1% (Department of Tourism, Environment and Conservation, 2004).

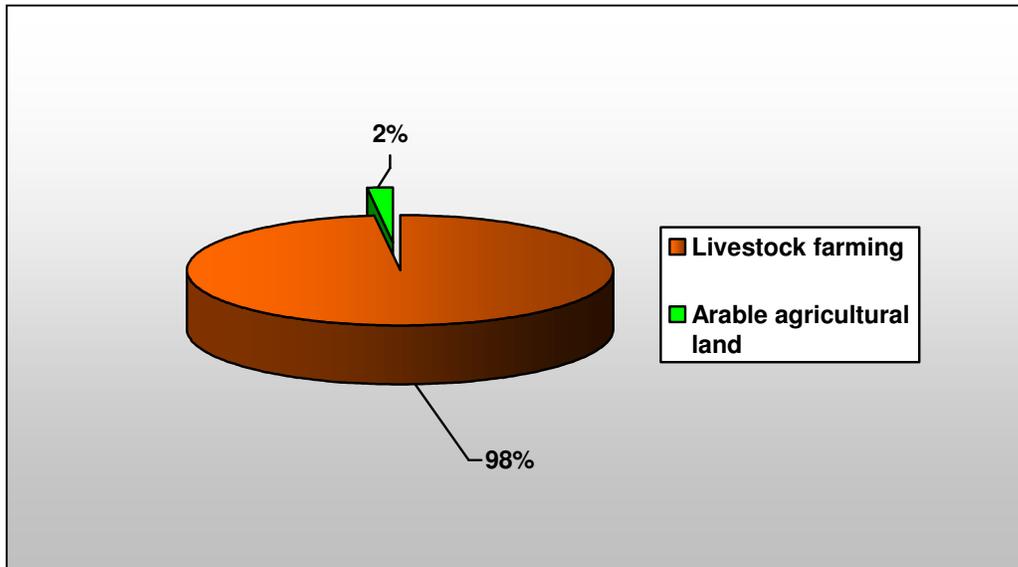


Figure 5.1: Agricultural land-use patterns in the Northern Cape

(Source: National Botanical Institute, 2004)

5.3 LAND REFORM IN THE NORTHERN CAPE

The Government of South Africa has redistributed more than half a million hectares of agricultural land through 130 tenure and redistribution projects in the Northern Cape, using subsidies. Northern Cape land reform, while focusing on land redistribution, is complicated in relation to the land rights issues of land restitution and upgrading of land tenure rights in terms of the Transformation of Certain Rural Areas Act, 1998, (Act No. 94 of 1998) or TRANCRAA as it is commonly called (Section 5.4).

Table 5.1 illustrates that the Northern Cape Province has contributed the most hectares of land through the Commonage Programme. As stated in Section 2.5.2, the municipalities are the legal owners of commonage land, with the identified users gaining access to land for agricultural purposes. One of the primary reasons for purchasing commonage is that land prices in the Northern Cape are high and that, despite subsidy funding through the LRAD grant-system, people were still not be able to afford to purchase farms on their own. One valid criticism of the commonage approach is that the DLA could have purchased the land and simply subdivided and transferred agricultural land to

selected beneficiaries without it becoming commonage land for municipalities to manage.

Table 5.1: Northern Cape: land reform programme performance

Grant/project type	No. of projects	No. of households	No. of female-headed households	Size of land (in hectares)
Commonage	47	1 205	32	410 0009,93
Share equity schemes	2	352	10	50
LRAD	45	422	120	41 281,54
Tenure	1	18	0	50
Settlement/Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG)	35	3 656	214	77 643,00
Total	130	5 653	376	528 989,09

(Source: Department of Land Affairs, 2004:27)

5.4 LAND REFORM IN NAMAQUALAND

5.4.1 Historical overview of land dispossession in Namaqualand

Namaqualand (See Figure 4.2) puts on a spectacular flower show every September. However, the region has a sad and unique history linked to land dispossession and poverty. In 1654, indigenous Khoi-Khoi people were forced to move northwards as the Dutch expanded from the Cape Colony, taking prime land, as they desired (Steyn, 1988).

Simon van der Stel, Governor of the Cape Colony, headed the first white expedition in 1685 from the erstwhile Cape Colony to Namaqualand. He had reports of rich copper deposits in the area and sank three prospecting shafts near Springbok. Van der Stel had carved his initials on the largest of these shafts and this has subsequently been declared a national monument (Nama Khoi Municipality, 2003). Missionaries also played a significant role in the history of Namaqualand and the town of Steinkopf is one of the towns that originated from a mission settlement. Rural people of Namaqualand are

essentially of Khoi-Khoi and San origin and were classified in terms of apartheid legislation as 'coloured'.

Namaqualand is home to the Nama people, who are direct descendants of the Khoi-Khoi people who were aboriginal hunters of Southern Africa (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996). Other groups such as other indigenous peoples and white settlers married many Khoi-Khoi and Nama people (*Mail and Guardian*, 1999). Their culture suffered when the apartheid regime prohibited their strange multi-click language from being taught in schools and forced them to re-locate to other areas.

5.4.2 From land dispossession to land reform

Agricultural and land reforms of Namaqualand's communal areas have been proposed repeatedly since the 19th Century, primarily by individuals with a stake in privatising the commons for commercial farming purposes. Namaqualand is an underdeveloped region that has experienced intense land struggles in the 1980s (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996). These struggles have tended to focus on retaining communal land in the reserves, in the face of the government's land utilization policy that threatened to leave the majority of residents landless. The reserves were based on 'tickets of occupation' issued in the 19th Century (*Mail and Guardian*, 1999). The communal lands and settlements provided cheap pools of labour to the mining industry and commercial farming sector.

Stockowners in Namaqualand had through the years called for the abolishment of the communal land or reserves based on the reasoning of over-grazing and 'free-for-all' access associated with communal grazing and resulting in Hardin's '*tragedy of the commons*' as alluded to earlier in the study. In 1963, Apartheid legislation was used to regulate the reserves in the form of the Coloured Rural Areas Act, 1963, (Act No. 9 of 1987), as amended by the TRANCRAA, (Act No. 94 of 1998) (Wisborg, 2002). This scheme entailed dividing the reserves up into 'economic' units that would be leased to aspirant farmers for a certain period until the farms could be sold.

The problem was there were many households who owned livestock in most parts of Namaqualand. “In the southern part of the Richtersveld, for example, there were 37 units, ranging in size from 3 000 to 5 000 hectares. But at least 150 households owned stock” (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996:135). This was clearly not feasible as stock numbers exceeded the carrying capacity of those units and restricted stock movements. There was also concern on how the units were to be allocated and the use/lease fees that were going to be charged. Although the units were allocated to *bona fide* farmers, other livestock owners with single sources of income felt that the allocation process favoured the wealthier stockowners that already had other sources of income (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996). In the 1980s, the Leliefontein community took the matter to the courts and the government was forced to withdraw the scheme in most of the reserves in Namaqualand. This did not result in economical land use in Namaqualand nor did it solve the land-hunger in the region.

5.4.3 Land-use in Namaqualand

There are currently six areas or 23 reserves that form part of the TRANCRAA land that form the 27% or 1,2 million hectares of communal land (See Figure 5.2).

Land reform policies have played a significant role in trying to increase the land base for people in the communal areas through purchases made via the Commonage and LRAD programmes of the DLA. Five commercial LRAD projects were completed in the Namaqua district, redistributing about 2 623,86 hectares of private white-owned farmland to indigent black subsistence livestock farmers (Department of Land Affairs, 2004). However, the 580-hectare Goodhouse LRAD Paprika project in Steinkopf has been completed on TRANCRAA lands and technically this is regarded as upgrading of tenure rights as the tenants were granted 99-year leases to farm with paprika in the area. While TRANCRAA was meant to purport a rights-based approach to land reform and rural livelihoods, it would merely have sought to convert or upgrade existing land tenure arrangements in Namaqualand without necessarily altering the land holding patterns or making an impact on rural livelihoods.

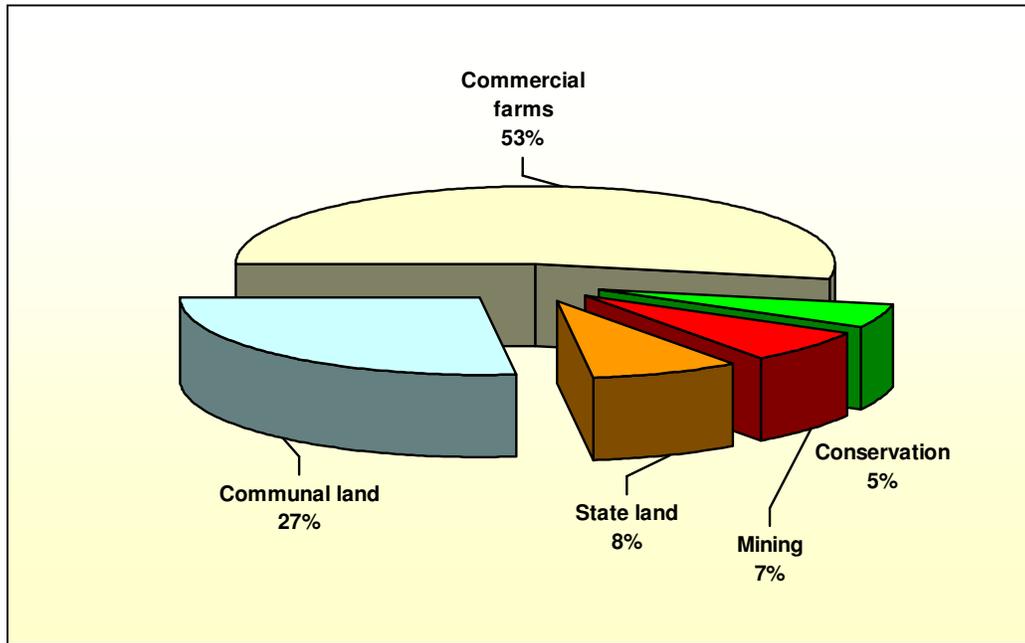


Figure 5.2: Land-use patterns in Namaqualand (2001)

(Source: Rohde *et al.*, 2001)

5.4.4 DLA commonage sub-programme in Namaqualand

The DLA has adopted a developmental approach especially in the Northern Cape through its commonage sub-programme. An estimated 300 000 hectares of agricultural land were purchased in Namaqualand through this sub-programme to add to the existing municipal commonage for use by poor residents, essentially for grazing and small-scale agricultural production (See Figure 5.2). This amounts to an estimated 75% of all commonage redistribution projects in the Northern Cape as at March 2003. More than a third (36%) of these projects was implemented in the study area (Steinkopf, Springbok and Port Nolloth). In relation to the study area 26 farms, in extent of approximately 100 000 hectares were purchased to make up six commonages (See Figure 5.3) for subsistence and emergent livestock farmers in the three towns. There is clearly a need from the communities in Namaqualand for agricultural land following the retrenchments in the copper and diamond mining industries in Namaqualand.

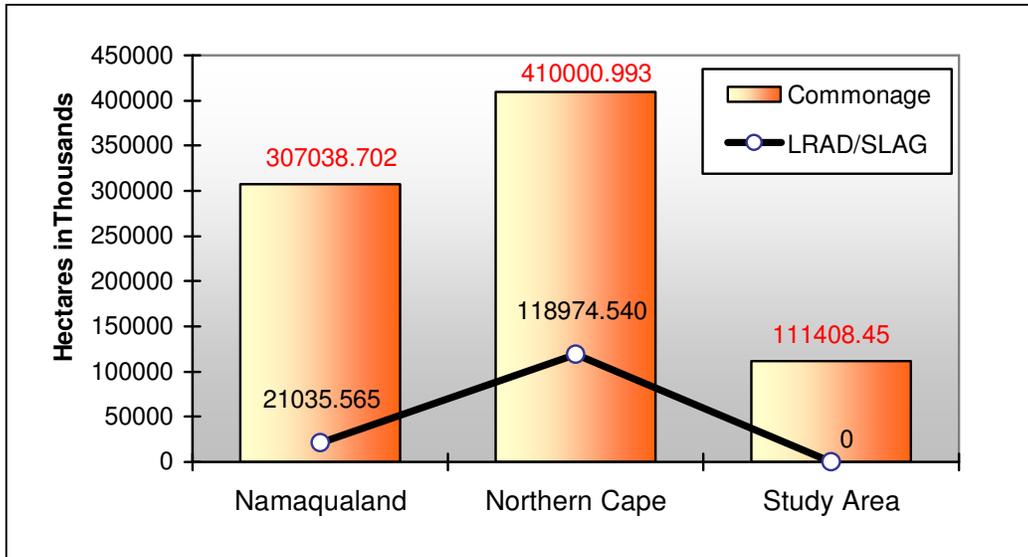


Figure 5.3: Land redistribution in Namaqualand

(Source: Department of Land Affairs, 2004)

“Commonage should be seen as having a dual purpose i.e. that of providing access to land for supplementing (subsistence income) and as a stepping stone for emergent farmers. This means that all commonage projects must accommodate both subsistence and emerging farmers” (Department of Land Affairs, 2000:10). Various organizations, such as the Human Sciences Research Council (HSRC), Surplus Peoples Project and the Programme for Land and Agrarian Studies (PLAAS) have criticised this policy because it allows wealthier farmers to access the commonage at the expense of the subsistence farmer (Human Sciences Research Council, 2003b). The researcher contends that this was not the case in Namaqualand as people with virtually no income except social grants gained access to the commonages. It should also be noted that the DLA policy explicitly states that the commonage is to be used for agricultural purposes only, thereby restricting the community to one source of livelihood that only sometimes work for them.

5.4.5 Relevance of the DLA commonage sub-programme and land redistribution for Namaqualand

Hoffman and Rohde (2000) claim that national land redistribution policies are not effective in Namaqualand because land prices are high and private land ownership is almost impossible; therefore commonage has been the mode of land reform in this part of the province. In addition, the grazing and agricultural lands can be considered marginal where vast tracts are showing signs of overgrazing and land degradation.

Poverty and lack of livelihoods are characteristics of these communal areas (Odendaal, 2002). Research conducted on livestock farming in the Paulshoek area revealed that the net annual income per hectare is less than R10 for communal and commercial farming systems (Hoffman and Rohde, 2000). The Centre for Arid Zones Study in the United Kingdom also posed a vital question in relation to livestock farming in Namaqualand: “Do community rangelands in this region have a sustainable future?” (Young, 2002:1) The answer was that it does not have a hope of sustainability if there are no other livelihood options coupled with it or farm diversification strategies employed. Young (2002) comes to the conclusion that conservancy development should be explored as a possible livelihood strategy for some of Namaqualand’s communities.

Ainslie, 2002; Anderson and Pienaar, 2003; and Colvin, 1985, have identified the following constraints to livestock farming that are endemic to many reserve/communal areas across South Africa:

- a shortage of grazing resources;
- the large-scale abandonment of arable production in many reserve areas has left livestock without a valuable source of winter forage;
- poor quality livestock;
- prolonged periods of drought;
- a shortage of labour for livestock herding and high labour costs;
- the socio-economic impact of Human Immuno Virus (HIV)/AIDS virus on the livestock farming community;

- livestock diseases and the faltering of the government's disease-control programme in the areas;
- poor transport networks to get cattle to sales and from the point of sale to feedlots and abattoirs; and
- a lack of knowledge on the part of rural people on current market prices and related quality.

Other livelihoods in Namaqualand have also not fared well. The region has relied heavily on the mining sector but first the copper reserves and, more recently, the land-based diamond deposits became depleting. Large-scale decommissioning of mine workers means that many more families are without incomes. Anseeuw (2003) postulates that to obtain a net-revenue of R28 000 from livestock farming on Namaqualand commonages, based on different levels of capital outlay available on the different land types, a minimum investment of R57 500 is necessary. Most of the farmers on commonage land have utilised some of their retrenchment packages to start farming operations, as was evident from the case-study interviews.

5.5 RESULTS FROM INTERVIEWS WITH COMMONAGE USERS AND AUTHORITIES DEALING WITH COMMONAGES

5.5.1 Introduction

As stated in Chapter 4 (See Step 4), 34 face-to-face interviews were conducted with commonage users from the six commonage projects over a ten-day period in November 2004 (See **Annexure 2** for a list of respondents). Figure 5.4 outlines the sampled projects within Namaqualand in relation to the South-North Tourism Route. The map illustrates that the SNTR passes through the Port Nolloth commonage farms but these farms are not part of this tourism initiative.

Four officials, one each from the Departments of Agriculture and Land Affairs, Nama Khoi Municipality and Richtersveld Municipality, were also interviewed (See **Annexure 3** for a list of respondents).

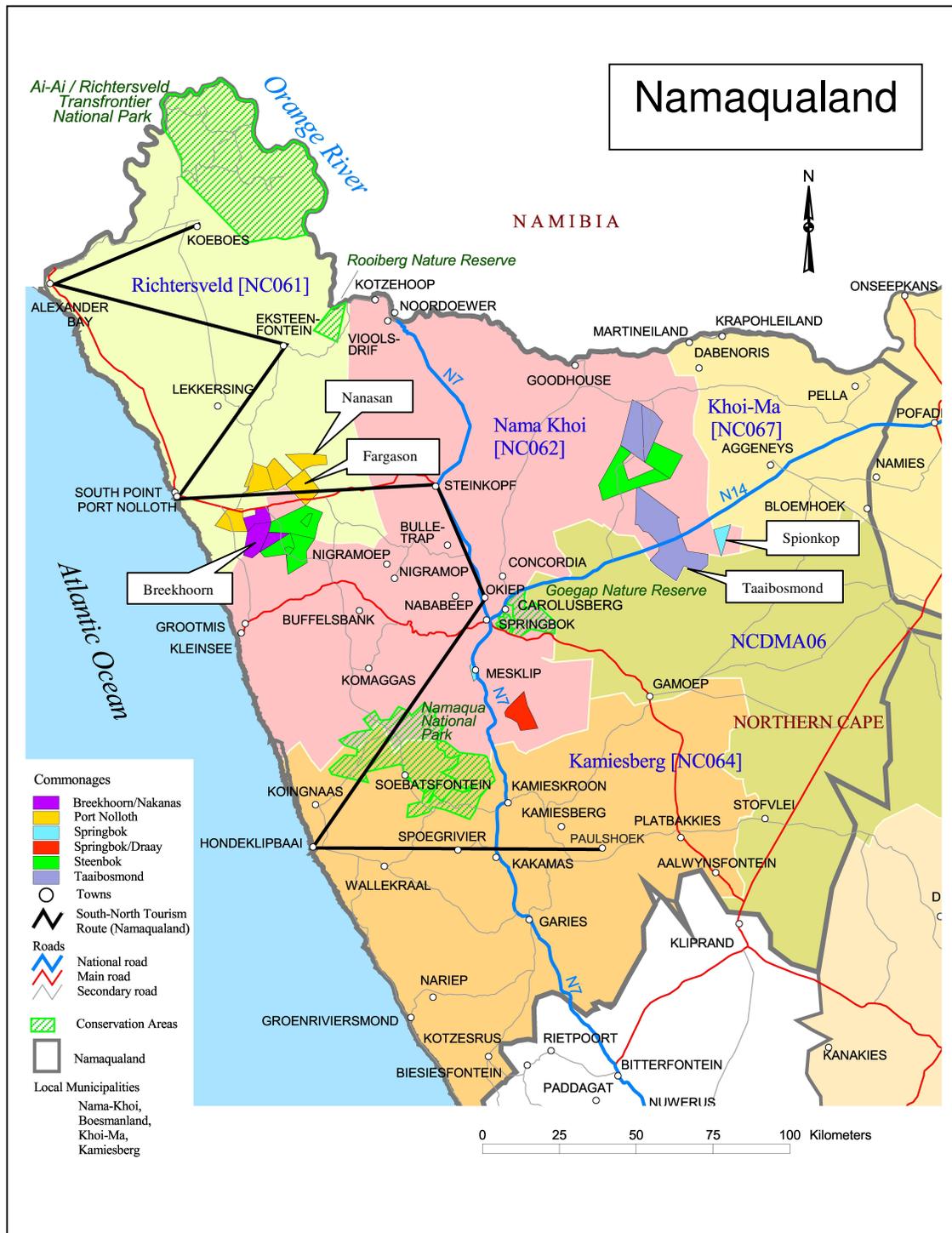


Figure 5.4: Sampled commonage projects in Namaqualand

(Source of original map: Department of Land Affairs, 2006, redrawn by I Booyen, UnivPta)

The Nama Khoi and Richtersveld municipalities, who are administering these commonages, currently have 66 individual lease agreements with users. The sample size of 34 is 51,5% of the total number of users (individual livestock farmers) on the commonages and can be classified as 34 micro informal businesses. The users were identified on the following basis:

- their membership of the commonage management committees;
- their membership of the farmers' unions in the area;
- being full-time livestock farmers;
- on recommendation from the commonage managers at the municipalities concerned; and
- their availability at the time of the interviews.

The interview questionnaire for users consisted of 29 open-ended and close-ended questions that were broadly categorised as follows (See **Annexure 3**):

- Access to land and land use:
 - Reasons for accessing commonage land
 - Tenure arrangements within commonage projects
- Livestock farming;
- Commonage management:
 - The management abilities of Commonage Management Committees (CMCs)
 - The management abilities of Municipalities
- Farming and support received on commonages:
 - Capacity building
 - Improvement in livelihoods
- Commonage users perceptions of tourism:
 - Expression of interest in tourism on commonages
 - Support for future sustainable development on commonages
 - Comparison of perceptions in relation to tourism and livestock farming.

The interview questionnaire (See **Annexure 5**) for the authorities comprised of 13 questions. The analysis of these questionnaires will be dealt with under the same sections as the users' questionnaire.

