

**INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS IN THE MANAGEMENT  
OF THE GREAT LIMPOPO TRANSFRONTIER PARK**

**by**

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**MELLO DM**

## SUMMARY

### INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS IN THE MANAGEMENT OF THE GREAT LIMPOPO TRANSFRONTIER PARK

South Africa has entered into a number of agreements aimed at the establishment of transfrontier parks. One of these agreements establishes the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (GLTP) among South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The study on which the contents of this thesis are based was conducted during the period between 2003 and 2006. Chapter one of the thesis provides a general introduction, background to the area of study, objective of the of the GLTP, problem statement, research question, objectives of the study, limitations of the study, ethical requirements, research method, outline of chapters and the clarification of terms.

In chapter two the focus is on the requirements for effective and efficient management of natural resources. The study answers the question relating to the rationale for effective and efficient management of natural resources. Principles contained in *the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, *the National Environmental Management Act, 1998* and *the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997* are regarded as a basis for effective and efficient natural resources management. Adherence to ethical standards, management skills, research and information management, conservation awareness, education, training and development, effective communication are important pillars in managing natural resources effectively and efficiently. The control function which determines the extent to which the GLTP function effectively also receives attention. It is for this reason that control measures, governing and management structures for the GLTP are assessed.

The GLTP agreement is international in nature. The agreement gives rise to international governmental relations. Although the agreement will ultimately lead to the removal all fences separating the three countries, the sovereignty of these states is still protected. It is argued in this thesis that the establishment of the GLTP is a direct consequence of

globalisation and the African Renaissance. In a globalised world nature conservation problems crosses borders of individual states hence cooperation becomes necessary. South Africa's foreign policy and friendly relations with its neighbours was instrumental to the establishment of the GLTP. International institutions necessary to pursue the ideals of GLTP are the United Nations, World Bank, World Conservation Union and the Regional Office for Southern Africa, African Union and Southern African Development Community. Bilateral and multilateral relations between SA Mozambique and Zimbabwe further harnessed friendly relations after relations which were characterised by hostilities.

It is further argued in this thesis that intergovernmental relations are influenced by the nature of the state and system of government. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* and other laws provide a framework for the facilitation of different forms of intergovernmental relations and creation of coordinating structures. The role of different departments, intergovernmental relations structures, provinces and municipalities involved in the management of the GLTP are explored.

Extragovernmental relations is another sub-theme elaborated on in the study. The concept cooperative governance is analysed. Furthermore, the nature and extent of public participation in the management of natural resources also receives attention. The essence of community based natural resources management is explored with specific reference to the Makuleke Community which owns part of the land in the GLTP. Different forms of partnerships and the Black Economic Empowerment are discussed.

The last theme of the thesis focuses on tourism management in the GLTP. The role of international and national role players is analysed. The state of tourism in South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe as well as different options for revenue sharing are assessed. The economic significance of tourism and the challenges facing South Africa in tourism development receive attention. Finally, the thesis is concluded with findings and recommendations outlined in the last chapter.

## **Intergovernmental relations in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park**

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### **Abstract**

The study probes intergovernmental relations in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (GLTP). The GLTP is established by trilateral agreement among South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. Transfrontier parks are new phenomena in South Africa and Southern Africa. The novelty of the phenomena justifies the conduct of research with a view to uncover and add new knowledge to the study of Public Administration.

The focus of the thesis is on the different types of governmental relations necessary for the successful management of the GLTP. More emphasis in the thesis is on the contribution made by South Africa to the improvement of relations, successful management and development of the GLTP. The relations analysed in the thesis are international and national in nature. Furthermore, the essence of the sovereignty of the state, globalization, the African Renaissance, the contribution made by international institutions, provincial, and local government receive attention in the thesis. Tourism management, stakeholders, the state of tourism in the three countries and challenges facing South Africa and the GLTP in the promotion of tourism are assessed as tourism has become a significant growth area in the economies of most developing countries.

## **Key terms**

1. Intergovernmental relations
2. Great Limpopo
3. Transfontier park
4. Tourism
5. South Africa

## **Declaration**

I declare that the thesis, which I hereby submit for the degree *Doctor Administrationis* at the University of Pretoria is my own work and has not previously been submitted by me for a degree at this or any other tertiary institution.

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**David Mbatl Mello**

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## **CHAPTER ONE: GENERAL INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

This thesis reports on the results of the study titled “Intergovernmental relations in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park”. Although the study is about the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, the actual intention of the study is to probe the role of the South African government institutions, parastatal institutions and non-state actors in the development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, intergovernmental structures, and the effects of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park on South Africa. The establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is not based on any prior experience in Southern Africa. The novelty of this type of agreement in Southern Africa suggests that inconsistencies are likely to occur in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Chapter one provides a general introduction to the thesis. It provides a background to the study on intergovernmental relations in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Furthermore, this chapter outlines the problem statement and problem question, objectives of the study, significance of the study, limitations of the study, ethical requirements, research methodology, sequence of chapters, and the clarification of terms. Section 1.2 below provides a background to the area that is the focus of the study.

### **1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY**

Section 192(1) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* states that public administration must be governed by democratic values and principles. Furthermore, section 24 of the Bill of Rights provides that everyone has the right to an environment that is not harmful to their health and well-being and to have the environment protected, for the benefit of present and future generations. This implies that ecological degradation should be prevented while nature conservation needs to be promoted by the state, non-governmental organisations, community based organisations and members of the public.

The establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park represents one of the many attempts by South African government to fulfill the provisions of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* relating to nature conservation.

The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is a joint initiative between Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe. The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park links the Limpopo National Park in Mozambique, Kruger National Park in South Africa, Gonarezhou National Park, Manjinji Pan Sanctuary and Malipati Safari Area in Zimbabwe, as well as two areas between Kruger and Gonarezhou, namely the Sengwe communal land in Zimbabwe and the Mukuleke region in South Africa. The total surface area of the Park is 35 000 sq. km, 10 000 sq km is in Mozambique, 20 000 sq km is in South Africa and the remaining 5 000 sq km is in Zimbabwe (Transfrontier conservation areas, available at, [http://www.environment.gov.za/projProg/TFCAs/TFCA\\_contents.htm](http://www.environment.gov.za/projProg/TFCAs/TFCA_contents.htm). 19/11/2003). An illustration of the area covered by the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is attached as Annexure A.

The establishment of the Transfrontier Park is the first phase of creating a bigger transfrontier conservation area measuring approximately 100 000sq.km (Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, available at: <http://www.gkgpark.com/mainphp>. 12 August 2003). A distinction between a transfrontier park and a transfrontier conservation area is provided in sections 1.12.7 and 1.12.8 of this chapter respectively. Until 2001, the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park was known as the Gaza-Kruger-Gonarezhou Transfrontier Park (Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, available at: [http://www.environment.gov.za/projprog/tfcas/Limpopo/index\\_Limpopo.htm](http://www.environment.gov.za/projprog/tfcas/Limpopo/index_Limpopo.htm). 18/11/2003).

A memorandum of understanding to initiate the establishment of Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park was signed by Ministers of environment of South Africa, Mozambique, and Zimbabwe on 10 November 2000. On 9 December 2002 the three heads of state signed an international treaty to establish the great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Xai-Xai, Mozambique. The treaty was followed two days later by the removal of



part of the fence separating the Limpopo National Park and the Kruger National Park to symbolise the creation of what is to become the world's largest animal kingdom (Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, available at: <http://www.gkgpark.com/mainphp>. 12 August 2003).

The concept transfrontier park has been recently introduced in the discourse of nature conservation within South Africa and Southern Africa. The idea of a transfrontier park is, however, not new. According to Reyers (evaluating transboundary protected areas: achieving biodiversity targets, available at <http://www.tbpa.net/docs/WPCGovernance/BelindaReyers.doc> 16/07/2004) transfrontier parks can be traced as far back as 1925 when the Albert National Park was established by the Belgian colonial regime between the then Ruanda-Urundi and Congo. The idea has, however, gained popularity in recent years. According to Pienaar ( Personal interview 2005) the Portuguese had an idea of establishing a transfrontier park in the 60s and 70s. The idea and intention was thwarted by the civil war in Mozambique. In 1990, the political situation changed for the better. The World Conservation Union identified at least 70 potential protected areas in 65 countries in 1988. Although the establishment of a transfrontier park appears to be the latest trend between countries, the situation in each country is unique and, therefore, each transfrontier park is unique.

Furthermore, in 1990, Dr Rupert, President of World Wild Life Fund of South Africa arranged a meeting with Mozambique's President Chisano (van Zyl:[sa]). The purpose of their meeting was to discuss a possible link between some bioregions in South Africa, Mozambique, Swaziland and Zimbabwe. As a result of this meeting, the World Wildlife Foundation of South Africa was subsequently requested to undertake a feasibility study which it submitted to the Mozambican government in 1991 which was then submitted to the World Bank. Five years later the World Bank responded and came up with a report with the significant title "Transfrontier Conservation Areas Pilot and Institutional Strengthening Project"

Funding had been made available by, amongst others, the World Bank, the US and Japanese governments (Van Zyl [s.a]). This collaboration amongst governments and other non-state actors is an indication of the significance of different forms of governmental relations in the management of natural resources.

### **1.3 OBJECTIVES OF THE GREAT LIMPOPO TRANSFRONTIER PARK**

According to the Gaza-Kruger-Gonarezhou Transfrontier Park Agreement (vide Annexure B), the objectives for the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are to:

- foster transnational collaboration and co-operation among the parties in implementing ecosystem management through the establishment, development and management of the transfrontier park,
- promote the alliances in the management of biological natural resources by encouraging social, economic and other partnerships among the parties, private sector and local communities and non-governmental organisations,
- enhance the ecosystem integrity and natural ecological processes by harmonizing environmental management procedures across international boundaries and striving to remove artificial barriers impeding the natural movement of animals,
- develop frameworks and strategies whereby local communities can participate in and tangibly benefit from the management and sustainable use of natural resources that occur within the transfrontier park,
- facilitate the establishment and maintenance of a subregional economic base by way of appropriate development frameworks, strategies and work plans, and
- develop transborder ecotourism as a means for fostering regional socioeconomic development.

From the foregoing objectives it could be deduced that although conservation is an end, different forms of governmental relations are a means to this end. The collaboration between national governments, spheres of government in South Africa, parastatal

institutions, businesses, members of the public and non-governmental organizations is essential for the attainment of these objectives.

#### **1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT**

The construction of fences between South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe has become a formidable symbol of national sovereignty. However, these fences are human barriers which have disturbed the ecosystem and impacted negatively on its management in these three countries. These fences have cut through ecosystems and disturbed traditional migration routes of animals (Kahn, 2003. Breaking down borders in Africa, available at: <http://www.scidev.net/features>. 15/11/2006). The challenge brought by the erection of fences is further aptly captured by the address of former President Mandela on the occasion of the opening of the Gaza-Kruger-Gonarezhou Transfrontier Park (available at: [http://www.environment.gov.za/news/2001oct4\\_1/mandela](http://www.environment.gov.za/news/2001oct4_1/mandela). 19/11/2003) where he indicated that “approximately 100 years ago, Kruger National Park had no elephants as the population had been hunted to extinction. History shows that 30 elephants walked across the Shingwezi River from Mozambique to the Kruger National Park. These elephants are the great grandfathers and mothers of elephants found in the Kruger National Park today”. The establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park can be seen as an attempt to rectify the anomalies created by fences and uncoordinated management of natural resources among the three countries involved. A problem statement for this study is outlined below.

For the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, relevant stakeholders have to be involved to ensure effective and efficient management. The thesis examines the effects of the consultation and coordination processes on the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

## **1.5 RESEARCH QUESTION**

Were the relevant stakeholders sufficiently involved in negotiations to obtain effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park?

## **1.6 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

The objective of the study is to investigate the role of South Africa in dealing with problems relating to co-ordination of community participation and various governmental as well as non-governmental organisations that play a role in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Recommendations that can improve co-ordination in the management of Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park will be made at the end of the study. The effects of South Africa's intergovernmental relations on the management of an organisational structure that crosses the national boundaries will also be investigated to establish the administrative and managerial consequences.

## **1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

A study as reflected in the sequence of chapters has not been conducted before. The envisaged study will contribute to the literature on intergovernmental relations in the field of (P) public (A) administration.

## **1.8 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

Lutabingwa and Nethonzhe (2006:700) believe that the researcher has an obligation to make shortcomings known to his/her readers. It is for this reason that an attempt is made to highlight factors which have a bearing on the conclusions, findings and recommendations outlined in the last chapter.

The study focuses on an area which straddles the borders of three countries, namely South Africa, Mozambique, and Zimbabwe. Although reference is constantly made to the

three countries, the study mainly focuses on intergovernmental relations within the South African context. This suggests that the conclusions, findings and recommendations are limited and applicable to the Republic of South Africa. The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is going through a variety of development phases. Rapid changes make it imperative for one to indicate that the study was conducted during the period 2003 and 2006 and, therefore, the data collected and consequent conclusions, findings and recommendations are limited to the aforementioned period of study.

### **1.9 ETHICAL REQUIREMENTS**

Brynard and Hanekom (1997: 4; 2007: 6) mention confidentiality and honesty as the two most important ethical requirements for a researcher. Furthermore, Lutabingwa and Nethonzhe (2006:697) identify consent, potential harm, deception and privacy as ethical problems which require careful consideration by authors in the social sciences.

As it will be explained in the next section, primary sources of data were used in this study. These primary sources included individuals in key positions in government and parastatal institutions who were approached to participate as interviewees. These individuals were informed in writing about the objectives of the study and asked to participate in the study. In instances where participants wanted to withhold their identity, only designations were used in the citation of their contribution. In instances where interviewees wished to verify the accuracy of the author in citing their contributions, sections of the thesis where they were quoted were forwarded to them for consideration and further comments. This was done to ensure that adherence to ethical requirements is an integral part of a sound research methodology. Research methodology used in the study is further elaborated on in the next section.

## 1.10 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

There are various data collection techniques and procedures for the analysis of data can be followed. The following two subsections on research methodology describe the specific methods and procedures followed in the study.

### 1.10.1 Data collection

**Data was collected from both primary and secondary sources as described hereunder.**

**Primary data:** The collection of primary data, which is also known as empirical investigation, has played a crucial role in this study.

This investigation involves consulting primary information sources. It comprises:

- interviews with experienced and knowledgeable public officials and members of the public concerned and affected by the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park,
- speeches relating to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park by politicians and deliberations in legislative institutions; and
- consideration of agreements entered into by the various governments regarding the managerial implications of cross border co-operation.

**Secondary data:** It refers to the collection and the analysis of existing written (published and unpublished) information. It includes:

- published books on the public sector administration and management,
- published books on conservation/environmental management,
- previous research reports,
- published articles,
- current legislation (acts of Parliament, provincial and local government legislation, and white papers),
- journals,

- official documentation by the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, and
- the internet.

