

CHAPTER 2

TOWARDS A THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK IN FORMULATING AN INTEGRATED TOURISM MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

The objective of this chapter is to give an exposition and perspective of protected area tourism practice and to draw a comparative analysis of international systems in order to glean lessons that can be applied when formulating an integrated tourism management framework for the KNP. At the end of this chapter a theoretical management framework, underpinned by legal requirements of the Protected Areas Bill, 2003, adaptive management principles and the IUCN evaluation framework, is suggested.

For purposes of this study the term “tourism” has been used to describe tourism activities in the KNP within the sustainable development framework.

2.1 TOURISM PRACTICE IN NATIONAL PARKS

An array of arguments exists about the type, level and extent of tourism that a national park should offer as a product and still ensure that tourists do not destroy the ecological integrity of the resource (Prosser, 1994). One dominant argument is that national parks should practice *ecotourism* as opposed to *mass tourism*¹³.

This argument is embedded in the earlier definitions of national parks as illustrated in Chapter 1 and Annexure 1. National Parks (like the KNP) were established primarily to preserve some type of biophysical process or condition such as a wildlife population, habitat, ecosystems, natural landscape or cultural heritage such as a community's cultural tradition (Ceballos-Lascurain, 1996). Tourists visit national parks to understand and appreciate the values for which the areas were established and to gain personal benefits. The number of people taking part in nature-based tourism is growing and the tourism industry has responded to this range of interests by developing many types of niche market packages (Eagles *et al.*, 2002). The process of designing an integrated tourism management plan capable of meeting the expectations of this growing industry can be greatly facilitated by clarity regarding the type of

¹³ Mass tourism refers to holiday packages sold en masse to millions of people without consideration for the carrying capacities, norms, culture and environment of host destinations. It is often associated with environmental degradation and there is a firm belief that practising ecotourism principles in such areas can alleviate the problem and lead to sustainable tourism (Holden, 2000).

tourism that is suitable for national parks and the KNP in particular, and ecotourism is seen as a form of sustainable tourism practice that can meet the expectations.

2.2 INCORPORATING ECOTOURISM PRINCIPLES IN NATIONAL PARKS

Although this research study is not focusing on ecotourism, it is imperative to adopt the principles of this new field and incorporate them into protected area tourism to ensure sustainability of the park's tourism. The prefix "eco" to tourism originates from a Greek word "oikos" meaning house or habitat. Over the years it has evolved to become synonymous with ecology (Wearing & Neil, 2000). The environment which humankind inhabits is fundamentally his home, dwelling or life-supporting system. Despite the "fashion" the origins of ecotourism are deeply rooted in the philosophical heritage embraced by environmentalists and conservationists (Ziffer, 1989). For the purpose of this study ecotourism is defined as a multi-dimensional philosophy embracing experiential and educational elements that benefit the community.

Numerous definitions¹⁴ of ecotourism exist today. None of the definitions are universally accepted (Litvin, 1996), which reflects the developmental stage of ecotourism as a science. Current definitions and interpretations of ecotourism lead to confusion rather than to an understanding of what ecotourism is.

Ecotourism evolved in reaction to the rapid destruction of the world's natural habitats that were considered to be vital reservoirs of biodiversity (Lindberg *et al.*, 1998). Ecotourism was seen as a viable alternative to logging, oil drilling, mining and other extractive industries. In Africa, ecotourism unfolded as an alternative to a failed colonialist philosophy of wildlife management based on separating people from protected areas (Mfunda, 1998). Faced with rampant poaching activities, some scientists and park managers argued that wildlife would only survive if those living on the park's borders enjoyed some kind of reasonable benefits from wildlife conservation and tourism (Matawonyika, 1989). It is therefore accurate to say ecotourism was the world's acknowledgement of and reaction to sustainable practices in global ecological practices (Diamantis, 1999).

The researcher concurs with the view of Diamantis' (1999) that ecotourism should make tourism practitioners move towards sustainable practices in ecological management.

¹⁴ In an attempt to streamline the many confusing definitions, the IUCN has endorsed Ceballos-Lascurain's (1987:14) definition of ecotourism as "travel to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific objective of studying, admiring and enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing cultural manifestations (both past and present) found in these areas".

Ecotourism, in other words, should be coherent with the notion of sustainable tourism by adhering to the carrying capacities of the destination, scientific auditing of tourism impacts on the environment and being acceptable to, and supportive of the host communities. A brief description of sustainable tourism follows.

2.3 SUSTAINABLE TOURISM

Earlier reference in this study linked tourism to sustainable development and the relationship between the two concepts. It is imperative to define and understand sustainable tourism in the context of sustainable development as an approach of this study. Because of its development dimension, tourism finds itself in the middle of the sustainable development debate. The Brundtland Report (WCED, 1987) championed the concept of sustainable development and defined it as *“development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs”*. The earth’s resources are not unlimited and over-consumption or over-exploitation may lead to the depletion of the resources, thus putting the survival chances of future generations in jeopardy (Swarbrooke, 1999).

The Brundtland Report did not make any noteworthy reference to tourism but its influence has resulted in increasing awareness of and concern about the continuing degradation of the environment and the role that tourism plays in the equation of environmental exploitation. With this increase in awareness the link between sustainable development and tourism has become a reality (Diggines, 1998).

Given the global environmental crises emanating from a variety of reasons including over-exploitation of natural resources in the world, particularly in developing countries, it is essential that all forms of tourism based on natural or man-made resources contribute to the sustainable use of resources (UNEP, 2002). The target of sustainable tourism should be balanced tourism where no one element predominates (Muller, 1994). Sustainable tourism is a form of planning and management whereby tourism is viewed in a holistic manner and different interests such as ecological, financial, community and tourists satisfaction are addressed (Swarbrooke, 1999). Tourist satisfaction is regarded by Yuksel *et al.*, (1999) as the most important goal of sustainable tourism to be considered when a tourism management framework is designed.

While the current tourism product in KNP may in certain instances be compatible with the principles of sustainable development there are issues that are contrary to the definition of the concept. The tourism planning process in the KNP does not involve various role-players such

as the tourism industry, marketers, communities and tourism practitioners. In fact, planning is based on budgeting without a proper analysis of the situation and the changing market needs. Current business plans of both KNP and Head Office are not based on any tourism policy management plans.

When a management plan for tourism is designed, it may be appropriate to answer the following questions:

- how can one best understand the conditions in which tourism operates;
- what goals should be attained;
- what actions should be taken to achieve the goals;
- how can success and the extent to which actions taken have brought about change be measured;
- what must be done to achieve management effectiveness in future;
- how can acquired knowledge be captured to prevent the same mistakes from happening in future; and
- how can acquired knowledge be shared with other practitioners (Salafsky & Margolius, 2001)

To provide answers to the above questions will be to begin the process of adaptive management¹⁵ and to provide a management philosophy for tourism. Tourism has many spatial and temporal elements that need to be harnessed into a management approach to address its development in a dynamic environment. Adaptive management is widely used in ecosystem management and can be applied to tourism management with minor adjustments to suit the nature of tourism. The next section describes in detail the adaptive management approach in the context of sustainable tourism management in protected areas.

2.4 ADAPTIVE MANAGEMENT AND TOURISM

2.4.1 Adaptive management in the context of sustainable tourism

The adaptive management philosophy is a relatively new phenomenon or concept and has begun gaining popularity in the mainstream conservation community. Its roots are found in many disciplines such as science, philosophy, social science, business management, professional practice and, recently, ecosystem management. Salafsky *et al.*, (2001:12) defines adaptive management as management that: "... *incorporates research into conservation*

¹⁵ Adaptive management is a management approach that places emphasis on strong goal setting, integration of design, management and systematic monitoring in order to adapt and learn (Salafsky *et al.*, 2001:12).

action. Specifically it is the integration of design, management and monitoring to systematically test assumptions in order to adapt and learn”.

Adaptive management is meant to be a process of defining actions, decision-making and learning in which an organization or group responsible for sustainable tourism of a particular park is responsive to biophysical and social changes and is able to respond quickly and appropriately to such changes (Salafsky & Margoluis, 1999b). In order to make sound management decisions under complex and evolving tourism conditions an organization must be able to:

- continuously test assumptions and hypotheses;
- experiment with alternative approaches to resolve problems and address pertinent issues;
- generate, analyse and use relevant and reliable data and information;
- determine the impacts of its chosen course of action; and
- learn from failure as well as from success and apply such lessons to future programme decisions (Margolius & Salafsky, 2001).

An organization's ability to understand and react to the complex and dynamic ecological and social environment at a given environment is a major determinant of its success (Noble, 1999). In order to meet the challenge of understanding this complexity and making appropriate programme decisions, organizations must be able to obtain, process and use appropriate information. Adaptive management is fundamentally a framework for systematic analysis and learning. Salafsky *et al.*, (2001) identify three cardinal elements of adaptive management that should be observed when using the methodology. These include testing assumptions, adaptation and learning.

- **Testing assumptions** is about systematically trying different interventions to achieve a desired outcome (as opposed to sticking to one plan for 10-20 years).
- **Adaptation** deals systematically with using information obtained through monitoring to take action to improve a programme (as opposed to guesswork and intuition).
- **Learning** is about systematically documenting programme processes and results so that lessons can be integrated into institution-level decision-making and shared with broader practitioner and academic communities (Holling, 1978).

Several conditions that warrant the use of an adaptive management approach have been identified:

- **Complex systems:** Tourism is influenced by geographical factors such as climate, weather, winds, currents and soil; ecological factors; social factors like culture, demographic family structures and religion; political factors such as types of government and policy towards tourism. There are also economic factors like cash needs, employment opportunities, exchange rates and markets, and there are random factors like disease (e.g. SARS), economic crashes or disasters that can cause instability (Gunderson *et al.*, 1995) e.g. September 11.
- **Unpredictable change:** This is changes in market expectations, political systems and human hopes. Not all change is linear and predictable. The possibility of sudden change makes adaptability an essential element of tourism (Margolius & Salafsky, 1998).
- **Competition:** It is important to stay one step ahead of competitors. Commercial developers are finding ways to get around zoning laws. Expensive advertising is being used to influence public opinion. Organizations that are most strategic and can adapt the best and most efficiently have the greatest chance of thriving and staying ahead of competition (Salafsky & Margolius, 1999a). Tourism is one industry where an organization must conduct business intelligence and stay one step ahead of the pack to survive (Salafsky & Margolius, 1999b).
- **Immediate action:** Despite the constantly and unpredictably changing world and incomplete information, especially in tourism, efforts to gain more knowledge should not stop. Life will not stop and immediate remedial action is necessary (Salafsky & Margolius, 1999a; 1999b).
- **Incomplete information.** The task of measuring and fully understanding the tourism phenomenon at a given site is difficult, if not impossible. Information on natural, human, social, political and economic resources is rarely complete. As a result, complete knowledge cannot be a necessary precondition to design and implement sustainable tourism policies. Important knowledge gaps should be identified and addressed early in the tourism plan project in order to make the best decisions (Gunderson *et al.*, 1995).
- **Learning and improvement.** The degree of continuing change and habitat alteration indicates how human beings have improved their subsistence. The challenge is to stimulate novelty, build in flexibility, adaptability and learning to help manage sustainable tourism. Success will ultimately only happen when protected area

managers can learn and improve their tourism management efforts (Margolius & Salafsky, 1998).