5.5.2 Access to land and land-use

5.5.2.1 Reasons for accessing the commonages

All the users gained access to the commonage farms between 1998 and 2004, with the bulk (20) of the users coming in from 2001. Most of the users (22) had been retrenched, medically boarded or had retired from the copper mines before embarking on full-time livestock farming and their only non-farm income was the government or mine pensions of about R740 per month. The reason for entering into this business was the same: for all there were no other livelihood options available to them. Some ran small businesses prior to livestock farming and utilise profits from this business to cross-subsidise their livestock farming enterprises, while only two had actually been farming elsewhere before entering into livestock farming on the commonages. One person had been unemployed and had collected a disability pension and later old-age pension to survive. The two users that had been farmers prior to entering the commonages are young women between 25 to 30 years old who had inherited the passion for farming from their fathers. Some of the users listed 'numbers of livestock owned' and 'intention to start farming with livestock and need access to land' as determinants to gain commonage access. Table 5.2 demonstrates how the users gained access to the commonages.

The DLA approval memoranda²⁹ for these six projects indicate that the pivotal reasons for purchasing these farms for commonage use were essentially to accommodate members of the former copper mining settlements and to relieve the burden for grazing on the reserves, in this case Steinkopf. As part of a district planning exercise for Namaqualand, the Surplus Peoples Project

²⁹ This is a system that the DLA utilises during project approval meetings to determine whether it is feasible or not for the DLA to approve a project based on the information in the approval memoranda and its attachments such as agricultural potential reports and valuation reports.

(SPP) completed a survey on the reserves to gauge what people's land needs were. The SPP Report (1997) indicated that the community of Steinkopf needed more grazing land for their stock.

Table 5.2: Determination of access to the commonage

How is access to the commonage determined?	Number of responses
The number of livestock owned	16
Intention to start farming with livestock and need access to land	26
Intention to access land for other agricultural or agro-processing activities	-
Other procedures not listed	-

The main findings are summarised as follows (SPP, 1997):

Table 5.3: SPP Grazing-land needs assessment: Steinkopf

Total extent as at September 1999 (in hectares)	Grazing capacity (per hectare of small stock unit)	Carrying capacity (per small stock unit)	Current stocking numbers	Additional land needed (in hectares)
392 869.2063	12	32 740	54 000	255 120

The distance of the commonage farms from the users' residences are as follows:

- Breekhoorn/Nakanas : ±35 km
- Port Nolloth Commonage : ±60 km
- Springbok Commonage : ±35 km
- Springbok/ Draay : ±43 km
- Steenbok Commonage : ±35 km
- Taaibosmond Commonage : ±60 km

This suggests that users need access to reliable transport, usually a bakkie because of the terrain, to access the commonage farms to transport food, water and medicines to the livestock. There were two users who did not have transport of their own and they immediately recognised this as a drawback for

them because they had to sell off or slaughter their animals so that there would be minimal maintenance costs for them. These users also had the least amount of livestock on the commonages and lived in informally built four-roomed homes as opposed to the other users that were residing in standard government built homes.

5.5.2.2 Land tenure arrangements within the commonage projects

All the users have individual lease agreements (See Figure 5.5) with the municipalities concerned ranging from 1 year (renewable) to life-long leases. Users pay a yearly registration fee of R75 and a fee per small stock unit (SSU) (sheep or goat) or large stock unit (LSU) (cattle) that are grazed on the commonage. The fees per SSU range from 20 cents to 50 cents while the fees for LSU range from R1 to R3. Some of the users indicated that these fees are not feasible and that it encourages overstocking and degradation of the commonages. It was also felt that the fee structure was not fair because people with more livestock on the land paid the same fees as those with less livestock. It emerged that they had no choice but to pay the fees as farming was their only source of income apart from the government pensions.

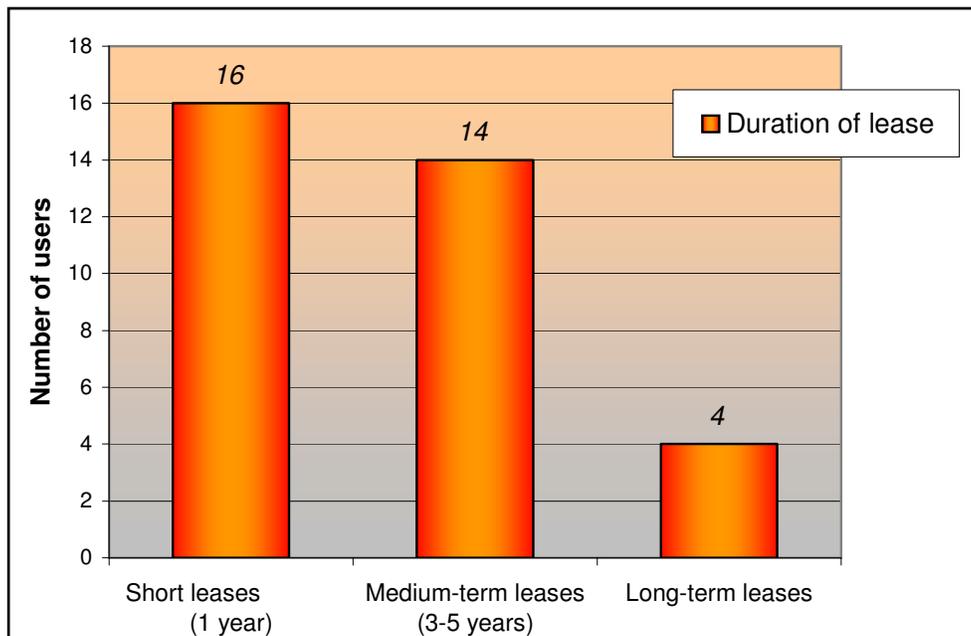


Figure 5.5: Duration of lease agreements

Although there are 66 signed lease agreements on the six commonages, the six commonages are supposed to provide benefits to 258 households that belong to farmers associations in the area (Department of Land Affairs, 1998-2002). However, user numbers were restricted because of the livestock carrying capacity of the land. In this sense the commonages are providing some benefits to only 25,5% of members of the farmers' associations. The fact that the commonage users are randomly selected on the basis of their membership to farmers' associations also discriminates against other people who may want access to the commonages for non-agricultural activities.

5.5.3 Livestock farming

The carrying capacity of the land often determines the stocking rates. In Namaqualand the carrying capacity is 12 hectares per SSU (SPP, 1997). Table 5.4 below indicates the number of SSUs and LSUs that had been sold or consumed from December 2003 to November 2004.

Table 5.4: Livestock farming on commonages

Type of animal owned	Total number	Number sold in the last 12 months	Average ³⁰ selling price per unit	Total value sold	Number slaughtered for consumption
Sheep	2 825	554	R375	R207 750	123
Cattle	670	6	R1 400	R8 400	
Goats	455	49	R275	R13 475	1 100
Chickens	72	0	0		36
Pigs	11	0	0		
Total	4 033	609	-	R229 625	1 259

The users gained R13 475 from the sale of goats, R207 750 from the sale of sheep and R8 400 from the cattle sales in the same period. No estimation of actual profit and loss could be determined, as the costs were not factored in

³⁰ The Department of Agriculture was asked to verify the average prices.

as part of the assessment and not all 66 users were interviewed to obtain a holistic assessment.³¹

What could be ascertained from the above analysis is that the users were paying for the following items associated with livestock farming:

- transport costs to and from the commonages;
- medicine for the stock; and
- food and water for the stock.

It should also be noted that stock numbers for each user varies and that the sales averages provided above will differ for each of the farmers, and only few of the farmers actually earn profits from the sales. Only four of the users sold the animal skins and milk to earn extra income but these sales were at random and therefore not used in the analysis. It was also ascertained that the market for goat meat is not profitable therefore there is more consumption of goat meat amongst the users than sales.

The users were then questioned on the advantages and disadvantages of livestock farming on the commonages (See Table 5.5). The numbers in brackets next to each issue indicate the number of responses received.

While the disadvantages far outweigh the advantages, the majority of the users (90%) did indicate that the prolonged periods of drought has played a major role in their negativity towards livestock farming and that a rainy season could bring in some profits. It can be assumed that in a rainy season a livestock farmer only has six months of a year to effectively earn a profit on these commonages, making livestock farming a seasonal livelihoods generator.

³¹ This would have gone beyond the scope of the study and it would have meant analysing financial statements of users, who may not have been willing to divulge such information or have such information at their disposal. The researcher wanted to get an overall estimate of what could be earned through livestock farming.

Table 5.5: Advantages and disadvantages of livestock farming on commonages (N=34)

Advantages	Disadvantages
Improves household income (10)	Commonage is far from town and home (35 km to 60 km) (30)
Free advice from white commercial farmers (14)	Drought without drought relief
Grazing for animals (34)	Wild animals/predators (25)
Expansion of livestock (10)	Brackish water and limited grazing fields (34)
Some farmers have sole use of some of the farms (10)	Few boreholes on commonages (25)
Improves household food consumption (34)	Infrastructure on some of the farms is in poor condition (25)
	Soil erosion (30)
	Division of farms into summer and winter camps disadvantaged many farmers (30).
	Poor rotational grazing practices (34)
	No training or additional subsidies (30)
	Livestock restrictions (34)

5.5.4 Commonage management

Three questions were asked about the management of the commonages so as to understand whether the users were actually involved in the management and to assess whether the management structures (if any) are set up adequately to meet the needs of the users. A management structure is necessary in any community development project because this structure would set democratic guidelines on what can or cannot be done on the commonages. Such a structure would act as a deterrent for users that are overstocking or contravening the land-use management plan and could also serve as a platform for the municipality and the users.

To gain access to a commonage purchased through the land redistribution programme, there must be a user association and a commonage

management committee (CMC). The user association can be an existing farmers' association that the users belong to or otherwise a user association must be established. The diagram (See Figure 5.6) reveals how the researcher views these relationships as they apply to the six commonages in Namaqualand.

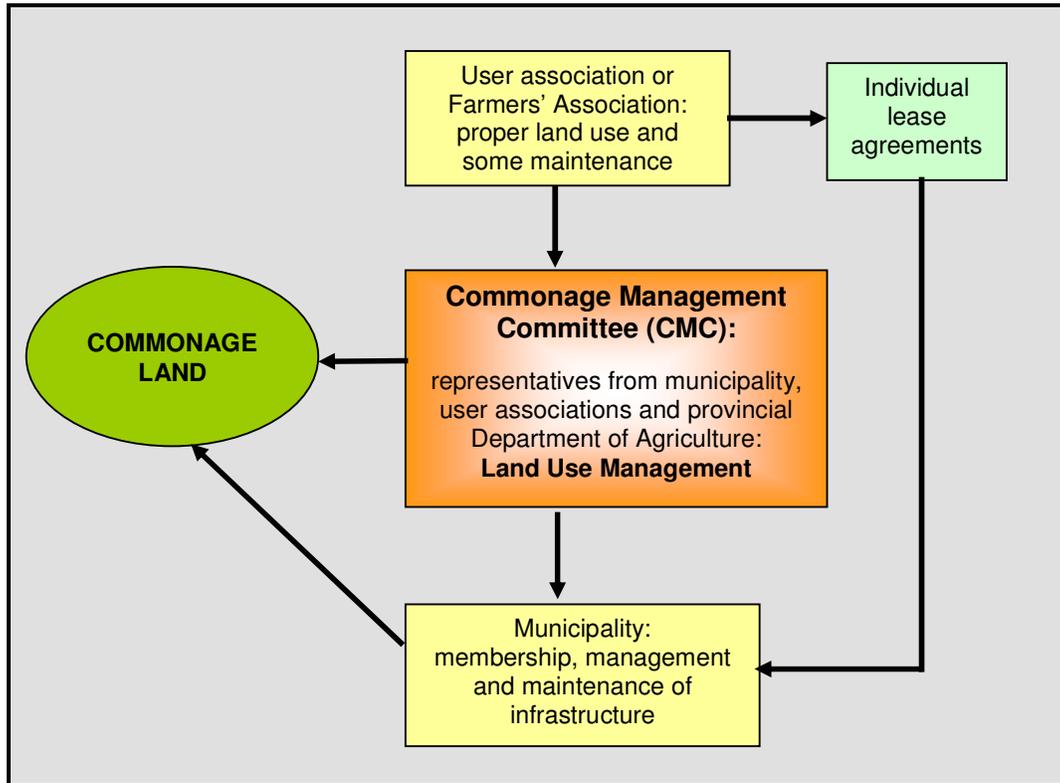


Figure 5.6: Commonage management structures

5.5.4.1 The management abilities of the Commonage Management Committees (CMCs)

Twenty of the users were members of the commonage management committee. It has been established that all the users have to be members of the farmers/user association prior to selection for access to the commonages. Only two users were on the management of both the CMC and a user association. The users were then asked whether the CMCs were successful and 12 replied positively, stating that the CMCs provided adequate management support, controlled grazing regulations and arranged for the collection of user fees. However, the majority disapproved of the management

abilities of the CMCs, even though 20 of the users belonged to them. Figure 5.7 includes some of the reasons cited.

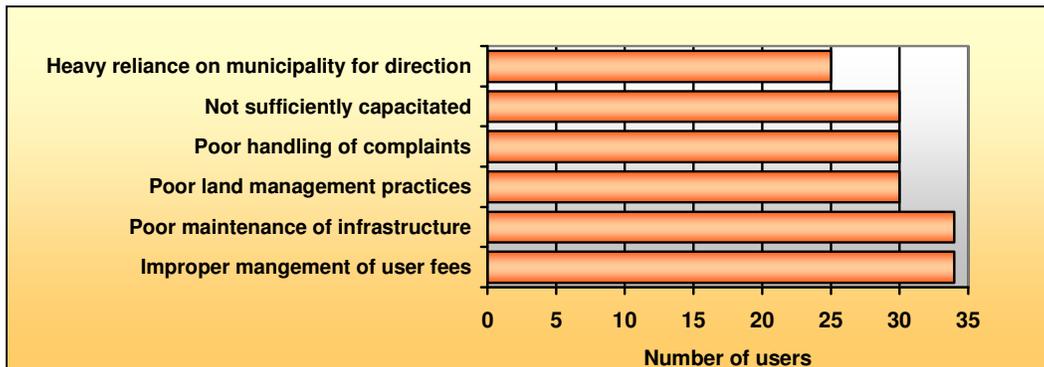


Figure 5.7: Perceptions of the management abilities of the commonage management committee

5.5.4.2 The management abilities of municipalities

Users were also in general negative about the municipalities' participation in the management of the commonages, with 22 users stating that the municipalities do not repair infrastructure even though they pay user fees. The other users were positive about the advice and support (non-financial) received from the municipal commonage managers. Approximately 65% of the users were dissatisfied with both the CMCs' and municipalities' management capabilities. It was felt that the users themselves were more adept at repairing and maintaining the infrastructure and supporting each other on the commonages. Some of this negativity was compounded by the drought. To be fair to the municipalities concerned, there are only two commonage managers (one based at the Nama Khoi Municipality and the other in the Richtersveld Municipality) in Namaqualand and lack of capacity therefore becomes a valid excuse to some of the users' complaints. However, in relation to maintenance and repair of infrastructure such as pumps and boreholes, there is no excuse because service providers could be appointed to perform such functions.

There were contradictory answers from the two commonage managers interviewed in relation to the management of the commonages, where one

indicated that the commonages were properly managed while the other disagreed, stating that there was a culture of non-payment of fees amongst the users, overgrazing, overstocking and non-compliance to regulations. It does appear as if there are poor lines of communication between the municipalities, users and CMCs. While the CMCs contain a number of representatives from the user community, there appears to be no real delegation of powers.

5.5.5 Farming and support received on commonages

Researchers from the Centre for Arid Zone Studies in the United Kingdom also noted that the present conditions in Namaqualand's communal grazing areas were far from ideal and that grazing and trampling have damaged most of them (Young, 2002). A majority (30) of users agreed that farming conditions on the commonages were conducive for livestock farming with proper management and good rains, but the current conditions were listed as follows (See Figure 5.8)³²:

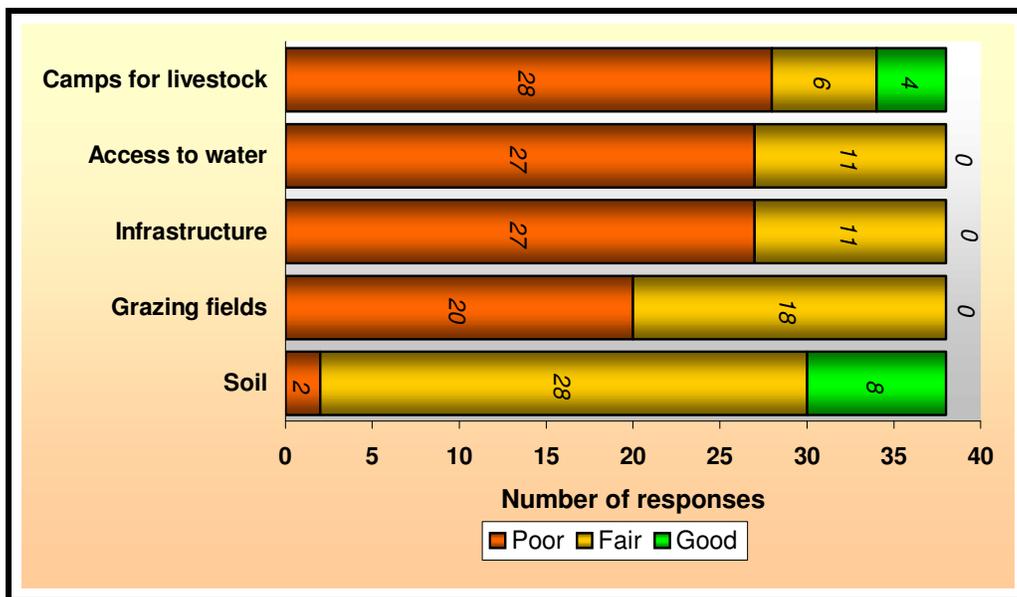


Figure 5.8: Present conditions on commonages

³² The responses also include responses from municipal, land reform and agriculture officials.

The researcher photographed the following conditions (See Figure 5.9) on three of the commonage farms, one from each town in the study area.

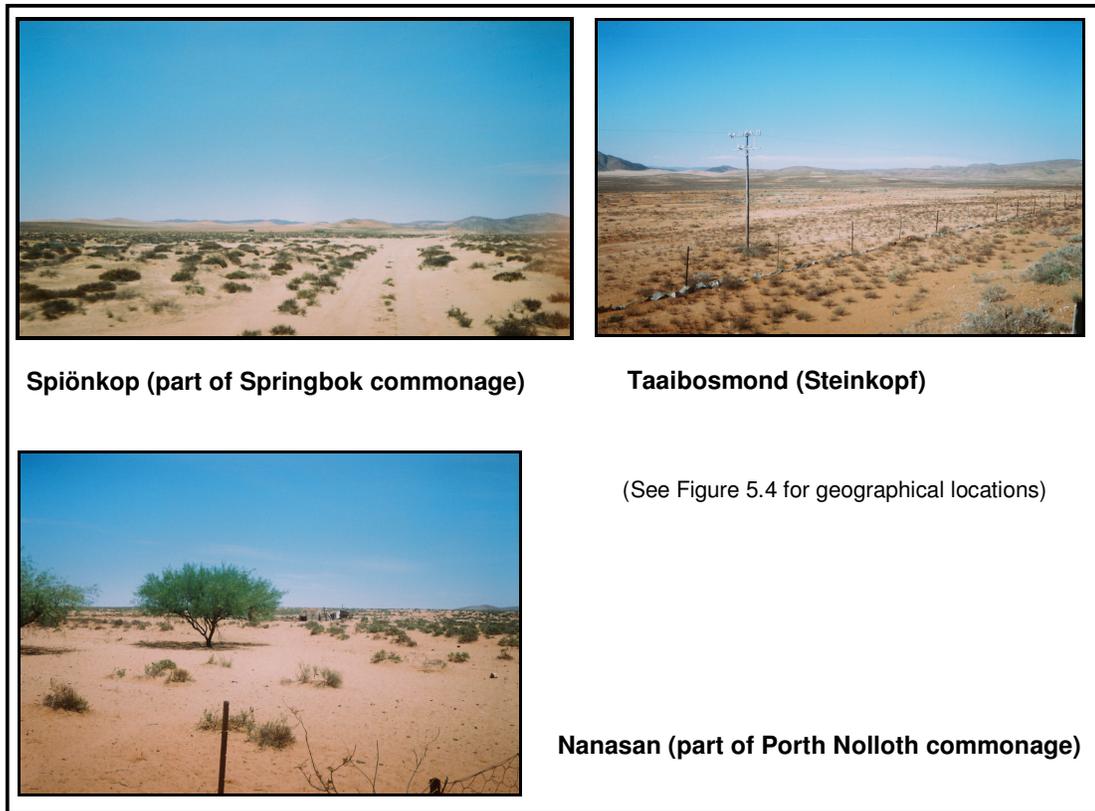


Figure 5.9: State of the environment on three commonage farm

(Source: S Govender-van Wyk, 9 November 2004)

The pictures, substantiated by the findings of Young (2002), depict the degradation and poor grazing conditions endured by farmers. Most of these farms have lost their diverse cover of leaf succulents and parts of it have become dominated by a toxic shrub, *galenia africana*, and by annual plants, whose seeds attract large numbers of grain-eating insects.

5.5.5.1 Capacity building

Almost half of the users indicated that they did not receive training from the Department of Agriculture on farming practices while the others stated that they received general training on rotational grazing, soil conservation and

water conservation. The Department of Agriculture has provided some extension services in the form of livestock dipping and vet services. There were also farmers' days held on some of the farms. These were information sessions on farming practices and users stated that they already knew the issues that were presented to them. None of the users received training on management of the commonages even though approximately 59% of the users interviewed were members of the CMCs. It is imperative that users that belong to the CMCs receive management training. This would boost the confidence levels amongst these users and allow them to make more proactive decisions with regard to infringement of regulations and land use on the commonages. This would also minimise the responsibilities of the municipalities and allow users more control over decision-making.