### **1.10.2 Data analysis**

Data has no meaning unless it is analysed and interpreted. The data obtained from the secondary sources will be compared to, and be evaluated against the data from primary sources in order to support the arguments presented in the thesis. The analysis of secondary data began before and while the interviews were still underway. This preliminary analysis enabled the researcher to redesign questions in order to focus on the central themes as the researcher continues interviewing. After the interview, the researcher began a more detailed and fine analysis of the interviewees' responses. This enabled the researcher to discover additional themes and concepts and then build towards an overall explanation. To finalise data analysis, the researcher put into one category all the material from all interviews that addresses one theme or concept. The material was compared with the categories to establish possible variations and nuances in meanings. Finally, the researcher compared the data across the categories to discover connections between themes with a view to integrate the themes and concepts into theory that offers an accurate and detailed interpretation of the research into governmental relations within the context of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

During the research, the survey method was used as a data gathering technique and the normative approach was adopted for the processing of data. According to Leedy (1989:141), the word survey is composed of two elements that indicate precisely what happens in the survey process. Sur- is a derivative of the Latin word super, meaning above, over, or beyond; the element - vey comes from the Latin verb videre, which means to look or to see. Thus, the word survey means to look or to see over or beyond the casual glance or the superficial observation.

The foregoing exposition implies that a survey study was conducted in which the “looking” may be done by means of interviews. The study also poses a normative approach to the question what the requirements should be for the effective and efficient management in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and the governmental relations? This question implies some projection of value judgements on to reality that is the current agreements on the joint management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

## **1.11 SEQUENCE OF CHAPTERS**

This thesis consists of seven interrelated chapters focusing on the same topic but from different dimensions. The contents of each chapter are described hereunder.

### **Chapter one: General introduction**

This chapter serves to introduce the thesis. It focuses on the background to the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as an area of study, problem statement and problem question, objectives of the study, significance of the study, limitations of the study, ethical requirements, research methodology and the sequence of chapters.

### **Chapter two: Requirements for effective and efficient management**

A theoretical overview of the principles and practices covering public sector administration and management is presented in this chapter. This is related in particular to managing structures that geographically fall within the boundaries of more than one independent state and more than one sphere of government.

The rationale for effective and efficient conservation management, adherence to ethical standards, management skills, research and information management, conservation awareness, education, training and development, communication, control and structures necessary for the exercise of control are subjects for discussion in chapter two.



### **Chapter three: International governmental relations**

This part of the thesis focuses on the sovereignty of the South African state, globalisation, South Africa's foreign policy, and international institutions, bilateral and multilateral relations.

### **Chapter four: Intergovernmental relations**

The relationship between the national, two provincial governments (Mpumalanga and Limpopo), Ehlanzeni and Mopani municipalities which are closer to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. This relationship is important for the successful management of the Park and is explored in greater detail.

### **Chapter five: Extra-governmental relations**

Extra-governmental relations explore the relations between governmental institutions involved in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and members of the public (including the Mukuleke community) as well as non-governmental organisations.

### **Chapter six: Tourism management in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park**

Chapter six focuses on the tourism theme in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. In chapter six an outline of the contribution of different role players in tourism management is explored. These role-players are the government, conservation agencies, South African Tourism Board, the private sector, World Tourism Organisation, World Travel and Tourism Council, and the Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa. The state of tourism in South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe is also assessed in chapter six. Different revenue sharing options in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are discussed.

Lastly, the economic significance of tourism and the tourism challenges facing South Africa are elaborated on.

## **Chapter seven: Conclusions, findings and recommendations**

Chapter seven is the last chapter of this thesis. It is made up of conclusions on the study, findings and recommendations which can be used to improve governmental relations in the administration and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

### **1.12 CLARIFICATION OF TERMS**

Different terms and words are used differently depending on the context. It therefore becomes necessary for the study to clarify key terms in the study. The following subsections focus on those terms that are used frequently in the study. Other terms which are confined to a specific chapter are defined whenever it becomes necessary. The terms clarified in this section are Public Administration, effectiveness, efficiency, environmental management, governmental relations, management, transfrontier park, transfrontier conservation area Peace Park Foundation conservation, biodiversity, ecosystem and sustainable development.

#### **1.12.1 Public Administration and public administration**

The origin of the subject Public Administration can be traced back to an article written by Woodrow Wilson in 1887. The article titled “The Study of Administration” attempts to distinguish between Administration as a field of study and administration as a field of work. According to Wilson (1987: 10), “administration is the most obvious part of government; it is government action; it is the executive, the operative, the most visible side of government, and is as old as government itself”. Wilson (1987: 13) further describes administration as “the activity of the state in individual and small things”. Pauw (1999: 22) describes public administration as the organised, non-political, executive

functions of the state. Cloete (1986:1) defines administration as an activity to be found where two or more people take a joint action to achieve an objective.

The foregoing definitions by Wilson and Cloete (1986), although made within the context of Public Administration, are too broad as administration (with the omission of public) takes place within both the public and private sector. However, Cloete (1995: 61) corrects this oversight by defining public administration as the collection of functions or activities performed by officials employed in a public institution such as a state. Graham and Hays as quoted in Stillman (1992: 2) define public administration as a generic expression for the entire group of activities that are involved in the formulation and implementation of public policies.

All definitions cited above are somewhat similar. They all emphasise that public administration is the collection of non-political functions which are performed by public officials. These definitions further indicate the distinctiveness of public administration and politics.

### **1.12.2 Effectiveness**

The word effective can be traced back to Old French (*effectif*) and Latin (*effectivus*). Both these languages used the word effective as having the intended or expected effect or serving the purpose (The Barnhart Dictionary of Etymology 1998). Effectiveness refers to the extent to which a public institution succeeds in attaining its predetermined objectives (Cloete 1998: 110).

The two definitions in the above paragraph put emphasis on “intended effect” and “success in attaining objectives”. They concur that effectiveness is about the achievement of intended results. The two definitions are a further testimony that the word effective has not changed meaning when it was borrowed from languages such as French and Latin. Similarly, the word has not changed meaning or been distorted over a period of time. In view of the foregoing definitions, the word effective will be used within the context of

this thesis to refer to the ability of public sector institutions in collaboration with non-state actors to achieve intended objectives.

### 1.12.3 Efficiency

According to the Etymological Dictionary of English (1966) the word efficiency has a Latin origin. The Latin word *efficientem* means to execute, accomplish or produce. The Barnhart Dictionary of Etymology (1998), states that the word efficiency (*efficientem*) has been borrowed through Old French from Latin. The word *efficientem* means to produce immediate effect. The Grolier International Dictionary (1981) provides two definitions of the word efficiency. *Firstly*, it defines efficiency as the ratio of the effective or useful output to the total input in any system. *Secondly* efficiency is defined as acting or producing effectively with a minimum of waste, expense or unnecessary effort or exhibiting a high ratio of output to input. Furthermore, Gildenhuis (1993: 501) defines efficiency as the sparing utilisation of resources or use of minimum input to get maximum output.

Definitions advanced by the Etymological Dictionary of English (1966) and the Barnhart Dictionary of Etymology (1998) are somewhat lacking in clarity. Both definitions use the word “produce”. Producing immediate effect or accomplishment of result is similar to the description of the word effectiveness hence the result could be confusing relating to the distinction between the words effective and efficiency. However, the latter definition by the Grolier International Dictionary (1981) and Gildenhuis (1993) is more precise and clearer. They both use the input/output ratio to describe efficiency. The use of less input to achieve maximum results is a more appropriate definition of efficiency as it emphasises the sparing use of scarce resources. Therefore, the word efficiency, whenever it is used in this thesis must be understood to mean the sparing use of resources (human, financial, raw material, natural and non-renewable resources).

#### **1.12.4 Environmental management**

Environmental management refers to a multi-layered process in which different types of environmental managers interact with the environment and with one another to pursue a livelihood (Wilson and Bryant 2002: 5). Section 1 of the *National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act, 2003 (Act 57 of 2003)* defines management of a protected area as the control, protection, conservation, maintenance, and rehabilitation of that area with due regard to the use and extraction of biological resources, community-based practices and benefit sharing activities in the area.

Wilson and Bryant's definition stresses interaction amongst different types of environmental managers for purposes of pursuing livelihoods. This definition does not limit management to people appointed due to specific skills. It includes all actors who are concerned about the conservation of natural resources. The second definition by the *National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act, 2003* answers the question what does the management of natural resources entail?

A synthesis of the two definitions gives rise to a definition which is appropriate for this thesis. Environmental management will, for purposes of this thesis, refer to all efforts by public sector institutions and officials, members of the public, non-governmental organizations, and the private sector aimed at the control, protection, conservation, maintenance, rehabilitation and sustainable use of natural resources for the improvement of the quality of life.

#### **1.12.5 Management**

Management refers to the process or activity of carrying out the task of ensuring that a number of diverse activities are performed in such a way that a defined objective is achieved (Huges 1994: 50). Furthermore, Fox and Meyer (1995: 77) define management as that part of public administration where a person who, within a general, political, social, economic, technological, cultural environments and specific environment is

charged with certain functions such as policy-making, planning, organising, leading, control and evaluation.

It is important to distinguish between environmental management and management. The contextual meaning attributed to environmental management sets it functionally apart from management. Environmental management as defined in the preceding section is broad and not wholly dependent on skills although the involvement of skilled officials is essential to provide guidance to individuals and institutions interested in managing natural resources. The definition of management above refers to skilled employees in the public sector (for example, SANParks and the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism) involved in the day to day performance of managerial functions (policy-making, planning, organizing, leading, control and evaluation) and the application of managerial skills.

#### **1.12.6 Governmental relations**

Governmental relations refer to the relationship between governmental institutions. Adlem and Du Pisani as quoted in Hattingh (1998: 19) further classify governmental relations into three categories, namely intergovernmental relations or relations between governmental structures; intra-governmental relations or governmental relations between internal government structures on either of the three spheres of government; and extra-governmental relations or relations between a government structure and the community.

Cameron in Makhanya (1999: 349) defines intergovernmental relations as the geographical division of powers among the various spheres of government. Section 1 of the *Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 2005* defines intergovernmental relations as relationships that arise between different governments or between organs of state from different governments in the conduct of their affairs.

Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, Mathebula, van Dijk and Mello (2002: 8) describe intergovernmental relations as all the interdependent relations amongst the different

spheres of government. These relations further include the coordination of public policies determined by the different legislative and executive institutions of the different government structures. These relations take place at both political and administrative levels. The effectiveness and efficiency of service delivery by public and parastatal institutions depend on the relationships amongst the different institutions involved in related activities such as nature conservation.

### **1.12.7 Transfrontier park**

Transfrontier park is an area comprising two or more areas, which border each other across international boundaries and whose primary focus is wildlife conservation. Authorities responsible for the respective areas formally agree to manage the areas as one integrated unit according to a streamlined management plan. The authorities also undertake to remove all human barriers within the Transfrontier park so that animals can move around freely (Transfrontier conservation areas: Available at: [http://www.environment.gov.za/ProjProg/TFCAs/TFCA\\_contents.htm](http://www.environment.gov.za/ProjProg/TFCAs/TFCA_contents.htm) 19/11/2004)

The perusal of literature on transfrontier parks indicates that the foregoing definition is universally accepted. However, the above definition is not entirely appropriate for the great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The use of the word authorities, in particular, may be disputed. The word authorities refer to the power that be or establishments. The lexical meaning of the word authorities is still vague. For the aforementioned definition to be appropriate for the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, the word authorities needs to be replaced with two words, namely governments and communities.

In view of the foregoing exposition, the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park can be defined as an area comprising four areas which border each other across the South African, Mozambican, Zimbabwean borders and the Makuleke communal area. It is an agreement entered into between the South African, Mozambican and Zimbabwean governments for purposes of wild life conservation through a joint management plan aimed at removing all human made barriers to enable animals to move freely. The South African government

acted on behalf of the Makuleke Community. The nouns Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and Kruger National Park are used in this thesis. The use of the noun Kruger National Park is used whenever reference is made to the South African part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

### **1.12.8 Transfrontier conservation area**

A transfrontier conservation area is a cross-border region whose different component areas have different conservation statuses such as national parks, private game reserves, communal natural resource management areas and hunting concession areas. Although fences, major highways, railway lines and other barriers separate the various parts of the conservation area, these areas are jointly managed for long term sustainable use of natural resources. As opposed to the transfrontier parks, free movement of animals between the different parts that constitute a transfrontier conservation area is not possible (Transfrontier conservation areas: Available at: [http://www.environment.gov.za/ProjProg/TFCAs/TFCA\\_contents.htm](http://www.environment.gov.za/ProjProg/TFCAs/TFCA_contents.htm) 19/11/2003).

The addition of the Makuleke Communal area in the definition of the transfrontier park gives the impression that the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is already a transfrontier conservation area. In view of this statement, it becomes necessary to distinguish between a transfrontier park and a transfrontier conservation area. A transfrontier park, due to the international nature of the contract and involvement of borders which are assets of independent states, only involves sovereign states. Communities whose land is incorporated in such an agreement are represented by their governments. A transfrontier conservation area is a phase which follows immediately after the establishment of a transfrontier park. In effect it refers to the extension of the agreement to involve communal and privately owned conservation areas.



### **1.12.9 Peace Park Foundation**

Peace Park Foundation is an international partnership working to promote wildlife conservation, ecotourism and job creation in Southern Africa (Transfrontier conservation areas and the peace parks foundation: Available at: <http://www.environment.gov.za/Enviro-Info/env/peace.htm> 18/11/2004).

### **1.12.10 Conservation**

Conservation refers to the preservation of the natural environment and wildlife or careful use of resources (Concise Oxford Dictionary).

### **1.12.11 Biodiversity**

In terms of section 1 of the *National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act, 2004 (Act 10 of 2004)* biodiversity refers to the variability among living organisms from all sources including terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and ecological complexes of which they are part of and also include diversity within species, between species and of ecosystems. The Concise Oxford Dictionary defines biodiversity as the variety of plant and animal life in the world or in a particular habitat.

### **1.12.12 Ecosystem**

In terms of section 1 of the *National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act, 2004*, ecosystem is defined as a dynamic complex of animal and micro-organism communities and their non-living environment interacting as a functional unit. Furthermore, ecosystem is the biological community of interacting organisms and their physical environment (Concise Oxford Dictionary).

### 1.12.13 Sustainable development

The phenomenon sustainable development consists of two words, namely sustainable and development. Firstly, the word sustainable will be analysed and then development will also be defined.

The *National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act, 2004* defines the word sustainable as the use of resources in a way that would not lead to long term decline, disrupt the ecological integrity of the ecosystem and to ensure the continued use to meet the needs and aspirations of present and future generations of people. According to Fox and Van Rooyen (2004: vii) sustainability only became a serious part of development in 1987. In the early 1980s, the development debate was insignificant in South Africa as attention was focussed on the escalating struggle and the increasing degree of repression (Munslow, FitzGerald and McLennan 1997: 3). The 1990s were characterised by a growing awareness and an improvement of the political situation in South Africa. The World Summits on Sustainable Development held in Rio de Janeiro in 1992 and Johannesburg in 2002 further popularised the word sustainability.

To sustain, according to Malan (2004: 102), means to keep going without interruption. Malan further emphasises the importance of adding an adjective to its meaning. Malan's assertion that an adjective needs to be added to the term sustainable is appropriate as the term can be used in many fields. In this study sustainability refers to the use and management of natural resources.

Fox and Meyer (1995:36) define development as all actions aimed at improving the quality of life of all people. Development can be viewed as planned change which relate to interventions meant to improve the quality of biodiversity, ecosystem and infrastructure.