The Scientific Research Section of the KNP already implements a unique version of adaptive ecosystem management based on recent developments in ecology and business management. New paradigms in ecology stress complex adaptive systems and heterogeneity, and business management now emphasizes that organizations need to continually re-invent themselves. The Research Section's strategic adaptive management, the new name of the programme, places emphasis on the forward-looking component rather than a reactive mode. It has a strong goal-setting component evidenced by a well-developed objectives hierarchy and strongly articulated monitoring end-points called Thresholds of Potential Concerns or TPCs (Biggs & Rodgers, 2003). TPCs are defined as upper and lower levels along a continuum of change in selected environmental indicators. They act as hypotheses of acceptable limits of change in the ecosystem structure (Biggs & Rodgers, 2003). Unfortunately, this management approach is designed and applied to biodiversity conservation only and not to tourism management or park administration as a whole, one of the objectives that this study suggests should be targeted.

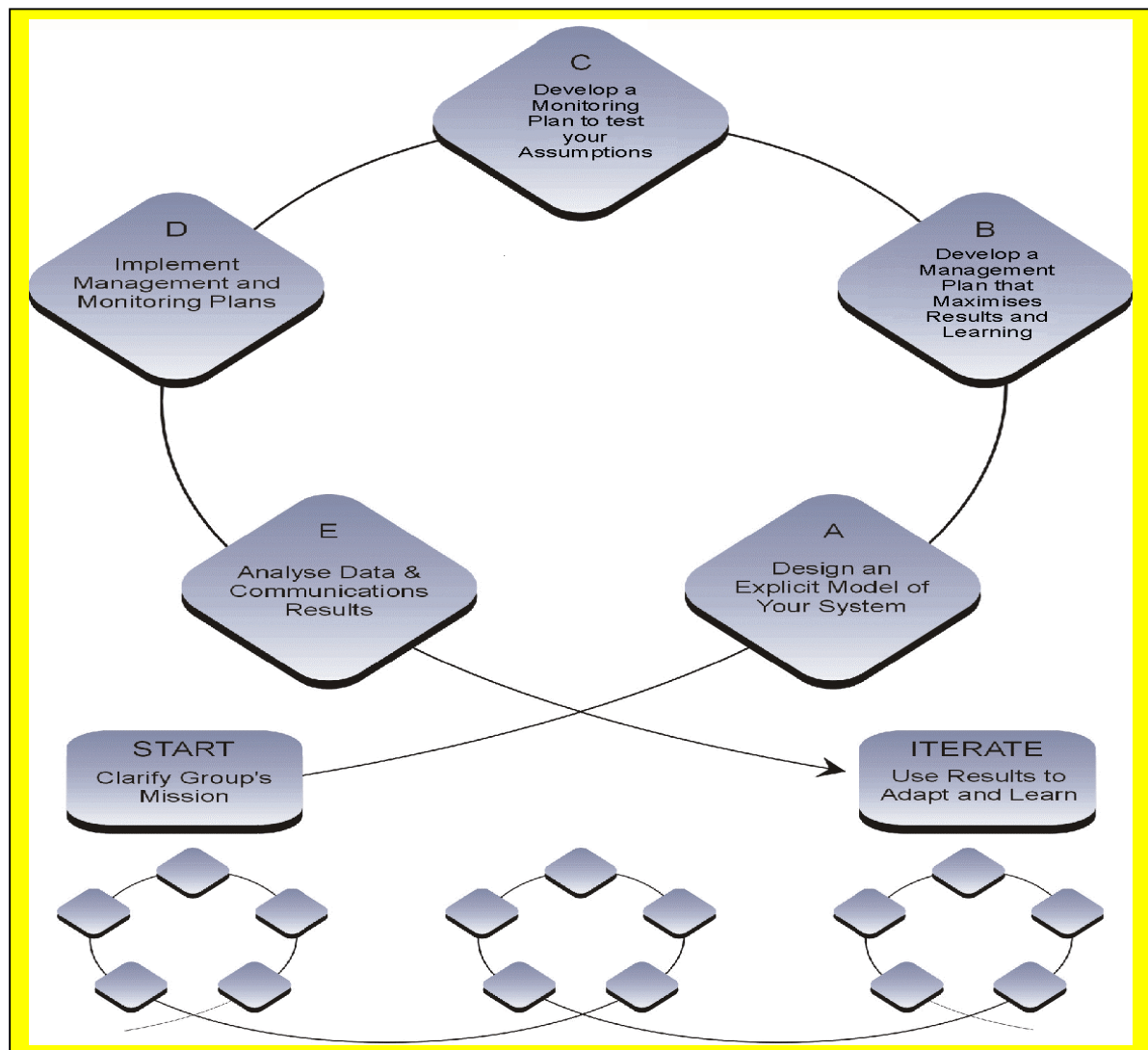
2.4.2 Adaptive management cycle

In order to be able to implement the principles of adaptive management it is imperative to understand how the management cycle of this model works.

- The starting point of the cycle of adaptive management involves determining what the overall tourism **mission** is.
- Once this is clear, **Step A** involves assessing the conditions and determining the major threats to tourism at the project site. Using a **conceptual model** the project team defines the conditions and relationships between key factors at their disposal.
- **Step B** involves using this model to develop a **project management plan** that outlines the results that the project team would like to accomplish and the specific actions that the team will undertake to achieve the intended results.
- **Step C** involves developing a **monitoring plan** for assessing progress in implementing the project.
- **Step D** involves **implementing actions** and the monitoring plan.

- **Step E** involves **analysing data** collected during the monitoring effort and communicating the information obtained from the project to appropriate audiences.
- Finally the project team uses the results of this analysis to **change the project** and learn how to do it better in future.
- Based on feedback information, the project team may want to **modify** the conceptual model, management framework or monitoring plan (see Figure 2.1).

FIGURE 2.1: Adaptive management cycle



Adapted from Salafsky *et al.*, 2001:34

2.4.3 Adaptive management as a tourism management philosophy

Tourism manifests all the characteristics of ecosystems management. Tourism resources in protected areas are both consumptive and non-consumptive. They consist of both natural and

highly developed tourism landscapes (Berkes & Folke, 1998). The list includes, *inter alia*, the atmosphere, water resources, wildlife, landscapes, people, local cultures, shops, banks, medical facilities, roads and accommodation units (Healy, 1994). The quality and quantity of these constituent resources change due to tourist use or because protected area managers change them to achieve certain outcomes (Selsky & Memon, 2001). After being subjected to an imperceptible evolution and changes on a continuous basis the tourism resources undergo transformations. Like natural resources, tourism resources are also heterogeneous and variable (Hunter, 1997). Their elements intermingle within space and over time when used as a tourist experience. Within the continuum of tourist experience uses there exist multiple, overlapping and potentially conflicting uses and user groups (Selsky & Memon, 2001). Tourism resources possess characteristics of common pool resource elements and public goods constituting a diversified and tightly connected resource base that is indispensable for the integrity of the tourist experience (Bromly, 1991; Holling *et al.*, 1998; Ostrom *et al.*, 1999).

Tourism, like all activities, modifies the quality and quantity of the natural environment, yet its impacts on both the environment and socio-cultural resources are difficult to disentangle and analyse (Briassoulis, 2000). The diversity of protected area tourism activities requires the adoption of an adaptive resource management approach. The adaptive management paradigm could underpin the development of tourism management options (Berkes & Folke, 1998, Holling *et al.*, 1998). Adaptive management embraces wide participation, indigenous knowledge, continuous monitoring, flexible policy design and frequent review of management practices (see adaptive tourism management process in Figure 6.1). This process accommodates dynamic change and uncertainty in a way no other method does (Berkes & Folke, 1998). It is best suited to address the spatial and temporal variability of the tourism resources to respond efficiently to the inherent uncertainty of current and future demands for and supply of resources, to facilitate trade-offs among multiple and conflicting stakeholder interests (Hunter, 1997).

To underpin the suggested integrated tourism management plan for the KNP, the researcher has adopted the principles of adaptive management as a management philosophy for this study. Possible widespread adoption of an adaptive approach to tourism management will occur once protected area managers are able to acknowledge past mistakes, learn from them and make appropriate adjustments to the current tourism management practices. The following section conducts a comparative analysis of international and local systems of protected area management practices to glean lessons that can help shape the formulation of the KNP tourism management framework. In an attempt to practice sustainable tourism,

adaptive management has triggered a major paradigm shift in global protected area management, as it will be demonstrated in 2.5.

2.5 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF GLOBAL MANAGEMENT APPROACHES

2.5.1 General background

Over 60 000 protected areas have now been established worldwide, covering approximately 12 % percent of the globe (Phillips, 2003a). About 1470 protected areas are national parks of the classic model, while the rest are given a wide variety of other designations, especially those established after 1960. Australia alone has at least 45 different types of protected areas (McNeely *et al.*, 1994; Green & Paine, 1997).

Since their establishment, protected areas have been regarded more as enclaves of species refuge rather than places for recreation, spiritual revival and economic benefits. For reasons embedded in history, protected areas tend to have a strong orientation to environmental protection and they have responded to “people issues” as problems rather than opportunities. People have been treated as clients of a commercial business at best – a “necessary evil” for financial support – or as undesirable interlopers at worst. Protected area managers have tended to underestimate the need for a management approach, informed by science or research, that enhances the relationships between such protected areas and society at large. (McCool *et al.*, 2003). Tourism and communities are some of the “people issues” that protected area managers have mostly ignored or treated with disdain.

2.5.2 Protected area management paradigms

The nature and character of protected areas can be traced to the management paradigms that created them. The paradigms can be categorized into two distinct periods of their evolution:

- the classic paradigm of protected areas (1860-1960s), also known as the Yellowstone model era (Phillips, 2003a); and
- the modern paradigm of protected area management (heralded by the advent of the World Parks Congress on Protected Areas held in Seattle 1962, Yellowstone Grand-Teton 1972, Bali 1982, Caracas 1992 and Durban 2003 and the World Summit on Sustainable Development held in Johannesburg in 2002).