5.5.5.2 Improvement in livelihoods

A majority of the respondents indicated that there had been no improvements in relation to their housing and moveable assets since they had begun livestock farming. The respondents also did not educate their children using funds from livestock farming. Most of the respondents indicated there were only marginal improvements in terms of income. They qualified this answer by adding that the money gained from livestock farming was often reinvested in the business either to buy food or medicines for the livestock. While all the respondents indicated that there were improvements in terms of access to land, they stated that it would have been better if the land were theirs to own and not to lease. However, this would go against the principle of commonage.

Table 5.6 below provides an overview on whether access to these commonages has resulted in improving the users' lives in relation to some identified factors. The opinions of the officials from municipalities, and the Departments of Land Affairs and Agriculture, also formed part of the assessment.

Table 5.6: Improvement/Non-improvement of livelihoods (N=38)

Factors	Improvement	No improvement
Land access	38	
Food	34	4
Farming, for example, an increase in livestock	30	8
Income	24	14
Housing	15	23
Education of children	14	24
Other moveable assets	10	28

5.5.6 Commonage users' perceptions of tourism

5.5.6.1 *Expression of interest in tourism on commonages*

There are currently no tourism activities on the commonages. The farms were initially purchased from white livestock farmers and this practice has remained the primary land use. Ten of the users stated that they had expressed an interest in tourism activities to the municipalities. They had wanted to establish guesthouses on two of the commonage farms (Taaibosmond and Nanasan), 4x4 routes, bird watching, conservation tours and wildlife and floral viewing but these ideas never got off the ground. The municipalities also discussed these opportunities with the users but half of the livestock farmers were afraid to venture out of their traditional livelihoods mode. The others that replied negatively asserted that the reasons for the lack of interest in establishing tourism ventures on the commonages was because there was no subsidisation of these activities and that they also did not have the skills to start and/or sustain such activities.

5.5.6.2 *Support for future sustainable tourism development on commonages*

The respondents were asked if they or other members of the farmers' associations would receive support to initiate tourism ventures on the

commonages and Figure 5.10 outlines that the majority replied that they would receive support because of the potential of at least half of the commonage farms. When questioned on who should provide this support, the overwhelming response was that the municipalities should provide support because they understood local conditions and could be a source of funding through their local economic development unit. It was suggested that DEAT should invest in the area to develop such initiatives further.

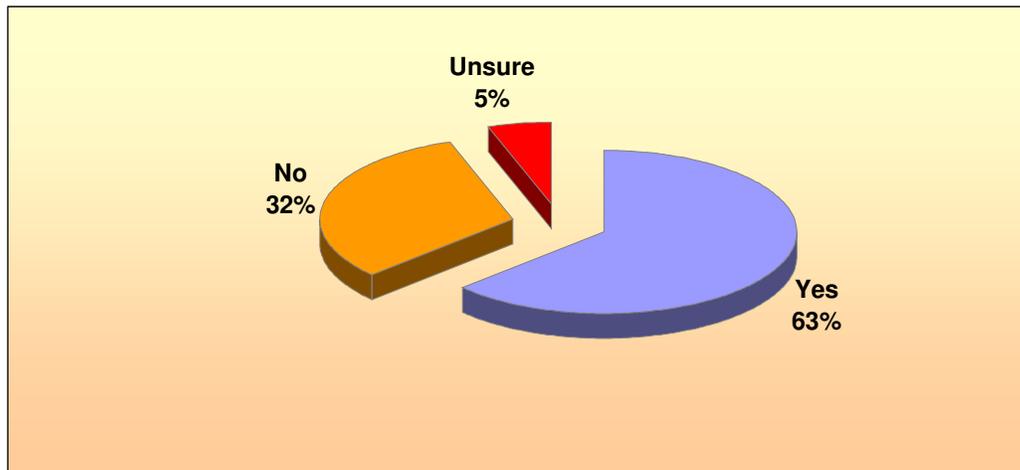


Figure 5.10: Support for sustainable tourism ventures (N=34)

Both the researcher and the field researcher observed that there were protected species of wild life and bird life on some of the farms that respondents and local residents also pointed out. Flower, succulents and vegetation such as *Vygies (Mesembryanthemaceae)* and Stonecrops (*Crassulaceae*) that are endemic to the area were also noticed. All the users (34) mentioned that the commonage farms contained a variety of buck such as gemsbok and steenbok, wild rabbits and jackals. Jackals are regarded as predators and are often shot and killed if spotted by the livestock farmers.

Others viewed the fact that the municipalities did not receive funding to foster the development of such ventures on the commonages. The poor water supply on the commonage farms was also seen as an obstacle to sustainable tourism on the commonages. These interests should have been developed

into a detailed plan that could be exploited to secure funding within an integrated planning framework at local levels. It seems as if there is a will but there is a lack of knowledge and/or experience on how to proceed in this direction.

5.5.6.3 *Comparison of perceptions in relation to tourism and livestock farming*

The following reactions were obtained from users (See Table 5.7) and the four government officials (See Table 5.8) in relation to two statements regarding tourism and livestock farming.

Table 5.7: Assessment of the users' perceptions of tourism and livestock farming (N=34)

Statements	Yes (Reason/s)	No (Reason/s)	Unsure
Tourism ventures in the form of ecotourism (conservation and tourism) and nature-based tourism (for example, hiking trails) should be encouraged on the commonage	26	8	0
Agricultural activities such as livestock farming and crop production should be the only activities practiced on the commonage	4	30	0

Table 5.8: Assessment of the government officials' perceptions of tourism and livestock farming (N=4)

Statements	Yes (Reason/s)	No (Reason/s)	Unsure
Tourism ventures in the form of ecotourism (conservation and tourism) and nature-based tourism (for example, hiking trails) should be encouraged on the commonage	4	0	0
Agricultural activities such as livestock farming and crop production should be the only activities practiced on the commonage	4	0	0

Some of the reasons advanced for the positive attitude towards ecotourism and/or other nature based tourism activities on the some of the commonages were (See Figure 5.11):

The respondents who were negative about encouraging ecotourism and/or nature-based tourism activities felt that the farms did not have the potential for tourism. It was also felt that livestock farming was the only reality that these people knew and to change into something new would require a change in mindset. They stated that they were too old and that younger people, who had the drive and energy to try new enterprises, should rather embark on such ventures.

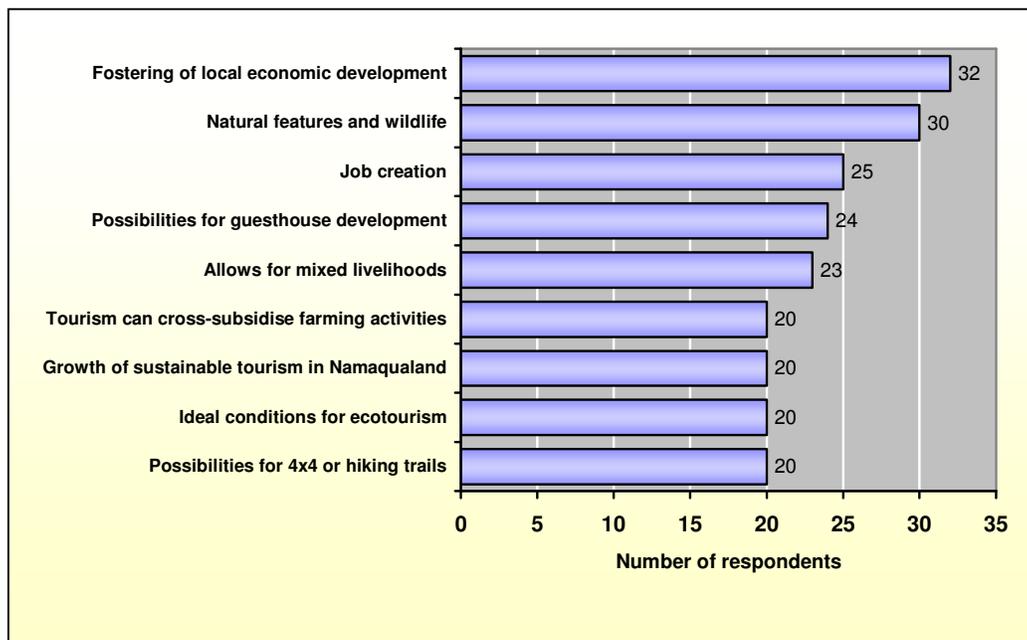


Figure 5.11: Perceptions of ecotourism and/or nature-based tourism activities

5.6 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM POSSIBILITIES ON THREE OF THE COMMONAGE FARMS

Figure 5.12 shows that there are sustainable tourism possibilities that should be investigated and implemented on three of the commonages. The farm Nanasan in Port Nolloth has a farmhouse and rondawel with a cement dam built against a mountainous backdrop of the farm where potential hiking trails

could be developed. The farmhouse and rondawel could be renovated and turned into guesthouse facilities. The farmhouse and rondawel on the Nanasan farm are in a state of disrepair (See Figure 5.13) and the Richtersveld Municipality has not repaired these buildings. The previous landowner had ripped out the ceilings and tiles of the bathrooms before he had left the farm. These can be repaired and developed into a rustic farm guesthouse. Five of the farms, with the exception of Draay in Springbok, have rugged mountainous terrain and indigenous flora and fauna.



Existing farmhouse and mountainous terrain showing hiking and accommodation potential on Nanasan (Port Nolloth)



Mountainous terrain for hiking on Augrabies East (Port Nolloth). It also illustrates potential for biodiversity tours



Mountainous terrain for hiking on Fargason (Port Nolloth). The picture further illustrates potential to grow succulents and introduce wildlife endemic to the area for biodiversity tours

(See Figure 5.4 for geographical locations)

Figure 5.12: Sustainable tourism potential on three of the commonage farms

(Source: S Govender-van Wyk, 9 November 2004)



Figure 5.13: Condition of the farm house at Nanasan: Port Nolloth

(Source: S Govender-van Wyk, 9 November 2004)

5.7 SWOT MATRIX FOR THE SELECTED COMMONAGE PROJECTS

Tables 5.9 and 5.10 use the SWOT Model (See Step 5C in Chapter 4) to further interpret the results obtained from Section 5.6.

Table 5.9: Strengths and weaknesses of commonage projects

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Users have access to large tracts of land • Users have firm lease agreements with the municipalities • Potential for sustainable tourism on three farms • Interest expressed for tourism • Existing management structures • Fauna, birdlife and flora (part of the Succulent Karoo Biome) exist on all the commonages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commonage is far from residences • Soil degradation and poor environmental practices • Poor infrastructure on farms • Brackish water and limited water supply • Poor rotational grazing practices • Poor management of commonages • Poor to non-existent extension services • Minimal to no improvements in livelihoods • Poor to non-existent monitoring system in place

Table 5.10: Opportunities and threats of commonage projects

OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Namaqualand is well positioned for the tourism industry • There is an existing tourism route in the form of the SNTR. • Municipalities are willing to look at other avenues such as tourism as an option for sustainable development on the commonages • There exists a niche marketing opportunity for Namaqualand as a desert tourism destination rather than as a seasonal flower destination as it currently is where the two potential commonages could serve as potential stops within this destination 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No government policy and funding for development of tourism ventures on commonage • Possible opposition to tourism on commonages from farmers associations in the area • Poor access routes to commonage farms that can hamper tourism

The SWOT model revealed that the strengths and opportunities favour sustainable tourism development while the threats and weaknesses relate to livestock farming. The commonage users indicated that farming conditions on the farms were far from ideal because of the lack of access to water and poor infrastructure. The drought had further exacerbated farming conditions. Young (2002) advises that while there may be some improvements in livestock production in the near future the basic physical constraints of land and water mean that significant improvements in livelihood will not be built on agricultural production.

Management of the commonages appears to be a heated issue amongst commonage users, the municipalities and the CMCs. The users have no faith in the management structures set up to manage the farms and claim that the training received has often been inadequate. None of the users has received any management training. The analysis has confirmed all of the criticisms levelled at the commonage sub-programme discussed in Section 2.5.3.1.

The SWOT analysis has demonstrated that the 76% of the users and all four officials support ecotourism and/or nature-based tourism ventures on the commonages. Two of the farms (Nanasan and Taaibosmond) have existing

buildings that could be developed into accommodation facilities. Potential sustainable tourism opportunities such as hiking routes, birdwatching and rock climbing could be devised for three of the farms (Nanasan, Taaibosmond and Augrabies East). Nanasan and Augrabies East are approximately 30 kilometres from the Rooiberg Conservancy in Eksteenfontein. Eksteenfontein already forms part of the SNTR and these farms could easily form part of the route as the route passes through these two farms (See Figure 5.4).

It was also noted that Namaqualand is placed in a unique situation of reconstituting its image as a desert tourism destination with the identified commonage farms serving as vantage points within this destination. The existing SNTR could be utilised to market niche products once it has been developed, which could save on some marketing costs. While the lack of funding and poor access routes are seen as barriers to fostering sustainable tourism development on these commonages, integrated planning can provide solutions to these problems in the medium to long term.

5.8 CONCLUSION

The objectives of this chapter were to provide an overview and assess the performance of land redistribution, focusing on the DLA's Commonage Sub-programme in Namaqualand. Six case studies were qualitatively assessed through in-depth interviews and observation techniques. The cases were evaluated on the basis of the investigative sub-question posed in Section 1.7: *What are the successes and failures of agrarian-driven commonage projects in Namaqualand?*

Respondents indicated that their livestock farming enterprises were barely successful. The successful farmers were primarily using funds from other income sources to cross-subsidise farming activities, indicating that there were more failures than successes related to adopting livestock farming as a sustainable livelihood option on commonages.

In seeking an answer to the main research question posed in Section 1.7: *What role could sustainable tourism play in commonage projects?*, the SWOT model exposed more strengths and opportunities for sustainable tourism development on three of the sampled commonages despite a lack of funding, integrated planning and poor access routes than for livestock farming enterprises.

The next chapter seeks to measure and analyse the successes and challenges of existing sustainable tourism initiatives in Eksteenfontein Namaqualand.

Chapter 6

SUSTAINABLE TOURISM IN EKSTEENFONTEIN (RICHTERSVELD), NAMAQUALAND

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this chapter is to describe, analyse and interpret the successes and challenges of an existing sustainable tourism initiative, the Richtersveld/Rooiberg Community Conservancy in the Eksteenfontein (Richtersveld) area of Namaqualand (See Figure 6.1). The chapter will comparatively assess the strengths and weaknesses of the sustainable tourism venture as opposed to the strengths and weaknesses of agricultural development on commonages to ascertain the effectiveness of sustainable tourism in Namaqualand, using the SWOT model outlined in Step 5C of Chapter 4.



Figure 6.1: Map showing Eksteenfontein and the Richtersveld/ Rooiberg Community Conservancy

(Source: "Eksteenfontein," 2004)

The chapter also presents a brief historical overview of the Richtersveld and Eksteenfontein prior to a discussion on sustainable tourism development in the area. The presentation of the empirical evidence gathered from the observations and interviews with the Eksteenfontein community and management team on their conservancy tourism project follows these sections. The empirical evidence will validate the literature results by:

- highlighting the positive impacts of the Rooiberg sustainable tourism venture as raised in Sections 3.2.1, 3.3.2.1, 3.4.1, 3.5.1 and Table 3.1;
- highlighting any negative impacts of the Rooiberg sustainable tourism venture as discussed in Sections 3.2.2, 3.3.2.2, 3.4.2, 3.5.2 and Table 3.1;
- critically analysing the role of the Eksteenfontein community in the project as communities were identified as a strategic resource in the sustainable tourism case studies (Sections 3.6, 3.7 and 3.9) as well as in land redistribution case studies (Sections 2.2 to 2.5); and
- corroborating or refuting the conclusion referring to sustainable tourism as a development option for future commonage development in South Africa (Section 3.10).

6.2 TOURISM IN THE NORTHERN CAPE

Tourism has not been a flourishing sector in the Northern Cape, restricted to through-traffic and a limited number of tourists who visited four main attractions in the Northern Cape: the Augrabies Falls National Park, Namaqualand's flowers, the Big Hole in Kimberley and the Kalahari National Gemsbok Park (Blignaut & Wilson, 2000). Figure 6.2 illustrates that tourism figures in the Northern Cape for 2002, estimated at 254 000 arrivals, were higher than the tourism figures for 2003, estimated at 202 000 arrivals (Northern Cape Tourism Authority, 2004*b*). The National Botanical Institute and DEAT firmly believe that tourism in the Northern Cape is linked to biodiversity (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2004; National Botanical Institute, 2004). The Northern Cape experienced one of its worst droughts in 2003 and 2004, which adversely affected tourism (the spring flower tours in Namaqualand) and livestock farming (See Figure 5.9).

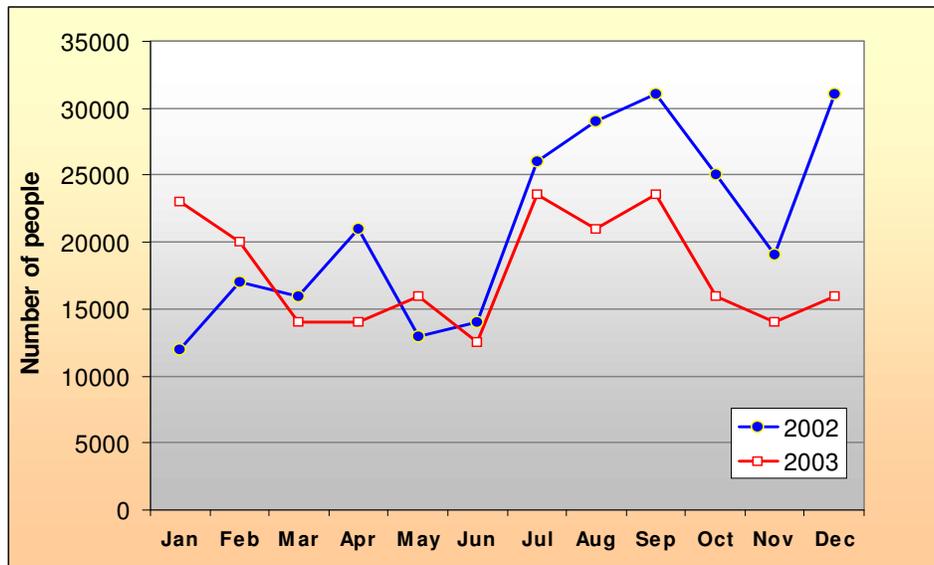


Figure 6.2: Number of domestic and international tourists visiting the Northern Cape, 2002/2003

(Source: Northern Cape Tourism Authority, 2004b)

Foreign tourist arrivals in the province totalled about 86 000 people, excluding African countries (Tourism South Africa, 2004). The graph (See Figure 6.3) outlines the top five international arrivals in the Northern Cape, excluding African countries.

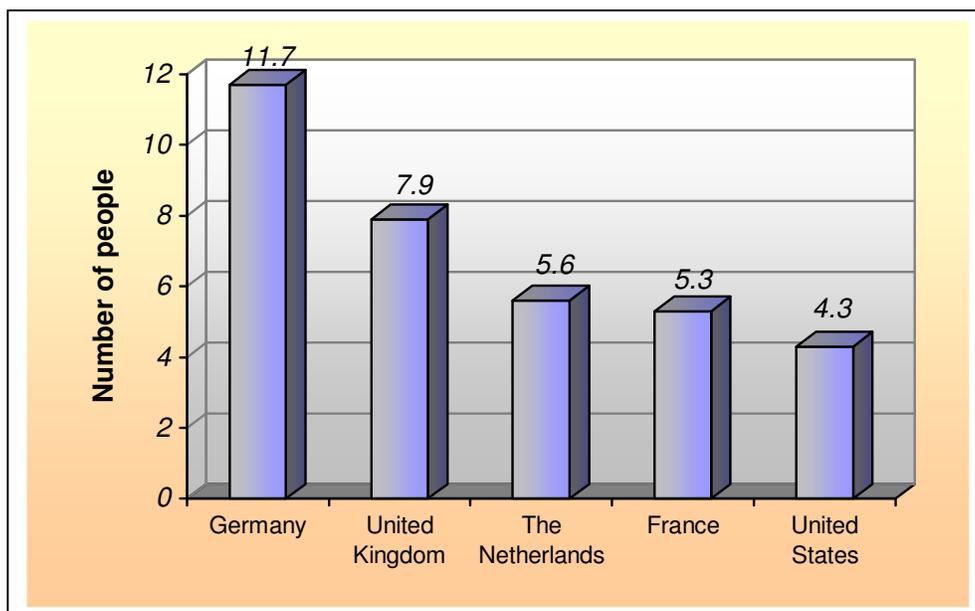


Figure 6.3: International arrivals in the Northern Cape: 2003

(Source: Tourism South Africa, 2004)

The British and Germans stay an average of 14 days in the province while the Dutch (from the Netherlands) stay an average of 12 days and the French and Americans stay between 7 and 13 days (Tourism South Africa, 2004). International tourists spend an average of R1170 per day per tourist while the African tourists' spend an average of R660 (Northern Cape Tourism Authority, 2004a). Most of the domestic tourist market arrivals in the province hail from Gauteng and the Western Cape. The province also receives the smallest percentage (0.8%) of travellers in the domestic tourist trade (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2004). Some of the reasons advanced for this phenomenon are (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2004):

- costly air fares and few flights to the province;
- the long distances of main attractions in the province from other provinces; and
- poor road conditions.

These reasons also emerged as weaknesses highlighted by tourism authorities in the province.