## **1.13 CONCLUSION**

The aim of this chapter was to introduce the thesis. Apart from the outline of the background to the study and objectives of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, chapter one represents a plan which describes the process which was followed in conducting the study. The plan starts with a problem statement and research question which are the nucleus of the study. Furthermore, the objectives and significance of the study are outlined. Limitations of the study, ethical requirements, research methodology are essential as they ensure that the study is scientifically sound and conclusions, findings and recommendations are acceptable. The sequence of chapters provides a summary of the contents of each of the succeeding chapters. Finally, the clarification of terms attempts to avoid ambiguity and lack of clarity by defining concepts and thereby not leaving the interpretation of words to the imagination of the reader. The next chapter shifts the focus to the effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

## **CHAPTER TWO: REQUIREMENTS FOR EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT MANAGEMENT**

### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

The public expects state institutions and parastatal institutions responsible for the management of natural resources such as those found in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park to be managed effectively and efficiently. The effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is aimed at preserving the ecosystem for future generations. It is, therefore, necessary for one to investigate the basic requirements for effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as the establishment of transfrontier parks is of recent origin in Southern African Development Community (SADC) and points to the evolution of a unique dimension of public administration and management.

This chapter focuses on the rationale for effective and efficient public management; the principles for effective and efficient management; management skills; research and information management; adherence to ethics; conservation awareness, education, training and development; communication; control and management structures for the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

### **2.2 RATIONALE FOR EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT CONSERVATION MANAGEMENT**

The overarching reason for preserving the environment as indicated above is the well being of the current and future generations. Earth and its inhabitants are faced with a deteriorating environment in spite of the abundance of environmental philosophy, laws and regulations. Only 8% of the earth's water resources are fit for human consumption. The earth's environment is the only place in the known universe that sustains life. If it

should lose its ability, humankind as species, together with all other forms of life on planet earth will cease to exist. Contrary to this scary reality, humankind appears to continue destroying the natural environment on which humankind is totally dependent (Nealer 1998: 68, 69).

It is inevitable that the needs of the community will always be greater than the resources available to satisfy those needs. This characteristic of the human society is evident when the population increases and exerts more pressure on the available resources (Cloete 1998: 110) such as land. The scarcity of natural resources and the fact that most of them are not easy to replenish compels public institutions, parastatal institutions and members of the public to use and manage such resources sparingly. Furthermore, the South African public service must remain a body of persons of which South Africans can be proud of. Effective and efficient public management will instil pride in the eyes of members of the public. For this reason, service delivery must be continually modernized, improved and directed towards the interest of citizens. The public service is expected to simplify and modernize its management and administrative systems and processes to make them more efficient and cost effective (Kroukamp 2001: 27).

Efforts to modernise service delivery in South Africa do not focus on reducing costs only. Rather, they are aimed at ensuring that South Africans receive an ever improving mix of government services that reflect their requirements, and aimed at ensuring that the government provides these services from a stable expenditure base. The design and delivery of public services must be oriented towards the citizen and not towards the needs of the public service, current management styles or outmoded service delivery processes (Kroukamp, 2001: 27-28).

The rationale for effective and efficient conservation management necessitates meticulous adherence to the principles for effective and efficient public administration and management as discussed hereunder.

## 2.3 PRINCIPLES FOR EFFECTIVE AND EFFICIENT PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT

Section 195 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* makes provision for basic values and principles meant to govern public administration (that is, administration on the three spheres of government, organs of state and public enterprises). The aforementioned values which are also applicable to the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park include, amongst others, the following:

- a high standard of professional ethics,
- efficient, economic and effective use of resources,
- development oriented public administration,
- impartial, fair and equitable service delivery,
- responsiveness to people's needs, and
- public participation, accountability, and transparency,

In addition to the foregoing provisions of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, the *National Environmental Management Act, 1998* (Act 107 of 1998), prescribe the following principles for environmental management:

- environmental management must place the community and their needs at the forefront of its concern, and serve their physical, psychological, developmental, cultural and social interests equitably,
- development must be socially, environmentally, and economically sustainable,
- environmental management must be integrated, acknowledging that all elements of the environment are linked and interrelated, and it must take into account the effects of decisions on all aspects of the environment and all people in the environment by pursuing the selection of the best practicable environmental option,
- environmental justice must be pursued in the interest of all, including the disadvantaged,

- equitable access to environmental resources,
- responsibility for environmental health and safety consequences of a policy or project,
- the protection of all interested and affected parties including the vulnerable and disadvantaged,
- decisions must take into account the interests, needs and values of interested and affected parties,
- community well being and empowerment must be promoted through environmental education, the raising of environmental awareness, the sharing of knowledge and experience,
- decisions must be taken in an open and transparent manner and access to information be provided in terms of the applicable law,
- there must be intergovernmental co-ordination and harmonization of policies, legislation and actions relating to the environment,
- actual or potential conflicts of interest between organs of state should be resolved through conflict resolution procedures,
- global and international responsibilities relating to the environment must be discharged in the national interest,
- environment is held in public trust for the people, the beneficial use of environmental resources must serve the public interest and the environment must be protected as the people's common heritage, and
- the vital role of women and youth in environmental management and development must be recognized and their full participation be promoted.

The *White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery 1997* (Also known as the *Batho Pele White Paper*) is relevant to both the wider public sector which include parastatal institutions such as the SANParks, the South African Tourism Board, and the South African National Biodiversity Institute. *The White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery, 1997* suggests eight *Batho Pele* Principles which are crucial for the improvement of service delivery. The word *Batho Pele* is a South African Sotho word

which means people first. The following Principles are outlined in the White Paper on Transforming Public Service Delivery:

- **Consultation:** In terms of this principle, users of public services must be consulted about the level and quality of services they receive. SANParks provides accommodation to local and foreign tourists visiting the South African part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Feedback from tourists can help SANParks to improve its service. However, there are no means for tourists to voice their dissatisfaction about service, suggest improvements and compliment where service has surpassed their expectations (personal observation).
- **Service standards:** customers should be told what level and quality of services they will receive so that they are aware of what to expect.
- **Access:** Equal access to natural resources found in the Kruger National Park is essential as they are national assets to be enjoyed by all. The service provided by SANParks is different from other public services as the service cannot be brought where most members of the public live. Access, therefore, implies that members of the public have to travel to the Kruger National Park. Access is particularly important for poorer members of the public. It is, therefore, important for SANParks to be mindful of this principle whenever tariffs are being revised.
- **Courtesy:** All customers need to be treated with respect and consideration.
- **Information:** Customers should be given full, accurate information they are entitled to receive. SANParks is a public entity and therefore it has to be transparent. Although SANParks has a website which aims to inform members of the public about its activities, not all members of the public have access to the internet. This is particularly applicable to citizens who live near the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.
- **Openness and transparency:** Customers need to be informed how SANParks, Department of environmental Affairs and Tourism, the South



African Tourism Board, and the South African National Biodiversity institute are run.

- **Redress:** If a customer is unhappy with the standard of service delivery, such a customer should be offered an apology, full explanation and a speedy and effective remedy. When complaints are made, customers should receive a sympathetic, positive response.
- **Value for money.** Services must be provided in an economic and efficient manner. This principle applies to customers as well as taxpayers who are not necessarily the users of services provided by SANParks.

Naidoo and Kuye (2005: 630) propose a hybrid framework that caters for sensitivities of culture, gender, religion, and ethnic origin, socio-economic and political differences. This framework suggests flexibility in the implementation of the *Batho Pele* and other principles. The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park caters for the needs of the foreign tourists' sensitivity relating to culture, religion, and ethnic origin.

Du Toit and Van der Waldt (1997:86) describe principles as norms directing the conduct of people, communities, society and government. Adherence to these principles is mandatory as they are enforceable through sanctions against employees. As the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* is the supreme law and, consequently, its contravention or contravening legislation proclaimed in accordance with it may lead to sanctions for a public official or an action or lack thereof being declared unconstitutional.

There seems to be agreement between different authors in Public Administration regarding what constitutes the principles of public administration. Du Toit and Van der Waldt (1997: 87), Coetzee (1988:58-69), Cloete (1998:91-114) and Hanekom (1995:18-19) identify three principles for public administration, namely, guidelines from body politic, guidelines from community values, and legal rules. Tshikwatamba (2004: 259-268) agrees with the foregoing principles relating to community values and further adds an African dimension to these principles. In his attempt to contextualize the guidelines from community values, Tshikwatamba (2004: 260-268) compares *ubuntu* with

thoroughness, collectivism with balanced decision, traditionalism with fairness and reasonableness, oral tradition with effectiveness and efficiency, and spiritualism with Christian values.

Furthermore, Tshikwatamba (2004:260) emphasizes that community values should be understood within the context of African communities and not the African continent as there are differences between communities in Africa. It could be argued that there will be value differences between the Mozambican, South African and Zimbabwean communities on natural resource management. These differences necessitate compromise between the three countries on matters of mutual interest in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Guidelines from the body politic suggest that the legislative authority in South Africa, for instance, has the authority to make laws which eventually guide public administration. However, the administration of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is different from the application of legislative policies by an ordinary state department. The management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park depends on the guidance and leadership from ministers who are members of three independent legislatures (that is, Mozambican, South African, and Zimbabwean parliaments). The foregoing suggests the existence of a trilateral body politic as political ideologies of the ruling parties in the three countries are different. The most important aspect of this emerging collaborative management is the reconciliation of the differences for purposes of managing the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park effectively. The adherence to ethical standards will further contribute to the effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

## **2.4 ADHERENCE TO ETHICAL STANDARDS**

Nealer (1998: 70), Fuggle and Rabie (1999:7) raise an important question “why should we conserve the environment?”. This is a question based on what is good, right, or obligatory, an ethical question. Before 1980, the ethical basis for environmental conservation was entirely utilitarian-conservation, primarily based on the earth’s utility to

humans. From a religious point of view, Nealer argues that as the earth has been created by God, it has the right to exist beyond its utility to humans.

The Bible does not contain detailed guidelines regarding environmental conservation. It is for this reason that human beings are given some injunction regarding their relationship with nature. They are to be fruitful and increase in number; fill the earth and subdue it; rule over the fish of the sea and the birds of the air and over every living creature that moves on the ground. The instruction to fill the earth does not give human beings *carte blanche* to expand their numbers indefinitely. It is implied that once the earth is full, population growth should cease or be carefully controlled so that settlement developments do not expand into natural habitats. The question as to when is the earth “full” is relative and therefore requires human beings to apply their minds to it. Furthermore, God’s placing of nature under human control is not equivalent to the right to unlimited exploitation and destruction of biodiversity and natural resources. Human beings exercise their control under delegated responsibility from God. Human beings should only see themselves as the trustees or custodians who are in turn accountable to God for their actions in relation to nature. God has therefore made provision within nature for essential human needs and not for greed (Fuggle and Rabie 1999: 9.)

Conservation and management of natural resources have a large altruistic-moral element. The life span of a human is such that he/she can be an irresponsible exploiter of the earth’s resources. The ecological and economic consequences of many undisciplined uses of the earth’s resources are endured by succeeding generations. Furthermore, most of the natural resources do not have a market value (Bennett 1983: 2). It is against the foregoing argument that state intervention in the management of natural resources in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park becomes an obligation. The legislature in South Africa contributes to the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park by passing legislation which will guide the actions of all stakeholders. An example of such legislation is the *National Environmental Management Act, 1998*.

The laws designed to regulate environmental degradation are products of 300 years of efforts to conserve the physical environment, the first known such law came into effect in 1864 when the United States Congress passed an act preserving the Yosemite Valley in California. In South Africa, *Placaats* were promulgated within five years of Jan van Riebeeck's settlement in the Cape to protect trees and gardens against destruction and drinking water against pollution. This action was, as Nealer (1998: 70) argues, the basic survival tact. The *National Parks Act* was promulgated in 1926. The objective of the *National Parks Act, 1926* was to protect the biodiversity of South Africa.

Laws can be seen as standards because they are prescriptive in nature. Laws regulate human behaviour in relation to nature. Furthermore, laws prescribe sanctions for non-adherence to existing standards. The enforcement of laws requires skilled and knowledgeable public managers to advise politicians regarding changes that may be necessary as a result of changing circumstances.

## 2.5 MANAGEMENT SKILLS

The management of public parks could be the responsibility of either the private sector or the public sector. Private companies can provide management services for publicly owned parks. If part of a park such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier is managed by a parastatal institution (South African National Parks), it is necessary to give more flexibility to park managers so that they can act as entrepreneurs or businessmen/ women themselves. They should consider their operations as part of an enterprise, i.e. an economic enterprise that is adding value to the national economy. The managers need to be provided the latitude to charge fees from tourists to invest in the financial viability of their areas (who will fund protected areas? Available at: [http://www.safrika.info/ess\\_info/sa-glance/sustainable/parks-funding.htm](http://www.safrika.info/ess_info/sa-glance/sustainable/parks-funding.htm). 22/01/2004).

To manage a public institution successfully, senior public officials such as managers of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park must possess specific public management skills. Fox, Shwella and Wissink (1991) identify decision-making, communication, the

management of change, management of conflict and negotiation as skills that are crucial for a public manager.

Decisions of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park Joint Management Board are based on consensus. Although equal benefits to the three countries should be the main principle in decision-making, representatives of the South African government in the Joint Management Board should be very skilful in making inputs which will in turn result in the effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Although managers of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park may have all the skills discussed above, organizing and coordination of their administration are necessary for the achievement of predetermined objectives.

## **2.6 RESEARCH AND INFORMATION MANAGEMENT**

Public institutions need to conduct research in order to base their policies and other managerial decisions on information that is sound and has been scientifically obtained. Section 50 of the *National Environment Management: Biodiversity Act, 2004* stipulates that the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism must promote research done by the South African National Biodiversity Institute and other institutions on biodiversity conservation, sustainable use, protection and conservation of indigenous biological resources. Research relating to biodiversity conservation includes, amongst others:

- collection and analysis of information,
- assessment of strategies and techniques for biodiversity conservation,
- the determination of biodiversity conservation needs and priorities, and
- the sustainable use, protection and conservation of indigenous biological species.

According to Pillay (2003: 4), South Africa is moving fast into the information super highway or the information society. Gildenhuys, Fox and Wissink (1991: 167) argue that information is one of the underestimated resources, more especially its collection and dissemination. Information helps managers to make sound decisions which will in turn

contribute to the effective and efficient management of an institution e.g. the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Managers of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park need to have sufficient information regarding endangered species, latest methods to conserve them and the number of tourists as well as the perceptions of tourists regarding hospitality, safety and management of the park.

Despite the importance of research and information management in the 21<sup>st</sup> century, many protected area practitioners lack access to technology, knowledge, lessons learned and best practice models for effective and adaptive management (WPC outputs: The Durban Accord, available at [www.iucn.org/wpc2003](http://www.iucn.org/wpc2003)). It is incumbent upon the management of transfrontier parks such as the Great Limpopo to use information and communication technologies to publicise their successes and failures to enable them to learn from each other. In this way managers can avoid repeating mistakes made by their counterparts and predecessors. Sharing information by managers of different transfrontier parks can be effected through workshops and seminars.

Decisions made in the public sector can have far reaching consequences. Incomplete information is often the main cause of wrong decisions that leads to poor management. Incomplete information is mainly due to two factors, namely the incompetence of staff collecting and processing information and the unavailability of information (Roux, Brynard, Botes and Fourie 1997: 242). As a result the challenge is to train officials working in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in research and information management.