Each of these management paradigms is characterized by overlapping programmes that signalled adaptive management tendencies such as changing attitudes, thoughts and dynamic approaches to the challenges posed by the complex task of managing protected areas.

2.5.3 Classic paradigm

Until the 1960s the climate in which protected areas were set up around the world favoured a top-down and rather exclusive view of protected areas. Large game parks were established without much concern for their impact on local people, socio-economic conditions and the general political climate. This approach fitted well with the autocratic style of colonial administration (especially in Africa). The prevailing view was that government knew best, public opinion was something officials helped to shape and not to be influenced by local people (Phillips, 2003a).

The management emphasis for most of the 20th century, not only in the USA but throughout the Americas, Australia, Africa and Asia, was on creating parks in which people did not hunt, gather, herd, farm, fell trees or even collect medicinal herbs. Wherever governments fully implemented such parks, the results were catastrophic for indigenous people. Many were forced from their indigenous homes and stripped of their possessions and human dignity. People were forced to settle outside of the parks and *“found that the natural resources of their former lands, which constituted the mainstay of their economies, were now off-limits”* (Stevens, 1997:31).

They also found that long-standing customary subsistence resource uses that were critical to physical and cultural survival became criminalized and were discouraged by fences, armed patrols and threats of jail terms and fines. Settlements became “illegal squatting” and traditional resource use became “poaching”. In these conditions, *“subsistence practices became clandestine activity and traditional local resource management institutions and other conservation practices were often abandoned in the areas that became managed as protected areas”*... (Stevens, 1997:32-33).

The scientific foundation upon which the selection of protected areas was based was limited. Often the boundaries of protected areas were arbitrarily drawn based on superficial knowledge. More generally the idea of inter- or multi-disciplinary working was in its infancy. The great majority of people working in the area or profession made little effort to build bridges to others employed in related fields. Many classic paradigm protected areas came into being

at a simpler time in a less complex world (Phillips, 2003a). The characteristics of the classic paradigm are summarized in Table 2.1.

TABLE 2.1: Classic paradigm characteristics

<p>Protected areas of the classic paradigm are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• planned and managed against the impact of people (except for tourists), and especially to exclude local people;• managed by central government, or at the very least set up at the instigation of central government,• financed by the taxpayer;• set aside for conservation, in the sense that the land (or water) is seen as taken out of productive use,• managed with little regard for the local community, who are rarely consulted on management intentions and might not even be informed of them;• managed by natural scientists or natural resource experts alone;• developed separately – that is planned one by one, in an <i>ad hoc</i> manner;• managed as “islands” – that is managed without regard for the surrounding areas;• established mainly for scenic protection, with a major emphasis on how things look rather than how natural systems function;• managed mainly for tourists, whose interests normally prevail over those of local people;• managed reactively within a short timescale, with little regard for the need to learn from experience;• about the protection of existing natural and landscape assets – not about the restoration of lost values;• viewed primarily as a national asset, with national considerations prevailing over local ones;• viewed exclusively as a national concern, with little or no regard for international obligations; and• management of protected areas is treated as an essentially technocratic exercise, with little regard for political considerations.

Adapted from Phillips, 2003a

Under the classic paradigm there are many examples of forced removals of indigenous communities to establish protected areas all over the world, e.g. the Masaai from the Serengeti, Tangarire and Manyara, the Ik of Uganda from the Kidepo National Park, the Phoka of Malawi from Myika National Park, about 22 000 people from the Royal Chitwan National Park in Nepal (Stevens, 1997) and the Makuleke in the KNP (Carruthers, 1995). Suffice to say, the classic paradigm sowed deep resentment between protected areas and their associated communities. At the decennial international IUCN congresses on national parks and protected areas in Bali in 1982 and Caracas in 1992, the classic model was challenged with members calling for a new approach to managing relationships between protected areas and indigenous communities (IUCN, 1992).

The classic paradigm has bequeathed to the world a legacy that today raises human rights issues as well as questions about the meaning of wilderness, the goals of conservation and the role of indigenous people in protected area management. When tourists came to parks, they were treated with the same attitude meted out to the evicted indigenous communities. The classic paradigm treated tourism planning as an after-thought in a “patch and seal” approach (McNeely, 1993). The evicted communities were denied opportunities to participate and benefit from the tourism business built on their former indigenous homes. The seed of conflict between conservationists and tourism was planted in the classic model and allowed to spread across the globe. However, by the 1960s things started to change with more and more calls for new or modern approaches in managing protected areas (IUCN, 1992).

2.5.4 Modern paradigm

The modern paradigm in protected area management is still in its infancy stage. It took 100 years for the classic paradigm to entrench itself as an unquestionable dogma of protected area management philosophy worldwide and obviously it will take decades for the emerging modern paradigm to become accepted across the world. The modern paradigm, emerged at the World Parks Congresses at Seattle in 1962, Yellowstone-Grand /Teton National Park in 1972, Bali in 1982, Caracas in 1992 and most recently in Durban 2003. At these congresses the classic paradigm came under heavy criticism and new progressive attitudes began to emerge (IUCN, 1992).

During the 1970s, Raymond Dasmann, a respected ecologist working for the IUCN for a decade, led the campaign that warned that “*protected areas cannot survive as islands surrounded by hostile people who have lost the land that was once their home*” (Dasmann, 1976:166). Pressure was mounting amongst IUCN members to engage in efforts that would rethink the way in which protected areas had been handling matters involving indigenous people, acknowledging that the establishment of protected areas had contributed immensely to the impoverishment of these people. The meetings of the IUCN’s General Assembly in Zaire in 1975 and in Switzerland in 1981 called on governments, planners and conservationists to “*take into account the still existing, very large reservoir of traditional knowledge, philosophy and experience within local cultures which must provide a significant basis for the evolution of future management policies and planning actions*” (McNeely & Pitt, 1985:4).

The classic paradigm neglected or ignored historical community systems of natural resource management when it introduced the protected area management systems. Prior to colonial

experience considerable parts of land (and water) were managed as common property, a practice prevalent in indigenous territories and marine areas (Kothari *et al.*, 2000). Many indigenous communities had various types of local resource management systems based on considerable local knowledge and included defining and demarcating use zones, the protection of sacred sites, limitations on harvest amounts, seasons of resource use, customs concerning gathering and hunting, shifting cultivation and the use of fire in managing ecosystems (Stevens, 1997; Kothari *et al.*, 2000; Colchester, 2003).

Traditional leaders like King Shaka set aside a royal game reserve in the Umfolozi district of Zululand in the 1820s to control hunting and trade in wildlife products. Commoners were not allowed to hunt in the game reserve and strict protection was introduced with the extension of proscription to clan totems such as crocodile, lion and elephant that could not be killed¹⁶ (Carruthers, 1995). Species-specific cultural regulations involved taboos on hunting and gathering, restrictions on the basis of gender, age and social standing of the natural resource user and customary laws (primarily orally communicated) to ensure that individual groups followed such practices (Colchester, 2003).

Land-use practices were often carefully crafted to local environmental and ecological conditions e.g. climate, terrain, water and living communities. Such adaptive practices based on local knowledge enabled indigenous peoples to live well and with confidence in diverse and at times difficult environments (Stevens, 1997; Kothari *et al.*, 2000). The colonial powers created national parks and forest departments, based on the mindset of distrust of the colonized and disregard of their indigenous knowledge and capacity to take informed decisions (Kothari *et al.*, 2000). The modern paradigm seeks to reverse the injustices of the past by rekindling relationships that will eventually recognize indigenous conservation knowledge in protected area management.

2.5.5 Influence of World Parks Congress on management of protected areas

Since the 1962 World Parks Congress in Seattle the world's protected area agencies and their respective governments have been meeting under the auspices of the IUCN to discuss strategies and techniques of improving the management of the protected areas of the world (UNEP, 2002). Although more than 12 % of the world's land surface is now in some form of protection (IUCN, 2004) there exist little or no idea of whether management of individual

¹⁶ In African communities people with the surnames Ndlovu (elephant), Tau (lion) or Ngwenya (crocodile) regard these animals with spiritual attitudes of respect, restraint, awe, humility, care, reciprocity and love. They don't kill or eat them. This practice was one of the cultural conservation methods ignored by colonial conservationists (Stevens, 1997).

protected areas or of whole systems is effective (Hockings & Phillips, 2003). More importantly, the little that is known suggests that many protected areas are being seriously degraded. Many are in danger of losing the very values for which they were originally protected (Hockings *et al.*, 2003a).

Management effectiveness begins with the formulation of a management plan with clear indicators to measure the overall ecosystem health and develop methods of managing global threats on the wider landscape. Adequacy and appropriateness of management examines how management is being undertaken; whether plans are in place, whether staff and funds are sufficient to meet basic needs and whether management meets best practice standards for the region and country (Hockings *et al.*, 2003a).

Furthermore, management effectiveness should assess whether protected areas are achieving their stated aims. Measures include biological elements (such as key species are surviving, recovering or declining), and cultural, social and economic aspects (such as tourism and recreational use and the attitudes of the local communities). To improve management of protected areas, effective management needs to be resilient and adapt to changing circumstances. In response to the call made at the Fourth (Caracas) World Parks Congress to improve management effectiveness, the IUCN formed a Task Force within the World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA) in 1996 to develop a system for monitoring management effectiveness of protected areas (Hockings *et al.*, 2003b). This aspect is dealt with in detail in 2.7 of this thesis.

The 1992 Caracas Declaration in particular called for new partnerships between “parks and people” and this call heralded a radical shift from the classic management paradigm that had declared protected areas enclaves of *ecological apartheid* to the adoption of policies that are sensitive to people’s customs and traditions to safeguard their interests (McNeely, 1993).