It would appear that the percentage of the areas proclaimed for conservation varies between 1% and 3,7% and yet the province is well-endowed with natural resources (Blignaut & Wilson, 2000; National Botanical Institute, 2004). While tourism is not a prominent sector in the Northern Cape, this has not prevented the wildlife industry in the province from expanding. "Game ranching is replacing conventional livestock farming as a more cost-effective use of renewable natural resources" (Department of Agriculture, Land Reform, Environment and Conservation: Northern Cape, 2003:1).

Registered game ranches in the province have increased by 2003 by about 25%. The trend covers not only local landowners who have converted to game but also foreign investors who have established substantial game ranches for ecotourism and hunting (Department of Agriculture, Land Reform, Environment and Conservation: Northern Cape, 2003). The tourism

authorities who were questioned identified pivotal strengths and weaknesses given in Table 6.1 of tourism development in the Northern Cape.

Table 6.1: Comparison of strengths and weaknesses of Northern Cape tourism

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
Airports in Upington and Kimberley to carry international tourists and some landing strips for small aircraft and helicopters in game parks and nature reserves in the area	Limited and expensive flights to the province
National Parks such as the Augrabies and Richtersveld National park (RNP)	Limited packages offered to tourists
Pristine natural environments such as the Richtersveld	Uncoordinated tourism development in the province
Coastal areas such as Alexander Bay and Kleinzee that are linked to mining and that has the potential to be linked to tourism	Limited funds for tourism development
Unique flora and fauna	Improper marketing strategies
Unique cultures such as the Nama, San and Khoi-Khoi	Too few places concentrate on serving food unique to the cultures of the people in the area
4x4 routes	Long distances between districts and towns
	Poor state of the national roads (N7 and N14)

It would appear as if the long distances between districts and the limited and expensive flights to the province have negatively influenced domestic tourism to the province.

Tourism in the Northern Cape was boosted in 2003 with the establishment of the Northern Cape Tourism Authority (NCTA). In 2005, the Member of the Executive Committee (MEC) for Tourism in the Northern Cape, PW Saaiman, revealed that his department had only spent R94 000 from the R10 million poverty relief funding sourced from DEAT (Saaiman, 2005). The gross under-

spending is linked to severe capacity constraints of the NCTA and poor planning related to tourism development in the province.

A tourism master plan, funded by the Development Bank of Southern Africa, was formulated to address the above-mentioned strengths and weaknesses. The main objective of this plan was to ensure that all role players within the industry function within the same strategic framework. A series of consultative meetings with the owners of tourism products and tourism authorities were concluded in 2005 in order to finalise the plan. One criticism of this approach is that the consultative meetings excluded other sector authorities, financial institutions and the users of tourism products. The master plan has ostensibly been finalised in 2005 but has not yet been unveiled or placed on the Northern Cape Provincial Government website for public comment.

6.3 TOURISM IN NAMAQUALAND

Namaqualand is famous for an extraordinary springtime transformation of the lifeless scrubland into a veritable explosion of colours from a multitude of small flowers. Tourists come from all over the world to witness this spectacle, which usually peaks anytime from mid-August to mid-September (Northern Cape Tourism Authority, 2004a). The flora is characterised by a phenomenal variety of daisies, but there are also violets, pelargoniums, mesembryanthemums, gladioli and numerous other species (Springbok Lodge and Restaurant, 1998).

Aloes also puncture the landscape of the Northern Cape and tourists will know when they are in an area of very low rainfall when they start seeing 'Quiver Trees' (Kokerboom - *aloe dicotema*, See Figure 6.4), so named because the San used the fibrous branches as quivers for their arrows (Springbok Lodge and Restaurant, 1998). The Quiver tree is a protected species, endemic to Namaqualand and Namibia (National Botanical Institute, 2004). The trees form part of the natural tourism attractions, especially during late winter and early spring when tourists primarily visit Namaqualand (Northern Cape Tourism Authority, 2004a).



Figure 6.4: Quiver Tree

(Source: "Eksteenfontein", 2004)

Spring flowers carpet the route all the way down the west coast of South Africa almost to Cape Town. Figure 6.2 reveals that tourism activity in the Northern Cape is prolific during July to October (Spring) linked to the flower season, while December (Summer) and April (Autumn) appear to be linked to school holiday periods (Nama Khoi Municipality, 2005). Namaqualand averages temperatures of 35°C with hot and dry conditions in the mid-summer months (January and February) and only 5°C in June and therefore the slump in tourism during the months (Nama Khoi Municipality, 2005).

Any sustainable tourism strategy or guidelines would need to consider appropriate strategies geared towards the peak periods and the off-peak season (January to March, May, June and November). It would be inappropriate to consider long hiking trails during January to March but it may be more appropriate for the targeting of hiking enthusiasts to visit the area between June and October.

Visitor numbers to the Richtersveld in Namaqualand, for example, are already high with the annual number of visitors exceeding the total number of residents (Odendaal, 2002). The types of tourists that are attracted to this area are generally the adventure tourists, the ecotourists and the 'new

tourists'³³. Few local people benefit from tourism at this point. Black people own approximately 23,8% of the accommodation businesses in Namaqualand, one each in Springbok and Steinkopf (Namakwa Tourism, 2004).

While the key feature of Namaqualand is the annual flower spectacle, the area has potential for outdoor and adventure tourism in the form of 4x4 trails through the Richtersveld and Helskloof Nature Reserve. There are also mountain-biking and horse-riding trails through the towns of Springbok Pofadder, Pella and Garies. However, while the sustainable tourism potential exists and is acknowledged in the IDP (Namakhoi Municipality, 2005), this sector is not linked with the other principal sectors (mining and agriculture).

6.4 A HISTORICAL OVERVIEW OF THE RICHTERSVELD AND EKSTEENFONTEIN

The Richtersveld³⁴ consists of four towns, Kuboes and Sanddrif in the North and Eksteenfontein and Lekkering in the South. The people of the Richtersveld are amongst the poor³⁵ in South Africa and infrastructure and service provision are poorly developed or non-existent (Eco-Africa, 1999). The Richtersveld forms part of Namaqualand. As stated in Chapter 5, the original inhabitants of the Namaqualand were Khoi-Khoi, but also included some San people. They were present in the area long before the Dutch colonisation of the Cape. Over time, the San and Khoi-Khoi merged, at least in Little Namaqualand, with each other and with white settlers who came to the area (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996). The product of this relationship was called the *Basters*.³⁶

During the 19th Century, the missionaries also started showing an interest in the area. The Renisch Mission Society established a mission station under the

³³ Poon (1993) coined the term 'new tourism'. It is the notion that a more flexible form of tourism characterised by quality, innovation and market segmentation is rapidly replacing mass tourism. The move towards new tourism is stimulated by a more quality-conscious and independently minded consumer and by new technologies now being used to maximise yield rather than volume. 'New tourism' may represent an end to the mass tourism era of the 20th Century.

³⁴ The area was named after a teacher at the Renisch Mission Seminary in Germany, the Reverend W Richter (Land Claims Court, 2001).

³⁵ Section 1.9.2 outlined that 36% of Namaqualand's inhabitants live below the Poverty Bread line of R800 per month, even though the HDI is 0,62, indicating medium to high development in the region.

³⁶ Meaning: people of mixed descent. People interviewed in the Eksteenfontein area are proud of being called *Basters* and are in the process of documenting the history of this group in the Richtersveld.

charge of Reverend Hein at Kuboes. At that time, Nama-speaking Khoisan herders occupied mainly the Richtersveld and the more recently arrived *Basters*. Most of the so-called *Basters* settled in Eksteenfontein (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996).

After unification and during 1925, the South African government decided to investigate the position of the Richtersveld (Land Claims Court, 2001). In 1925, diamonds were discovered near Port Nolloth. In 1927, a particularly rich deposit was found at the mouth of the Garib River at Alexander Bay. Many people moved into the area (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996). Alluvial diggings were proclaimed and the Government awarded these permits because the land was considered unalienated Crown (State) land (Land Claims Court, 2001).

In 1930, the Minister of Lands issued a certificate of reservation in respect of the Richtersveld Reserve land under the Crown Lands Act in favour of the Minister of Native Affairs for the use of the persons residing therein (Land Claims Court, 2001). However, certain pieces of land such as diamond-rich areas were excluded from this certificate of reservation and this exclusion became the subject of the long-running court case between the Richtersveld communities and Alexkor Limited (Boonzaaier *et al.*, 1996). In 1957, a fence was erected along the boundary between the Richtersveld Reserve and the portions of land that was not included in the certificate of reservation. This prevented the Richtersveld people from using those portions of the land for seasonal grazing and the watering of livestock.

In 1998, a land claim for 85 000 hectares of land in the Richtersveld (including the diamond-rich land that belongs to Alexkor) was handed into the Land Claims Court by the four communities that comprise the Richtersveld, namely Kuboes, Lekkersing, Sanddrift and Eksteenfontein (Land Claims Court, 2001). The communities lost the case but they appealed in 2001 to the Constitutional Court. The Court decided that those communities were the legal owners of the land and considered the appeal in terms of the indigenous rights of the communities (Land Claims Court, 2001). The court felt that the erstwhile

apartheid government and Alexkor had unfairly dispossessed the communities of their land rights because of the mineral wealth (Strauss, 2004).

At this stage, the communities have registered the Richtersveld Communal Property Association (CPA) that will take possession of the land once the Minister of Land Affairs finalises the transfer of the property (Strauss, 2004). In the interim, the Richtersveld Municipality are the appointed managers until the due processes with regard to the land claim are settled. The communities are also still awaiting a response in terms of the settlement/compensation package from the government and Alexkor (Strauss, 2004).

The local communities of the Richtersveld in July 1991 entered into a contractual agreement with the then National Parks Board (now South African National Parks/SANParks). This agreement was a milestone for the implementation of new conservation policies and practices in South Africa because the negotiations initially excluded the communities and they had formed a movement called “Parkeweerstandsbeweging”³⁷ to ensure that their voices were heard. The SANParks now leases the land from the communities and the funds are then distributed by a charitable trust, the Richtersveld Community Trust. The trust, which consists of independent board members, dispenses funds for educational and social upliftment programmes in the area. Some of the pivotal elements of the Richtersveld National Park (RNP) contract are given in Table 6.2:

6.5 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM IN THE RICHTERSVELD AND EKSTEENFONTEIN

The RNP is the primary tourist attraction in the Richtersveld. The RNP had approximately 5 000 visitors in 1999. Fakir (1996) contends that the RNP is a ‘compensatory mechanism’ where SANParks is the key decision-maker. A 2003 deal with the Namibian government extended the park across the border to link with the Ai-Ais Hot Springs Game Park, which includes the Fish River

³⁷ Meaning: Parks Resistance Movement

Canyon, the world's second largest canyon (Integrated Regional Information Network, 19 April 2005).

Table 6.2: Richtersveld National Park (RNP) contract

CLAUSE	DEFINITION
Management structure	Management Plan Committee with four members from SANParks and five elected from and by the community-one from each of the four villages and one to represent the stock farmers.
Use of park	Utilisation of grazing and other natural resources remains. Stock numbers limited but ceiling on stock numbers to come down as stock enters the 'corridor west' farms (owned by the Park) for grazing.
Payment of lease	Trust formed and community members elect trustees who are outsiders. All lease payments are made to the Trust.
Lease period	24 years + six years' notice period.

(Source: Archer, Turner & Venter, 1996)

Until 2004, the South African side of the park remained almost entirely undeveloped, but an influx of poverty alleviation funding in 2004 and 2005 has been used to upgrade camping facilities and build two wilderness camps, as well as tourist accommodation in each of the neighbouring villages. Despite the increased size of the park and increased spending, the park relies on cross-subsidisation from busier parks and is operating at a loss (Integrated Regional Information Network, 19 April 2005). The joint management arrangement has also brought its own set of problems, with community members accusing SANParks of neglect, and SANParks insisting that the community's go-it-alone approach is unrealistic given the lack of local capacity (Integrated Regional Information Network, 19 April 2005).

While the communities do not influence development in the RNP, the RNP has positively influenced the communities in the form of community tourism initiatives such as the development of guesthouses and campsites in Kuboes and Eksteenfontein, and the development of the SNTR (see Figure 6.1). The primary objective of the SNTR is to link community initiatives along this route from Cape Town to Namibia and the idea is for community-based tourism

enterprises situated along this route to engage in joint marketing exercises (“South-North Tourism Route,” 2004). DEAT, who funded the concept, and the communities along these routes have not developed the concept beyond the website. A comprehensive marketing strategy for this route should also form part of sustainable tourism planning guidelines for Namaqualand. Eksteenfontein is one of the thirteen towns along this route. Table 6.3 notes the researcher’s observations on the accommodation facilities available in Eksteenfontein.

Table 6.3: Tourist accommodation in Eksteenfontein

TYPE OF ACCOMMODATION	NUMBER AVAILABLE	LOCATION	AMENITIES
Guesthouse	2	Eksteenfontein town	3 bedrooms, shower, bath/toilet, lounge, kitchen for self-catering, outside braai and wood-fire oven. Fully electrified. Sleeps up to 8 people
		Rooiberg Conservancy	3 bedrooms, shower, bath/toilet, lounge, kitchen for self-catering, outside braai and wood-fire oven. Not electrified. Sleeps up to 8 people
Campsite	1	Rooiberg Conservancy	4 traditional grass reed Nama huts that can sleep up to four people per hut

6.5.1 The Eksteenfontein Guesthouse

In the centre of town is the *Kom Rus 'n Bietjie*³⁸ guesthouse (See Figure 6.5). After acquiring funding, the local women’s association renovated an old mining shack into this guesthouse. The guesthouse is fully electrified and has the simple comforts of home such as beds, shower, bath and fully fitted kitchen as highlighted in Table 6.3. There is no television, air-conditioning or a fan in the guesthouse and tourists would have to contend with mosquitoes in summer³⁹. The area is, however, malaria-free and safe. While the local tourism officer contends that the bare minimum was necessary for tourists

³⁸ Meaning: Come rest awhile

³⁹ The researcher and her family and one field researcher spent two nights in this guesthouse, 14-16 November 2004.

who wanted to be close to nature as possible, there is a definite need for an upgrade of the guesthouse in terms of tiling, painting and bedding. Management has mentioned that there are plans to upgrade but sourcing funding was problematic. The guestbook comments also revealed that most of the tourists found their stay quite pleasant. The village women, who were also the guesthouse managers, prepared the traditional food served, which is a unique touch.



Figure 6.5: Kom Rus 'n Bietjie Guesthouse, Eksteenfontein
(Source: S Govender-van Wyk, 15 November 2004)

6.5.2 The Rooiberg Conservancy: guesthouse and campsite

The Eksteenfontein community has also initiated a conservancy project in 2002, the Rooiberg Conservancy (See Figure 6.6) project that is about 30 kilometres from the town. The conservancy is called 'Rooiberg' because the mountains exude a reddish hue at sunset.

The vision of the Rooiberg Conservancy Project is “to protect and manage the unique biodiversity and natural landscape to the advantage of the local people and all of humankind” (Richtersveld Community Conservancy, 2004). The conservancy also has a guesthouse and traditional Nama campsites with

matjieshuts or mat huts (See Figure 6.7). These facilities do not have electricity.



Figure 6.6: The reddish hue of the Rooiberg Conservancy

(Source: S Govender-van Wyk, 14 November 2004)



Figure 6.7: Rooiberg Conservancy guesthouse and matjieshuts campsite

(Source: S Govender-van Wyk, 14 November 2004)

The extent of the conservancy stretches from the southern border of the RNP and south to the provincial Helskloof (Nababeep) Nature Reserve. The area is framed by the Orange River to the east and the road from Kuboes to Eksteenfontein to the west. Management is not aware of the extent of the land

(in hectares) and whether Helskloof will be amalgamated with the conservancy at some future date.

In relation to sustainable tourism within the conservancy, the management committee is marketing the place for adventure tourists where activities such as canoeing, mountain biking, rock climbing, paragliding, river rafting, 4x4 routes and camping by the river are permitted in the conservancy. They are also targeting the eco-tourists where there are plans to reintroduce game into the area for wildlife viewing. The Helskloof Nature Reserve will also be isolated for the reintroduction of game and areas that do not have the potential for livestock farming will also be isolated for this activity. At this stage livestock farmers and other community members have not been consulted on this initiative.

There are protected species of fauna and flora in the conservancy such as the *namaquanum pachypodium* or the ‘halfmens’⁴⁰ tree.



Figure 6.8: Halfmens tree

(Source: “Eksteenfontein”, 2004)

⁴⁰ Meaning: half-human tree. The Nama legend pertaining to this tree relates a story of the Nama people that were ousted out of Namibia and into the Richtersveld area and as they gazed forlornly at their land of their birth, God took pity on them and turned them into these tall strange succulents (Springbok Lodge and Restaurant, 1998).

A hiking trail that will extend into the RNP is also planned but given the tourism season and the weather conditions highlighted in Sections 6.2 and 6.3, ideal periods for hiking would be in the winter and spring seasons (June to October). If the transfrontier park concept with Namibia is approved, then there will be more ecotourism in relation to the RNP and the conservancy. The conservancy is also linked to the Nama culture and part of the tourists experience is to sample the culture of the area in terms of the food, music and story telling. Sustainable tourism is a relatively new livelihood approach that the Eksteenfontein community has embarked on. There were no other significant studies done to assess its impacts. The study is therefore the first to analyse the Rooiberg Conservancy venture and its potential impacts for this community and comparatively assess this development for some commonages in Namaqualand.

The next section of this chapter focuses on the analysis of the interviews with the Eksteenfontein community and management in relation to the Rooiberg Conservancy project and sustainable tourism in the area.

6.6 ANALYSIS OF THE ROOIBERG CONSERVANCY PROJECT

6.6.1 Introduction

Approximately 700 people live in Eksteenfontein, 300 of which are the remaining adult members of this community. Some of the adults are employed on the mines and some have left the area to pursue tertiary studies or seek employment in other provinces. The 42 people interviewed (See **Annexure 6**) are beneficiaries of the Rooiberg Conservancy project and were either directly or indirectly involved with the development. Two field researchers resident in the area were used to identify the respondents.

Two interview schedules were used to obtain the information (See **Annexure 7** and **Annexure 8**). The objectives of the questionnaires were to gain knowledge on community tourism through the establishment of a conservancy, to identify strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats in

the model and to assess whether this model can create sustainable livelihoods through tourism. The findings will also contribute towards the formulation of the planning guidelines for sustainable tourism on commonages.

Both questionnaires will be analysed under the following sections, as there were overlaps:

- community profile;
- community participation in the Rooiberg Conservancy project;
- skills development;
- conservancy management (this section will also deal with issues such as marketing and financial management);
- improvement in livelihoods; and
- sustainable tourism development (present and future).

6.6.2 Community profile

The majority of the respondents interviewed were youth between the ages of 18 and 35 years old (See Figure 6.9).

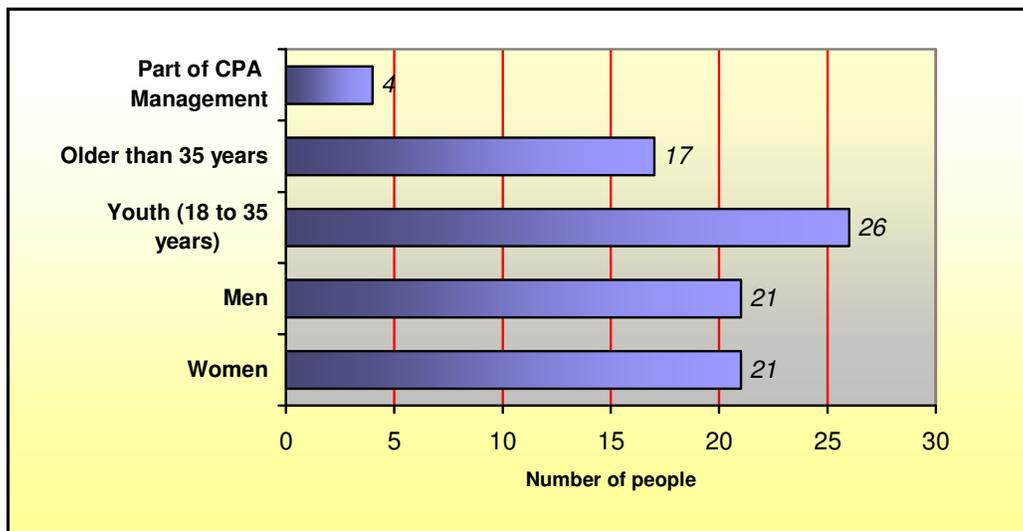


Figure 6.9: Profile of respondents

The reason for this deliberate inclusion of more youth in the sample is because the conservancy management plan (2004) states that the youth are aware of the conservancy but do not know how to make use of it and that training and knowledge around the conservancy should filter to the youth. Table 6.4 outlines the number of people interviewed and their positions in the community. There were equal numbers of female and male respondents even though the majority of the adult male population in Eksteenfontein returned to the mines on Sunday and the interviews had taken place on a Monday and a Tuesday.⁴¹

Table 6.4: Community position profile

POSITION IN COMMUNITY	NUMBER
Youth	10
Community representative	9
Conservancy management	4
Shop assistant	4
Church elder	2
Political organisation member	2
Small business person	2
Textile group member	2
Tourguide/tourism	2
Ward committee member	2
Musician	1
Pensioner	1
Livestock farmer	1
TOTAL	42

Female members of this community seemed to play a much more active role in the sustainable tourism venture than the males and, as indicated in Section 6.5.1, the women's association developed and manages the guesthouses. There is, however, only one female, Joan Cloete, from the Eksteenfontein community on the CPA management while there are six males. The issues of fair gender representation and management capacity building for selected female members for possible inclusion on the management structure must be taken into consideration.

⁴¹ The interviews were scheduled to take place on these days to coincide with the office hours of the CPA and Rooiberg Conservancy management.