As has already been indicated above, South Africa is moving fast into what can be described as the information super highway. The challenge for managers, including managers of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in particular is to adapt to the use of information and communication technologies in the management of information. Research and information management in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are necessary for two reasons. *Firstly*, information is used to conserve the ecology of the

park. *Secondly*, the information is used for the benefit of tourism (i.e. the improvement of services rendered to tourists).

Population viability analysis is a process of identifying the dangers faced by species and evaluating the likelihood that it will persist in future. Population viability analysis is often oriented towards the conservation and management of rare and threatened species with a view to improve their chances of survival. The short term objective is to minimise the risk of extinction. The longer term objective is to promote conditions in which species retain their potential for evolutionary change without extensive management. Population viability analysis may be used to address planning research and data collection, assessment of vulnerability, ranking management options (e.g. reintroduction, captive breeding and habitat rehabilitation (A short introduction to population viability analysis, available at: <http://www.ramas.com/pva.htm> 06/08/2004).

Another important technique which could be used for effective and efficient information management in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is the geographical information system. When the habitat requirements of a species include several factors, the information about habitat requirements may be combined by computer maps of each required habitat characteristic, using a geographic information system. This allows park managers to observe the habitat patches as required by species (A short introduction to metapopulation models and Geographic Information System, available at: <http://www.ramas.com/pva.htm> 06/08/2004).

Van der Merwe (1992: 114) believes that the availability of information relating to economy, efficiency and effectiveness of services is necessary. For instance for one to measure the level of service delivery, one can use suggestion boxes to assess the level of satisfaction among tourists who visit the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Effective information management will result in effectiveness in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park if it is linked to conservation awareness, education, training and development.

## **2.7 CONSERVATION AWARENESS, EDUCATION, TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT**

Van Rooyen (2002:142) lists four public policy focus areas for the attainment of sustainable development. The cognitive approach is one of the four policy focus areas. The cognitive approach attempts to create environmental awareness in people's minds. It is believed that if people are educated to think about the negative consequences of their actions on the environment, they will behave differently towards it. This view is supported by Sterling (2001: 12) who states that it is the change of mind on which change towards sustainability depends; the difference of thinking stands between a sustainable or chaotic future. *"No problem can be solved from the same consciousness that created it. We need to learn to see the world anew"* (Einstein is quoted by Sterling 200: 12)

Jeppe and van Baalen (1995: 34) believe that it is necessary to improve knowledge, understanding and sensitivity of every individual by formal and informal education and dissemination of information. Jeppe and van Baalen further add that the private and public sectors, especially at local sphere, have a responsibility and the ultimate aim must be to develop a nation-wide environmental ethic and personal accountability.

The concepts awareness, education, training and development are closely related and often confused in their meaning. It is therefore necessary to clarify these concepts within the context of this thesis. Awareness is a state of having sufficient knowledge about something. Within the context of this thesis, awareness refers to all the activities which are aimed at increasing the knowledge of members of the public about the importance of taking care of their environment which includes the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Education refers to activities directed at providing the knowledge, skills, moral values, and understanding required in the normal course of life. The approach therefore focuses on a wide range of activities rather than on providing knowledge and skills for a limited field or activity (Nel 2001: 467). Training is a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge, skills or behaviour through learning experience in order to achieve effective performance in an activity or a range of activities. Its purpose is to develop the abilities of the individual and to satisfy the current and future needs of the organization (Nel 2001:



467). Development focuses on future jobs in an organisation. As the individual career progresses, new skills and abilities are required.

### **2.7.1 Conservation awareness**

According to Fox (2004: 71) prior to the late 1960s, most people did not pay sufficient attention to the environmental consequences of their decisions and actions. Towards the late 1960s groups of people known as environmental activists emerged. These groups were mainly concerned with conserving the land and its resources.

Conservation awareness is important for environmental sustainability. There are a number of ways through which members of the public can be made aware of the importance of natural resources. Awareness campaigns can take the form of radio and television programmes, magazines, and handbooks on the environment can also be made available to schools, tertiary institutions and companies. Institutions such as the Southern African Research and Documentation Centre, South African National Parks, and the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism could play a significant role in the design and dissemination of material for environmental awareness (Mdava, T. environmental awareness growing in SADC, Available at: <http://www.sardc.net/editorial/sanf/1999/03/09-03-1999-nf2.htm>. 5/01/2005).

Community based organizations have a significant role to play in increasing environmental awareness. The success of community based organizations such as Zimbabwe's Communal Area Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) and the Zambian Administrative Management Design (ADAME) are testimonies of the successful environmental awareness campaigns in Southern Africa. Both CAMPFIRE and ADAME represent an effort to integrate a multitude of desires for increased conservation with the harsh reality of a rapidly expanding human population, expanding marginal agriculture and increasing rural poverty. CAMPFIRE aims to provide rural communities with the administrative control and socio-economic incentives to pursue locally enforced conservation, thus allowing overextended state conservation

resources to be supplemented by a more effective and equitable system of “conservation from below”. The ADAME programme empowers communities with the economic power that manifests itself in recognition of other developmental messages such as family planning (Mdava, T. environmental awareness growing in SADC, Available at: <http://www.sardc.net/editorial/sanf/1999/03/09-03-1999-nf2.htm>. 5/01/2005)

The South African National Parks has increasingly focused on environmental education and awareness among black school children since the mid 1990. This is the realization that only fifteen percent of black people visit national parks in South Africa. Since 1997, South African National Parks has conducted workshops at 51 schools. Many of these schools subsequently formed conservation youth clubs. South African National Parks also employs village elders to impart indigenous knowledge of the environment. South African National Parks has up to about R3 924 000 a year to spend on its education and awareness programmes and relies heavily on the private sector and conservation groups for financial assistance (Hofstatter, S. Environment South Africa: Making Greens out of Blacks and Whites. Available at: <http://www.ipsnews.net/africa/interna.asp?idnews=26282>. 05/01/2005.)

### **2.7.2 Education**

Sterling (2001: 21) argues that there is a need for a paradigm shift in education for sustainable development. “The volume of educational programmes continues to increase, yet so do pollution, exhaustion of resources, and the dangers of ecological catastrophe. If still more education is to save us, it would have to be education of a different kind: an education that takes us into the depth of things” (EF Schumacher as quoted in Sterling 2001:21).

A number of organizations such as the Green Peace and Keep South Africa Beautiful have been established to promote education to all sectors of the society on environmental conservation (Responses with regard to the natural environment, available at: <http://ceroi.net/reports/johannesburg/csoe/html/nonjava/Conservation/natural/response...>

22/01/2004). Other organizations responsible for educating people about the importance of the environment are, amongst others, the Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa and the Southern African Development Community's Regional Environmental Education Centre. Membership of the former organisation includes amongst others, teachers, conservation officials, researchers, community and development workers.

The role of the Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa is to support environmental education in Southern Africa. It endeavours to achieve its objective by providing opportunities for exchanging of ideas and opinions on environmental education through publications, annual conferences and workshops. Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa acts as a responsible body for consultation on and coordination of matters of public and professional interest concerning environmental education (Environmental Education Association of Southern Africa, available at: <http://www.botany.uwc.ac.za/inforeep/eeasa1.htm>. 12/08/2004).

SADC's Regional Environmental Education Centre was established in 1997 and is situated in South Africa. Its main focus is environmental education and it further builds capacity, and publishes material such as books, reports and newsletters. Its activities target environmental education practitioners in SADC countries. (Regional Environmental Education Centre- Available at: <http://www.ecoouncil.ac.cr/template/Africa/out.cfm?unico=64>. 12/08/2004)

An important milestone in environmental education has been the implementation of the International Eco-schools Programme in South Africa. The aim of the Eco-schools Programme is to promote an environmentally aware nation. The Programme was launched in South Africa in May 2003 with funding from Nampak, and through the Wildlife and Environment Society of South Africa to coordinate its development and implementation. Over 140 South African schools registered for the Programme in 2003 and a further 70 schools have registered for the Programme for 2004. The Eco-Schools Programme aims to raise awareness and support action in environmental and sustainable

development issues through lesson plans and activities linked to schools curriculum. The Programme is designed to help learners to get in touch with the environment in real terms and introduce them to the concept of conservation as well as to get them involved in their communities (Environment taught in South Africa's schools, available at: <http://www.afrol.com/articles/11563>. 12/08/2004). Educating the youth is an important step towards sustainable development as they will become responsible adults regarding the concept of a viable environment.

Environmental education has been highlighted as an important educational priority in curriculum 2005 and the Revised National Curriculum Statement, where environment is viewed as an integral focus of the learning area. The Revised National Curriculum Statement aspires to ensure that the principles and practices of equity, inclusivity, access and respect for people and the environment are integral to, and reflected in the learning outcomes and standards. Conservation areas such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park provide opportunities to further environmental learning. Considering that poverty and inequity contribute substantially to environmental degradation, it becomes important for South African National Parks to develop an environmentally literate cadre of learners and educators to combat a possible negative impact on the environment (Environmental education, available at: <http://www.sanparks.org/people/education> 03/01/2005).

Attempts by South African National Parks to improve access to parks such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park hold the potential for learners and educators to learn more about the environment, its problems and how to work together in the environment, and to find solutions to environmental problems. Furthermore, the creation of new environmental interpretation and educational facilities at parks such as Kruger National Park which is a component of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park will add value to all other efforts to educate learners about the environment (Environmental education, available at: <http://www.sanparks.org/people/education> 03/01/2005).

### **2.7.3 Training and development**

Training is crucial for all personnel employed by the participating agencies of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. It is important that the management and operations of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are harmonized and delivered at comparably high level of efficiency and effectiveness. The Joint Management Plan for the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park makes recommendations that are important for the capacity building of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park's personnel. *Firstly* the Joint Management Plan recommended that the Joint Management Board establishes a training committee which must facilitate a skills-assessment process and the identification of training needs amongst the staff in the agencies comprising the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Furthermore the Joint Management Plan recommends that a mentorship programme be established with a view to provide on the job experiential training and the guidance of middle and senior level staff (Great Limpopo Joint Management Board 2002: 10)

A minimum qualification must be applied to personnel employed to carry out security work, e.g. a NQF 2 for South Africa. There is a need for the determination of standards that must be maintained by applying appropriate levels of in-service training and retraining. Professional associations such as the Game Rangers Association of Africa may be consulted regarding training issues and proficiency levels (Great Limpopo joint Management Board 2002: 9-10). Communication is an important corollary to awareness, education training, and development in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

## **2.8 COMMUNICATION**

All institutions including various managerial structures of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park need to communicate in order to be effective and efficient in performing their daily functions. Fiske (1983) describes communication as a process by which A sends a message to B upon whom it has an effect on or a negotiation and exchange of meaning in which messages, people in cultures and reality interact so as to enable meaning to be produced or understanding to occur. The foregoing definitions

imply communication is a process in which a source encodes and then transmit a message along a channel. The message is then received and decoded at its destination upon which it produces an effect. Thornhill (1995: 179) believes that a prerequisite for effective communication is that it should be continuous, relevant, timeous, clear and correctly transmitted. The foregoing suggests that communication is a never-ending process in the public sector. Diagram 1 below depicts the communication process further.

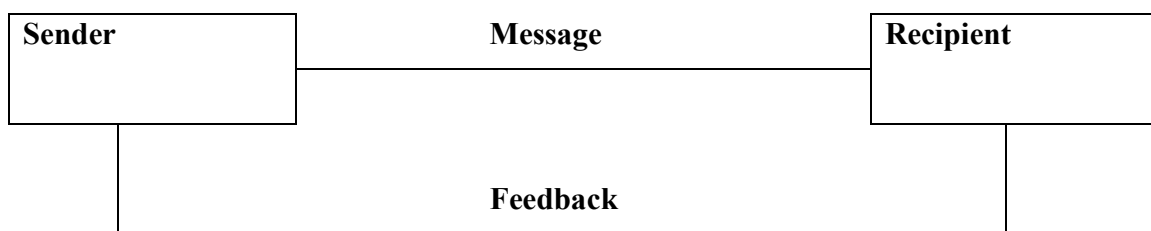


Diagram 1: Communication process

Source: Adapted from (Steinberg 1997: 18)

Communication can further be divided into four categories, namely, interpersonal communication, intra-personal communication, extra-personal communication and mass communication. Communication can also be verbal and nonverbal (Rosengren 2000:38). The aim of communication is to achieve efficiency which is reached when the recipient decodes the identical message to that encoded at the source. Failure to achieve this goal results in breakdowns or inadequacies at some stage of the process.

An aspect of communication which is neglected is that of lateral communication. All employees need to be reminded that they do not work in isolation and that they need to be in constant contact with peers employed in adjoining fields beyond their institution. Organizational units consist of employees who co-operate with each other to reach specific objectives. Co-operation and co-ordination of the efforts of employees necessitate continuous communication (Cloete, 1998: 179). The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is a joint venture between Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe. Institutions such as the Trilateral Ministerial Committee, Joint Management Board, and

Management Committees need to communicate regularly and effectively on matters of common interest in order to avoid misunderstandings which can jeopardize the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

The nature of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park necessitates communication to be in both written and oral forms. Communication in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park should further take place internally and externally. Internal communication flows either laterally or vertically (Thornhill 1995: 190).

Apart from communication which takes place between politicians and officials of the three countries, the former Coordinating Party (Mozambique) started publishing an official newsletter titled “Great Limpopo: Talk of the transfrontier” in 2004. The aim of the newsletter is to keep all interested parties informed of the progress within the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, to inform on issues of interest related to the Park and agencies involved with the Park and to provide a forum for comment and feedback. The publication is funded by the Peace Parks Foundation and the World Bank (Great Limpopo, Talk of the Frontier: Official Newsletter of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park: January-March 2004, Issue 1:2).

In addition to the official newsletter of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park the South African National Parks also publishes a journal titled “Go Wild” which is aimed to inform personnel and members of the public on a number of subjects related to nature conservation and in particular transfrontier parks. The 2004 October and November/December publications have articles titled “Frontier News” (South African National Parks 2004: October and November/December issues of Go Wild”)

## **2.9 CONTROL**

Control can be defined as the supervision of role fulfilment with a view to achieve predetermined objectives such as sustainable natural resource management. Although control is the last aspect to be discussed in this chapter and is normally perceived as the

last or final function, exercising control is a continuous process that is carried out to establish whether or not an objective has been achieved effectively, efficiently and economically.

The exercise of control consists of checking and accountability. The word control can be traced back to the ancient Latin word *contra-rotulus* which mean counter-roll. Counter-roll is a word that can be associated with the ancient scroll. The word counter-roll is thus linked to two steps which are carried by the scroll scribe; that is, writing the document and checking of the written document against the original manuscript to ensure that no mistakes had been made in the copying.

To exercise control, a public or semi-state institution needs to have structures as well as rules in place. The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park has a number of structures that are responsible for exercising control. These structures include amongst others, the South African Parliament, Cabinet, and the Auditor-General. In addition to these control structures, there is a governing as well as a number of management structures responsible for the development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. These structures are, namely, the Trilateral Ministerial Committee, Joint Management Board, Co-ordinating Party and the Management Committees (Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park: Institutional arrangements, available at: <http://www.gkgpark.com/main.php?ma...e=institutional+Arrangements&pos=7>. 19/11/2003). The role of each of the aforementioned structures responsible for exercising control is described hereunder.