In analysing the recommendations of the four previous World Parks Congresses, from Seattle (1962) to Durban (2003) which had immense impact on the evolution of management regimes in protected areas, it is possible to identify critical milestones that influenced the agenda of these decennial congresses:

- the 1972 UN Conference on the Human Environment held in Stockholm could be regarded as the watershed that signalled the end of a colonial period of conservation (classic paradigm) (Eidsvik, 1980);

- the development, around the same time, of the biosphere reserve concept by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), with its idea of a core area for strict environment protection, surrounded by buffer and transitional zones and its integration of conservation and development (McNeely, 1993);
- the publication of the World Conservation Strategy in 1980, which expressed new thinking on conservation and its relationship to development (IUCN, 1986);
- the adoption of Agenda 21 and the Convention on Biological Diversity at the 1992 UNCED, held in Rio de Janeiro (McNeely, 1993); and
- the World Summit on Sustainable Development (WSSD), 26th August to 4th September 2002¹⁷ agreed in the main to:
 - halve the number of people that have no access to sanitation by 2015;
 - minimize the harmful effects on health and the environment from the production and use of chemicals by 2020;
 - stop the decline in fish stocks and restore them to sustainable levels by 2015;
 - significantly reduce the loss of biological diversity by 2010;
 - substantially increase the use of renewable energies in global energy consumption;
 - set up a 10 year framework for programmes on sustainable consumption and production;
 - strongly support a world solidarity fund to eradicate poverty; and
 - support African countries to implement food security by 2005¹⁸ (DEAT, 2002).
- the Vth World Parks Congress in Durban, 8 to 17 September 2003, pledged support for active engagement in:
 - promoting protected areas as beneficial assets for sustainable development, biodiversity and wider environmental conservation;
 - including stakeholders in conservation to spread benefits beyond boundaries of protected areas;
 - developing a global system that will focus on closing the gaps in protected areas systems e.g. marine areas, grasslands, plants and fish;
 - improving planning and management to promote effective management of protected areas; and
 - increasing financial support by leveraging resources from public, private and charitable sources for the maintenance of protected areas¹⁹ (IUCN, 2004).

¹⁷ Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2002. A Summary of The World Summit on Sustainable Development, Johannesburg, Tyrrell Associates.

¹⁸ WSSD Action Plan encourages the use of ecotourism and sustainable tourism principles.

¹⁹ IUCN 2003. Durban Accord: Our Global Commitment for the People and the Earth's Protected Areas, Draft of 7 September 2003, Vth IUCN World Parks Congress, Durban South Africa, 8-17 September 2003.

The contrast between the classic and the modern paradigms is very striking. There is a continuous search or a revolution that is turning what was heralded 40 years ago as novel in protected area management approaches into an established management approach. The modern paradigm touches on many aspects of the way society operates and how nature functions. Such aspects include scientific understanding, socio-cultural awareness, the acknowledgement of human rights, political developments, general developments in management practices, technological advances and economic forces. Phillips (2003a) describes the main characteristics of the modern paradigm in Table 2.2.

TABLE 2.2: Modern paradigm characteristics

<p>The modern paradigm characteristics for protected areas are:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none">• managed with, for and in some cases by local people – that is people are no longer seen as passive recipients of protected area policy but as active partners, even initiators and leaders in some cases;• managed by many partners, thus different tiers of government, local communities and indigenous groups, the private sector, NGOs and others are all engaged in protected area management – a function of decentralization and devolution which is occurring in many countries;• managed with social and economic objectives, as well as conservation and recreation;• financed through a variety of means to supplement – or replace – government subsidy;• managed by people with a range of skills, especially people-related skills;• managed to help meet the needs of local people, who are increasingly seen as essential beneficiaries of protected area policies, economically and socially;• planned as part of national, regional and international systems, with protected areas developed as part of a family of sites. The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) makes the development of protected area systems a requirement (Article 8a);• developed as “networks”, that is with strictly protected areas which are buffered and linked by green corridors, and integrated into adjacent land that is managed in a sustainable manner by communities for ecotourism purposes;• often set up for scientific, economic and cultural reasons – the rationale for the establishment of protected areas therefore becoming too sophisticated;• managed so that the needs of local people are considered alongside those of tourists;• managed adaptively in a long-term perspective, with management being a learning process;• about restoration and rehabilitation as well as protection, so that lost or eroded values can be recovered;• viewed as a community asset, balancing the idea of national heritage;• viewed as an international concern and with the management of such areas guided by international responsibilities and duties as well as national and local concerns; and• selection, planning and management viewed as essentially a political exercise, requiring sensitivity, consultation and astute judgement.
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Adapted from Phillips (2003a)

The modern paradigm calls for the re-engineering of protected area management and the re-education of politicians and the public (learning as advocated by the adaptive management approach) so that they understand the modern paradigm of protected area management. It requires the re-orientation of development assistance policies so as to integrate protected areas into poverty alleviation projects and strategies. Bringing about such a revolution has not been easy. There are many people who – for good reasons or bad – do not wish to hear that the values and policies associated with protected area management are now very different from those that prevailed in the past (classic paradigm). There are some officials in the profession who still yearn for the old certainties.

2.5.6 Co-management and partnerships

It is perhaps appropriate that the first bold initiatives toward effective rethinking of the classic model of protected area management came from the country that invented it in the first place. The New Federal National Park Directives of 1987 put increased efforts in motion to address Native American rights and concerns in the USA national parks. According to these regulations Native Americans, when authorized by law or treaty rights, have rights to harvest and collect plants, fish, mammals and birds for traditional subsistence or religious activities. The same regulations encourage the establishment of advisory groups that include Native Americans wherever natural or cultural resource management decisions may affect subsistence activities, sacred sites or other historic resources of Native Americans (Flores *et al.*, 1990; Nabokov & Loendoorf, 2002).

Since the 1992 Caracas Declaration, protected areas that demonstrate the new thinking have been established in many parts of the world. Some are officially designated as conservation areas, wildlife management areas and biosphere reserves. Others, including those in Australia, Canada and Alaska, are national parks that were previously based on the classic paradigm (Davey & Phillips, 1998). Included in this new wave of paradigm shift in protected area management is the new phenomenon of Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCA), where two or more conservation areas previously divided by political and physical boundaries are joined together as a contiguous ecological conservation unit with no barriers (McNeely *et al.*, 1994). New alliances and co-management approaches are making a bold appearance in protected area management and these changes require more innovative and an open management style than the previously closed and rigid classic paradigm thinking.

A few examples of these emerging management regimes and how they manage tourism will now be dealt with.

2.5.7 Tourism management in Australian protected areas

The case of Australia provides a fresh perspective on the modern paradigm of tourism management in protected areas. Tourism is an important foreign exchange earner for Australia and of major economic importance for that country. Much of it occurs in areas of high natural and cultural value. Aboriginal communities owning protected area land look to ecotourism as a way to achieve economic independence. At Kakadu National Park entrance fees contribute income to the community. In 1992, the Mutitjulu community at Uluru-Kata Tjuta National Park earned more than US\$500 000 from gate takings alone (Uluru Board of Management & Parks Australia, 2000). The community has ultimate say over tourist access to sacred sites, Aboriginal living areas, ceremonial areas or hunting areas. The general policy of these national parks is to educate the public regarding cultural reasons for restricted access or closure of certain parts of a park. This approach is valuable in that it not only helps overcome negative reaction toward regulations but also helps to promote the concept that the park is a living cultural landscape (Altman & Allen, 1992).

The Aborigines own tourism infrastructure such as hotels, roadhouses and tour companies. For example, at Kakadu National Park, the Gagudju community association owns and manages a large resort inside the park along with one of the most successful tour companies in the area. On the other hand, communities are concerned about uncontrollable tourist activities. Tourism can compete directly with subsistence activities. For public relations and safety reasons, Aboriginal rangers educate the public on hunting and gathering and the need for regulations (Johnstone, 1991; Kakadu Board of Management & Parks Australia, 1998).

Balancing the needs of the tourism industry, park tourists and specialist recreation groups with the needs of indigenous inhabitants is a major juggling act for the protected area manager. Policies that protect cultural values and the privacy of individuals, yet at the same time catering for one of the biggest industries in Australia, tourism, are in place and working quite well. Measures are being taken to protect not only the indigenous culture and ecology of protected areas, but also the interests of tourists through effective and responsible interventions. Effective management of the ecological characteristics of protected areas in Australia relies on interaction of traditional ecological knowledge and scientific knowledge (see 2.5.4). There is a belief among the Australians that contemporary protected area management cannot succeed in maintaining biodiversity “... *without an understanding of traditional management methods that were in place before European settlement*” (Lewis, 1992:21).

Employment opportunities for Aboriginal people living in communities distant from centres of industry and commerce are few – conservation land management being one of the fewest. Affirmative Action policies adopted by some Australian conservation agencies have led to increased Aboriginal employment and training in many protected areas. A cross-departmental strategy has led to the establishment of a 30 % Aboriginal employment target by the conservation authorities for Uluru and Kakadu national parks. Unfortunately for Aboriginal people with ties to protected areas, such strategies have not been adopted to the same extent by state conservation agencies. The commonwealth Aboriginal Employment Development Programme in nature conservation management has been established to tackle this problem and results are encouraging (Barry, 1995).

There are many common factors between the Australian and South African histories of protected area evolution. Both systems were previously discriminatory and denied indigenous sections of their populations the right to participate in the management and enjoyment of their respective natural heritage systems. However in Australia the awakening came much earlier and today the protected area management system embraces indigenous people, their culture and knowledge. The Australian system holds valuable lessons for the protected areas of the world in general and South Africa in particular concerning the integration of indigenous communities into protected area management systems or what is better known as Community Based Conservation Management.

The main lesson is the direct involvement of indigenous communities in the management of protected areas and the use of indigenous knowledge. Recently there has been a strong inclination towards commercializing non-core functions by managers of protected areas as a result of the need to raise sufficient revenue and to concentrate on the park's core-business, biodiversity conservation.

2.5.8 Commercialization at Yellowstone National Park (YNP)

2.5.8.1 Origins

The dilemma of attaining financial viability has been with protected areas since their inception all over the world (James, 1999). As a result of their inability to mobilize sufficient financial resources, many conservation agencies worldwide are unable to deliver adequately on their conservation mandates (Littlejohn, 1996). Many are seeking better strategies to optimize returns from their tourism and commercial operations (Bath, 1994). Although it was difficult at the beginning, YNP seems to have lived up to its tradition of being a torchbearer in the

management of wild lands on business principles and practices by designing a system that has now become known as “commercialization”. The practice of outsourcing non-core commercial and tourism operations/activities to enable conservationists to focus on the core business of biodiversity conservation has become an acceptable trend worldwide (Haines, 1996a & 1996b).

Since its establishment, YNP has gone through several financial crises to raise sufficient revenue from its operations to finance running costs. From the inception of YNP funding appropriated by Congress was not sufficient to meet all the costs. It then introduced the system of concessionaires to operate the park’s commercial operations and businesses such as accommodation, shops, restaurants, trails and medical facilities with the hope of making a good return on the investment (Haines, 1996a; 1996b). YNP is regarded by world conservation agencies as a template for commercialization in saving cash-strapped conservation institutions (Bath, 1994). It remains to be seen whether commercialization will be the panacea of protected area management (commercialization is described in detail in 3.12).