More than 45% of the respondents have lived in Eksteenfontein for thirty years and longer while 33% have lived in the area for between 20 and 30 years. Most of the respondents are therefore familiar with the history of the area, cultural traditions and current developments. The education level of the respondents is as follows (See Figure 6.10):

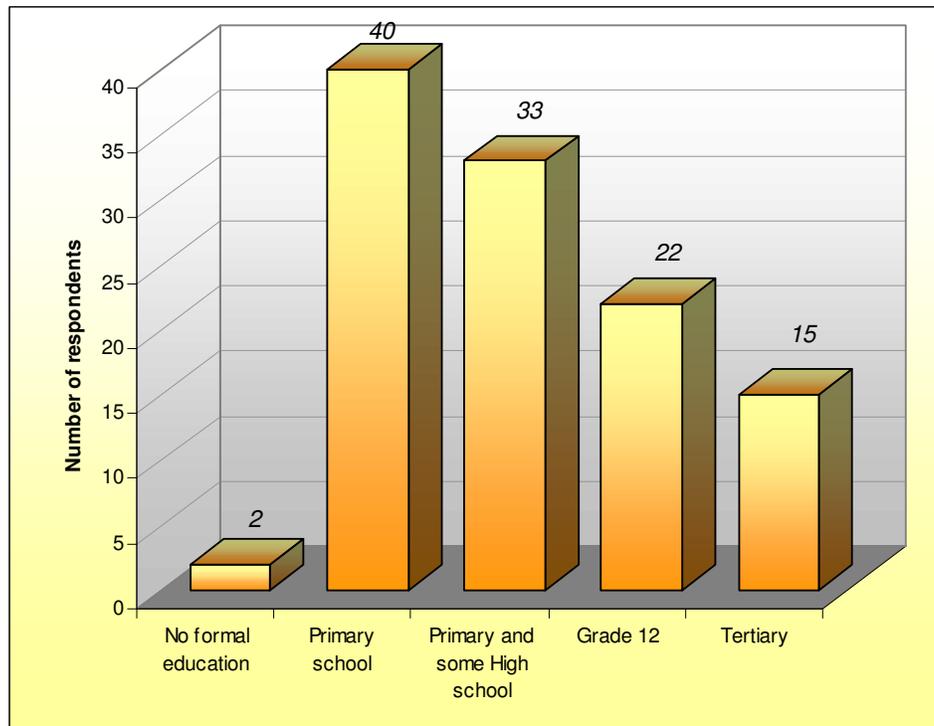


Figure 6.10: Educational profile of respondents

A little more than half of the respondents had completed Grade 12 while only 15 have had some tertiary education.

Respondents provided a list of advantages and disadvantages of living in Eksteenfontein (See Table 6.5).

There appeared to be general dissatisfaction amongst the youth respondents who wanted development to be accelerated so that amenities aimed at the youth such as a community centre, public swimming pool and cinema complex could aid in stemming the tide of migration to the nearest big city.

There also appeared to be dissatisfaction with government service provision in terms of proper roads and bulk infrastructure and the burning issue of the settling of the land claim (Section 6.4). While the advantages and disadvantages are almost the same, there appeared to be a positive feeling that some of the disadvantages would be addressed through future tourism developments in the area and the finalisation of the land claim.

Table 6.5: Advantages and disadvantages of living in Eksteenfontein

ADVANTAGES OF LIVING IN EKSTEENFONTEIN	NO. OF RESPONSES	DISADVANTAGES OF LIVING IN EKSTEENFONTEIN	NO. OF RESPONSES
Crime is low	42	Roads are in poor condition	40
Historical attachments	41	No closer to settlement of the land claim	38
Birthplace and family	41	Development is slow	37
The area is peaceful and quiet	40	Few work opportunities	37
The area provides many tourism opportunities	40	The area is rich in minerals but people are poor	37
People live close to nature	38	Government services are inaccessible	36
Unique natural attractions	38	No recreational facilities such as a swimming pool, cinema complex or youth centre	36
No high buildings to restrict people's views	35	Too far from big cities and transport routes	35
Richtersveld is one of the biggest tourist attractions in South Africa	35	Poor cellular phone reception	34
Familiar with everyone in the towns	35	Alcohol abuse is high	20
No pollution	33	Older folk appear to be development-shy	14
People are friendly	30		
People are happy	30		

6.6.3 Community participation in the Rooiberg Conservancy project

The respondents indicated that participants of the conservancy project were chosen based on their residency in the Richtersveld and their age (must be 18 years and older). Only 13 of the respondents were actually participating in the conservancy project and the levels of participation included management, cartography (mapping of the area), tour guides and cultural guides. The 29 people or 69% of the sample who were not involved in this project voiced the following reasons for their non-involvement:

- little or no information on what is going on with the conservancy and what the future plans are;
- the conservancy is not fully developed therefore not everybody can be involved at this stage;
- full-time employed elsewhere;
- community members are not always in Eksteenfontein;
- only some members of the community are involved in the initiative; and
- there is not enough interest in that type of development even though there are community notices to attend meetings.

Identifying and prioritising the needs of the different interest groups within the community in the planning processes would have resulted in buy-in from the majority of the community members and richer understanding of the issues. This could have resulted in other innovative management strategies for the conservancy's future development. In relation to the IDP concept, the community is an important resource and should be included from the initial stages of the planning processes (See Section 3.11.1). Effective community participation features as one of the ten principles behind sustainable tourism management (See Box 1.1).

6.6.4 Skills development

No skills development strategy is in place for Eksteenfontein. Only eight of the 13 members that are involved in the conservancy project have been trained in conservancy management (2), nature conservation (2), project management

(1) and as tour guides (3). However, the management stated that the other members of the community not directly involved in the conservancy had also been trained. In total, community members have received training in the following areas given in Table 6.6:

Table 6.6: Training received

TYPE OF TRAINING	NUMBER
Tour guides	21
Train the trainers (Environmental Impact Assessments)	5
Cartography	2
Conservancy management	2
Cultural guide	2
Nature conservation	2
Tourism management	2
Mariculture	1
Bookkeeping	1
Environmental engineer	1
Project management	1
Sustainable development in protected areas	1
TOTAL	41

While training is important, people should not be trained unless there were specific roles for them to play within the developments in the area. One community member indicated that while some people were trained to be guides, they did not have the passion for the work. Another person indicated that some of the training has not coincided with implementation and therefore people are skilled but jobless. The proposed museum for the area has also not opened due to a lack of funding and there was one person who was trained, as a cultural guide, to manage the museum. Approximately 50% of the respondents felt that there was a certain amount of nepotism with regard to the selection of certain individuals for training courses. A comprehensive skills development strategy would have aided in addressing the community's aspirations and the issue of nepotism.

The respondents were then questioned on what skills they possessed (See Table 6.7 and the type of skills still needed (See Table 6.8) in relation to the conservancy project.

Table 6.7: Skills possessed

SKILLS	NUMBER
People skills	41
Knowledge and/or experience of bookkeeping/accounting	20
Management of people/employees	10
Knowledge and/or experience of community management	10
Knowledge and/or experience of nature conservation	6
Knowledge and/or experience of working with tourists	9
Knowledge and/or experience of conservancy management	5
Knowledge and/or experience of guesthouse management	5
Knowledge and/or experience of managing events	5
Project management	5

Table 6.8: Skills still needed

SKILLS	NUMBER
Knowledge and/or experience of working with tourists	34
Knowledge and/or experience in wildlife management	34
Knowledge and/or experience of nature conservation	33
Knowledge and/or experience of conservancy management	27
Management of people/employees	24
Knowledge and/or experience of guesthouse management	24
Knowledge and/or experience of community management	22
Knowledge and/or experience in the hospitality (hotel) sector	22
Knowledge and/or experience of managing events	20
People skills	20
Knowledge and/or experience of bookkeeping/accounting	19

It is evident that skills development, especially in relation to working with tourists, nature conservation and wildlife management, are needed to allow the conservancy project to become a sustainable venture. Twenty of the respondents indicated that they possess 'people skills'. The general

observation was that people were friendly and accommodating and this is an important characteristic for employment in tourism.

6.6.5 Conservancy management

Figure 6.11 highlights the different role-players in relation to the management of the conservancy project.

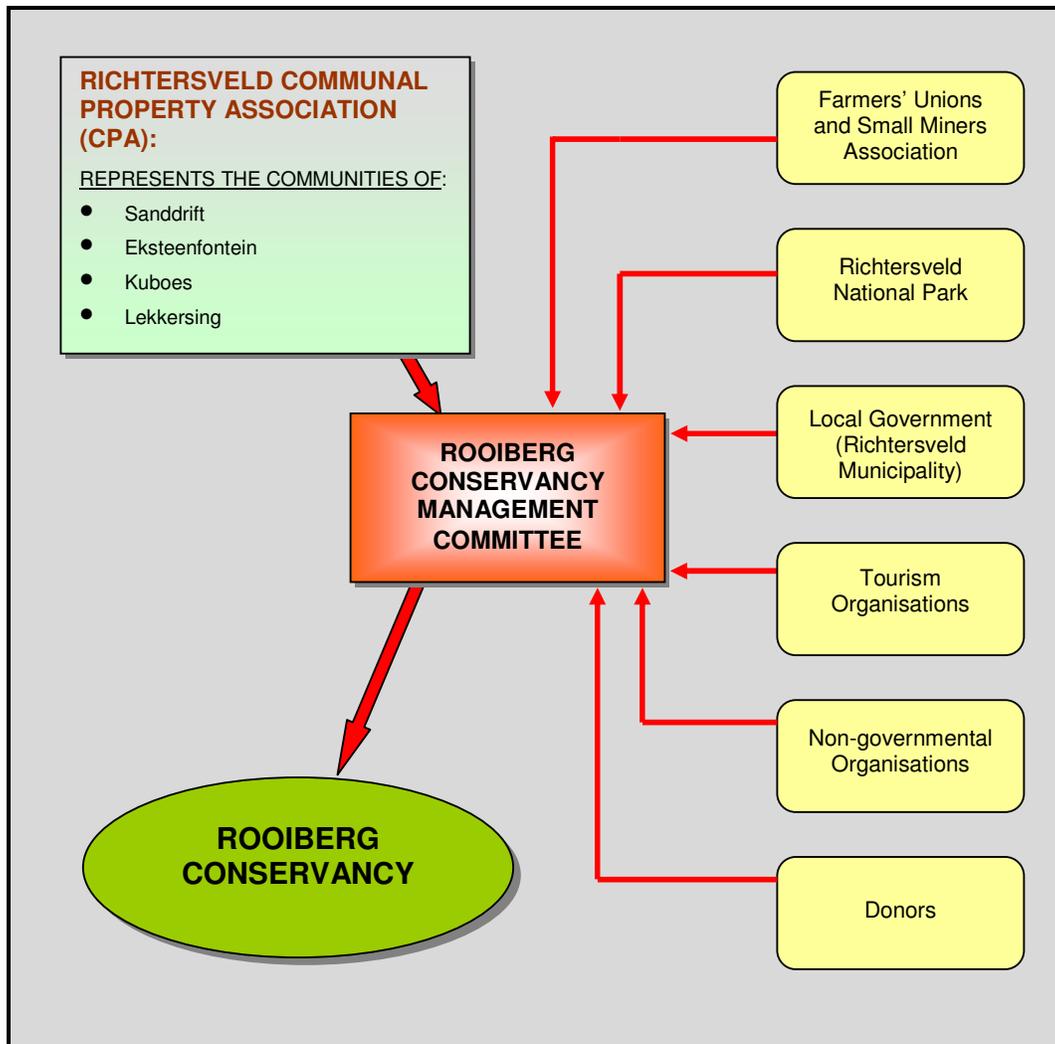


Figure 6.11: Role-player involvement in the conservancy project

The community has elected a management committee of 11 people and an operational management team of 3 people. Mr Gert Links, a former employee of the RNP, was appointed Conservation Area Manager. The management

committee have outlined 11 guidelines for themselves (Richtersveld Community Conservancy, 2004):

- planning, management and implementation of the conservation area have to be transparent;
- promotion of local empowerment and to ensure transformation;
- accessibility of the area to all people and to ensure non-discriminatory practices;
- management must liaise regularly with all role-players and respect their opinions;
- the conservation area must benefit the whole community;
- the conservation area must operate within the set legal framework;
- the conservation area must be compatible with local standards, cultures and traditions;
- the conservation area must be integrated with developments in the area;
- the planning, management and implementation of the conservation area must take place in a holistic way;
- the conservation area must create capacity-building opportunities for the youth and local people; and
- consultants, NGOs and outside assistance should only be used if absolutely necessary and in a way that positively builds local capacity.

While these guidelines are useful, the management has not developed a comprehensive strategic and operational plan to implement the guidelines. Capacity constraints and funding were cited as reasons for poor planning but it is also understood that Conservation International, the World Bank and Eco-Africa environmental consultants had been roped in to provide funding and technical expertise. It can be assumed that the technical expertise was not aligned with the implementation plans and therefore the consultants, who were employed by the agencies referred to earlier, made minimal impact in terms of the transfer of skills.

The conservation area appears compatible with local standards and culture where Nama and *Baster* cultures are interwoven into the fabric of the Eksteenfontein community but integration with the wider developments in the area has not happened. The linkage of the conservancy with the Namibia-South Africa Transfontier Conservation Area (TFCA) (RNP and the Ais-Ais Hot Springs) has not materialised because of the existing joint management problems between the Richtersveld community and SANParks. The linkage could provide added tourism benefits to the Eksteenfontein community if the Rooiberg Conservancy was used as one of the main entry points into the TFCA. It would also provide a longer, more scenic route for the adventure/nature tourists.

The guidelines refer to regular liaison with all role-players and assert that the conservation area should provide benefits to the whole community. One of the questions asked respondents how well they had been informed of the plans for the conservancy. About 20% of the respondents indicated that there had been two or three community meetings in Eksteenfontein that were poorly attended and therefore people were not fully aware of all the plans. The same 20% mentioned the following issues that had been raised during community meetings (See Box 6.1).

Box 6.1: Community concerns for the conservancy

- job opportunities for more members of the communities;
- obtaining more local buy-in as only few members attend meetings;
- more feedback from the management committee;
- advantages for the livestock farmers and the fear that they will have to move out once the conservancy is proclaimed;
- community wants to know where the money is coming from and how it is spent;
- management and control of the conservancy;
- people do not understand what is going on in meetings because the language used is too difficult for them to comprehend and simpler language should be used to get message across;
- drought issues and how this will affect the conservancy;
- consultants are interfering too much in community affairs;
- how to accelerate development in relation to tourism in the conservancy;
- access to funding to finance tertiary education of some youth members; and
- capacity building should be seen as a necessity and not a privilege.

The issues raised in Box 6.1 bear significance to the fact that only some members of the community were consulted during the planning phase of the conservancy development and merely stresses the importance of community participation raised in the previous section and in Section 3.11.1.

Figure 6.12 shows that 57% of the respondents were generally satisfied with the management committee but there was a perception that the management could do more to keep people informed, such as through community newsletters or regular meetings that explain processes in the local language.

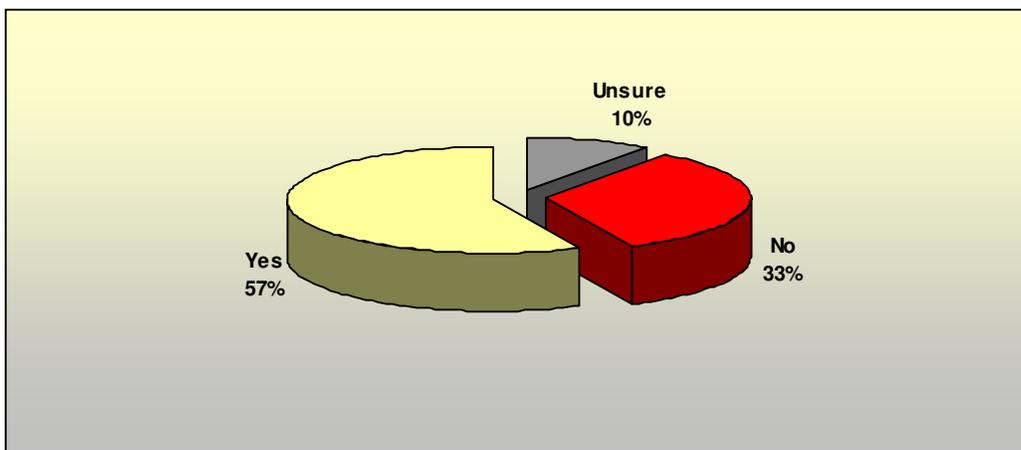


Figure 6.12: Community satisfaction with the management committee

While the community appears to be satisfied with the management of the conservancy, it has been observed that there are no patrols in the conservancy and therefore tourists are damaging the area. There was also some litter and bottles on the 4x4 route. One of the guides stated that the 4x4 tourists who do not utilise the local guides often litter the area, which is then cleaned up by community members. There are currently no restrictions in terms of the use of local guides. The management committee should have stipulated that the use of local guides was a prerequisite for tourists visiting the area. This type of prerequisite could also aid in job creation and building local capacity for more guides to be trained. At this stage, up to a maximum of 20 vehicles per day are permitted into the conservancy but the campsites and guesthouse could probably accommodate up to 50 people.

It was also noted that, although monitoring is mentioned in the management plan, there are no monitoring mechanisms in place. There are plans to 'monitor and evaluate' the area once a year through a monitoring team comprising of elected members of the Richtersveld CPA, local government and an independent organization. Monitoring is not an annual activity as noted in Section 3.11.5.2.1 and should provide ongoing information through predetermined indicators on how well the conservancy development is meeting its objectives or when planned actions are not proceeding as it should be.

Table 6.6 illustrates that no member of the community has been trained on monitoring and evaluation techniques. Monitoring and evaluation is an integral management function and some members should be given proper training in this regard. Proper monitoring would have indicated the need for patrols or other steps that require action. This project has been in existence since 2002, but evaluative studies have not been conducted to assess the conservancy's development impacts, efficiency, effectiveness and sustainability.

6.6.5.1 *Funding and other arrangements*

Land-use planning linked to biodiversity conservation is an area where both international agencies and the South African government are investing substantial resources that were leveraged to support the Rooiberg Conservancy tourism initiative. The main source of funding for this project (R6 million) came from DEAT's Poverty Alleviation Programme that the conservancy management channelled to environmental education and poverty alleviation projects that would contribute to biodiversity conservation in the area.

Table 6.9 outlines all the funding and services that were provided to the development of the conservancy project. It is evident from Table 6.9 that approximately R13,8 million funding and other services were utilised towards the planning and implementation of the conservancy project. Given that only 41 people had been trained (See Table 6.6) and a small percentage of the

Table 6.9: Funding and services provided

ORGANISATION	AMOUNT OF FUNDING PROVIDED	SERVICE PROVIDED
Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT)	R6 million	Funding for poverty alleviation - guesthouse development and training.
Global Environment Facility (GEF)	R3 million	Appointed a GEF coordinator.
German Technical Corporation (GTZ)	R3 million	Part of this money was used to finance legal expertise for the land claim process and some went towards technical and administrative support.
Conservation International	R1,5 million	Appointed a CBNRM coordinator. Funding to flow over 3 years from 2002.
United Nations Development Programme	R300 000	Research station for biodiversity research.
Norwegian Government	Not stipulated in CPA Management Plan	Development of the satellite McGregor Museum in Eksteenfontein. One person trained to manage museum.
Richtersveld National Park	No funding	Provision of management support.
Northern Cape Provincial Government	Not stipulated in IDP	Integrated development planning processes that involved the Richtersveld CPA.
Eco-Africa environmental and planning consultants	No funding	Promoting cultural and heritage conservation. Will be involved in upgrading the roads into the conservancy in 2005-2007.
Farmers' unions, Small Miners Association and Northern Cape Tourism Authority	No funding	Contributed to the conservancy plans.

funds were used towards the guesthouses and campsite development (approximately R1 million), it seemed as if minimal funding had been directed to other critical services such as the upgrading of the roads into the conservancy (initially in 2002) and the guesthouses. Most of the funds were used to pay consultants. The interviews with members of the conservancy management revealed that the management is now wary of utilising the

services of expensive consultants and has opted to complete the remainder of the planning themselves and outsource only when there are no skills within the community to perform such services. This is a positive step for development in this area as all planning should start and end with the community.

6.6.5.2 *Marketing*

The management committee is currently marketing the conservancy on the SNTR website (“Eksteenfontein”, 2004). In addition, there are brochures, a video, and a compact disc with information that are sent to various points such as hotels, tourism kiosks and embassies across the country and the world. The conservancy is advertised as part of the RNP in Getaway Magazine (in-flight magazine of South African Airways). The conservancy management acknowledges that marketing is not aggressively pursued at this stage because the conservancy does not have the capacity to deal with an influx of tourists. This should not prevent management from developing marketing objectives as part of a comprehensive plan that would include capacity building.

6.6.6 Improvement in livelihoods

It is estimated that the conservancy receives 80% of its tourists from South Africa and 20% from outside the country. On average, four tourists per day, visit during the off-season between October and March and in the peak season, between April and September, there are approximately 13 tourists per day. It is estimated that tourists spend an average of R750 per day per tourist in Eksteenfontein, supporting the two local shops, guesthouses and going into the conservancy. Each tourist stays on average three to five days. The estimated income from the conservancy development therefore amounts to R549 000 (off-season) and R1 774 500 (peak season). This excludes the rental of equipment or vehicles.

From Figure 6.13 it would appear as if the tourism venture would ensure a more sustainable future for the Eksteenfontein community in terms of

profitability than livestock farming would for the commonage users (See Table 5.4). The livestock farming income was generated from livestock sales on six Namaqualand commonages over a 12-month period.