### **2.9.1 Control structures for the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park**

Parliament, Cabinet and the Auditor-General perform complementary functions which are aimed at the effective and efficient management of public resources.



### **2.9.1.1 Parliament**

In terms of section 42(1) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* the South African Parliament consists of two houses, namely, the National Assembly and the National Council of Provinces. According to Cloete (1998: 42) the functions that a legislature has to perform are amongst others, legislative, control, financial, and representation.

Although the legislature is primarily responsible for the performance of the aforementioned functions, a great deal of the in-depth discussion and debate that forms part of the national legislature's work is conducted within parliamentary committees. The National Assembly for example, has a Standing Committee on Public Accounts (SCOPA). As a standing Committee, the SCOPA has an ongoing responsibility to review financial and audit reports referred to it by the legislature and to assess the integrity of the accounting practices contained in such reports. The mandate of the SCOPA is to assist the legislature in ensuring that public institutions remain within their budgets and spend as planned by the legislature. The SCOPA enforces public accountability (What is the role of Parliamentary Committees in South Africa, Available at: [http://www.idasa.org.za/FAQs\\_details.asp?](http://www.idasa.org.za/FAQs_details.asp?). 03/01/2005).

### **2.9.1.2 Cabinet**

According to section 91(1) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* the South African Cabinet consists of the President, as Head of the Cabinet, a Deputy President and ministers. As Cloete (1998: 63) points out, ministers are responsible to direct and supervise the administration of state departments. Furthermore, a Cabinet minister is required to ensure that acts passed by Parliament are implemented by the State departments and parastatal institutions under the control of the minister.

The Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism has to supervise and exercise political control over the activities of the South African National Parks which is

responsible for part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park management. The Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism is in turn accountable to the legislature and members of the public for the effective use and management of natural resources in South Africa.

Section 99 of the *National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act, 2004* provides that the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism must in the exercise of his duties consult Cabinet members and members of provincial executive committee whose areas of responsibility may be affected by the exercise of power. Furthermore, section 100 of the aforementioned Act and section 33 of *National Environmental Management: Protected Areas Act, 2003* provides that the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism must involve members of the public in the exercise of his power. Section 31 of the *National Environmental Management: Protected areas Act, 2003* provides that the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism must consult municipalities and any lawful occupier with a right in a specific land.

The provisions of legislation cited in the above paragraph are an indication that although the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism is responsible at a political level for the activities in his Department, consultation is crucial. Consultation described above is both horizontal and vertical. Consultation of the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism with, for instance, the Minister of Water Affairs and Forestry is horizontal in nature while consultation with the members of executive committee responsible for environmental affairs in Limpopo and Mpumalanga is vertical in nature. A third form of consultation further elaborated on in chapter 5 is extragovernmental in nature. This form of consultation involves members of the public and other non state actors having an interest in the preservation of the environment.

### **2.9.1.3 Auditor-General**

The Auditor-General is appointed in terms the *Public Audit Act, 2004(Act 25 of 2004)*. Furthermore, section 188 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* gives

the Auditor-General the power to audit and report on the accounts, financial statements and financial management of amongst others, any institution or accounting entity required by legislation to be audited by the Auditor-General or any institution funded from the National Revenue Fund.

In terms of Schedule 3 of the *Public Finance Management Act, 1999* (Act 1 of 1999 as amended by Act 29 of 1999) the South African National Parks Board is listed as a national public entity. This fact is confirmed by Theron (2004: Personal Interview). This implies that the financial statements of South African National Parks Board are subject to be audited by the Auditor-General.

Section 4(3) of the *Public Audit Act, 2004* makes provision for the Auditor-General to satisfy him/herself that reasonable precautions have been taken to safeguard the proper collection of money due to public institutions and entities; receipts, payments and other transactions are made in accordance with the applicable laws and instructions are supported by adequate vouchers; and that satisfactory management measures have been taken to ensure that resources are procured economically and utilized efficiently and effectively. Furthermore, section 188(3) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* makes provision for all reports of the Auditor-General to be made public with a view to enhance public accountability.

## **2.9.2 GOVERNING AND MANAGEMENT STRUCTURES FOR THE GREAT LIMPOPO TRANSFRONTIER PARK**

Each of the component parks comprising the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park retains its own administrative structures and the right to administer its own area in accordance with SADC Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement. However, in order to realize the objective of integrated diversity management and harmonized joint development within the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, new structures were developed to ensure appropriate joint management in matters of mutual interest. The effective management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park necessitates the

establishment of institutions such as the Trilateral Ministerial Committee, the Joint Management Board and management committees. These structures are further described below.

### **2.9.2.1 Trilateral Ministerial Committee**

The Trilateral Ministerial Committee consists of the Ministers designated and mandated by the participating countries (Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe). The Trilateral Ministerial Committee is chaired on a rotational basis and meets at least once a year. Its main responsibility is to provide overall policy guidance in the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The decisions of the Trilateral Ministerial Committee are taken by consensus. The provision of overall policy guidance further implies that the Trilateral Ministerial Committee is responsible for the supervision of the activities of the Joint Management Board which is described further below (Institutional arrangements, available at: <http://www.greatlimpopopark.co> 15/11/2004).

### **2.9.2.2 Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park Joint Management Board**

The Joint Management Board is established to ensure the appropriate administration of matters of mutual concern to the component parks. The Board consists of senior representatives of the competent authorities of each country and/or the respective ministers from Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe (Institutional arrangements, available at: <http://www.greatlimpopopark.co> 15/11/2004).

The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park Joint Management Board is responsible for the performance of a number of functions. *Firstly*, the Joint Management Board's function is to interpret the political directives of the trilateral ministerial committee into a set of operational guidelines and policies. It is also responsible for periodic revision and implementation of the Joint Management Plan, determination of mechanisms for administering funds received specifically for the Transfrontier Park and to identify financial needs and source funds (GLTP, 2004: 1). *Secondly*, the Joint Management

Board is responsible for approving action plans for the development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. *Thirdly*, the function of the Joint Management Board is to harmonize the expectations and aims of the various parties with respect to the establishment, development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. *Fourthly*, monitoring the implementation process of the establishment, development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, preparing reports and other appropriate documentation for the Trilateral Ministerial Committee is another core function of the Joint Management Board.

For the Joint Management Board to function effectively and achieve its objectives, it may establish permanent or project committees whenever it is necessary. Members of the Joint Management Board must identify members from amongst themselves to chair these committees and to ensure continuity and close liaison with the Joint Management Board. Country members of the various management committees are responsible for conveying information to and from their respective Committees.

The Joint Management Board is, like the Trilateral Ministerial Committee, chaired on a rotational basis. The Board meets twice a year; the frequency depends on the urgency of the matter to be tabled for discussion. The decisions of the Joint Management Board are taken by consensus and are binding (Institutional arrangements, available at: <http://www.greatlimpopopark.co> 15/11/2004). Thus the Joint Management Board can ensure that the decisions taken are carried out or could take appropriate remedial action should its decisions not be effected.

### **2.9.2.3 Coordinating Party**

Each of the three countries is given an opportunity to co-ordinate the activities of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park for two years. For example, South Africa was a coordinating party for the first two years. This rotational system promotes accountability and sustained momentum in the process of developing the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The country that is the Coordinating Party nominates a candidate as coordinator.

The candidate is recommended by the Joint Management Board for final appointment by the Trilateral Ministerial Committee (Institutional arrangements, available at: <http://www.greatlimpopopark.co> 15/11/2004).

The Co-ordinator is responsible for a number of functions which include amongst others, co-ordination of activities associated with the planning and implementation of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, effective establishment of the management committees with full representation by all parties and that a working programme focused on achieving the objectives of the great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is sustained by each, co-ordination of the drafting and implementation of an effective action plan for achieving the objectives of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, with full participation by the relevant stakeholders, promotion of the appropriate processes and procedures which are in accordance with the relevant regional treaties and international protocols, during the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, preparation of reports on key resolutions and directives emanating from the Trilateral Ministerial Committee and Joint Management Board, facilitates the convening of Management Committee Meetings, and liaises with all parties in identifying joint activities that require funding and identifies sources of funding.

#### **2.9.2.4 Management Committees**

The management committees advise and assist in the implementation and day-to-day management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and are composed of representatives appointed by the competent authorities of participating countries and or representatives delegated by relevant ministries. Management committees deal with conservation, safety and security, finance, human resources, legislation, and tourism (Institutional arrangements, available at: <http://www.greatlimpopopark.co> 15/11/2004).

Management committees are responsible for the implementation of the action plan as developed and guided by the Joint Management Board. Management committees also have to ensure full participation by all appropriate stakeholders in the preparation of

policy recommendations, resource management plans, and the relevant documents relating to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Liaison and collaboration with other relevant regional initiatives, such as the Maputo Development Corridor, in the establishment, development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, and provision of feedback and progress reports to the Joint Management Board are functions performed by committees that contribute to the effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (Institutional arrangements, available at: <http://www.greatlimpopopark.co> 15/11/2004).

The management committees do not have decision making authority, but they make recommendations to and receive guidance and supervision from the Joint Management Board regarding their activities (Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park: Institutional arrangements, available at: <http://www.gkgpark.com/main.php?ma...e=institutional+Arrangements&pos=7>. 19/11/2003).

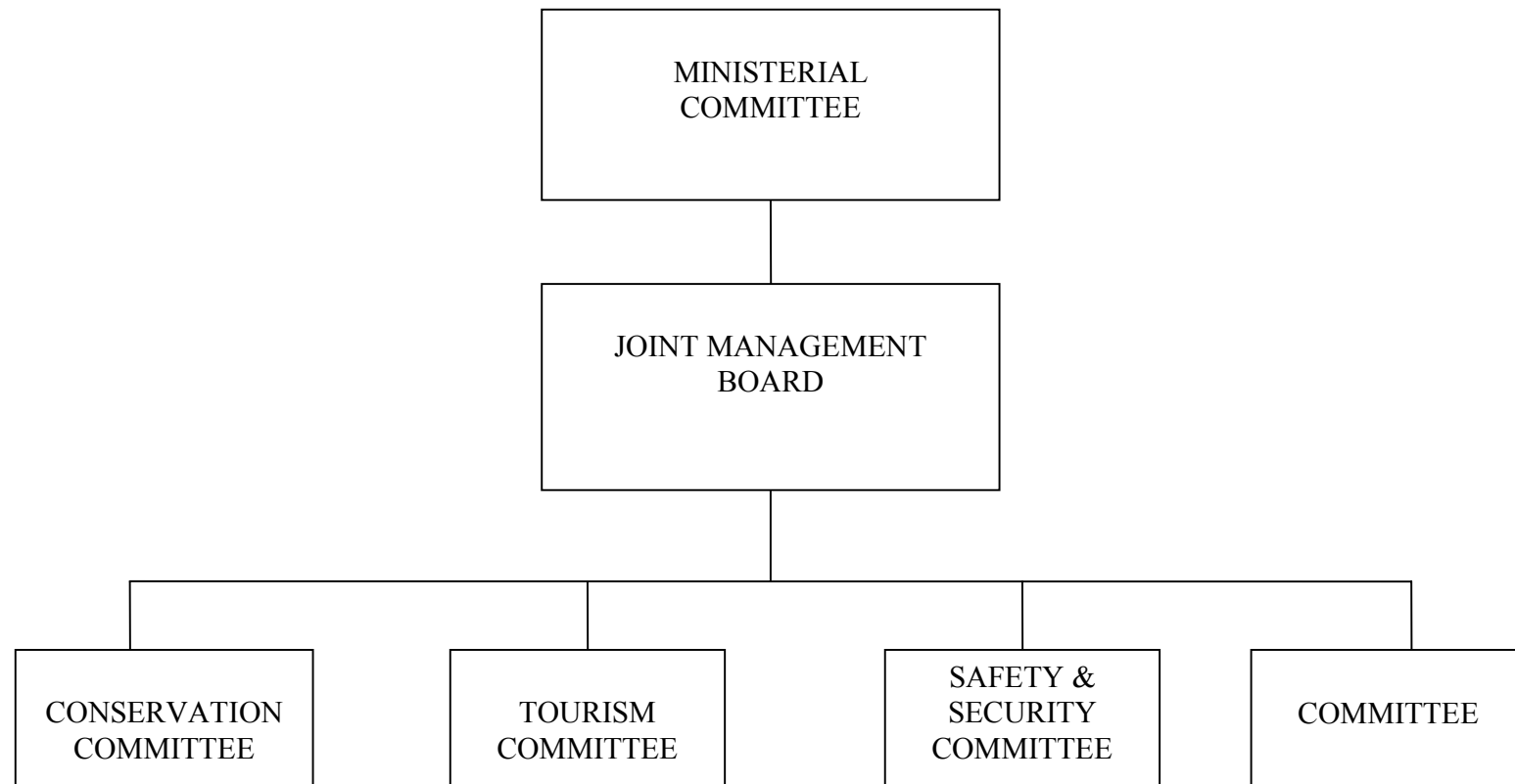


Diagram 2: Structures for the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park

Source: (SANParks 2005)



## **2.10 CONCLUSION**

The foregoing exposition emphasises the need for effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and other similar parks. The main reason for effective and efficient management is the sustainable use of resources for the benefit of current and future generations. It is for this reason that the principles for effective and efficient management and ethical standards need to be applied carefully by managers who possess a diversity of skills. Research and information management are support functions that improve the quality of decisions taken by managers of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Conservation awareness, education, training and development, communication and control functions are the core of the efforts to promote effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Effectiveness and efficiency will be achieved if there is proper coordination of the efforts of the three countries involved. The next chapter focuses on international governmental relations.

## **CHAPTER THREE: INTERNATIONAL GOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The foregoing chapter focused on the requirements for effective and efficient management of public sector institutions created to manage natural resources. Although the South African Public Service and the South African National Parks Board have to adhere to the requirements and maintain their independence in managing natural resources, it is not easy for South Africa to isolate itself from other countries in southern Africa and the rest of the World. It is for this reason that international relations become crucial for the effective management the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. This chapter focuses on the sovereignty of the state, globalization, South Africa's foreign policy, and international institutions, bilateral and multilateral relations between South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe.

### **3.2 SOVEREIGNTY OF THE STATE**

A state can be defined in Cloete's view (1998:3), as an independent territory with a permanent population and institutions responsible for the maintenance of law and order and the provision of essential services. Botes, Brynard, and Fourie and Roux (1996: 3-9) concur with this definition. The foregoing definition suggests that a state must have a clearly demarcated and undisputed border. The cutting of fences in the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park may cast some doubts on the sovereignty and security of the countries involved.

Although the fences separating South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe are gradually going to be brought down, national boundaries need to be clearly demarcated. Between South Africa and Mozambique, for instance, the two countries agreed that when the fences are removed, the concrete fence posts will remain in place as landmarks for the

boundary of South Africa (Joint Management Board, 2002: 95). Furthermore, Pienaar (2005 Personal interview) believes the railway line and the road mark the boundary between South Africa and Mozambique. Fences were at first removed in areas where vehicle access between South Africa and Mozambique is either not possible due to the rugged nature of the Lebombo Mountain or because roads leading into the area can be effectively controlled.