YNP has four primary concession contracts to provide food and accommodation, merchandise goods, fuel service stations, guided tours and medical care. There are more than 100 other smaller business contracts covering a variety of activities like backcountry trips, guided fishing expeditions, snowmobile and coach tours, guided photographic safaris, research expeditions, and many other commercial activities (Littlejohn, 1996). Enterprises running businesses within the Park’s premises are required to pay some type of annual fee. The four primary concessionaires are also responsible for all maintenance and improvements to the government-owned facilities assigned to them. The services that concessionaires provide and the rates they charge to tourists are subject to the park’s approval. In addition to the checks and balances, all commercial operations are subjected to close monitoring to ensure that tourists receive quality services with minimal effect on park resources and other tourists. Concessionaire staff, numbering about 3 500 seasonal workers, is trained on park interpretation and mission because they are in close contact with tourists. A staff complement of eight professionals is responsible for managing the concessionaire contracts and total quality assurance management (Bath, 1994; Haines 1996b; YNP, 2000). There may be criticisms against commercialization in protected areas but YNP’s programme appears to be well thought out and is managed by professionals and experts in the fields of business and tourism. It makes a world of difference²⁰.

²⁰ Study visit to Yellowstone National Park, October 2002.

2.5.8.2 Budget

YNP receives the bulk of its funding from the US Congress' appropriation of tax dollars to the NPS. Although it would appear that there has been a slight monetary increase since 1980 (US\$9,6m – 22,4m in 1998), the real inflation-adjusted operating budget has decreased by one percent during that period while visitation has grown by 50 %. In the financial year 2000 YNP received a base budget increase for annual legislated pay increases (see Table 2.3). What Yellowstone receives after submitting their estimates is far below their current needs. The accumulated backlog caused by decreasing budgets, capital backlog, maintenance of infra-structure and chronic under-funding of projects is estimated at US\$700 million (YNP, 2000).

TABLE 2.3: Yellowstone budget 2000

RECURRING	OPERATIONS & MAINTENANCE (\$)	INVESTMENTS (\$)	TOTAL (\$)
Yellowstone Base Budget (operations)	23 041 000		23 041 000
Cost Recovery Special Use Fees	3 561 300		3 561 300
SUBTOTAL	26 602 300		26 602 300
NON-RECURRING			
Once-off Appropriated Projects	1 294 900	1 983 500	3 278 400
Private Donations	330 000		330 000
Fee Demonstration Programme	1 852 000	808 800	2 660 800
SUBTOTAL	3 476 900	2 792 300	6 269 200
CAPITAL IMPROVEMENTS			
NPS Construction Projects	516 000	2 511 000	3 027 000
Federal Highway Programme		9 000 000	9 000 000
SUBTOTAL	516 000	11 511 000	12 027 000
OVERALL TOTAL	30 595 200	14 303 300	44 898 500

Adapted from YNP (2000)

Much of the park's budget is allocated to fixed and mandated costs that are beyond its control. These include salaries/benefits, higher utility costs and increased water and sewage testing, employee background investigations and increasing visitation (by providing infrastructure). After meeting all these expenditures, minimal funding remains for adequate resource protection (conservation), tourist services and maintenance of park infrastructure (besides that which is allocated to concessionaires for commercial trade). Successive park managers have been forced to reduce staff, postpone maintenance of infrastructure, reduce interpretation

programmes, close some facilities during high season, not replace old and unsafe vehicles²¹. YNP managers estimate that it would need an additional US\$20 million per annum to meet its operational and maintenance needs (YNP, 2000). Despite the financial difficulties, which are embedded in the founding charter of YNP, the commercialization programme has very positive lessons for emulation.

2.5.8.3 Reasons for success

There are several reasons why commercialization is successful at YNP:

- the concept of commercialization enjoys wide public and government support in the USA;
- congress created tax incentives for corporate businesses to invest in protected areas through commercialization;
- there is a management plan to regulate the operation of concessionaires at park level, no interference from Washington NPS headquarters;
- norms, standards and prices of goods and services have been jointly set by the park and the concessionaires;
- concessionaires offer services and products of high quality to the public;
- the park employs a team of eight tourism/hospitality/commercial specialists, a dietician and the local health inspector to monitor and evaluate the quality assurance and standards of the outsourced operations;
- maintenance of park infrastructure allocated to concessionaires greatly relieves the universal problem of poor maintenance levels;
- the medical rescue programme is efficient and of world-class standards; and
- the interpretation services, trails and outdoor exhibitions are highly developed for tourist enjoyment.

The search for alternative revenue sources for protected areas will continue as long as there is a near universal under-investment in nature management systems (Wells, 1997). Commercialization, however, should be confined to those non-core function commodities where a park lacks expertise and innovation. Another recent innovative protected area management approach is the Biosphere Reserve concept.

²¹ Similar cost-curtaiment strategies are being implemented in the KNP resulting in retrenchment of staff and poor tourism facilities.

2.5.9 Buffer zones and Biosphere reserves

The origins of the Biosphere Reserve concept can be traced back to the Biosphere Conference organized by UNESCO in 1968. Biosphere reserves are designed to meet one of the most challenging issues that the world is facing today: how to conserve biodiversity and maintain healthy natural systems which, at the same time, meet material needs and aspirations of a growing number of people. To date, the “Man and the Biosphere” Programme (MAP) consists of a network of 408 sites with approximately 20 sites added annually (Bridgewater, 2002).

Biosphere reserves operate beyond protected areas. Their conservation objective is supported by research, monitoring and training activities on the one, and on the other hand is pursued by systematically involving the cooperation and interests of the local population concerned (UNEP, 2002).

The 1980's ushered in new experiments in the establishment of buffer zones, which represented important novel developments in protected area management and sustainable tourism. Buffer zones have for long been a feature of the UNESCO-sponsored biosphere reserve concept, where the management of surrounding areas according to a policy of limited or sustainable use of resources, protects the park's core conservation area (Western, 1994). One known example of a Biosphere Reserve concept is Zimbabwe's Communal Area Management Plan for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE).

2.5.9.1 CAMPFIRE in Zimbabwe (Biosphere)

In 1988, a rural development programme, modelled on the UNESCO biosphere reserve concept, was established on communal land in Zimbabwe. The CAMPFIRE approach granted communities greater authority to manage wildlife on their communal lands, including the power to establish programmes for controlled wildlife harvesting for subsistence use and to gain a share of safari hunting revenues (sustainable tourism principles – see 2.4.1). In terms of this programme, revenue from wildlife may be applied for the common good of communities or shared among community members. In some cases district councils retain much of the revenue for use in community projects with very little eventually reaching individual households. CAMPFIRE was initially implemented in two Zambezi valley district councils, one of which surrounds Matusadona National Park on three sides. By 1993, more than 40 % of the total districts in Zimbabwe's communal areas had CAMPFIRE programmes running, involving

more than a quarter of a million people (Adams & McShane, 1992; Mbanefo & De Boerr, 1993; Metcalfe, 1994).

The significance of the CAMPFIRE programme was that it was designed to tackle environmental management and food security problems at grassroots level. It sought to help rural communities to manage their resources, especially wildlife, for their own development, thus advancing the concept of sustainable tourism. The programme's overall aim was to alleviate rural poverty by giving rural communities autonomy over resource management. It was also intended to demonstrate to them that wildlife is not necessarily just a hindrance to arable agriculture but also a resource that could produce food security (Logan & Moseley, 2001:3). CAMPFIRE compared arable cultivation, cattle rearing and wildlife management to economic alternatives vying for the use of the same scarce land and water resources. According to Murphree (1997), one of the most positive features of CAMPFIRE was seen to be its Zimbabwean origin. It was a programme for Zimbabweans by Zimbabweans seeking a solution to a Zimbabwean protected area management dilemma.

Further research is essential to quantify whether CAMPFIRE is a successful programme in economic and social terms. In the researcher's view the land reform crisis in Zimbabwe appears to have complicated matters for protected area management and it will take years to achieve the objectives of any rural development programme like CAMPFIRE.

Despite a lack of measured impacts of CAMPFIRE on the improvement of the quality of life of rural communities in Zimbabwe, the programme represents a radical shift from the colonial approach towards managing wildlife and adjacent park communities. It could become one of the mechanisms to manage stakeholders with different or conflicting objectives towards a common goal (one of the adaptive management principles – see 2.4.3).

2.5.9.2 Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCA)

The notion of conservation areas merging across political and physical boundaries is not new. Canada and the USA are credited with the honour of having established the first transfrontier park, namely the Glacier International Peace Park (USA) and Waterton Lakes National Park (Canada) in 1932. Today there are no fewer than 169 transfrontier protected area complexes worldwide, involving 113 countries. In Africa there are 35 complexes, involving 34 countries and 148 individual protected areas. These areas represent nearly 10 % of the world's network of protected areas and highlight their importance as a modern paradigm for the management of protected areas (Van der Linde *et al.*, 2001).

Albert National Park was the first TFCA in Africa, established by the Belgian colonial regime in 1925 to conserve natural resources in two countries. It spanned the colonial states of Ruanda-Burundi and the Congo. After independence in the early 1960s the Rwandan part became Parc des Volcans (Volcanoes National Park), while the Congolese part became Virunga National Park (Wilkie *et al.*, 2001). Poland and Czechoslovakia signed the Krakow Protocol in 1925 to set a framework for establishing international cooperation to manage border parks (Thorsell, 1990).

In southern Africa, the Kalahari Gemsbok National Park in South Africa and the Gemsbok National Park in Botswana have co-existed alongside one another for decades, unfettered by any dividing border fence. However, while wildlife ranged freely across the border, the area was never managed as a common entity (SANParks, 2002).

It was not until leading South African businessman Dr Anton Rupert²² conceived the brilliant idea of promoting peace in southern Africa through conservation that the idea of “parks without boundaries” became an established concept in this region. In 1990, he established the Peace Parks Foundation and invited prominent leaders such as Nelson Mandela, as well as Prince Bernhard of the Netherlands, to be official Patrons and reflect the integrity of the Foundation’s ideals. Through the facilitation and influence of the Foundation, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) has endorsed the principle of development across borders through transfrontier conservation.

In many African countries, including those in southern Africa, the primary reasoning for the establishment of transfrontier parks is economic development, given the people’s dependency on natural resources. It is also integrating broader environmental concerns and natural resource management. The potential for nature-based tourism is very high and yet it is still under-exploited (Griffin *et al.*, 2001).

SANParks and its regional counterparts have pioneered the implementation of this SADC cross-border development strategy. The Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park was established on 7 April 1999 when the Presidents of Botswana and South Africa signed the treaty that gave birth to this park. A Joint Management Board oversees the implementation of the park management plan (Sandwith *et al.*, 2001).