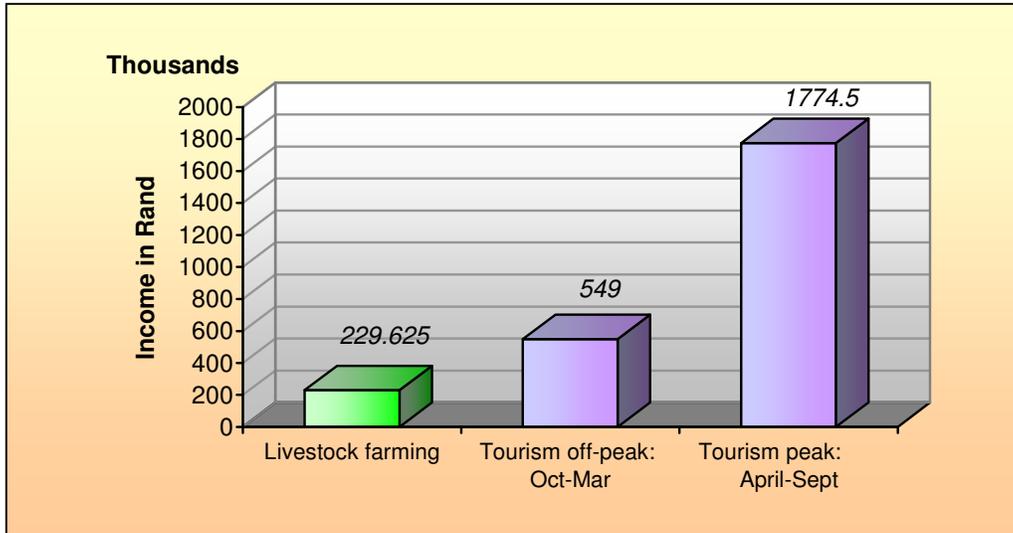


Figure 6.13: Comparison of livestock farming earnings and tourism earnings: December 2003 to November 2004

A comparison of the division of the profits (on average) per individual for commonage users ($R229\ 625 \div 34\ \text{users} = \mathbf{R6\ 753}$) and Eksteenfontein adult residents ($R2\ 323\ 500 \div 300\ \text{residents} = \mathbf{R7\ 745}$) demonstrates that the Eksteenfontein residents would receive more financial benefits per individual from the tourism venture than the commonage users would from their livestock farming enterprises. Eksteenfontein residents also preferred to pool their profits, adding interest to their collective savings through the Richtersveld CPA as opposed to the commonage users who focussed on amassing individual earnings. Collective earnings may also lead to enhancement of the Rooiberg Conservancy development and other sustainable development initiatives in the Richtersveld.

Tables 6.10 and 6.11 highlight the economic and social improvements resulting from the conservancy project. Table 6.11 reveals that the conservancy project has not positively influenced the social problem of alcoholism nor has it led to increased community participation.

Table 6.10: Economic spin-offs from the conservancy project

PROPOSED ECONOMIC SPIN-OFFS OF CONSERVANCY DEVELOPMENT	REALISATION OF SPIN-OFFS (Yes/No) AS AT NOVEMBER 2004
<p><i>Creation of the following job opportunities:</i></p> <p>Signage (Sign writers)</p> <p>Caterers</p> <p>Guesthouse managers</p> <p>Tour and cultural guides</p> <p>Cartographers</p> <p>Rangers</p>	<p>Yes and No. Some people have been trained but there are no jobs</p>
<p>Development of more campsites and upgrading of the guesthouses to accommodate more tourists (short-term contracts to people that are building the <i>matjieshuts</i> campsites and to the building and décor contractors involved in the upgrading of guesthouses - use of local materials and skills</p>	<p>Yes. Rooiberg guesthouse developed but further upgrading needed on both guesthouses in Eksteenfontein</p>
<p>More tourists and increased spending in the area not only in the conservancy but also in the local shops including tourism office that sells the textiles, arts and crafts of the locals</p>	<p>Yes. Part of the R750 per day that tourists spend in the area during the peak season is spent at the two local shops. An exact figure was not available</p>
<p>Better infrastructure</p>	<p>No but planned for 2005-2007</p>

Table 6.11: Social spin-offs from the conservancy project

SOCIAL SPIN-OFFS	REALISATION OF SPIN-OFFS (Yes/No) AS AT NOVEMBER 2004
<p>Reduced unemployment</p>	<p>Yes. About 20 of the 41 people trained are actively employed in this venture</p>
<p>Reduced alcoholism</p>	<p>No. Approximately 48% of the respondents still indicate this social ill as a problem in the area</p>
<p>Increased capacity building</p>	<p>Yes. 41 people were trained</p>
<p>More youth involvement</p>	<p>Yes. 30 of the people trained were youth</p>
<p>More community involvement</p>	<p>No. 69% of the respondents played a minimal to no role in the venture</p>

6.6.7 Sustainable tourism development in Eksteenfontein (present and future)

The majority (23) of the respondents rate tourism as very important in comparison to livestock farming and/or mining, while the others (19)

viewed tourism as a livelihood activity that is equally important to mining and livestock farming. There is a sentiment among some of the community members interviewed that tourism could do more harm than good, but this is a minority view. Some members raised the issue that with every livelihood activity (mining, livestock farming, tourism, etc.) there are advantages and disadvantages and that there should be plans in place to minimise the negative aspects; for example, if community members feel that opening up the conservancy to more tourists might destroy the fragile ecosystem then commission an environmental impact assessment to determine what the carrying capacity of the area is and set clear guidelines for tourists.

Tourism is seen as the economic 'saviour' in response to the decommissioning of the mines and livestock farming. It may be idealistic to rely on tourism alone and there is a need to look at other economic activities that can be offered to community members that may not be interested in the tourism developments in the area.

The respondents felt that the following sectors were vital to the success of tourism in Eksteenfontein:

- community-based tourism through guesthouse and conservation;
- flower viewing;
- ecotourism through conservation tours;
- hiking trails; and
- historical and cultural tourism.

Respondents were then asked to provide their responses in relation to the future plans for the conservancy in relation to tourism (See Table 6.12).

The perceptions of the majority of the respondents tie in with the management plans for the conservancy in relation to tourism namely; the development of 4x4 trails, eco-sensitive hiking-trails and conservation of the flora and fauna in the area.

Table 6.12: Ideas for future plans for the conservancy

PLAN	NUMBER OF RESPONSES
To expand the guesthouse business	28
To develop nature conservation programmes for tourists	20
To develop a 4x4 route for tourists	26
To protect the natural environment and animals for tourists	32
To develop more campsites for tourists	24
To develop nature tours	26
To develop bird-watching for tourists	15
To develop game-viewing for tourists	17
To develop game-hunting facilities for tourists	11
To developing eco-sensitive hiking trails for tourists	32

Table 6.13 highlights the respondents' perspectives on whether there will be growth or not in the following tourism sectors in Eksteenfontein:

Table 6.13: Community perceptions of tourism growth (N=42)

1 = no growth 3 = medium 5 = strong growth

SECTORS	1	2	3	4	5
Community-based tourism through guesthouse and conservation	5	0	19	10	8
Game-viewing	18	5	11	5	3
Flower viewing	4	2	6	6	24
Ecotourism through conservation tours	5	5	10	6	16
Adventure tourism (4x4)	3	6	7	10	16
Historical and cultural tourism: history of the Eksteenfontein area	5	4	8	6	19
Hunting	33	1	5	1	2
Hiking trails	9	5	12	5	11
Bird watching	15	4	13	3	7

The following reasons were stated for ratings of 3 and below:

- there is in reality no actual development or growth in the area except for the 4x4 routes;
- all the plans are still in the pipeline and implementation dates are uncertain;
- poor communication to community members who are the actual owners of the conservancy;
- the roads are in poor condition therefore some 4x4 enthusiasts may come;
- although marketing has improved, few people know about Eksteenfontein and are actually interested in the area and its culture;
- too little rain and this can destroy some fauna and flora impacting on ecotourism;
- there is a shortage of funds for development and that can hamper tourism development; and
- the place is too far from main centres and the nearest major airport is in Upington.

The reasons for ratings of 4 and 5 were as follows:

- the 4x4 tourists bring in the money;
- the flora and fauna are unique and so is the culture and spirit amongst the community;
- more people know about the Richtersveld and Eksteenfontein;
- it is going slowly but tourism will grow;
- people are curious about the natural settings and unique culture;
- the locals are friendly and keep tourists entertained; and
- tourists feel safe here because crime is almost non-existent.

The respondents noted that the following factors could hamper the community's development goals for the conservancy (See Table 6.14).

Table 6.14: Factors that could hamper the conservancy's future development

FACTOR	NUMBER OF RESPONSES
No proper training given to people to manage the conservancy	27
Poor infrastructure such as roads, electricity	26
Community want other jobs	22
Too few people involved	22
Community tensions	20
People losing sight of their culture for money	20
Community will lose interest in the conservancy	19
Financial losses	18
Too many people involved	10
Poor management	9

There are plans to improve the roads, electrify areas where there is no electricity (except within the conservancy), improve the signage on the roads to the conservancy and Eksteenfontein and upgrade the guesthouses. The issues of training and capacity building have been discussed at length elsewhere in this chapter, but it is worth noting again because training should not be done intermittently. Implementation should immediately follow all training initiatives. If project implementation has not coincided with training then it follows that the trainees should be re-orientated in terms of the basics of the training programmes they had attended. Skills development should be an ongoing exercise.

The issue of people losing sight of their culture for money is an ethical dilemma that people in this area fear. In turn, the community may feel forced to adapt their lifestyles ('staged authenticity' - discussed in Section 3.4.2) to ensure that tourists are not disappointed. However, the researcher was unable to discern any incidences of staged authenticity.

The respondents agreed that there must be a coordinated effort (involving the community, private sector, government, non-government organizations and

donors) to work together and agree on a better development and marketing plan for the conservancy to ensure that the project is sustainable for future generations. It was also agreed that fundraising should not only be a management responsibility and more people should get involved to attract funding to the area for capacity building, infrastructure development and social development projects. With increased communication and full community participation, it was felt that the project would be successful.

Respondents stated that the conservancy tourism project could generate sustainable livelihoods for the Eksteenfontein community. There are community spin-offs and in 10 years' tourism will offer full-time livelihood opportunities. The Richtersveld CPA plans to outsource all the tourism businesses to the community and this will include the guesthouses and campsites, the tourism office and museum. Community members will be asked to tender for the businesses. Community members will be encouraged to form joint ventures with non-Richtersvelders to promote investment in the area. Community members who are currently operating some of the businesses are in a state of uncertainty and feel that they would not stand a chance of winning any of the tenders.

The management committee noted that not all the members of the community could benefit from the sustainable tourism opportunities. Such realities should be communicated to the community. Respondents stated that the youth are growing up with the culture of tourism and they have the potential to develop and sustain it. There is a general perception amongst the youth that the older generation fails to understand tourism and how it could positively benefit them, because traditionally mining and livestock farming have been their livelihood sources. These livelihoods should remain options for the community and should not be discouraged.

6.7 SWOT MATRIX FOR THE CONSERVANCY PROJECT

The SWOT Model (See Step 5C in Chapter 4) is used to further interpret the results garnered from Section 6.6 (See Tables 6.15 and 6.16).

Table 6.15: SWOT matrix: strengths and weaknesses

STRENGTHS	WEAKNESSES
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Existing tourism facilities such as two guesthouses and a traditional Nama campsite • Interest amongst the youth to enhance sustainable tourism in the conservancy • Conservancy generates an income both off-season and peak season • Existing and functioning management structures • Fauna, birdlife and flora (part of the Succulent Karoo Biome) and close ties with Richtersveld National Park • Existing marketing strategy • Funding available from some strategic partners • Municipality is a partner and five other strategic partners involved in this initiative 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Management structure not sufficiently capacitated to manage the conservancy and tourism aspects • Poor communication channels between community members and management committee • Poor to non-existent monitoring system in place • Brackish water and limited water supply • Only some community members are selected for employment opportunities. • Training does not coincide with implementation

Table 6.16: SWOT matrix: opportunities and threats

OPPORTUNITIES	THREATS
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Namaqualand is well positioned for the tourism industry • There is an existing tourism route in the form of the SNTR • Transfontier Conservation Area with Namibia with a possibility to include the conservancy in this development • Niche marketing opportunities for Namaqualand as a desert tourism destination rather than as a seasonal flower destination as it currently is 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Land and mining rights issues could stymie development in this area • Possible opposition to tourism from farmers' associations in the area and mines • Poor access routes to Eksteensfontein and the conservancy could restrict tourism to only the 4x4 crowd

The strengths and opportunities outlined in the SWOT analyses for commonages (See Tables 5.8 and 5.9) and for the Rooiberg Conservancy project favour sustainable tourism development. It would appear that the weaknesses and threats uncovered in the commonage projects would pose

more risks to livestock farming ventures, as would the weaknesses and threats of the sustainable tourism venture.

Both SWOT models have also revealed the following similarities in relation to the weaknesses:

- poor management capacity of the management structure;
- poor to non-existent monitoring and evaluation mechanisms;
- brackish water and limited water supply;
- improper to minimal training; and
- poor communication.

All of these issues could have been embraced within a well-constructed IDP or detailed sector plan within the IDP. The provision of adequate and safe water supply is the mandate of the municipalities (Nama Khoi and Richtersveld). This provision should have been adequately catered for in the IDP processes. It therefore leads to an assumption that the IDP planning processes involving these two municipalities were flawed and that future IDP review processes should embark on proper gap analyses to identify service gaps in these areas. It is ironic that water provision to the commonage farms is poor even though these are municipal properties. The revised 2005 IDP for the Namakwa District Council, encompassing both the Richtersveld and Nama Khoi Local Municipalities, confirms that water provision and other bulk services for these areas were not included in the implementation plan for 2005-2006 (Namakwa District Municipality, 2004).

In general, there appear to be positive economic and social spin-offs for the sustainable tourism venture. The study established that over a twelve-month period, one sustainable tourism venture benefiting 300 adult members was more successful in generating profits than 34 micro livestock farming enterprises on six commonages, benefiting 34 commonage users. Hoffman and Rohde (2000) assert that livestock farming on commonages in Namaqualand should ideally yield a net annual income of R10 per hectare but

states that this is not achievable because of the poor conditions on the commonages.

To ensure the future sustainability of the Rooiberg Conservancy project, the South African Government would need to address the land and mining rights issues as a matter of urgency so that developments in this area could be expedited. The linkage with other initiatives in the area, such as the establishment of the transfrontier conservation area with Namibia and mining, could further enhance the livelihood opportunities for the Eksteenfontein community.

6.8 CONCLUSION

The principal objective of this chapter was to describe, analyse and interpret data obtained on the Rooiberg sustainable tourism conservancy project in Eksteenfontein through interviewing some key role-players and community members who are either directly or indirectly involved with this development. The results discussed in this chapter have justified the hypothesis arrived at in Section 3.10, referring to the relevance of sustainable tourism for future commonage development in South Africa and answers the research question posed in Section 1.7: *what role can sustainable tourism play in commonage projects?*

The next chapter creates a synthesis of these results, using the IDP framework outlined in Section 3.11, and suggests planning guidelines for the development of a Commonage Sector Plan embracing future sustainable tourism initiatives on commonages.

Chapter 7

SYNTHESIS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 7 seeks to provide an overall review of the research aim and question, objectives and limitations of the study. Attention will also be given to the contribution of this study to the field of Tourism Management. The chapter synthesises the results of the literature and fieldwork studies, resulting in a set of planning guidelines for the development of sustainable tourism ventures on commonages, developed from the IDP framework discussed in Section 3.11.

7.2 REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH AIM AND QUESTIONS

The primary aim of the research was to provide planning guidelines for sustainable tourism development on redistributed commonages in Namaqualand. To achieve this goal, the study was guided by a *research question* with three investigative sub-questions: **What role can sustainable tourism play in commonage projects?**

The sub-questions were:

- Can sustainable tourism and land reform be linked?
- In what way can tourism development enhance the South African government's land redistribution programme thereby creating sustainable livelihoods for people?
- What are the successes and failures of sustainable tourism initiatives in the Northern Cape, especially in the Namaqualand region?
- What are the successes and failures of agrarian driven commonage projects in Namaqualand?

The literature review (Chapters 2 and 3) and analyses phases of the research (Chapters 5 and 6) answered these research questions. From the literature on

land reform, it was established that there is no academic research linking land redistribution to tourism. Chapter 2 provided an overview of land reform initiatives in Brazil, Zimbabwe, Namibia and South Africa and revealed that in all three countries, the land reform efforts are focussed on an agrarian-style land reform. Some of the theoretical papers on commonage and land redistribution suggest alternative livelihood options for the rural poor such as tourism, but as part of an integrated approach to rural development. The literature also revealed that sustainable tourism provides improved livelihood options for poor rural areas. However, sustainable tourism should not be seen as a panacea to the problems experienced by agriculture. A comparison of the four land reform policies in terms of the sustainable development principles posed by Murphy (1995), demonstrated that a purely agrarian focus is unsustainable (See Table 2.3).

In relation to the DLA's commonage sub-programme (See Sections 2.5.2.4 and 2.5.2.5), it was established that commonages are owned by local government and are set aside for agricultural use and other entrepreneurial business purposes. One of the criticisms levelled at the commonage policy is that it is inflexible and does not provide scope for a multiple livelihoods. The results of the case studies in Chapter 5 corroborated this criticism and supported the notion that commonage development should move beyond agriculture. The study also avoided the debate on sustainable development on private lands versus sustainable development on commonage or communally owned lands because the intention was to draw attention to the myopic nature of the current commonage policy. This was necessary to illustrate that development options such as sustainable tourism can be an option for communities operating from communal lands

The positive and negative affects of tourism were discussed in Chapter 3 to provide a more objective view of this livelihood option and to assess whether tourism is indeed a sustainable option. Some of the subsets of sustainable tourism, ecotourism and sustainable tourism through CBNRM, were also explored, as these tourism approaches are land-based forms of tourism that has relevance for land redistribution.

Tourism in peripheral areas and desert tourism were also discussed because of the geographic location and ecosystem of the case-study area, Namaqualand. Desert tourism strategies of a leading (Australia) and emerging (Algeria and Namibia) desert tourism destinations were discussed critically in Chapter 3. While there may be some negative impacts of sustainable tourism, it would appear from Chapter 3 as if tourism embraces more of the sustainability aspects than land reform.

The methods employed during this research were grounded within the critical social science framework. Neuman (2003) describes this framework as a critical process of inquiry that delves beyond surface illusions to reveal the real structures in the material world to bring about change. The case-study approach emanates from this framework (Chapter 4). In utilising the case-study approach, the study followed six steps, based on the concept of trustworthiness:

- Determined and defined the research questions;
- Selected the cases and determined data-gathering and analysis techniques;
- Prepared to collect the data;
- Collected the data;
- Analysed the data; and
- Proposed recommendations based on the results obtained from data.

International and local case studies from sustainable tourism and land reform literature formed the basis of the conceptual framework arrived at in Section 3.10. Six commonage case studies and a tourism conservancy project in Namaqualand were selected for empirical studies. The case-studies were selected through the Non-probability Purposive Sampling technique and the users were further purposively selected based on this technique (See Step 2(b) in Chapter 4 and Annexure 1).

Simple statistical methods using Microsoft Excel were used to display the statistical evidence from the case-studies in the form of graphs, tables, pie-

charts and histograms. A strategic management technique in the form of a SWOT analysis was then utilised to interpret the data to reveal the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats posed by agrarian-style land reform on commonages and the sustainable tourism venture in the Richtersveld. The SWOT analyses aided the refinement of the planning guidelines recommended below.

7.3 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM PLANNING GUIDELINES FOR COMMONAGES

7.3.1 The planning process

While it is understood that any planning process would need to be undertaken through a multi-stakeholder process and that a stakeholder analysis should ideally follow the SWOT analysis, the lead player in the planning process is local government through its municipalities, assisted by sector national and provincial government departments in terms of policies, capacity building and legislation. The following elements are proposed planning guidelines that can be developed into a comprehensive sector plan. This sector plan could be included as a chapter of the IDPs of the Nama-Khoi and Richtersveld Municipalities of the Northern Cape when these are reviewed in 2008.

The primary elements of these guidelines (See Figure 7.1) are based on the IDP guidelines discussed in Section 3.11 of this study. The guidelines also embrace the ten principles behind sustainable tourism management (Box 1.1) envisaged by Bramwell *et al.* (1998).