Katerere and Hill (A critique of transboundary natural resource management in Southern Africa. Available at: <http://2.../book1.pdf+management+of+transfrontier+natural+resources&hl=en&ie=UTF,16/07/2004>) argue that the creation of transfrontier parks impinges on the sovereignty and security of national states as parks such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are situated at sites of national security management in the maintenance of boundaries, curtailing of insurgency and poaching. The role of the state is challenged and at times reduced to that of a guarantor and enforcer of rights. Transfrontier conservation areas challenge the power and nature of the nation state. This raises the question of the extent to which South Africa is willing to cede power to supra-national structures. Challenges relating to the sovereignty of the state and the cutting of fences are part of a process which brings independent states together in a global village.

### **3.3 GLOBALISATION AND THE AFRICAN RENAISSANCE**

The sovereignty of any state is not tantamount to it being self-sufficient. Modern states depend on each other for the satisfaction of needs of their citizens. The interdependence amongst states has brought about globalization and the African response to it through the African Renaissance philosophy.

Robertsons as quoted in Waters (2001:4) defines globalization as the compression of the world and intensification of consciousness of the world as a whole as well as interdependence. Waters (2001:5) refers to globalization as a social process in which the

constraints of geography on economic, political, social and cultural arrangements recede, in which people become increasingly aware that they are receding and in which people act accordingly.

Mills (2002:60) identifies three periods of globalization. *Firstly*, the period between 1870 and 1914 which was spurred by better transport links and lower freight costs. *Secondly*, the period between 1945 and 1980 which revived international trade links and *thirdly*, the period from 1980 until today. In the 21<sup>st</sup> century there are stark differences between the developed and developing states. This gives rise to different problems relating to different levels of development, and such problems demand different solutions (Mills 2002: 60). As environmental problems can no longer be confined to the borders of any country, it can be argued that the conservation of biodiversity and its related problems cannot escape the challenges and advantages brought by globalization.

Waters (2001: 15-16) highlights the main elements of globalization as follows:

- globalization is contemporary with modernization. It involves economic systematization and international relations between states;
- involves the systematic social interrelationship of all individual social ties. In a globalized world, no relationship will be isolated;
- phenomenological of space and generalization of time

In addition to the foregoing elements of globalisation, politics and capitalism appear to have been major drivers of globalization. According to Herch and Schmidt (2000:3) rules and customs which impeded the movement of labour, goods, services, capital had to be removed. Furthermore, Buscher and Dietz (2005:5) believe that one of the significant characteristics of globalization is the exponential growth of trade, communication, and technology across the globe which has rendered political, economic and cultural boundaries more virtual and permeable than ever before. The views expressed by Herch and Schmidt, as well as Buscher and Dietz can be related to the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Although the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is

established by an agreement entered into by South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe, capital and ideas came from other governments and non-governmental organizations which are not part of the agreement hence the view that globalization has brought an end to rules and customs impeding capital movement is supported. The establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and other transfrontier parks between South Africa and its neighbours is an indication that Southern African countries are moving towards virtual and easily permeable borders.

Virtual, permeable and globalization borders have negative effects. The effects of globalization are the spread of transnational influences which include crime, illegal immigration, refugee flows, environmental and health risks (Mills 2002:61). Globalisation is the result of the emergence of planetary problems that are beyond the scope of states to resolve them. A decline in the ability of states to solve problems on a national basis (Waters 2001:102) have resulted in greater cohesion amongst states. Fox (2004:71) mentions natural resources depletion as one of environmental challenges. As the world populations continue to increase and third world countries become more affluent, global problems are likely to worsen. The rapid growth of the world population and in particular populations of the three countries which are party to the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park suggests that more land will be required for residential purposes and thereby putting pressure on natural resources.

Globalisation can be construed as an involuntary process that has the potential to undermine the nation-states. Waters (2001: 124) mentions the following aspects which can undermine the nation-state:

- increasing economic and cultural connections reduce the power and effectiveness of governments at the nation-state level-loss of control over the flow of ideas and economic items through borders,
- state power is reduced because of trans-national processes grow in scale and number. Multinational corporations are increasingly becoming more powerful than other states in the developing world,

- many traditional areas of state responsibility (defence, communications and economic management) are coordinated on international and intergovernmental basis,
- states surrender sovereignty within global political units such as the United Nations and treaties such as the one that establishes the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, and
- the emergence of a system of global governance.

The foregoing points indicate a number of areas and ways in which globalization can undermine a nation-state. However, a critical question is: “what is the role of the state such as South Africa in globalization?” South Africa has two choices. The first choice results in South Africa being a passive actor in the world and leaving everything to chance and fate. The second choice is to become an active participant. To become an active participant implies that South Africa has to play an influential role and be proactive. The second choice requires South Africa to become the architect of its own destiny as far as globalization and natural resources management is concerned.

The standing of South Africa in the eyes of the global community regarding political leadership and economic stability is important. South Africa is already regarded as one of the leading African countries in a number of spheres including nature conservation. Furthermore, South Africa has played a prominent role in the establishment of transfrontier parks which include the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. In view of the argument advanced above, it could be deduced that South Africa is not a passive participant in the global world. However, being an influential role player in Africa and Southern Africa does not mean that South Africa can ignore the contribution made by its neighbours. Regional integration will strengthen South Africa’s influential role even further.

Regional strength is a critical feature for competitive world economy. The development of regional units is synonymous with the age of globalization and technology (Mills

2002:61). Regional integration could help in building efficient infrastructure, strengthening regional security, improving human capital and natural resources management (Mills 2002: 77). The challenge is to use the growing integration of economies and societies around the world in order to enhance sustainable development. To this end, a wide array of actions should be taken, ranging from open, equitable, rule-based, predictable and non-discriminatory finance and trade systems to regional trade and cooperation agreements (Brynard and Stone 2004:32).

The political and economic strengths of South Africa and stability among its neighbours create more opportunities which will make the Country more globally competitive. In 2004, the tourism branch of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism launched the global competitiveness project. The project aims to assess South African tourism's global competitiveness against national competitiveness (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 2006: 10-11).

The Middle East has been identified by the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism as an emerging market for South African tourism, particularly in the light of tensions between the Middle East and the United States America following the events of "9/11" and the subsequent invasion of Iraq. The Tourism Branch of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism organized workshops in Al Ain, Dubai and Abu Dhabi in the United Arab Emirates. The purpose of the workshop was to inform Middle Easterners and tour operators about South Africa and to promote the country as a premier international destination (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 2006: 10-11).

Language can be a barrier for middle easterners willing to visit South Africa. Foreign language training is a critical need for tourist guides in South Africa. The Tourism Branch of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism secured funding from the Chinese and French governments to train 161 tourist guides in these languages (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism 2006: 10-11). For South Africa to be

globally competitive, foreign language training should be expanded to include languages spoken in the Middle East and other countries which are not English speaking.

The English saying that “One man’s meat is another man’s poison” becomes more appropriate in the description of global competitiveness relating to tourism. South Africa can now capitalize on the decision of most middle easterners not to visit the United States of America and its allies due to political and religious differences which were exacerbated by the 9/11 terrorist attacks and subsequent wars. The question is whether this gain will be sustainable in the long run? The sustainability of this gain depends on South Africa’s stance on the war against terror and the relationship that it has with states perceived as dominating the war on terror. South Africa’s foreign policy is subject to change due to global changes which are engendered by global politics, economy as well as the changing political landscape within the country. It can, therefore, be expected that South Africa’s foreign policy will be adapted over time. There is no guarantee that South Africa’s foreign policy will always be in favour of middle easterners.

The African Renaissance is a concept popularized by the South African President Mbeki in which the African people and nations are called upon to solve the many problems troubling the African continent (African renaissance, available at: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/African\\_Renaissance](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/African_Renaissance). 16/07/2006). African Renaissance can further be construed as a philosophical and political movement to eradicate elitism, corruption and poverty and replace them with a more just and equitable order

The political, social and economic dimensions take the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park a step towards the realization of the African Renaissance. One objective of the African Renaissance is to identify key anchor projects at the national and subregional levels, which will generate significant spin-offs and assist in interregional economic integration. The program makes direct reference to transfrontier conservation areas in order to boost conservation and tourism (Minister Moosa’s speech on the occasion of the handover of elephants to Mozambique on 4 October 2001, available at:



[http://www.environment.gov.za/News...speeches/2001oct4/GKG\\_04102001.html](http://www.environment.gov.za/News...speeches/2001oct4/GKG_04102001.html).  
19/11/2003).

The African Renaissance is criticised as a form of Africanist utopianism given conflicts and instability in Africa. Other critics see the African Renaissance as an attempt by South Africa to foist a new form of colonialism. Others argue that the renaissance existed in the context of the fall of a great empire and the subsequent descent into the dark ages. (African renaissance, available at: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/African\\_Renaissance\\_16/07/2006](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/African_Renaissance_16/07/2006)).

The African Renaissance and history demand that the people of Africa do everything in their power to defend the gains that have already been achieved, to encourage all other countries on their continent to move in the same direction, according to which the people shall govern, and to enhance the capacity of the African Union to act as an effective instrument for peace and the promotion of human and people's rights.

The following quote from Mbeki speech captures the essence, and the relations between globalization and African renaissance:

*“The African renaissance is inspired by the recognition of the fact that none of African countries is an island which can isolate itself from the rest, and none of us can truly succeed if the rest fail. The process of globalization emphasizes the fact that no person is an island, sufficient to himself or herself, but all humanity is an interdependent whole in which none can be truly free unless all are free, in which none can be truly prosperous unless none elsewhere in the world go hungry and in which none of us can be guaranteed a good quality of life unless we act together to protect the environment”* (Mbeki 1998: Available at: <http://www.unu.edu/unupress/mbeki.html>. 16/07/2006).

The restoration of the dignity of the peoples of Africa demands that Africa deals decisively with the perception that the African continent is condemned forever to depend on the merciful charity which the richer countries are ready to donate to Africa. The establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park can be perceived as an attempt to restore dignity among poor and previously disadvantaged people who live adjacent to the park. The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park's objective is to empower and alleviate poverty among the poor who live adjacent to the Park.

Economic objectives, which must result in the elimination of poverty, the establishment of modern multi-sector economies, and the growth of Africa's share of the World economic activity are key elements of the African renaissance. The African Renaissance can succeed if its aims and objectives are defined by the Africans themselves, if its programmes are designed by Africans and if Africans take the responsibility for the success or failure of policies (Mbeki 1998: Available at: <http://www.unu.edu/unupress/mbeki.html>. 16/07/2006). The success of the African Renaissance depends on the extent to which sovereign African states can align their foreign policies to the objectives of the African Renaissance. South Africa's foreign policy is elaborated on in the section below.

### **3.4 SOUTH AFRICA'S FOREIGN POLICY**

Many serious environmental problems such as illegal hunting and poaching of endangered species are of a transboundary nature. Therefore, such problems affect international relations hence the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park between South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is a result of diplomacy. Bjorkbom (1988: 123) argues that diplomacy is the tool that governments use to see to it that international relations are kept under control and to avoid the use of more expensive and less effective methods of problem solving such as military force.

The circumstances which prevailed in South Africa during the apartheid era have proven that the isolation of a country may have adverse results on its socio-economic development. It is, therefore, necessary for South Africa to have a policy which will guide its relations with other countries. Policy can be defined as a statement of objectives or an envisaged course of action.

South Africa's foreign policy serves as a framework upon which foreign relations are conducted. It determines the manner in which South Africa will interact with other countries. Since South Africa is inextricably part of Africa, it is important that its foreign policy reflects and promotes the interests of the continent (Dube, 2003 overview: South Africa's foreign policy in Africa, Available at: [http://www.ai.org.za/print\\_monograph.asp?ID=1](http://www.ai.org.za/print_monograph.asp?ID=1). 2/6/2005). However, the interests of the continent should always be secondary to the interests of the South African citizens. South Africa's foreign policy, which is the prerogative of the national government, should be formulated in such a way that citizens can be given an opportunity to express their wishes.

The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* is the most important and the primary policy document which guides South Africa's foreign policy. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* provides that the President is ultimately responsible for the foreign policy and international relations of South Africa. It is the prerogative of the President to appoint heads of missions and conduct interstate relations (South Africa Year Book 2005: 305). Section 84(2)(h and j) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* makes provision for the President to receive and recognize foreign diplomatic and consular representatives, as well as the appointment of ambassadors, plenipotentiaries, and diplomatic and consular representatives to strengthen the relationship between South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. Although the President plays a vital role in foreign policy determination, s/he is ultimately accountable for the success and or failure of foreign policy. The presence of South Africa's diplomatic

missions in Mozambique and Zimbabwe further strengthen the relations and provides a firm basis for the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Furthermore, the Executive can negotiate and sign international agreements and develop and implement national policy and co-ordinate the functions of state departments and administrations. South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe's presidents signed the international treaty for the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park on 9 December 2002 in Xai-Xai, Mozambique (TFCA Programme Manager, 2005: 5). The agreement which was signed by the three presidents signifies the high level of political commitment and support for the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. However, political support needs to be coupled with the commitment of resources particularly on the part of Zimbabwe and Mozambique in order to rehabilitate the ecosystem that has been negatively affected by many years of mismanagement as a result of wars and instability.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs, as a member of the executive is entrusted with the responsibility for formulation and execution of South Africa's foreign policy and the daily conduct of international relations. The Minister also assumes the overall responsibility for South Africa's international relations (Foreign relations, available at: <http://www.info.gov.za/aboutsa/foreign.htm>. 10/02/2005). The Minister of Foreign Affairs is assisted by the Department of Foreign Affairs in performing her duties.

The Department of Foreign Affairs is responsible for the performance of the following functions:

- monitoring of developments in the international environment,
- communication of government policy position,
- developing and advising government on policy options,
- protection of South Africa's sovereignty and territorial integrity, and
- assisting South African citizens abroad (Foreign relations, available at: <http://www.info.gov.za/aboutsa/foreign.htm>. 10/02/2005).

Parliament has to ratify agreements of a technical, administrative and executive nature. All international agreements have to be tabled in Parliament even if ratification of a specific agreement is not required by the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. The involvement of Parliament in foreign policy ensures that there is a representative and an accountable process of policy-making (Johnston 2001:16).

Parliament is an institution consisting of people representing the wishes of majority and minority groups in South Africa. If Parliament is relegated to an *ex-post facto* role player in foreign policy, its effectiveness in performing a control function can be questioned. A preferable state of affairs is a pre-approval as Parliament can in this case object to an agreement before its implementation. Henwood (1997. South Africa's foreign policy: principles and problems, Available at: <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No13/Henwood.html> 2/6/2005) argues that the role of Parliament in policy formulation is limited. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* accords more power to the executive. Parliament may find it difficult to be more than an *ex-post facto* role player in matters of foreign policy. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* entrenches the somewhat independent role of the President, the Minister of Foreign Affairs and the Department of Foreign Affairs.

The declared foreign policy of South Africa is aimed at, amongst others, a commitment to:

- human rights,
- promotion of freedom and democracy throughout the world,
- the principles of justice and international law in the conduct of relations between nations,
- international peace and internationally agreed mechanisms for the resolution of conflict,
- the interests of Africa in global markets, and expanded regional and international economic co-operation in an interdependent world

(Henwood 1997. South Africa's foreign policy: principles and problems, Available at: <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No13/Henwood.html> 2/6/2005).