²² Dr Rupert has recently retired as Chairman/President of the World Wide Fund South Africa but remains its chief patron. He is credited with many conservation success stories in southern Africa including the concept of transfrontier parks.

The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park referred to in 1.10 was proclaimed in December 2002 when the Presidents of Zimbabwe, Mozambique and South Africa signed a joint treaty in Xai Xai, Mozambique. The mega-park consists of the KNP (South Africa), Gonarezhou National Park (Zimbabwe) and Limpopo National Park (Mozambique). The result is 3,5 million hectares of conservation land with enormous benefits for wildlife, tourism and community development. When fully developed it will become one of the largest international protected areas in the world (Sandwith *et al.*, 2001).

Discussions are well underway between conservation agencies in Namibia and South Africa on the establishment of the Ai-Ais/Richtersveld Transfrontier Park along the Orange River. Similar initiatives are in place for the Limpopo-Shashe Transfrontier Park, covering conservation areas in Botswana, South Africa and Zimbabwe (Griffin *et al.*, 2001).

Provincial conservation agencies are also involved in a number of transfrontier parks such as the Maloti-Drakensberg Transfrontier Park between South Africa, Lesotho and the Lebombo Transfrontier Park involving South Africa, Swaziland and Mozambique (Sandwith & Pfothner, 2002). In southern African context, South Africa and SANParks are leading the pack in creating more transfrontier parks (SANParks, 2002). There are 20 transfrontier park initiatives in southern Africa alone. These TFCAs are not the focus of this study but are cited to illustrate yet more important innovative developments in the management of protected areas, with benefits likely to accrue to communities in the tourism business.

2.6 EVALUATION OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN PARKS

2.6.1 Tourism trends in protected areas

It is unusual in the field of protected area management to find all the applications of “best practice” or benchmarks in a single system; many such areas are good at doing some things (conservation) but perhaps not so good at others (tourism management). However, benchmarking is a more acceptable business practice in the business sector than in protected area management. It will take many years for benchmarks or indicators of best practice for protected areas to be established and standardised especially in a sector that still frowns at mixing business principles with conservation. Benchmarking is an essential practice to establish the standards of management, which protected areas should strive to achieve (see Annexure 15).

Overall, protected area managers have done relatively well in protecting and managing the environment (Harte, 2001). However, they cannot claim the same level of success in the areas of community participation, tourism management, corporate governance, financial management, human resource management, information management and technology. These are areas where conservationists do not always command the best of qualifications, skills and experience. Yet, without these areas, the equation of protected area management is incomplete, and long-term sustainability is in jeopardy. Protected areas are reluctant participants in commercial business operations, tourism management, marketing, fundraising and financial management (Eagles, 1997). The trends in Table 2.4 were noted from the management plans analysed.

TABLE 2.4: Common weaknesses of park management plans

After studying the management plans of African, Australian, American, Canadian and Asian national parks, the following characteristics were observed by the researcher:

- Many management plans are old and range between 10 to 20 years old.
- Parks are established as non-profit organs of state and are not functioning like private sector profit-orientated businesses.
- The main purpose of their establishment is biodiversity protection, provisioning of recreational enjoyment to the public and benefit-sharing with their neighbouring communities.
- Tourism is narrowly interpreted as tourist management services often managed by staff who have no training in hospitality services or tourism.
- There are no specific researched tourism management plans.
- Corporate governance and financial management skills are lacking.
- Linkages between socio-economic sectors and biodiversity conservation are lacking.
- With the exception of the KNP many protected areas around the world receive 100 % of their funding from treasury or international donor organizations and are not dependent on tourism revenue to manage their operations.
- They receive far less funding than what they budget for every year causing an incremental backlog which has now reached crisis level.
- Most parks are all beginning to address their financial problems by turning to commercialization of their non-conservation products as an alternative to raise funds.
- Most national parks are not allowed to keep revenue raised from tourism themselves but pay it into central government treasury.
- In general, there are no defined mechanisms to involve communities living adjacent to the parks.
- Tourism facilities are not adequately maintained because of an inability to generate adequate revenue from either state coffers, donor organizations or tourism resources.
- They do not seem to have paid much attention to issues of corporate governance/administration and strategic management to achieve market advantage or competitive edge, probably for reasons associated with their status as quasi-government institutions.

Although pockets of excellence of tourism practice in protected areas exist as demonstrated elsewhere in this thesis, tourism in general tends to be relegated into secondary importance. In the 401-page IUCN report on the current state of protected areas worldwide (McNeely *et al.*, 1994), tourism appears to be an after-thought. Only eight brief sections are dedicated to tourism management and the collective coverage in this internationally important guide on protected area management would take up no more than four pages.

The current tendency for protected area managers to give tourism issues stepchild attention, almost as an afterthought, suggests, in the researcher's opinion, a basic flaw in the policy development process that makes it impossible to manage tourism professionally.

The general impression gleaned from park management plans and systems analysed in this study is that an overall, integrated tourism management philosophy is lacking. This tends to result in any attention to tourism issues being reduced to a regulation of tourist behaviour and providing interpretive services on conservation products. There exists a strong and legitimate emphasis on protection of the environment but, unfortunately, in relative isolation from balancing the needs of tourists, the tourism industry, financial viability and community needs. The manifold reasons for these deficiencies are found in the conceptualization and constitution of protected areas dating back to the two previous centuries' management paradigms. Tourism in protected areas is stuck in the time and place of previous eras.

Aspects of skills capacity in protected area management deserve urgent attention. Although protected areas employ many people and sometimes may even appear over-staffed, specialist tourism management warrant strengthening in many countries. To date, most senior protected area managers responsible for tourism are graduates of forestry, biological sciences, geography and wildlife conservation. *"In view of the complexities of issues faced in protected area management, protected areas need additional staff trained in other disciplines, particularly administration/management, tourism, social services, economics, financial management, business development, rural development and public relations"* (McNeely *et al.*, 1994:195).

In general, the economic benefits from tourism have thus far been suboptimal due to a lack of business approach in the packaging of products and marketing to a robust national and international market. Without integrated marketing plans, value-based pricing models and accrued benefits for local communities living in protected areas, the impact of tourism in protected areas will remain minimal and under-achieved. Although there are instances where local communities benefit from protected area tourism as is the case in Australia and New

Zealand, many communities living adjacent to protected areas the world over have neither access to tourism benefits nor the opportunities to participate in policy formulation and the general management of the parks (Dobias *et al.*, 1998).

2.6.2 Managing tourism impacts

Most of the management plans analysed in this research made reference to tourism impacts and the need to curtail tourism expansion in order to minimize such negative impacts. However, there were no explicit baseline, indicators or thresholds against which to monitor impacts. However some of the management plans reflect a deep understanding of managing impacts without explaining how such impacts would be measured, monitored and managed. For example, most parks have established zones for recreational activities but there are no indicators of how these are managed to prevent overuse. The KNP has identified a set of Threshold of Potential Concerns (TPCs) based on the ROZ Plan to monitor wilderness qualities (see Annexure 4) but never implemented it effectively due to shortage of skilled staff and funding.

Among the issues highlighted by management plans are carrying capacities and managing tourist impacts.

2.6.2.1 Carrying capacities

One area of tourism operations that has been broadly researched by ecologists and scientists is the concept of carrying capacity. In the late 1960s and early 1970s the Malthus' Population theory discussions about looming limits of the earth's carrying capacity due to population and economic explosion initiated widespread development of environmental awareness (Stankey *et al.*, 1985). The dual mandate of conservation and public enjoyment for national parks and nature reserves created a major challenge for protected areas with high visitation. In the USA, the National Parks and Recreation Act (P.L. 95-625) of 1978 prescribed that superintendents of national parks identify and implement commitments for tourist carrying capacities in order to define standards to protect the environment from human degradation. Since the 1940s, USA park planners have been struggling without great success to find the correct balance between conservation and tourism (Lindberg & Hawkins, 1993).

Similarly, not much research has been done in the management plans analysed in this study to determine what research has been done so far and how such plans are controlled. Tourism carrying capacity is still very much a thumb-suck estimate without much solid research, monitoring or interpretation of results anywhere in the world (Mathieson & Wall, 1982).

Carrying capacity is conventionally defined as the *number* of tourists an area can sustain without degrading natural resources and tourist experiences (Peterson, 1996). In tourism, different definitions of carrying capacities as well as a multitude of differing aims lead to equivocal applications. It is difficult to determine such a specific *number*. Mathieson & Wall (1982) point out that separate capacities exist for each of the economic, physical and social subsystems of relevance in a protected area. Lindberg *et al.*, (1997) express considerable discontentment with the concept of carrying capacity in tourism. They claim that the concept is not adequate to address the complexity found in tourism situations. In particular, they criticize the concept as being imprecise, a fact that hinders its operational application.

Furthermore, the subjectivity of the concept is often not realized by policy proponents who often perceive it as a scientifically objective concept. In its application to tourism planning, its focus on tourist use-levels or numbers of tourists is considered by Lindberg *et al.*, (1997) to be misguided and simplistic. It is clear that, in its application to applied ecology, the concept of carrying capacities involves normative characteristics and multiple levels that often vary, depending on the objectives. Arrow *et al.*, (1995) conclude that carrying capacities in their nature are not fixed, static or simple relations. They are contingent on technology, preferences and the structures of production and consumption. They are also contingent on the ever-changing state of interactions between the physical and biotic environments. A single number for human carrying capacity would be meaningless because the consequences of human innovation and biological evolution are inherently unknown. Carrying capacities are far from being universal constants. Thus carrying capacity is ambiguous. More modern concepts of carrying capacity have moved away from simplistic use of mere numbers of tourists, and rather use a range of parameters that measure impacts on biophysical resources and social conditions. When the KNP decides to review its current management plan, it will be advisable to develop a system of indicators against which tourism carrying capacity can be measured. The design of such a system of indicators will be the result of a process rather than an event.

2.6.2.2 Tourist impacts

Although the concept of carrying capacity was widely researched during the 1960s and '70s, in practice, carrying capacity did not generate effective and politically viable solutions to tourist management problems (McCool, 1990). In response to the practical differences of defining carrying capacity, a number of research-based management planning tools were developed as alternative strategies. Perhaps the most well known of these is the Limits of Acceptable Change (LAC). Holden (2000:142) defines LAC as “*a set of indicators which are reflective of an area’s environmental conditions and against which standards and rates of change can be*

assessed". However, a number of other tools including the Recreational Opportunity Zone (ROZ), Visitor Impact Management (VIM) and Visitor Activity Management Process (VAMP) (see 6.8.2) have been developed by researchers working for the US NPS for use in their parks which have severe tourist congestion problems (Giongo *et al.*, 1994). These tourist planning and management tools address four fundamental planning steps in this debate:

- determine the current situation;
- decide what situation is desired;
- establish how to move from current to desired situation; and
- monitor and evaluate progress or success in attaining the desired situation.