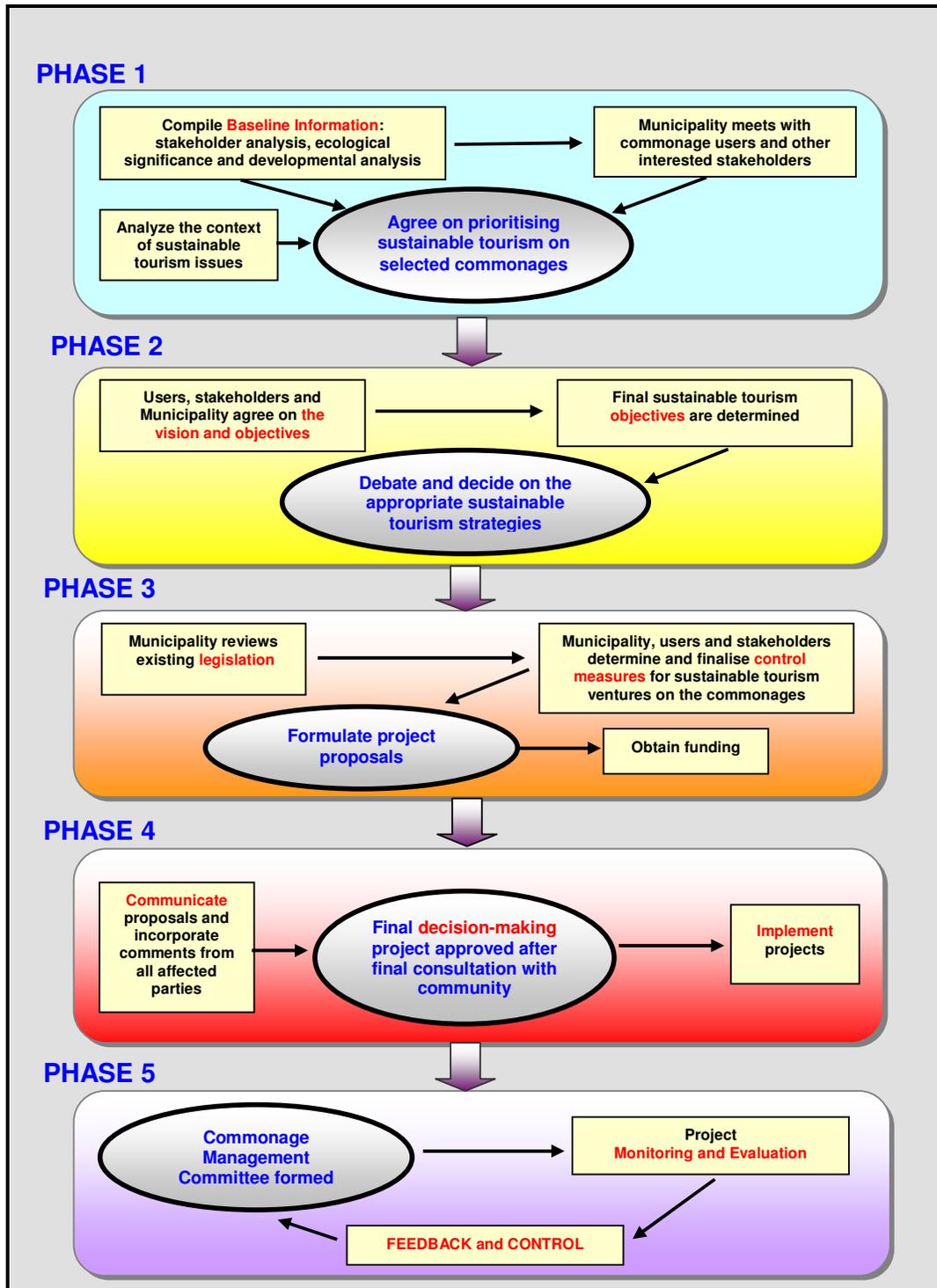


Figure 7.1: Sustainable tourism planning guidelines for a commonage sector plan

7.3.2 Baseline information

Minimum baseline information is required to make informed decisions and enable an impact assessment of any future sustainable tourism development on commonages (See Section 3.11.1). The SWOT matrixes presented earlier could be utilised as one of the sources for a baseline assessment. Maps and other visual tools could also aid this process.

Site-specific information is also needed if the municipalities decide to develop sustainable tourism ventures on either Nanasan farm (which forms part of the Port Nolloth Commonage Project) or Taaibosmond Commonage Project in Steinkopf.

7.3.2.1 Stakeholder analysis

The analysis must include communities in and around the commonages, and local, provincial and national government role-players (Departments of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Land Affairs, Water Affairs, Transport; Nama Khoi Municipality, Steinkopf Municipality, Richtersveld Municipality; Steinkopf Farmers Association, Port Nolloth Farmers Association; non-governmental organisations like Farm Africa and Surplus Peoples Project; Namakwa Tourism Association, Northern Cape Tourism Authority and South African Tourism; private sector businesses and global foundations, for example Conservation International or Global Environment Fund) (See Section 3.11.1).

7.3.2.2 Ecological significance

A detailed indication of the protected and biodiversity significance of the area must be provided; for example, it is not widely known that the region falls within the Succulent Karoo Biome and contains unique species of flora and fauna that are endemic to desert ecosystems. The National Biodiversity Institute and Eco-Africa could be approached to provide further information on

the ecological importance of plant and animal species in Namaqualand and on the targeted commonages (See Section 3.11.1).

7.3.2.3 *Developmental analysis*

A detailed analysis of the current land uses (or misuses), infrastructure on the commonages, tourism facilities and tourism services that are available in the area, also forms part of the baseline information needed. The study identified mining as one of two important economic sectors for Namaqualand (the other being agriculture) and its linkage in terms of sustainable tourism development should be factored into the development analysis (See Section 3.11.1).

7.3.3 Vision and goals

In terms of sustainable tourism development on commonages, the sustainable tourism vision for the commonage projects should be aligned with the strategic goals of land reform and responsible tourism as set out by the respective departments and discussed under Chapters 2 and 3 of this study. The vision will also tie in with local development imperatives and must be derived from the IDP of the Nama Khoi District Municipality (See Section 3.11.2).

While the Nama Khoi IDP refers to tourism and states that tourism would need to be integrated with other economic sectors such as mining and agriculture, this goal is still vague and would need to be further developed to incorporate the strategic intent of the Municipality in terms of tourism for that region. The goals would need to address the limitations within which sustainable tourism growth in this region must be managed and take into cognisance not only environmental factors but economic, political, social, cultural and managerial factors. The goals should be long-term and can be linked to the term of the IDP, which is five years. The main goals should be centred on maximising the positive aspects of sustainable tourism on commonage land (economic development, social upliftment and conservation) and minimising the negative

social and environmental impacts from tourism. The goals can include the following issues:

- Sustainable tourism compatible with biodiversity conservation and sustainable use of the commonage;
- Skills assessment, skills development and capacity building for targeted users;
- Fair and equitable distribution of benefits derived from the venture;
- Alignment of the sustainable tourism venture with other economic activities that can be practiced on the commonage, such as livestock farming or mining so that the dependency on tourism alone is reduced;
- Supporting participatory planning processes by including the communities at all levels in the planning and decision-making processes.

7.3.4 Objectives

7.3.4.1 *General objectives*

The objectives for the Nanasan and Taaibosmond commonages can be formulated around the renovation of the existing farm houses into tourist-friendly facilities (See Section 3.11.2). The Taaibosmond farm house can be retained as a farm house complete with attached storage room that can be transformed into a barnyard-type hall and leased out for social activities. Community members should be trained to manage the guesthouse and hall. On the Nanasan commonage, which is approximately 60 kilometres from Port Nolloth and about 30 to 50 kilometres from the Richtersveld National Park and Rooiberg Conservancy, the farm house could be developed into an eco-lodge or retained as a rustic farm house as a bed-and-breakfast type facility. There is a definite need to upgrade the gravel road that leads from the main road to the Nanasan commonage.

7.3.4.2 Marketing objectives

In terms of a marketing perspective, any sustainable tourism venture that will be established on the commonages should be (adapted from Middleton and Hawkins, 1998) (See Section 3.11.2):

- Outward-looking, to interpret trends among customer segments, competitors and the overall environment (including the physical, social and cultural environment). It is known that tourists from Germany and the United Kingdom comprise the largest segment of the international visitors to this area, followed by the Dutch and French (Tourism South Africa, 2004). The trend amongst these tourists is primarily to travel to the largest towns in the area and then venture to the closest natural attraction, for example Augrabies falls near Upington and Skilpad Nature Reserve (for the wild flowers in spring) near Springbok. Taaibosmond is located 60 kilometres from Springbok on the N14 while Nanasan is also approximately 60 kilometres from Port Nolloth on the main road between Port Nolloth and Steinkopf and there are no guesthouses or tourist attractions in that stretch of road.
- Customer-responsive, based on the detailed knowledge of current and prospective customers. It is known that international tourists visiting Namaqualand are the adventure (4x4) and ecotourists.
- Forward-looking and innovative in terms of product development and determining added value. While Namaqualand is known for its wild flowers in Spring, other aspects such as the fact that it contains a desert ecosystem in the form of the Succulent Karoo Biome should be manipulated and marketed. Converting the Nanasan farm house into an eco-lodge would also be a product-specific development while capitalising on the desert destination angle.
- Concerned to balance the long-run requirements of sustaining the asset base with short-run requirements to satisfy customers and generate profits. In travel and tourism the quality of the environment at destinations is a vital part of the asset base. Tourism imperatives on the commonage should adhere to the carrying capacity of the land and

protection of the flora and fauna but also ensuring that tourists obtain value for their money.

- Based on the perceived needs of the tourists rather than the operational convenience of service providers. By ensuring that facilities are in reasonable condition and that services such as car hire are easily available.

Once these perspectives are factored into the policy, traditional marketing techniques concentrating on the product, price, place and promotions can be safely developed.

7.3.5 Legislation and control measures

Government bodies can make tourism more sustainable through legislation and regulation (Swarbrooke, 1999) (See Section 3.11.2). There is no need for additional legislation in relation to these commonages as there are comprehensive Acts of parliament and municipal ordinances in existence. However, more appropriate measures should be developed to monitor and regulate the behaviour of tourists, especially in sensitive ecosystems.

7.3.6 Impact management and mitigation

Impact management for sustainable tourism development and activities on the identified commonages can include the adoption and effective implementation of policies and best practices that cover, among others (See Section 3.11.2):

- controlling the impacts of tourist flows into the area;
- conserving the flora, fauna and ecosystems that exist in the area;
- preserving the cultural heritage of the area;
- respecting the local culture and avoiding negative effects on the social fabric;
- utilising local skills and providing employment to local people;
- more eco-efficient approaches in developing the guesthouses, for example, as advocated earlier, an eco-lodge should be developed on the Nanasan commonage; and

- utilising the Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) tool to measure environmental impact. According to Middleton and Hawkins (1998), an EIA is designed to prevent environmental degradation by giving decision-makers better information about likely consequences that development actions could have on the environment.

7.3.7 Communication and decision making

Communication is the key to any sustainable tourism venture (See Sections 3.11.1, 3.11.2, 3.11.3, and 3.11.4). SWOT analyses of both the commonage projects and the conservancy tourism project revealed that there were weak communication channels between the management structures and the community/users. Measures should be instituted to ensure the full and timely disclosure of project information concerning the tourism development proposals. Decision-making should include meaningful consultation with the commonage users and local communities affected by the project/s in order to ensure:

- Respect for the customs and traditional knowledge;
- Innovations and practices of the local communities; and
- Adequate funding and technical support for effective participation.

The analysis of the commonage projects has also revealed that the users have minimal education and no previous experience of tourism. Educating the commonage users, beginning with the basic level of understanding the hosting function which is vital function to tourism, as pointed out by Van Harsseel (1994). Education is pivotal in unlocking enhanced stakeholder participation. One final thought on achieving greater local level participation in the sustainable tourism venture is to encourage the experts and officials from the DLA and municipalities to 'let go' of 'their' projects and allow the local community to shape their outcomes.

7.3.8 Implementation including funding incentives

Implementation follows a decision to implement the plan (See Section 3.11.5.1). Action plans detailing who does what, when and with which resources then follow suit. Funding would have to be sourced for the development of the guesthouses on the identified commonages, skills development plan, marketing plan and bulk infrastructure development such as proper access routes into the commonages.

Funding from the local economic development sector of the municipality can be used in the upgrading of the facilities while the Tourism Hospitality Education Training Authority can be approached for skills development funding. The Tourism Business Council, Khula Finance Limited and the Industrial Development Council can also be approached as potential donors. International agencies such as the World Bank through its Global Environment Fund and Conservation International should also be seen as potential donors as these initiatives would fit their funding imperatives.

7.3.9 Monitoring, evaluation, feedback and control

A sustainable tourism policy should contain monitoring and evaluation mechanisms for the management of tourism activities (See Section 3.11.5.2.1). The monitoring and evaluation system should be a long-term effort as opposed to a short-term approach that only lasts for the duration of the project.

The Department of Land Affairs currently utilises a computer-based system called Landbase to track project phases. However, the system still needs to build in qualitative indicators as it only tracks quantitative indicators at this stage. It does not monitor social circumstances prior to and since a beneficiary's becoming involved in a project. A monitoring tool such as a survey or report should be linked to a computer-based programme that would allow project managers to obtain reports at any stage of a project.

7.3.9.1 *The evaluation and review system*

All plans and policies are linked to a timeframe. If the idea is to link sustainable tourism on commonages to the IDP (which is a five-year plan), evaluative and review studies should be conducted within the five-year period but only after a substantial period of implementation, for example, three years (See Section 3.11.5.2.2). This may lead to the plan being refreshed or the process being repeated to include new policy and planning imperatives for the development.

The Department of Land Affairs administers a quality-of-life survey every two to three years as part of an evaluative study of land reform projects (commonage projects are also included in the sample). Some of the indicators that are utilised as part of this assessment include (Department of Land Affairs, 1999):

- improvement in the quality of life of land reform beneficiaries;
- change in income as a result of farming activities on commonages; and
- change in income because of value-adding activities on commonages.

In the implementation of the sustainable tourism venture/s on the identified commonages, existing evaluative strategies such as the quality-of-life survey should be adopted.

7.3.9.2 *Feedback and control system*

The DLA and the municipality would need to provide regular feedback to their management and political principals about the implementation of projects of this nature (See Section 3.11.5.2.3). Feedback can initially be on a quarterly basis (every three months) until all the objectives have been met and then yearly up to five years (duration of the IDP) to ensure that the project is workable and to retain some control because public funds have been spent.

7.3.10 Note on capacity-building

The commonage and conservancy case studies have shown that the national DLA and the municipalities have relatively poor monitoring and evaluation and communication skills (See Sections 5.5.5.1 and 6.6.4). Capacity-building activities to assist all stakeholders participating in the sustainable tourism development, including the commonage users should include but is not limited to:

- how to access, analyse and interpret the baseline information;
- undertake impact assessments and evaluations;
- how to manage and market the tourism destination;
- undertake impact management;
- how to make decisions and communicate; and
- how to monitor and evaluate, provide feedback and maintain control of the development.

7.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH AND POSSIBLE AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The study has focussed on formulating guidelines for developing sustainable tourism initiatives through land redistributed in the form of commonages in the Namaqualand area of the Northern Cape. While only DLA commonage projects were reviewed, other land development initiatives involving communities may also benefit from these guidelines.

Ideally, in the development of the guidelines, relevant stakeholders would be consulted and consensus would then be reached on the final guidelines. However, given the restrictions cited earlier, not all stakeholders could be approached and no workshops could be conducted to present the findings of the research. Testing of the guidelines was also not possible due to constraints cited earlier, but the guidelines can be adapted during implementation to form part of future comprehensive planning in the Namaqualand region.

All tourism businesses within the Namaqualand area, including guesthouses and nature reserves such as the Skilpad Nature Reserve, could also be included in the research to get a more comprehensive picture of the sustainable tourism potential in the Namaqualand region. In addition, further studies on the positioning of Namaqualand as a sustainable desert tourism destination could aid destination marketers and tourism authorities in this area.

7.5 CONCLUSION

This chapter reviewed the research aim, question and sub-questions of the study and synthesised the results of the literature and fieldwork phases. The study limitations and areas of further research were identified.

The primary intention of the study was to harness the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats identified in relation to the case studies to aid in the formulation of planning guidelines for sustainable tourism development on commonages. It has emerged that two of the six commonage projects can be utilised to foster sustainable tourism opportunities for communities in Namaqualand.

In the development of the planning guidelines, nine issues were identified as being crucial to the planning process based on the IDP framework (Section 3.11):

- Baseline information
- Vision and goals
- Objectives
- Legislation and control measures
- Impact management and mitigation
- Communication and decision-making
- Implementation including funding incentives
- Monitoring, evaluation
- Feedback and control.

Finally, the chapter concluded with a note on the importance of capacity building strategies that are significant to enhance the sustainability factor of any sustainable tourism development on commonages.

7.6 THE STUDY'S CONTRIBUTION TO THE FIELD OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT

The study focussed on the discourse of sustainable tourism management within the context of land redistribution to provide a framework to further enhance and sustain rural development for communities on commonages. As a comprehensive study linking land redistribution through commonages and sustainable tourism, the study is a pioneering study in South Africa and therefore the guidelines would serve as a valuable contribution to the body of knowledge. The study offers a multi-disciplinary approach to sustainable tourism by focusing on land reform beneficiaries (social and political) who access commonages (governance, political and economics) in semi-desert peripheral areas (ecology, biodiversity).

This study could possibly aid development planners from local government (the management of commonage is a local government competency), provincial authorities (policy implementation and protection of natural resources are provincial government functions) and policy makers at national government level (land reform and tourism policy formulation are national government competencies). The research instruments developed for the study may be utilised for additional research purposes to aid this process of planning.

It is also important to note that all the literature on sustainable tourism and land reform speak to the notion of integrated development and crucial sectors such as tourism and agriculture cannot be sustainable if policies and implementation strategies do not take cognisance of local livelihoods and other potential economic development for peripheral areas.

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ANNEXURE 1: NON-PROBABILITY PURPOSIVE SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

Towns in Namaqualand	Towns in SNTR (excluding those not in Namaqualand)	Location of commonage projects in Namaqualand towns	Location of commonage projects in Namaqualand local municipality	Size of redistributed land (in hectares)	Rank commonage in terms of largest (No. 1) to smallest (No. 19) hectares	Community tourism/ CBNRM Initiative
Aggenys						
Alexander Bay	✓					
Carolusberg						
Concordia		Kontorogap/ Commonage	Nama Khoi	7446,4652	13	
		Kweekfontein/ Commonage	Nama Khoi	5126,8051	15	
		Concordia, Namaqua/ Commonage	Nama Khoi	28 187,0619	4	
Eksteenfontein	✓					✓ Eksteenfontein CBNRM project/ Nama Khoi

Towns in Namaqualand	Towns in SNTR (excluding those not in Namaqualand)	Location of commonage projects in Namaqualand towns	Location of commonage projects in Namaqualand local municipality	Size of redistributed land (in hectares)	Rank commonage in terms of largest (No. 1) to smallest (No. 19) hectares	Community tourism/ CBNRM Initiative
Gamoep						
Garies		1 commonage	Kamiesberg	4412,6834	16	
Groenriviersmond						
Hondeklip Bay	✓					
Kamieskroon						
Khubus	✓					
Kleinzee						
Kommagas		Kowikam Commonage	Nama Khoi	9 473, 5366	12	
		Sannagas Commonage	Nama Khoi	3 811,5708	18	
Lekkersing	✓					
Leliefontein		De Riet Commonage	Kamiesberg	10 871,2904	11	
		Boesman-plaat/ Tweefontein Commonage	Kamiesberg	21 755,9108	6	

Towns in Namaqualand	Towns in SNTR (excluding those not in Namaqualand)	Location of commonage projects in Namaqualand towns	Location of commonage projects in Namaqualand local municipality	Size of redistributed land (in hectares)	Rank commonage in terms of largest (No. 1) to smallest (No. 19) hectares	Community tourism/ CBNRM Initiative
McDougall's bay						
Nababeep						
Okiep	✓					
Pella		Dabonaris Commonage	Khai-Ma	12 143,5667	10	✓ Oase in die Wildherness
		Hoogoor/ Eyties Commonage	Khai-Ma	18 486,6321	7	
		Klein Pella	Khai-Ma	4 282,6500	17	
Paulshoek	✓					
Pofadder		1 commonage/ Koeris	Khai-Ma	13 536,2693	9	
Port Nolloth	✓	1 commonage	Richtersveld	22 668, 5887	5	
Sendlingsdrift						
Soebatsfontein		1 commonage	Kamiesberg	15 069,1126	8	
Springbok		Springbok Commonage	Nama Khoi	7 039,6932	14	

Towns in Namaqualand	Towns in SNTR (excluding those not in Namaqualand)	Location of commonage projects in Namaqualand towns	Location of commonage projects in Namaqualand local municipality	Size of redistributed land (in hectares)	Rank commonage in terms of largest (No. 1) to smallest (No. 19) hectares	Community tourism/ CBNRM Initiative
		Springbok Draay Commonage	Nama Khoi	2 876,6678	19	
Steinkopf	✓	Breekhoorn/ Nakanas Commonage	Nama khoi	32 669,1399	2	✓ Kookfontein Chalets
		Steenbok Commonage	Nama Khoi	31 200,0664	3	
		Taaibosmond Commonage	Nama Khoi	46 154,3635	1	
Violsdrift						

The ensuing criteria were used to sample these projects utilising the judgement sampling procedure above

- Location in or near (+-40km) to towns forming part of the SNTR.
- Size of the redistributed land. The projects were ranked from one to nineteen (one being for the project with the largest hectares and nineteen for the project with the least amount of land).
- Ownership of the commonages belonging to Nama Khoi Municipality and Richtersveld Municipality.
- Location to national roads. There are two national roads (N7 and N14) that run through Namaqualand heading towards Namibia.
- Location to other natural wonders that are tourist draw-cards such as nature reserves or national parks. There are two nature reserves (Skilpad Wildflower Reserve and Goegap Nature Reserve) and one national park, the Richtersveld National Park.