Furthermore, South Africa's policy is guided by amongst others, transparency; national interests, desire to participate in regional, continental and global multilateral organizations; the security and equality of South Africans, as well as justice and international rule of law, peace, economic stability, and regional cooperation are some of the fundamental principles underlying the foreign policy of South Africa.

Henwood (1997. South Africa's foreign policy: principles and problems, Available at: <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No13/Henwood.html> 2/6/2005) argues that the development of foreign policy since April 1994, was the emphasis on democracy, justice and human rights, which brought a new dimension of the declared foreign policy, namely that of morality. This posed important challenges for South Africa as it could lead to conflict between perceived interests and the right decision, and has implications for the allocation of resources for essential foreign policy goals (national interests) as opposed to morally justifiable objectives that might, in the long run, negatively influence the material position of the state.

South Africa endorsed the outcome of Zimbabwe's elections although Zanu-PF supporters allegedly violated human rights. Increasingly, South Africa seems to be confronted with the dilemma of pursuing foreign policy goals which clash with the practices of some African states. A sense of indebtedness has an influence on foreign policy-making in South Africa. The foreign policy of South Africa and the party concerns of the African National Congress are indistinguishable. This state of affairs gives rise to the serious implications and concerns that surround the government and its morality stance (Dube, 2003. Overview: South Africa's foreign policy in Africa, Available at: [http://www.ai.org.za/print\\_monograph.asp?ID=1](http://www.ai.org.za/print_monograph.asp?ID=1). 2/6/2005).

It can be expected that South Africa's foreign policy will continue to be a subject for debate among political parties, interest groups and individual citizens. Although foreign policy is largely shaped by internal politics and the needs of the citizens, international institutions also influence foreign policy.

### **3.5 INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTIONS**

The word international is a combination of two elements which are inter- (among or mutual) and national (pertaining to the nation). International institutions are supra-state institutions. Supra means higher than or above the national state. Supra-state institutions are always established by agreement among states with the objective of obtaining cooperation and achievement of common goals (Mello 2002: 22-23).

International institutions share a number of common features. International institutions originate from agreements such as the declaration of the United Nations on 1 January 1942 by a number of member states. Within an international institution, provision is made for the determination of policy in its composition. Policy determination by international institutions has political implications for national states such as Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe. International institutions must obtain ratification for their decisions and actions by the legislative institutions of the national states. Furthermore, international institutions are dependant on the contributions from member states, non-governmental organizations, and the private sector for financing their activities.

Many international institutions have been established for purposes of satisfying needs which member states can hardly satisfy as separate independent entities. The following sections focus on those international institutions which play a role in establishment and further development of transfrontier parks.

### 3.5.1 United Nations

The United Nations, unlike its predecessor the League of Nations, emerged out of disagreements which were the result of the First and Second World Wars. The League of Nations failed to prevent the Second World War, but the desire remained for the establishment of international institutions able to settle disagreements between states amicably. The beginning of the Second World War did not put a damper on the desire to develop a successor to the League. Different states sought an institution that would prevent wanton human carnage and wastage of resources in wars (Simons 1994: 35).

After the outbreak of the Second World War, the Allied powers (that is, United States of America, Great Britain, Union of Soviet Socialist Republics and France) began their planning for the creation of the new international institution responsible for the maintenance of peace and security globally. These efforts ultimately culminated in the Inter-Allied Declaration on 12 June 1941 and two months later the Atlantic charter (Simons 1994: 35).

In terms of Article 1 of the United Nations Charter, one of the objectives of the United Nations is to be a centre for harmonizing the actions of the nations with a view to attain common ends. In terms of Article 1 of the Charter of the United Nations, the purpose of the United Nations is to maintain international peace and security, develop friendly relations and to achieve international cooperation (Charter of the United Nations, Available at: <http://www.un.org/aboutun/charter/chapter1.htm>. 22/07/2005). Transfrontier parks such as the Great Limpopo have emerged as a result of peace and friendly relations hence the words peace parks are often used to describe similar ventures between different countries.

Apart from the efforts of the United Nations at the maintenance of peace globally, the United Nations Conference on the Human Environment held in Stockholm in 1972 led to the establishment of the United Nations Environment Programme. The United Nations



Environment Programme co-ordinates and serves as a catalytic instrument for drawing attention to the environmental aspects of the operational activities of the United Nations Secretariat and the specialized agencies within the United Nations system as well as activities of member states of the United Nations (Bjorkbom 1988: 125). The World Bank has been created within the United Nations system.

### **3.5.2 The World Bank**

The World Bank was established in response to the World War II at the Breton Woods, New Hampshire. The World Bank has 184 member countries who are also shareholders. These shareholders are represented by a Board of Governors. The Board of Governors, which is made-up of ministers of Finance of member countries, is a policy-making organ of the World Bank. The Board of Governors meets once a year (About Us, available at: <http://web.worldbank.org>. 30/10/2006).

Subordinate to the Board of Governors, there is the President and a Board of Directors. The President chairs meetings of the Board and is responsible for the management of the World Bank. The Board of Directors is made-up of 24 Executive Directors who work permanently at the World Bank to implement decisions taken by the Board of Directors. The Board of Directors meets at least twice a week. The five largest shareholders, namely, France, Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States appoint an Executive Director, while other member countries are represented by 19 Executive Directors (About Us, available at: <http://web.worldbank.org>. 30/10/2006)

The initial task of the World Bank was to rebuild Europe after the War. Its initial and primary purpose has been to reconstruct countries ruined by war or other natural disasters. The World Bank has undergone transition in the 1980s. Among other areas which received attention since 1980, are poverty, social and environmental issues.

The World Bank, through the Global Environmental Facility Trust Fund financed a transfrontier conservation area pilot and institutional strengthening project between 1998 and 2003 for US\$ 5 million with the government of Mozambique. The aim of the project was to stimulate private sector investment in underdeveloped areas by creating development nodes linked by transport corridors within the context of spatial development initiatives within Southern Africa. The project focused on launching the transfrontier conservation areas concept, creating an enabling policy and institutional environment at national and regional level, and providing a learning opportunity for all stakeholders and actors. Part of the mandate of this project was to the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park through international agreements, policy and institutional development and direct investment to strengthen the management of its protected areas (Spenceley 2005 tourism investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Scoping report , Available at:<http://www.wits.ac.za> 20/10/2006).

The World Bank stimulated other donors to invest in the TFCAs. These donors included amongst others, KFW, USAID and the Ford Foundation. Funding is crucial for the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

### **3.5.3 The World Conservation Union and the Regional Office for Southern Africa**

The World Conservation Union was founded in 1948. Its membership includes states, government agencies, non-governmental organizations, scientists and experts. The World Conservation Union is the World's largest and most important network. The World Conservation Union brings together 82 states, 111 government agencies, more than 800 non-governmental organizations and 10 000 experts. The Union's mission is to influence, encourage and assist societies throughout the world to conserve the integrity and diversity of nature and ensure that any use of natural resources is equitable and ecologically sustainable. The Union is involved in research efforts and builds sustainable livelihoods

especially for the poor who depend on sustainable management of natural resources. Most importantly, the Union facilitates parks for peace between countries in areas of conflict (The World Conservation Union, available at: <http://www.iucn.org/en/about.21/07/2005>). Publication of research findings relating to transfrontier parks will facilitate the sharing of ideas and development of best practices.

The World Conservation Union Regional Office for Southern Africa was established in Zimbabwe in 1987 with a view to serve the Southern African Region in the development of skills in conservation and natural resources management. The World Conservation Union also influences and supports the development and implementation of environmental and natural resources management policies at national, regional and global levels. Furthermore, the World Conservation Union ensures availability and understanding of environmental and natural resources management information and advocates for its increased use in decision-making (IUCN ROSA, available at: <http://www.iucnrosa.org.zw/about/about.html> 2/2/2005).

To deal with challenges that Southern Africa faces, the World Conservation Union assists communities and governments to create their own processes towards the development of policies and strategies. This is evident in the support to Southern African countries in the development of wildlife, environment management and land policies. In so doing, the World Conservation Union develops linkages between science and policy, economics and the environment, social equity and access to natural resources, and protection and sustainable use. It generates, transforms, and disseminates scientific knowledge and tools to stakeholder and advocates their use (IUCN ROSA, available at: <http://www.iucnrosa.org.zw/about/about.html> 2/2/2005).

In an attempt to achieve the latter objective, the World Conservation Union has commissioned a regional newsletter on transboundary natural resources management in Southern Africa. The title of the newsletter is **Transborder dialogue** and hopes to facilitate information exchange amongst transboundary natural resources management

practitioners in Southern Africa. Transborder Dialogue is funded by Ford's Transboundary Natural Resource Management Project (Transborder dialogue commissioned <http://www.iucnrosa.org.zw/news/transborder.html> 2/2/2005). Information exchange will ensure that the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park does not repeat mistakes made by managers of parks which were established earlier elsewhere in the world.

### **3.5.4 African Union**

The establishment of the African Union was declared on 2 March 2001 at the second Extraordinary Summit in Sirte. The transitional period culminated with the convening of the inaugural summit of the African Union in Durban, South Africa from 9-10 July 2002. The African Union is made up of 53 members and has nine organs to perform its duties. These organs are:

- the Assembly
- Executive Council
- Pan African Parliament
- Court of Justice
- the Commission
- Permanent Representatives Committee
- specialised technical committees
- Economic, Social and Cultural Council
- the financial institutions

Among its objectives, the African Union aims to encourage international cooperation, promote sustainable development at economic, social and cultural level as well as the integration of African economies. The African Union further hopes to promote cooperation in all fields of human activity to raise the living standards of African peoples (South Africa Year Book 2005: 305).

The Executive Council plays an important role in matters relating to nature conservation. The Executive Council coordinates and takes decisions on policies in areas of common interest to member states. These decisions include, amongst others, forestry, water resources and environmental protection. Specialised technical committees such as the Committee on Industry, Science and Technology, Energy, Natural Resources and Environment; and the committee on Transport, Communication and Tourism assist the Executive Council in matters relating to environmental management and transfrontier park management. Specialised committees are composed of ministers and senior officials responsible for sectors falling within their respective areas of competence such as environment and nature conservation (Constitutive Act of the African Union, available at: [http://www.au2002.gov.za/docs/key\\_oau/au\\_act.htm](http://www.au2002.gov.za/docs/key_oau/au_act.htm). 07/04/2005).

Although Article 14 of the *Constitutive Act* of the African Union provides that specialized technical committees should be made up of ministers and senior public officials, it would be advisable for such committees to be composed of officials who have in-depth knowledge in areas such as nature conservation. Politicians should be involved in political organs of the African Union such as the Assembly. To achieve some of its objectives, the New Partnership for Africa's Development was established within the African Union.

The New Partnership for Africa's Development is a vision and strategic framework for Africa's renewal. The New Partnership for Africa's Development's strategic framework document arises from a mandate given to the five states (Algeria, Egypt, Nigeria, Senegal, and South Africa) by the then Organisation of African of Unity to develop an integrated socio-economic development framework for Africa. The 37<sup>th</sup> Summit of the Organisation of African Unity formally adopted the strategic framework document (NEPAD in brief, available at: <http://www.nepad.org/2005/files/inbrief.php> 6/4/2005).

The New Partnership for Africa's Development operates on the basis of, amongst others, principles such as good governance as a basic requirement for peace, security and sustainable socio-economic development; African ownership and leadership, as well as broad and effective participation by all sectors of society; anchoring the development of Africa on its resources and resourcefulness of its people; partnership between and amongst African people; and acceleration of regional and continental integration. Policy reform and increased investment in priority sectors such as environment forms part of the New Partnership for Africa's Development priorities (NEPAD in brief, available at: <http://www.nepad.org/2005/files/inbrief.php> 6/4/2005).

According to Wissink and Melnyk (2004:3) the objectives of the New Partnership for Africa's Development are to eradicate poverty, to put an end to socioeconomic marginalization of Africa, promotion of sustainable growth and development, peace, security and political and economic good governance.

The adoption of the New Partnership for Africa's Development is an important development. The New Partnership for Africa's Development creates an instrument for advancing people-centred sustainable development in Africa based on democratic values. Sustainable development from the perspective of the New Partnership for Africa's Development is premised on the recognition that Africa has an abundance of natural resources and people who have the capacity to act as agents of change.

The link between the New Partnership for Africa's Development and Southern African Development Community Regional Indicative Strategic Development Plan was adopted by the Ministers of foreign affairs and finance at their meeting in Blantyre, Malawi, in September 2001 which came to the conclusion that, in terms of relationships, the Southern African Development Community is part of and feeds into New Partnership for Africa's Development. The Ministers recognized that the New Partnership for Africa's Development is a framework and process within the African Union, while Southern African Development Community is a recognized component of the African Union. The

Southern African Development Community participates in both the African Union and New Partnership for Africa's Development (South Africa Year Book 2004:309). This relationship shows that international institutions complement each other in the role they play.

### **3.5.5 Southern African Development Community**

Southern African Development Community is an intergovernmental organization aimed at promoting economic development. It is established as a regional economic community of the United Nations system. Southern African Development Community member states are Angola, Botswana, Democratic Republic of Congo, Lesotho, Malawi, Mauritius, Mozambique, Namibia, Seychelles, South Africa, Swaziland, Tanzania and Zimbabwe. The declaration of the treaty establishing Southern African Development Community was signed at the Summit of Heads of State on July 17 1992 in Windhoek, Namibia. Southern African Development Community replaced the Southern African Development Coordination Conference which had been in existence since 1980. South Africa joined in 1994 (Southern Africa and the Southern African Development Community, available at: <http://www.eia.doe.gov/cabs/sadc.html>. 06/04/2005).

The Southern African Development Community treaty commits members to:

- sovereign equality,
- solidarity, peace and security,
- human rights, democracy and the rule of law,
- equity, balance and mutual benefit, and
- peaceful settlement of disputes.

The aim of the Southern African Development Community (SADC) is to provide for regional peace and security, sectoral co-operation and an integrated regional economy. A number of protocols that have a bearing on nature conservation and the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park have been ratified. These protocols include, amongst others, Protocol

on Shared Watercourse Systems, Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement (Vide Annexure C) Protocol on Development of Tourism (Vide Annexure D), (South Africa Year Book 2005: 316).

Southern African Development Community ministers of environment agreed at their meeting in Cape Town South Africa, in October 1999 to adopt a protocol on Environment and Land management sector. The working group approved by the ministers included South Africa, Mozambique, Tanzania, Zambia and Mauritius. The working group was mandated to co-opt international and regional environmental organizations such as the United Nations Environment Programme, World Conservation Union and its Regional Office for Southern Africa to provide technical support (Environment Protocol for SADC on the drawing board, available at: <http://www.net/editorial/sadctoday/v3-6-07-2000/v3-6-07-2000-1.htm>. 06/04/2005).

Southern African Development Community Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement recognizes the sovereign right of member states to manage their wildlife resources. Article 4 provides that the primary objective of the Protocol is to establish common approaches to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife resources and to assist with the effective enforcement of laws governing resources. To give effect to this primary objective, Article 4.2(f) makes provision for the establishment of transfrontier conservation areas to promote the conservation of shared wildlife resources (SADC Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law enforcement, Available at: [www.tbpa.net/docs/2003/apendices/030625wildlifeprotocol.htm](http://www.tbpa.net/docs/2003/apendices/030625wildlifeprotocol.htm). 20/04/2005).