In comparison with carrying capacity, the emphasis of these management tools has moved from defining limits to the number of tourists, to defining the degree of change that is acceptable within the system. This refers to social as well as ecological factors and is based on evaluating the state of the system by reference to a number of suitable indicators (Stankey *et al.*, 1985).

Once indicator limits have been defined, direct and indirect site and tourist management strategies can be implemented. Direct tactics for limiting use include the controlling of overall volume of tourists, dispersing use patterns away from heavily used areas, concentrating use patterns in designated areas away from fragile used areas, seasonal closure at sensitive times of the year and spatial zoning by level and form of use. Indirect tactics include tourist education and raising awareness of impacts (Giongo *et al.*, 1994).

Park managers should accept that inherent in management and planning tools like LAC, VIM, VAMP, ROZ, and others, two fundamental principles underscore tourism management in protected areas. One is that environmental impacts are an inevitable consequence of recreation whether based on consumptive or on non-consumptive use. The second principle is that environmental impacts are acceptable within the boundaries of established critical thresholds (Shelby & Heberlein, 1986; Kuss *et al.*, 1990). The chief objective of park managers is to determine such critical thresholds.

The determination of these critical thresholds involves quantitative assessments of environmental change and social judgment about the acceptability of such changes. As society's concern for the health of the natural environment increases, public attitudes will continue to exert considerable influence on environmental management and policy. Increasing environmental concern is a global phenomenon and not limited to specific national parks. If

LAC and VIM are going to yield successful results, research on tourism is needed to identify dimensions of social acceptability for different classes of impacts and the key precursors or correlates for them. As such, the influence of public concern on environmental impact judgement warrants research attention. Park users should also be targeted for such research because often tourist and manager perceptions regarding impacts diverge. What managers perceive as serious or noticeable negative impacts, go in many instances unnoticed by tourists and exert little influence on their experiences (Peterson, 1974; Downing & Clark, 1979; Lucas, 1979 & Lucas, 1980). This is also a long-drawn process that requires not just one study at a point in time but continuous research.

Protected area managers must set measurable goals to evaluate their effectiveness. Such evaluation mechanisms should be an integral part of their detailed integrated tourism policy statements for specific parks. A generic plan for such an evaluation framework has been suggested by the World Commission on Protected Areas (WCPA) of the IUCN.

2.7 EVALUATION CRITERIA FOR PROTECTED AREAS

2.7.1 Evaluation framework and indicators

It was alluded in 1.1 and 2.6.1 that protected areas do not seem to be efficiently and effectively managed (Dudley *et al.*, 1999) and that there is an urgent need to assess their management effectiveness.

However, in an almost infinitely diverse world, there can never be just one standard methodology for such a task. A sophisticated approach that will work in a wealthy country in North America may not work in sub-Saharan Africa; a process suitable for a vast area like the Great Barrier Reef Marine Park in Australia may be inappropriate for a small marine reserve; a methodology for a wilderness area in Alaska could be difficult to apply to a lived-in protected landscape in Western Europe (Hockings & Hobson, 2000). Equally, it may be difficult to apply the same methodology in assessing the management effectiveness of different national parks under SANParks' jurisdiction. Nevertheless, it is imperative to design an evaluation system to assess management effectiveness.

The worldwide trend has been the consideration of certification systems that relate to other components of natural resource management (forest management, ecotourism, ISO 14000) to extract elements that may be applicable in protected areas. In addition, a number of issues from the literature on general programme evaluation (e.g. evaluation forms and approaches,

who should be involved in evaluation, etc.) that has methodological implications have been examined. Non-methodological concerns have been considered only briefly and mostly only to the extent that they throw light upon methodological issues. Finally, some issues that are specific to the evaluation of protected area management (e.g. consideration of threats and local/regional differences in protected area management) have also been discussed (Silsbee & Peterson, 1991).

WCPA has suggested a framework for evaluation that can be flexibly applied to meet the needs of protected areas in different circumstances (Hockings *et al.*, in press). The framework is based on two principles:

- it must be strongly linked to the concerns and interests of managers; and
- it should be useable by managers in a wide range of circumstances around the world.

The framework suggests the division of evaluation into six elements; viz. context, planning, input, process, output and outcome (see Table 2.5).

2.7.2 How the evaluation framework works

2.7.2.1 Context: It examines the conservation and other values of the protected area, its current status and the particular threats and opportunities that affect it, including the broad policy environment (including tourism). It helps to provide information about management focus by considering the particular threats and vulnerabilities of the area (Hockings, 1998; Hockings & Hobson, 2000).

2.7.2.2 Planning: This element focuses on articulating a vision of the intended outcomes for the protected area system or park. Assessment may consider the appropriateness of national protected area policies, plans for protected area systems, the design of individual protected areas and plans for their management. In particular, it can consider the design of a protected area in relation to the integrity and status of the resource. Issues of ecological nature and tourism will be of utmost importance, including shape, size, location and detailed management plans with indicators and measurement instruments (Hakizumwami, 2000; Ervin, 2000).

TABLE 2.5: IUCN evaluation framework for protected areas

Elements of evaluation	Context	Planning	Input	Process	Output	Outcome
Explanation	<i>Where are we now?</i> Assessment of importance, threats and policy environment	<i>Where do we want to be?</i> Assessments of PA design and planning	<i>What do we need?</i> Assessment of resources needed to carry out management	<i>How do we go about it?</i> Assessment of way in which management is conducted	<i>What were the results?</i> An assessment of the implementation of management programmes and actions; delivery of products and services	<i>What did we achieve?</i> An assessment of the outcomes and the extent to which they achieved objectives
Criteria that are assessed	Significance Threats Vulnerability National context	Protected area legislation and policy Protected area system design Reserve design Management planning	Resourcing of agency Resourcing of site Partners	Suitability of management processes	Results of management actions Services and products	Impacts: effects of management in relation to objectives
Focus of evaluation	Status	Appropriateness	Resources	Efficiency Appropriateness	Effectiveness	Effectiveness Appropriateness

Adapted from Hockings *et al.*, (in press)

2.7.2.3 Input and process: These elements respectively provide for intermittent assessments of the adequacy of resources and the standards of management systems relative to achieving the management objectives of a site. Assessment is based primarily on data about available resources and management processes that can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of management of individual protected areas or protected area systems. Inputs generally include a measure of resources (staff, funds, equipment, facilities) required at either agency or site level along with consideration of partners. The adequacy of management processes can be assessed through a wide variety of indicators, ranging from issues of day-to-day maintenance through to the adequacy of approaches to local communities, consumers of park tourism and various types of natural and cultural resource management (Ervin, 2000).

2.7.2.4 Outputs: Output evaluation considers what was done by management and examines the extent to which specific targets may be set through management plans or business plans. The focus of output monitoring is not so much on whether these actions have achieved their desired objectives (this is the domain of outcome evaluation), but on whether or not the activities have been carried out as scheduled and what progress is being made in the implementation of long-term management plans (Hockings & Hobson, 2000).

2.7.2.5 Outcomes: This section assesses whether management has been successful in achieving the objectives established by a management plan, national plans and, ultimately, the aims of the IUCN category of protected areas (in this case Category II for national parks). Approaches to outcome evaluation involve long-term monitoring of the condition of the biological and cultural resources of the site/system; socio-economic aspects (tourism) of use and impacts of the site/system's management on local communities. In the final analysis, outcome evaluation is the true test of management effectiveness. The main constraint of this approach is that the scope of monitoring required is significant, especially given the lack of attention afforded to this aspect of protected area management in the past (with tourism emerging as the most neglected area of management). Thus, the selection of indicators to be monitored is critical. Outcome evaluation is most meaningful where concrete objectives for management have been specified, either in national legislation and policies or in site-specific management plans (Hockings, 1998; Hockings & Hobson, 2000; Hakizumwami, 2000; Ervin, 2000).

The Evaluation Framework provides a basis for designing systems for the assessment of management effectiveness. The Framework also provides a context for understanding the approach taken by various methodologies that have been developed over the last 20 years to assess management effectiveness of protected areas (Ervin, 2000). The Evaluation Framework shares similarities with the adaptive management cycle stages (see 2.4.2), and focuses attention on the establishment of a common vision, situation analysis (assessment), programme planning, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of the management process.

The Framework's principles will be adopted and adapted by this study in designing a tourism management framework for KNP. When a tourism management plan is being designed, the legal basis upon which a protected area is established becomes a critical point of departure. The legal framework of the KNP follows hereunder.

2.8 LEGAL BASIS FOR KNP TOURISM MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

2.8.1 National Parks Act, 1976 (Act No. 57 of 1976)

The National Parks Act, 1976 (Act No. 57 of 1976) currently forms the basis for the management of all national parks in South Africa. Since 1994 the said National Parks Act has undergone a series of amendments to sections that were either an embarrassment to the new

society (with racist connotations) or had effectively prevented the organization from performing its duties as expected. It is ironic that the legislation that established SANParks as a premier conservation agency in South Africa is out of step with a transforming country and out of kilter with the changing times and the challenges that it faces (Msimang *et al.*, 2003).

The national parliament is currently deliberating on a new bill, the National Environment Management: Protected Areas Bill (also known as the Protected Areas Bill) to give expression to the White Paper on the Conservation and Sustainable Use Policy of South Africa's Biological Diversity (1997). The proposed Protected Areas Bill will deal with the system of protected area management more broadly than the said National Parks Act and the National Environmental Management Act, 1989 (Act No. 107 of 1989). It will link the system of protected area management with current government policies and programmes, involving communities who live around national parks as participating stakeholders in the management processes of parks (DEAT, 2003). The Bill will also make communities beneficiaries of proceeds accruing from conservation and tourism activities that take place in parks. It will give effect to an ideal of meaningful participation of communities that is already championed by the IUCN worldwide.

2.8.2 Protected Areas Bill (Gazette No. 25052 of 3 June 2003) and management plans

The National Parks Act does not provide details on how protected areas should deal with the issue of drafting management plans or evaluation of management effectiveness. The Protected Areas Bill, Section 76, (Gazette No. 25052 of 3 June 2003) will change this situation. Section 40(1)(2) of the Bill will set management evaluation criteria for protected areas. The management authority of a protected area must manage the area exclusively for the purpose for which it was established, taking into consideration provincial legislation or municipal by-laws that affect it (DEAT, 2003).