ANNEXURE 2: LIST OF RESPONDENTS: COMMONAGE USERS

NAME OF COMMONAGE USER	COMMONAGE FARM	AREA	FARMING PRACTICE	DATE OF INTERVIEW
1. Elizabeth Meyer	Springbok	Springbok	Livestock	08-Nov-04
2. Johannes van Zyl	Springbok	Springbok	Livestock	08-Nov-04
3. Frans Jana	Springbok	Springbok	Livestock	09-Nov-04
4. Petrus Cloete	Springbok	Springbok	Livestock	09-Nov-04
5. Charles Coetzee	Draay	Springbok	Livestock	09-Nov-04
6. George van Rooyen	Draay	Springbok	Livestock	09-Nov-04
7. Charles Khuse	Springbok	Springbok	Livestock	09-Nov-04
8. Letitia Moller	Springbok	Springbok	Livestock	09-Nov-04
9. Nicolaas Hans	Steenbok	Steinkopf	Livestock	10-Nov-04
10. Paul Meyer	Breekhoorn	Steinkopf	Livestock	10-Nov-04
11. Lesley Fielding	Sonop	Steinkopf	Livestock	10-Nov-04
12. Benjamin Cloete	Breekhoorn	Steinkopf	Livestock	10-Nov-04
13. Ben Balie	Nakanas	Steinkopf	Livestock	10-Nov-04
14. Joachim van Wyk	Taaibosmond	Steinkopf	Livestock	10-Nov-04
15. Willie Marcus	Taaibosmond	Steinkopf	Livestock	11-Nov-04
16. Jacobus van wyk	Taaibosmond	Steinkopf	Livestock	11-Nov-04
17. RJ Ooppel	Taaibosmond	Steinkopf	Livestock	11-Nov-04
18. Dirk Joseph	Taaibosmond	Steinkopf	Livestock	12-Nov-04
19. BT Cloete	Taaibosmond	Steinkopf	Livestock	12-Nov-04
20. Walter Bok	Taaibosmond	Steinkopf	Livestock	12-Nov-04
21. T L Vries	Taaibosmond	Steinkopf	Livestock	12-Nov-04
22. W Engelbrecht	Taaibosmond	Steinkopf	Livestock	13-Nov-04
23. Vincent Young	Kanikwa Vlakte	Port Nolloth	Livestock	13-Nov-04
24. D Brand	Kanikwa Vlakte	Port Nolloth	Livestock	13-Nov-04
25. PP Brand	Kanikwa Vlakte	Port Nolloth	Livestock	13-Nov-04
26. G Brand	Kanikwa Vlakte	Port Nolloth	Livestock	14-Nov-04
27. Carmen du Plessis	Nanasan	Port Nolloth	Livestock	14-Nov-04
28. B du Plessis	Nanasan	Port Nolloth	Livestock	15-Nov-04
29. SD Mbatha	Nanasan	Port Nolloth	Livestock	15-Nov-04
30. P Ambrosini	Nanasan	Port Nolloth	Livestock	16-Nov-04
31. Jacob Cloete	Augrabies East	Port Nolloth	Livestock	16-Nov-04
32. W Cloete	Fargason	Port Nolloth	Livestock	17-Nov-04
33. MG Tsoaeli	Fargason	Port Nolloth	Livestock	17-Nov-04
34. A Izaacs	Fargason	Port Nolloth	Livestock	17-Nov-04

ANNEXURE 3: LIST OF COMMONAGE AUTHORITIES INTERVIEWED

NAME	ORGANISATION	POSITION	DATE OF INTERVIEW
Mr Christo Smit	Department of Agriculture: Springbok	Deputy Director	08-Nov-04
Mr AB Koopman	Nama Khoi Municipality	Commonage Manager	08-Nov-04
Mr Abuys de Wet	Richtersveld Municipality	Commonage Manager	17-Nov-04
Mr Steven Modise	Department of Land Affairs: Northern Cape	Deputy Director	17-Nov-04

ANNEXURE 4: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: COMMONAGE USERS

Steinkopf (Breekhoorn/Nakanas), Steinkopf commonage (Taaibosmond), Steenbok Commonage, Springbok commonage, Springbok (Draay) and Port Nolloth Commonage]

Date: _____

Name of Commonage User: _____

Male Female

Position in user association and/or commonage management committee:

1. ACCESS TO LAND AND LAND USE

1.1 What year did you start using the commonage?

Pre-1994	
1994	
1995	
1996	
1997	
1998	
1999	
2000	
2001	
2002	
2003	
2004	

1.2 How is access to the commonage determined?

The numbers of livestock owned	
Intention to start crop production and need access to land	
Intention to start farming with livestock and need access to land	
Intention to access to land for other agricultural or agro-processing activities (Please list)	
Other selection procedures for access not listed above:	

1.3 Are the above selection procedures fair?

Yes No

If No the reasons that they are not fair:

Municipality favours rich farmers	
Municipality favours poor farmers	
Municipality chooses only livestock farmers	
Municipality only chooses crop farmers	
Municipality chooses community leaders	
Municipality chooses on recommendation of community leaders	

1.4 Who has access to the Commonage?

	Livestock farmer	Crop farmer	Other activities (specify)
1. Number of lessees by racial classification: White or Black (defined as Coloured, Indian and African in terms of the <i>White Paper on Land Policy</i>)	Black	Black	Black
	White	White	White
2. Duration of lease/grazing arrangement			
3. Lease/grazing arrangement fees			

1.5 What was your occupation before accessing the commonage?

Independent farmer	
Farm worker	
Running own business	
Private sector employee e.g. mineworker	
Military/police	
Teacher	
Student	
Hawker	
Unemployed	
Other (Please specify)	

1.6 Are you still involved in the same occupation?

Yes No

Reason/s if the answer is No:

1.7 How do you use the land?

Only communally	
Communally and individually	
Only individually	

1.8 What agricultural activities take place on the land communally and/or individually?

Activities	Communal use	Individual use
Livestock		
Crop production		

1.9 Do you, or have you ever contributed anything for use in communal activities?

Yes No

1.10 If yes to question 1.9 what contribution do/did you make towards communal activities?

Contributions	Rand value (Estimate only)
Tools and equipment	
Livestock	
Crop production inputs	
Labour	
Fencing	
Borehole	
Other (specify)	

SECTION 2: LIVESTOCK FARMING IN NAMAQUALAND

2.1

Type of animal owned	Total number	Number sold in the last 12 months	Average selling price per unit	Number slaughtered for household consumption
Goats				
Sheep				
Cattle				
Pig				
Chicken				

2.2 Animal by-products produced and sold in the last year:

Product	Amount Produced	Number Sold in last year	Rand Value
Eggs			
Milk			
Cheese			
Yoghurt			
Sour Milk/Amasi			
Wool (Sheep)			
Other: Specify			

2.3 What, in your opinion are the advantages and disadvantages of livestock production?

Why?

4.2 Please list all support you may have received from either a government department or non-government organisation or private businesses in relation to farming on this commonage?

Type of Support	Name of organisation
Training and/or advice on rotational grazing	
Training and/or advice on crop production	
Training and/or advice on soil conservation	
Training and/or advice on fire management	
Training and/or advice on water conservation	
Dipping Services for cattle	
Vet Services	
Other training/advice provided:	
No training received	
No extension services provided	

In your opinion has farming through access to this commonage improved your and the other commonage farmers' lives in relation to:

FACTORS	IMPROVEMENT (PLEASE GIVE EXPLANATION FOR EACH ONE)	NO IMPROVEMENT (PLEASE GIVE EXPLANATION FOR EACH ONE)
Land access		
Housing		
Farming e.g. increase in livestock and/or crop production		
Education of children		
Food		
Other moveable assets		
Income		

4.3 Please list all non-farm (not obtained from the farm/products of the farm) income:

INCOME SOURCES	RAND VALUE
Government Pension/s	
Formal sector employment e.g. mining, public service	
Non-formal sector e.g. selling of non-farm products such as beer, clothes	
Other (specify)	

SECTION 5: TOURISM

5.1 Do tourism activities take place on this commonage?

Yes No

5.2 Have the commonage farmers and/or other members of the communities living near the commonage expressed the need for tourism ventures on the commonages?

Yes No

If yes, what type?

SECTORS	
Hiking trails	
Guesthouses/bed and breakfast	
Bird-watching	
Floral viewing	
Game Farms for tourism	
Four by four route through commonage	
Establishing a cultural and/or historical route through the commonage	
Hunting	
Other forms (state):	

5.3 Do you think that the commonage farmers and/or community members will get support to start tourism businesses on the commonage?

Yes No

Please explain your answer.

5.4 Please provide a response to the following statements:

Statements	Yes (Reason/s)	No (Reason/s)	Unsure
Tourism ventures in the form of ecotourism (bird watching), agri-tourism (farm stays and tours), nature-based tourism (e.g. hiking trails) should be encouraged on the commonage			
Agricultural activities such as livestock farming and crop production should be the only activities practiced on the commonage			

5.5 Would you initiate a tourism business on this commonage?

Yes No

Please explain your answer.

Conditions	Poor	Fair	Good
Soil			
Grazing fields			
Infrastructure e.g. fences, pumps			
Access to water			
Camps			
Other			

2.2 Please list all support the commonage users may have received either from a government department, non-government organisation or private business in relation to farming on this commonage

Type of support	Name of organisation
Training and/or advice on rotational grazing	
Training and/or advice soil conservation	
Training and/or advice on fire management	
Training and/or advice on water conservation	
Dipping services for cattle	
Vet services	
Other training and or advice provided	
No training received	
No extension services provided	

2.3 Do you think that the commonage users and management committees receive adequate support from your organisation?

Yes No

3.2 Have the commonage users and/or other members of the communities living near the commonages expressed the need for tourism ventures on the commonages? Yes No

3.3 If yes, is it one or more of the following types:

Sectors	
Community based tourism through the establishment of a guesthouse and conservancy	
Game viewing	
Floral viewing	
Adventure tourism (4x4, mountain climbing, mountain-biking, etc)	
Historical and cultural tourism	
Hunting and wildlife tourism	
Hiking and nature based tourism (bird watching, etc)	
Other forms	

3.4 Some strategic plans (e.g. Alexkor Mines) and IDPs in the Northern Cape, including the Nama Khoi IDP, states that agriculture should support tourism in order for the industry to grow, how does your organisation plan to encourage this type of development?

3.5 In your opinion, can the linking of farming and tourism work in Namaqualand? Why?

3.6 In your opinion should tourism ventures be encouraged on the commonages? Why?

**THIS IS THE END OF THE INTERVIEW. THANK YOU FOR YOUR
TIME/DANKIE VIR U TYD.**

ANNEXURE 6: LIST OF RESPONDENTS: EKSTEENFONTEIN COMMUNITY

Name of member	Position in Community	Date of Interview
1. Ryan Farmer	Youth member	03-Nov-04
2. Darius Diergaardt	Youth member	03-Nov-04
3. Alvar Uys	Musician	04-Nov-04
4. Sarita Cloete	Entrepreneur	04-Nov-04
5. Morne Farmer	Youth member	04-Nov-04
6. Hermanus Cloete	Youth member	04-Nov-04
7. Neil Strauss	Youth member	04-Nov-04
8. Joel Swartbooi	Youth member	04-Nov-04
9. Wynand Pieters	Youth member	04-Nov-04
10. Gerrie Cloete	Municipal Worker	04-Nov-04
11. Melanie van der Westhuizen	Shop Assistant	04-Nov-04
12. Evette Farmer	Youth member	04-Nov-04
13. Jasil Farmer	Livestock farmer	04-Nov-04
14. Edine Farmer	Shop Assistant	04-Nov-04
15. Wilmary Diergaardt	Shop Assistant	04-Nov-04
16. Maria Joesph	Church Council and ANC Representative	05-Nov-04
17. Jan Joseph	Cultural guide	05-Nov-04
18. Katoen Cloete	Community member	05-Nov-04
19. Wilma Cloete	Youth member	08-Nov-04
20. Willem Klaaste	Community member	09-Nov-04
21. Johanna C. Farmer	Community member	09-Nov-04
22. Sophia Strauss	Ward Committee, Museum management	09-Nov-04
23. Johanna L. Rooi	Community member	09-Nov-04
24. Magdalene van der Westhuizen	member of local textile group	09-Nov-04
25. Angeline Basson	Shop Assistant	09-Nov-04
26. Hannie Rossouw	Community member	09-Nov-04
27. Johannes Jacobus Farmer	Pensioner	09-Nov-04
28. Martha E. Strauss	Community member	09-Nov-04
29. Elizabeth S. Farmer	Member of Conservancy management	09-Nov-04
30. Marius Uys	Cartography unit	09-Nov-04
31. Hendrienna Strauss	member of local textile group	09-Nov-04
32. Annie Cloete	Community member	09-Nov-04
33. Albertus Strauss	Community member	10-Nov-04
34. Carlo Farmer	Youth member	11-Nov-04
35. Jan van der Westhuizen	Community member	11-Nov-04
36. Letjie Strauss	Community member	11-Nov-04
37. Henrico Strauss	Manager: Conservancy	18-Nov-04
38. Floors Strauss	Secretary of the Richtersveld CPA	18-Nov-04
39. Gert Links	CBNRM Manager	18-Nov-04
40. Dirkie Uys	Ward Councillor	18-Nov-04
41. Joan Cloete	Tourism Officer	19-Nov-04
42. Baron van der Westhuizen	Information Officer: Tourism Centre	19-Nov-04

**ANNEXURE 7: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE: EKSTEENFONTEIN
COMMUNITY QUESTIONNAIRE**

Name:

Date:

Male **Female**

POSITION	NUMBER
Conservancy Management	
Ward committee member	
Pensioner	
Community representative	
Youth	
Church elders	
Political organisation	
Livestock farmer	
Tourguide/tourism	
Textile group members	
Musicians	
Small business people	
Shop assistant	
Unemployed	
Other	
Community Member (Youth: 18-35 years)	
Community Member: (Older than 35 years)	
On the Management Committee of the Richtersveld CPA	

(Can mention one or two answers)

1. GENERAL QUESTIONS

1.1. How long have you been living in this area?

Longer than 30 years	
20-30 years	
10-20 years	
Under 10 years	

1.2 What are the advantages and disadvantages of living in this area?

1.3 What is your occupation?

Independent farmer	
Textile group	
Running own business	
Private sector employee e.g. mineworker	
Government employee	
Tour guide	
Student	
Shop assistants	
Unemployed	
Other (Please specify): Helps with catering in the community-run guesthouses Housewife	

1.4 Please indicate your level of education:

No formal education/Life experience	
Home schooled	
Primary school	
Primary and some High School	
Matriculated	
Tertiary	

2. COMMUNITY TOURISM IN EKSTEENFONTEIN

2.1 What do you think are the plans for the conservancy in relation to tourism in the Eksteenfontein and in particular for your community? [There can be more than one answer to this question]:

To expand the guest house business	
To develop nature conservation programmes for tourists	
To develop a four by four (4x4) route for tourists	
To protect the natural environment and animals for tourists	
To develop campsites for tourists	
To develop nature tours	
To develop bird watching for tourists	
To develop game viewing for tourists	
To develop game hunting facilities for tourists	
To developing eco-sensitive hiking trails for tourists	

2.2 In relation to above-mentioned plans, how is the community expecting to benefit from the conservancy and tourism initiatives: [There can be more than one answer to this question]

More jobs created	
Dividends in the form of cash on a yearly basis	
Contribution to the education of children (primary, secondary and tertiary)	
Better housing	
Other (Please specify) Unsure of benefits for the community	

2.3 Are you involved in the conservancy?

Yes No

If your answer is **yes** please explain what your role is within the conservancy. If your answer is **no**, then please explain why you are not involved in the conservancy?

2.4 Can you explain to me why, in your opinion, is there a need for such a conservancy in the Eksteenfontein? [There can be more than one answer to this question]

Job creation	
Preserve the wildlife	
Social upliftment for community	
Better housing for people	
Improved schooling for children	
Preserve the natural beauty of the Eksteenfontein	
More tourists	
Better facilities such as sports fields, hall/s for people	
Electricity and water connections	
There is no need for the conservancy	
Better roads	
Conservation for future generations	

2.5 Have you received any training in relation to the conservancy project?

Yes No

2.6

If yes, please indicate the type of training received? [There can be more than one answer to this question]

Conservancy management	
Nature conservation	
Guesthouse management	
Tourist management/tour guide	
Financial Management e.g. bookkeeping	
Adult basic education	
Reading	
Writing	
Computers	
Secretarial	
Reception	
Food and beverage management	
Catering	
Campsite management	
Other: please specify Cartography	

2.7 What criteria did the CPA use to select people to become involved in the conservancy?

[Tick appropriate box]

- 18 years and older
- Resident of the Richtersveld
- Name must appear on the voters roll or community roll
- Do not know
- Involved in community development
- Of sober habits

2.8 Which of the following skills do you think are necessary to make the conservancy and tourism in the area a success? [There can be more than one answer to this question]

Knowledge and/or experience of book keeping/accounting	
Knowledge and/or experience of conservancy management	
Knowledge and/or experience of community management	
Knowledge and/or experience of guesthouse management	
Knowledge and/or experience of working with tourists	
Knowledge and/or experience in the hospitality (hotel) sector	
Knowledge and/or experience in wildlife management	
People skills	
Knowledge and/or experience of nature conservation	
Management of people/employees	
Knowledge and/or experience of managing events	

2.9 Which of the skills listed above do you possess? [Can be more than one answer]

Knowledge and/or experience of book keeping/accounting	
Knowledge and/or experience of conservancy management	
Knowledge and/or experience of community management	
Knowledge and/or experience of guesthouse management	
Knowledge and/or experience of working with tourists	
People skills	
Knowledge and/or experience of nature conservation	
Management of people/employees	
Knowledge and/or experience of managing events	
Project Management	

3. CONSERVANCY MANAGEMENT

3.1 How often are community meetings held? Please tick relevant answer.

Once a week	
Once a month	
Two times a month	
Once every three months	
Once every six months	
As needed	
Not at all	

3.2 What are the general issues raised in community meetings?

3.3 Do you make any financial contributions towards the conservancy?

Yes No

3.4 Are you satisfied with the management of the conservancy project?

Yes No Unsure

Please explain your answer:

4. TOURISM DEVELOPMENT (PRESENT AND FUTURE)

4.1 How would you rate the following sectors for tourism in the Eksteenfontein?

On a scale of 1 to 5:

1= not important

3= medium

5= very important

SECTORS	1	2	3	4	5
Community based tourism through guesthouse and conservation					
Game viewing					
Floral viewing					
Ecotourism through conservation tours					
Adventure tourism (4x4)					
Historical and cultural tourism: History of the Eksteenfontein area.					
Hunting					
Hiking trails					
Bird watching					

Give reasons for the above ratings:

4.2 How would you rate the importance of tourism as an economic activity in relation to the other livelihood/s such as mining and livestock farming?

1= NOT IMPORTANT	
3= THE SAME	
5= VERY IMPORTANT	

Please give reason/s for your ratings:

4.3 Do you foresee an increase in tourism businesses in the following sectors in the Eksteenfontein?

	1 = no growth	3 = in between	5 = strong growth		
SECTORS	1	2	3	4	5
Community based tourism through guesthouse and conservation					
Game viewing					
Floral viewing					
Ecotourism through conservation tours					
Adventure tourism (4x4)					
Historical and cultural tourism: History of the Eksteenfontein area.					
Hunting					
Hiking trails					
Bird watching					

Please give reasons for your ratings:

4.4 Can you identify factors that can prevent the community from achieving its development goals with regard to the conservancy in Eksteenfontein? [Tick one or more boxes if relevant]

Poor Management by CPA	
Financial losses	
Poor infrastructure such as roads, electricity	
Community tensions	
No proper training given to people to manage the conservancy	
Community want other jobs	
Community will lose interest in the conservancy	
Too many people involved	
Too few people involved	
Poor communication and feedback to the community	
People will lose sight of their culture for money	

4.5 In your opinion, how can the community together with other government, non-governmental and private sector role-players contribute towards the development and promotion of tourism in the Eksteenfontein?

THIS IS THE END OF THE INTERVIEW.

**THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME/
DANKIE VIR U TYD.**

2. TOURISM IN THE EKSTEENFONTEIN-RICHTERSVELD

2.1 Please outline some of the strategic objectives of the management committee in relation to the tourism?

2.2 How would you rate the following sectors for tourism in Eksteenfontein?

On a scale of 1 to 5:

1= not important

3= in between

5= very important

SECTORS	1	2	3	4	5
Community based tourism					
Game viewing					
Floral viewing					
Agri-tourism					
Adventure tourism (4x4)					
Historical and cultural tourism					
Hunting					
Other forms (state)					

Give reasons for the above ratings:

3. THE ROOIBERG CONSERVANCY PROJECT

3.1 Please outline some of the community based tourism initiatives that the Eksteenfontein community has embarked on?

What criteria did the community use to select people?

3.2 What is the level of education of the people in the projects?

LEVEL OF EDUCATION	NUMBER OF PEOPLE (or express as percentage of projects)
No formal education	
Primary school	
Primary and some High School	
Matriculated	
Tertiary	

3.3 What skills did these people possess (e.g. communication skills) before they embarked on these ventures?

3.4 Please list any training that the people received since their involvement in the ventures? If they have not received training, is the organisation planning such training programmes?

3.10. What other livelihood activities are members of the conservancy project involved in?

Livestock farming	
Crop farming	
Commercial agricultural activities producing for markets at scale)	
Mining sector	
Public service	
Unemployed	
Other	

3.11 If they were involved in other livelihoods how would you rate the importance of tourism as an economic activity in relation to the other livelihood/s?

1= NOT IMPORTANT

3= THE SAME

5= VERY IMPORTANT

3.12 Besides the organisation and the communities who are the other stakeholders involved in this project?

3.13 What are the advantages and disadvantages of community based tourism in relation to this conservancy project?

- 3.14 How would you rate the future success of this conservancy project on a scale of 1-5:
1= NOT SUCCESSFUL
3= MODERATE SUCCESS
4= SUCCESSFUL

- 3.14 Do you think the conservancy project can contribute to poverty alleviation in Eksteenfontein-Richtersveld? Why?

4. TOURISM MARKETS

- 4.1 What is the organisation's marketing strategy in relation to Eksteenfontein-Richtersveld Conservancy project?

Has the management marketed this venture in South Africa and internationally:

No

Reason/s:

Yes

Please Outline Strategy:

5.3 Do you foresee an increase in tourism businesses in the following sectors in Eksteenfontein-Richtersveld?

	1 = no growth	3 = in between	5 = strong growth		
SECTORS	1	2	3	4	5
Community based tourism					
Game viewing					
Floral viewing					
Agri-tourism					
Adventure tourism (4x4)					
Historical and cultural tourism					
Hunting					
Other forms (state)					

Please give reasons for your ratings:

5.4 Can you identify factors that act as obstacles in preventing the realisation of development potential for tourism in the area?

5.5 How can the organisation together with other government, non-governmental and private sector role-players contribute to towards the development and promotion of tourism in Eksteenfontein-Richtersveld and in the province as a whole?
