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).
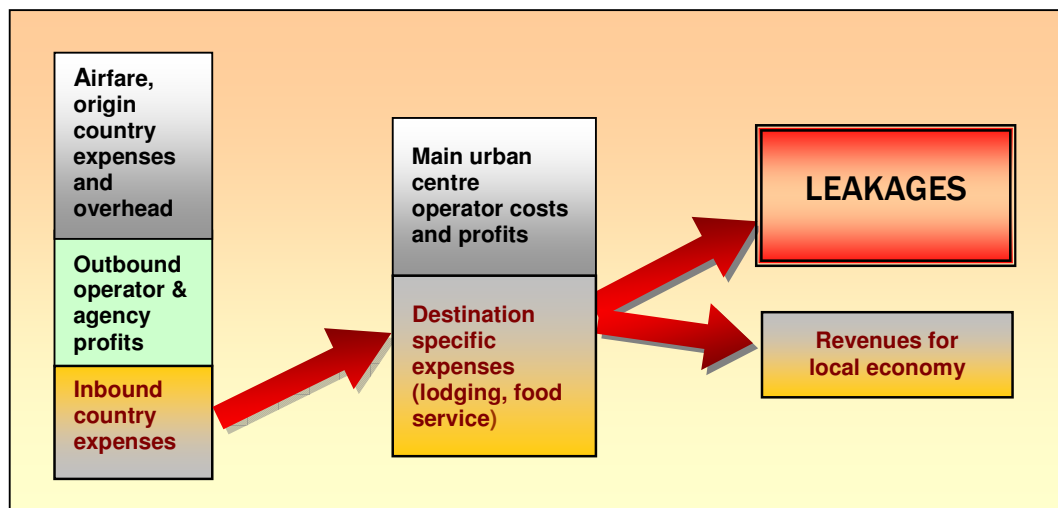
Figure 3.1: How leakages occur
(Source: United Nations Environment Programme, 2002:2)

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 positive impact	Possible negative 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	Income continues in drought
Diversify and minimise risk	Additional livelihood opportunity
Maintain liquidity and flexibility.	

(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 where 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 were 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

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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 smale-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

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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 Antartic 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

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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,

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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

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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

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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 transfontier 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

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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).

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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 monolith[22] 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;

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[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

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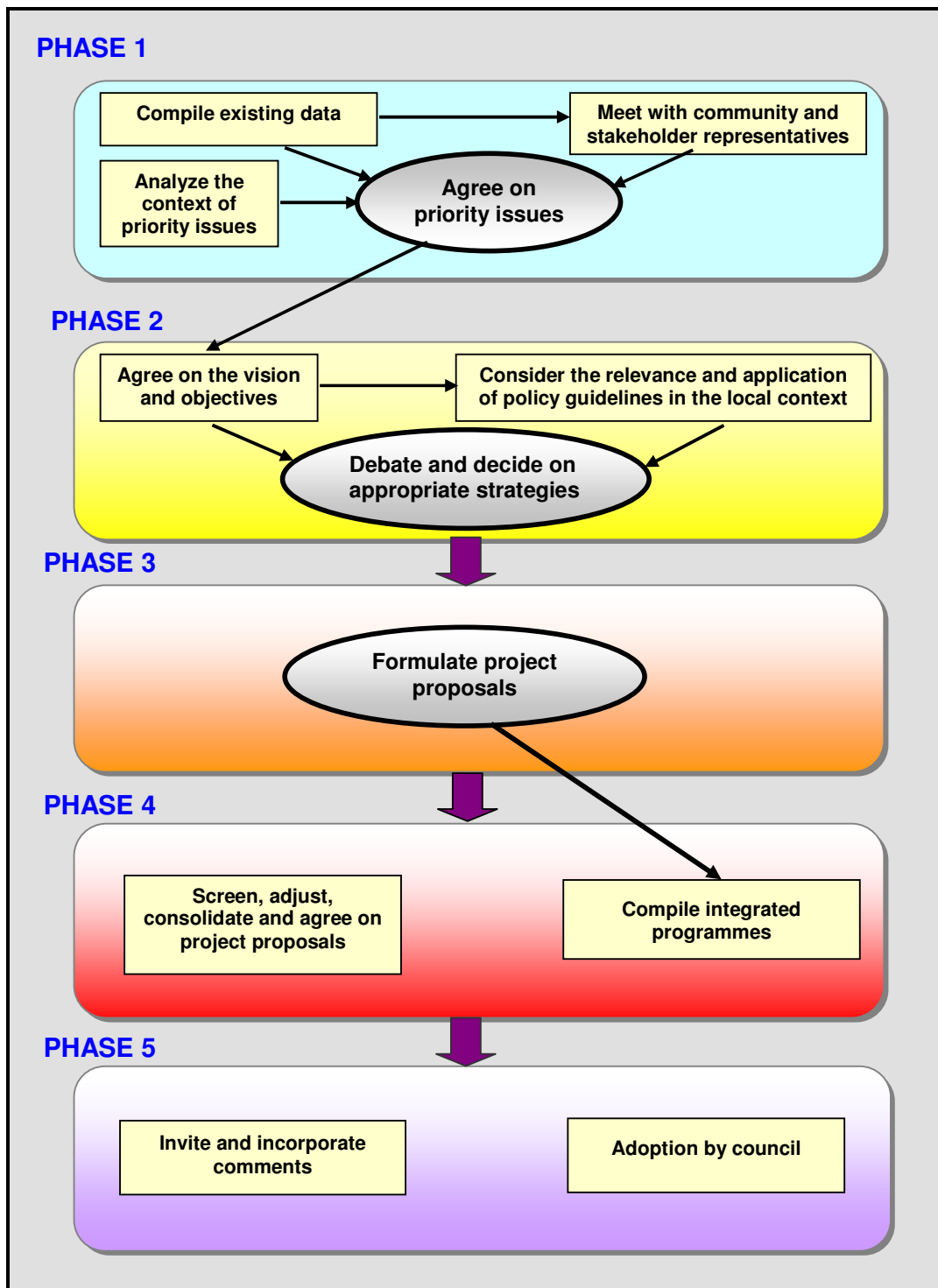
These levels of planning and governance can be factored into the IDP processes (See Figure 3.2) that must be undertaken at local government level, with the municipality and democratically elected community representatives as the 'project managers'.

The *White Paper on Local Government* that was developed in March 1998 by the then Ministry for Provincial Affairs and Constitutional Development[23] 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.

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

PHASE 1

| Compile existing data | → | Meet with community and stakeholder representatives |

| Analyze the context of priority issues | → | Agree on priority issues |

PHASE 2

| Agree on the vision and objectives | → | Consider the relevance and application of policy guidelines in the local context |

Debate and decide on appropriate strategies

PHASE 3

Formulate project proposals

PHASE 4

| Screen, adjust, consolidate and agree on project proposals | | Compile integrated programmes |

PHASE 5

| Invite and incorporate comments | | Adoption by council |

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

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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,

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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)

model[24] 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):

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

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[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.

- o customer-responsive based on the detailed knowledge of current and prospective customers;
- o forward-looking and innovative in terms of product development and determining added value;
- o 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:

  - o Impact management and mitigation strategies to minimise any impact development may have on the environment.
  - o 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.