Section 41(1) states that "*the objective of a management plan is to ensure the protection, conservation and management of a protected area concerned in a manner which is consistent with the objectives of this Act and for the purpose it was declared*". Section 41(2) defines the content of a management plan as:

- a coordinated policy framework;
- such planning measures, controls and performance criteria as may be prescribed;
- a programme for the implementation of the framework and its costing; and
- procedures for public participation.

The management effectiveness of a protected area will be measured against this criteria (DEAT, 2003). Section 42 (1) allows the management authority of a protected area to enter into an agreement with another organ of state, a local community, an individual or other party to co-manage a park. Such an agreement may allow for:

- the delegation of powers by or to the management authority or from the other party to the agreement;
- the apportionment of any income generated from the management of a park or other form of benefit sharing between the parties;
- the collection, catching or use of biological resources subject to provisions of the Protected Areas Act;
- access to sites of cultural or religious significance in the area;
- occupation of the protected area or portions thereof; and
- any other relevant matter (DEAT, 2003).

Section 43(1)-(4) of the Protected Areas Bill deals with performance indicators. The Minister or Member of the Executive Council (MEC) responsible for protected areas may establish indicators for monitoring performance with regard to the management of national or provincial protected areas. External auditors may be appointed to monitor a management authority's compliance with the overall objectives of the management plan (DEAT, 2003).

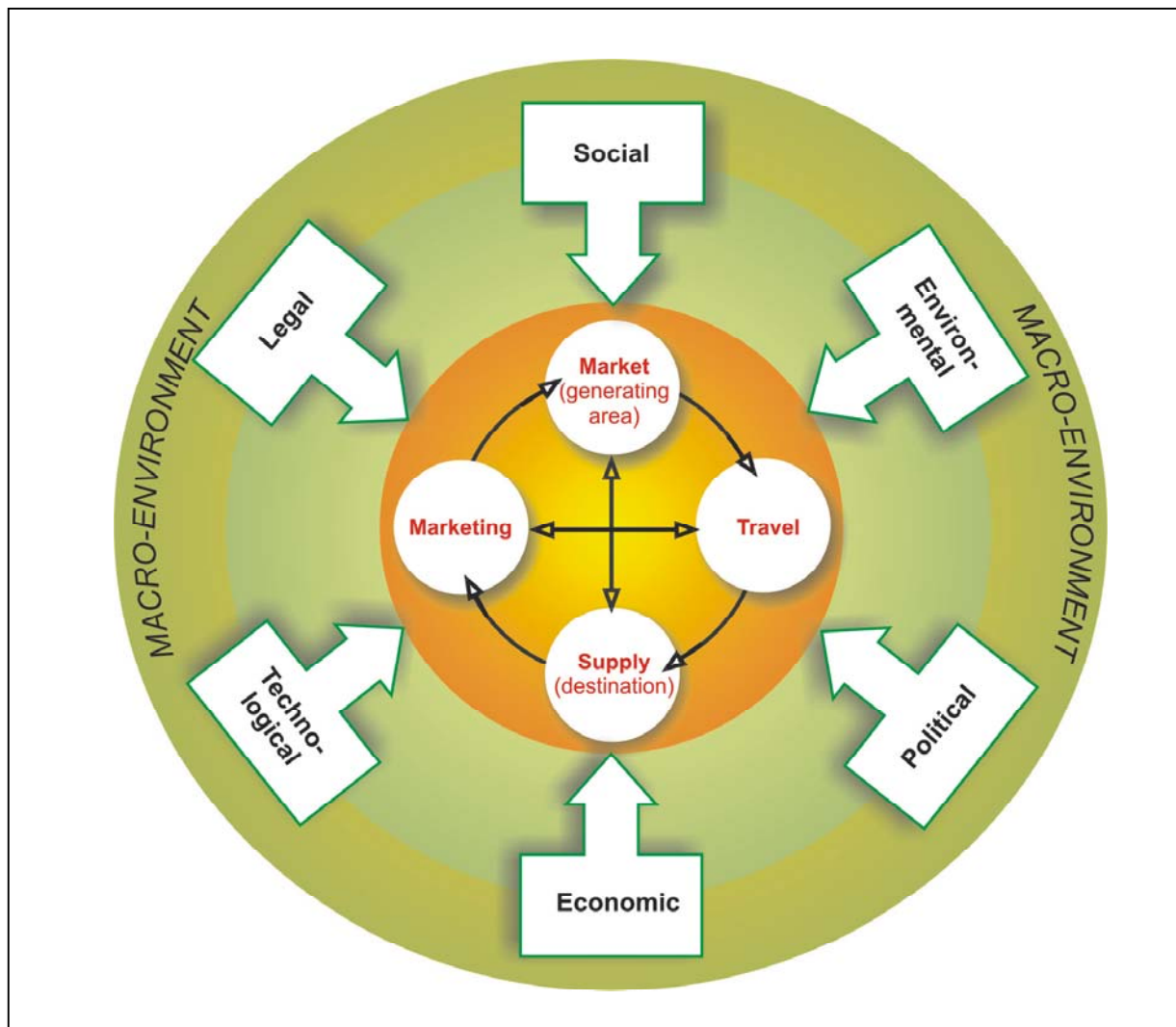
Sections 54 – 79 (Chapter 5) of the Bill deals with the continued existence of SANParks after the repeal of the National Parks Act (1976) during the current (2003) parliamentary session. The sections provide criteria for the selection and appointment of the governing body and define the functions, powers and operating procedures of the SANParks Board. (The management structure of SANParks is discussed in 3.3.) It also provides procedures for general administration and financial matters. SANParks is regarded as a Schedule 2 public entity for purposes of the Public Finance Management Act, 1999 (Act No. 1 of 1999) (PFMA) (as amended by Act 29 of 1999) and must comply with the provisions of the PFMA. The Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism has supervisory powers over SANParks (DEAT, 2003).

Any management plan proposed by SANParks or national parks under its jurisdiction is obliged to follow the procedures and prescriptions of the Protected Areas Bill once it has become law. This legal framework should be considered when drafting the tourism management framework.

2.9 THEORETICAL TOURISM MANAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

According to Keyser (2002), the tourism system is complex, comprising a number of sectors viz. market, destination, travel and marketing (see Figure 2.2). Furthermore, tourism operates in a social, environmental, political, economic and technological macro-environment. When formulating a management plan, the interdisciplinary perspective of tourism should be taken into consideration. This perspective is lacking in many park tourism plans.

FIGURE 2.2: Tourism system



Adapted from Keyser (2002:23)

The following suggested elements should constitute a structure for an integrated tourism management framework for the KNP or any other protected area.

2.9.1 Elements of the theoretical management framework

This tourism management framework is born from the adaptive management cycle with its seven steps of development (see 2.4.2) and the common framework within which evaluation and monitoring programmes to test management effectiveness can be implemented (see the IUCN Evaluation Framework in Table 2.5 (2.7.1)). When designing a tourism management framework it is imperative to include a vision, the current situation, intended outcomes, resources required, an implementation plan, monitoring and evaluation. The theoretical framework is suggested below and will be used to guide the framework in Chapter 6.

2.9.1.1 *Vision and strategic objectives*

- setting overall direction;
- reflecting and reinforcing general development objectives (in line with the objectives of the protected area); and
- management philosophy (sustainable tourism and adaptive management).

2.9.1.2 *Situation analysis (collecting synthesizing and interpreting data and information)*

- institutional arrangements, existing policies and plans, tourism product, tourism plant; and
- market/demand analysis.

2.9.1.3 *Planning of programmes (intended outcomes)*

- sensitive development/maintenance of infrastructure and products;
- setting criteria (indicators) to manage tourism impacts;
- tourist management (enforcement of regulations, enhancing tourist experience and tourist activity management process);
- product quality and service standards (indicators);
- marketing plan (business research/intelligence product segmentation, pricing policy, branding, marketing actions);
- setting financial targets (primary and secondary income);
- budget planning (capital and operational);
- linkages with the tourism industry; and
- tourism research.

2.9.1.4 Human resources development plan

- job analysis;
- recruitment and selection;
- human resource development;
- employee relations;
- occupational health and safety; and
- performance evaluation.

2.9.1.5 Implementation plan

- institutional arrangements;
- roles and responsibilities; and
- timeframes and resources.

2.9.1.6 Social responsibility

- communities owning land inside the park (e.g. Makuleke in northern KNP²³);
- communities who do not own land inside the park; and
- environmental education.

2.9.1.7 Monitoring and evaluation

- developing a Monitoring Plan with indicators, procedures, analysis methods and resources for implementation (IUCN Evaluation Framework);
- monitoring tourist impacts;
- monitoring service quality; and
- corporate governance and compliance with the PFMA (South Africa, 1999).

2.9.1.8 Review of Management Plan (5 years)

- adjustment of plan and learning (adaptive management principles).

2.9.2 Business plan

From this management framework an annual business plan with measurable targets or key performance areas will be developed (see 6.14 about business planning).

²³ The restitution process resulted in an agreement with SANParks returning land ownership to the Makuleke community after they were deprived of their land through the forced removal policy in 1969.

2.10 CONCLUSION

The objective of this chapter was to analyse protected area management systems and their management to illustrate benchmarks that could guide the development of a theoretical tourism management framework for the KNP. The chapter has revealed that there has been an evolution in the management systems of parks over decades. Whereas people were excluded in the classic management paradigm, the modern paradigm calls for an integrated approach to protected area management. Different systems ranging from co-management and biosphere reserves to transfrontier parks exist as part of the broadening of the scope of protected area management. The twin components of biodiversity conservation and public enjoyment are integrated through the individual protected area's ability to raise sufficient finance to manage its activities.

The relevance of ecotourism and sustainable tourism principles in providing human benefits to the public to make parks sustainable was emphasized. It was demonstrated that although profit is not the primary motive for establishing protected areas, such protected areas will not realize their primary objectives without a strong financial muscle and good governance. Tourism is a legitimate and legal function that could contribute immensely to the conservation of biological diversity in protected areas. Park management plans lack integrated tourism direction. Government does not have the capability to access capital funding for product development on a scale that would optimize returns on tourism opportunities.

Protected areas tend to be seen and managed as islands, ignoring the essential links with local communities, other stakeholders and the wider natural environment beyond their boundaries. Many of the existing protected areas do not measure the effectiveness of their management plans against set criteria to evaluate their progress. A theoretical framework to underpin the development of a tourism management framework was suggested.

In Chapter 3 the historical exposition of tourism in the KNP will be discussed within the management context of both KNP and SANParks, to draw lessons that will be applied in the proposed tourism management framework. The management structures of SANParks and the KNP will also add perspective on how tourism has been managed in the past to enable the study to make future improvements.