Furthermore, article 6.2 of the Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement states that Southern African Development Community members should endeavour to harmonise legal instruments governing the conservation and sustainable use of resources. Harmonisation includes, amongst others, standardizing measures for the protection of wildlife species and their habitat, trading in wildlife, poaching and hunting, powers granted to wildlife law enforcement officers, extradition or appropriately sanctioning



offenders in their home countries (SADC Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law enforcement, Available at: [www.tbpa.net/docs/2003/apendices/030625wildlifeprotocol.htm](http://www.tbpa.net/docs/2003/apendices/030625wildlifeprotocol.htm). 20/04/2005).

The Southern African Development Community Treaty and SADC Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement provide the basis for regional co-operation and the establishment of transfrontier parks such as the Great Limpopo. Furthermore, the relationship established within Southern African Development Community enable countries such as South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe to enter into bilateral agreements as equal partners although they are economically at different stages of development.

### **3.6 BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL RELATIONS**

This section of the thesis focuses on the relations between South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The relations among the three countries were characterized by hostility where South Africa was the aggressor and friendliness. Friendly relations resulted in the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Bilateral relations are seen as a matter between South Africa and other involved countries such as Mozambique or Zimbabwe. The fact that South Africa enters into agreements with these countries does not mean express support for or agreement with the internal policies or practices of their government. The foreign policy decisions of South Africa are based on national interests.

Zimbabwe experienced some attempts at armed incursions during the early 1980s period of total strategy although the extent of the destabilization by South Africa was less severe when compared to the experience by Mozambique. The destabilization of Zimbabwe and Mozambique had undesirable consequences on conservation management. The destabilisation as well as the civil war in Mozambique forced Zimbabwe's wildlife

authorities to close the Gonarezhou National Park. The Gonarezhou National Park, which is situated in the south east of Zimbabwe on the Mozambican border, is the second largest park in Zimbabwe. The Park experienced management problems and breakdown in infrastructure during the war in Mozambique. In 1974, at the start of the war, Mozambique's elephant herds were estimated at between 50 000 and 65 000. In 1992 the population was estimated at 13 350 and was said to be declining (Koch 1998: 58). The diminishing of the elephant herds in Mozambique prompted the South African government to donate elephants to Mozambique.

Protected areas and wildlife of Mozambique, South Africa, and Zimbabwe have been adversely affected by socio-political conflicts. The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park now faces the difficult task to address these problems as the resources in three countries are unequal as a result of destabilisation.

South Africa and Zimbabwe, besides their geographic proximity, have a long history of regional affiliation and cultural ties. The people of Zimbabwe played an important historic role in support of the liberation struggle in South Africa against the system of apartheid. Bilateral relations between South Africa and Zimbabwe can be traced back to 1929 and they have been renewed and modified a number of times. After the 1994 elections, the Zimbabwean and South African trade ministers agreed to talks which led to the signing of a 'Joint Economic Co-operation Agreement' which unfortunately never came to fruition (Stoneman 1998: 100).

The Joint Commission for Economic, Scientific, Technical and Cultural cooperation between South Africa and Zimbabwe was revived in November 2002 to strengthen bilateral relations between the two countries. South Africa donated R93,5 million through the World Food Programme to improve food security in Zimbabwe. Furthermore, South Africa donated R12 Million to Zimbabwe to purchase a vaccine aimed at curbing the spread of food-and-mouth disease in Zimbabwe (South Africa Year Book 2004: 315).

Monetary assistance to Zimbabwe is important for the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Poverty alleviation through the World Food Programme will ensure that people do not utilise wildlife for purposes of feeding their families. Similarly, the R12 Million donated to Zimbabwe in an attempt to curb the spread of food and-mouth disease will ensure that wildlife beyond the border does not infect wildlife in South Africa as fences separating the two countries are to be gradually removed.

South Africa continues with efforts aimed at strengthening bilateral relations and the democratic reconstruction and development processes of Mozambique. Continuous bilateral interaction with the Mozambican government has culminated in the signing of several bilateral agreements which include, among others, customs administration, agriculture, the protection and utilization of the water resources of the Inkomati and Maputo water courses, and above all, the trilateral treaty of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Furthermore, in accordance with the Southern African Development Community's current initiatives and efforts to bring about regional economic integration, South Africa and Mozambique have made substantial progress in the development of the borderlands and transfrontier conservation initiatives. These areas include the Lubombo Spatial Development Initiative, the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, Beira and Nacala Corridors. The development of these corridors and borderlands is aimed at exploiting the opportunities and advantages to be derived from countries seeking increased convergence and integration across borders (South Africa Year Book 2005: 305).

South African President and his Mozambican counterpart co-chaired the South Africa-Mozambique Heads of State Economic Bilateral Summit. The forum was established in 1997 to discuss strategic projects between the two countries. Environment and tourism development projects such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are amongst issues discussed at the summit (Mozambique-South Africa: Strategic partnership to be

consolidated at summit, available at: <http://www.irinnews.org/report.asp?ReportID=36120>. 10/02/2005).

The current relationship between Mozambique and South Africa evolved out of Mozambique's assistance in the anti-apartheid struggle in South Africa and conversely the role the apartheid regime played in supporting the former Mozambican rebel group, Renamo (Mozambique-South Africa: Strategic partnership to be consolidated at summit, available at: <http://www.irinnews.org/report.asp?ReportID=36120>. 10/02/2005).

### **3.7 CONCLUSION**

International governmental relations begin with the acknowledgement of the sovereignty of South Africa as an independent state hence South Africa will, despite the gradual cutting of fences in the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, remain a sovereign state. The growing interdependence among sovereign states and the subsequent globalization process are unavoidable. However, South Africa has to capitalize on the benefits which are brought by these changes. The African Renaissance is a philosophy conceived with noble intentions. The realization of its objectives depends largely on the extent to which African States can align their internal and foreign policies towards development in general and nature conservation. Foreign policy is determined by the Executive while Parliament's role is to ensure accountability and that foreign policy benefits all South Africans. International institutions exist because of the inability of independent states to be self-sufficient. The nature and number of bilateral and multilateral agreements will change depending on the needs of South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe in areas such as nature conservation.

It is important for different states to coordinate their internal activities relating to nature conservation in order to make a valuable contribution towards the effective management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The following chapter focuses on intergovernmental relations which take place between different South African public

institutions to ensure a coordinated approach to the management Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

## CHAPTER FOUR: INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS

### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

The first ten years of democracy in South Africa have afforded the South African government an opportunity to implement and test the system of government through the implementation of the *Interim Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1993* (Act 200 of 1993) and the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. The ten year period was characterized by the establishment of both statutory and non-statutory intergovernmental structures aimed at facilitating the interaction between the three spheres of government. However, South Africa has not yet reached a stage where it could be said that intergovernmental structures and relations between the three spheres of government have been developed to perfection. This could only be a utopia as in public administration there will always be new challenges which necessitate the quest for new developments and knowledge. The establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and other similar parks necessitate the exploration of the applicability, effectiveness of current structures as well as the need for new structures.

This chapter focuses on the nature of the Republic of South Africa as an independent state. The nature of the state has a bearing on the forms of intergovernmental relations. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* and other legislation provide an enabling environment for governmental relations hence the constitutional and legal framework form an important component of the discussion that unfolds below. Different forms of intergovernmental relations are discussed with a view to contextualise intergovernmental relations. Furthermore, the discussion focuses on the three spheres of government that are relevant and close to and involved in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. At national sphere, the functions performed by different state departments as well as various national intergovernmental relations structures in relation to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are discussed. The role of provincial and local

spheres of government and related intergovernmental structures are the last aspects that the chapter focuses on before the conclusion.

#### **4.2 NATURE OF THE STATE AND SYSTEM OF GOVERNMENT**

The nature of a state has an effect on the types of governmental relations likely to be observed between and amongst the three spheres of government. Section 1 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* provides that the Republic of South Africa is one, sovereign and democratic state. The foregoing provision of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* implies that South Africa is a unitary state. In a unitary state, the national legislative authority is sovereign and therefore can pass, repeal or amend laws that regulate the internal and external affairs of the state. Furthermore, the national legislature has the power to establish subordinate authorities, create and abolish legislative, executive and judicial institutions for the three spheres of government (Roux, Brynard, Botes and Fourie 1997: 174).

The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* clearly separates the legislative and executive authority. Although the legislature, which consists of the National Assembly and the National Council of Provinces, are separate from the executive (Cabinet), there is still a strong link between the two powers. The head of the executive (President) in South Africa is elected from and by members of the National Assembly. Furthermore, the President appoints most of the ministers from the National Assembly. Ministers are responsible for different portfolios such as Environmental Affairs and Tourism.

The strong parliamentary system of government in South Africa makes provision for the President to be accountable to Parliament for the performance of governmental functions. The exercise of oversight over the executive by Parliament implies that Parliament can

pass a motion of no confidence in the President and the executive. This is a control measure to ensure that the President does not exercise his powers arbitrarily.

The President plays an important role in the coordination of policy matters and oversees all portfolios hence he is held accountable in the case of the inability to solve national problems. It is for this reason that the President can reshuffle the Cabinet to improve performance of specific portfolios. The nature of the state and system of government are based on the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* that lays the foundation for intergovernmental relations in South Africa through chapter 3.

#### **4.3 CONSTITUTIONAL AND LEGAL FRAMEWORK FOR INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS IN RESPECT OF THE GREAT LIMPOPO TRANSFRONTIER PARK**

The South African constitutional order is founded on two inter-related concepts, mainly based on the sphere of government and cooperative government. In terms of section 40 (1) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* co-operative government means that, although each sphere is distinctive and has equal status, the spheres are interdependent within the overall structure of the state. The three spheres must, therefore, work together to ensure effective government in the whole and each of its parts. The three concepts namely, distinctive, interdependent and interrelated are central to cooperative government in South Africa hence they are further explained below.

**Distinctive.** The distinctiveness of each of the three spheres of government is the degree of legislative and executive autonomy in terms of section 43 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. One sphere is distinguishable from the other in its powers to make laws and execute them. Each sphere, therefore, has clear and distinctive legislative and executive competencies. The allocation of competencies is based on the assumption that there are particular public interests that are best served by the respective spheres of government. The existence of unique provincial and local interest calls for



their protection and promotion not through a unitary but through a decentralized state (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2002).

**Interdependent** The interdependence of the spheres is the degree to which one sphere depends upon another for the proper fulfilment of its constitutional functions. There are two interrelated aspects to this dependency. *Firstly*, the provincial and local spheres have an entitlement to assistance from the national and provincial governments respectively, in order for them to fulfil their constitutional functions. *Secondly*, the flip side of the entitlement is the duty on the national and provincial spheres to supervise the provincial and local spheres respectively to ensure that they fulfil their constitutional functions. This duty entails both the monitoring of the other sphere and intervening when a dependent sphere fails to fulfil its functions. The interdependence between the three spheres is thus reflected in this co-relationship in which a particular sphere (national or provincial) has the responsibility of empowerment and oversight, as well as, under certain circumstances, intervention in the dependent sphere (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2002).

**Interrelated-** The inter-relatedness of the spheres is the duty on each sphere to co-operate with one another in mutual trust and good faith for the greater good of the country as a whole. Based on the distinctiveness of each sphere, the relationship is one of relative equality. However, because this relationship must be realized within the duty of co-operative government, the result is not competitive federalism. Consequently, a duty is imposed on each sphere to avoid litigation against another sphere (Department of Provincial and Local Government, 2002).

The three spheres of government must be understood to be component parts of a larger single body, the government of the Republic of South Africa. The preference of the word “sphere” as opposed to “tier” was premised on a deliberate attempt to ensure that all “levels” of government are accorded equal status and treatment. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* deliberately refers to the term sphere as the term tier

would emphasize the existence of a hierarchical relationship between the three levels of government (Titus 2001: 18-19). Makhanya (1999: 349) concurs with the view expressed by Titus above.

Each of the three spheres of government in South Africa has legislative powers which are either exclusive or concurrent (Schedules 4 and 5 of *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*). Internationally, it appears to be an accepted norm to divide powers between different spheres/levels of government. The *Basic Law of the Federal Republic of Germany, 2000* is one such example. Article 71 and 72 of the *Basic Law of the Federal Republic of Germany, 2000* provides for exclusive and concurrent legislative power of the Federation and the Lander. Nature conservation is in terms of article 75(Ibid) an area of Federal Framework Legislation.

In terms of schedule 4 part A of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, the management of the environment is a functional area of concurrent national and provincial legislative competence. National government is permitted in terms of sections 146 and 150 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* to intervene in order to maintain national security, economic unity, national norms and standards or to avoid prejudicial activities by any provincial government. However, national government generally maintains a co-ordinating and monitoring role and provides framework legislation as well as setting norms and standards.

Although schedule 4 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* does not explicitly allow municipalities to make laws on matters relating to environmental management, municipalities have an important role to play in environmental management. Section 152(1)(c) (d) of the *Constitution of Republic of South Africa, 1996* identifies the objects of local government as being to promote social and economic development as well as the promotion of a safe and healthy environment. A local municipality such as Mbombela in the Mpumalanga Province is situated close to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and can contribute in terms of human capital. The role

of local government in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is further discussed in section 4.7.

Co-operative environmental governance represents a shift from narrow focus on government to a wide range of governance mechanisms, which are concerned with the growing role of associations and partnerships that reflect the dynamic and interactive nature of co-ordination. The central features of co-operative mechanisms are that they involve participants from more than one sector implying not just co-operation, but rather collaboration across broad areas. Co-operative government depends on consensus formation, thus it is through a shared experience of attempting to come to terms with a complex issue, through interaction among participants from different backgrounds, that the working-group comes to construct a common understanding of the problems to be addressed, and of the nature of potential solutions. Furthermore, co-operative government requires each partner to join in carrying out an agreed solution. It includes a framework for review of the original agreements in light of practical experience, and involves significant cross-sections of the groups and interests implicated in a particular problem (Co-operative environmental governance, Available at: [http://www.environment.gov.za/Docu.../environmental\\_implementation\\_21052003.htm](http://www.environment.gov.za/Docu.../environmental_implementation_21052003.htm) 27/10/2004)

The *National Environmental Management Act, 1998* (Act 107 of 1998) provides a framework for co-operative environmental governance. Chapter 3 of the *National Environmental Management Act, 1998* requires specific national departments and provinces to produce environmental management plans or environmental implementation plans every four years. The purpose of these plans is to assist departments in combined planning for the protection and sustainable management of the environment. This form of co-operative environmental management strives to achieve three objectives. *Firstly*, the *National Environmental Management Act, 1998* aims to improve and strengthen environmental relations among government departments. *Secondly*, the Act attempts to curtail conflict of interests on functions related to the environment amongst government

departments. *Thirdly*, the Act attempts to minimise the duplication of environmental functions of various departments (Co-operative environmental governance, Available at: [http://www.environment.gov.za/Docu.../environmental\\_implementation\\_21052003.htm](http://www.environment.gov.za/Docu.../environmental_implementation_21052003.htm) 27/10/2004).

#### **4.4 DIFFERENT FORMS OF INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS**

Before one can explain different forms of intergovernmental relations, it is important to define the concept intergovernmental relations. Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, Mathebula, van Dijk and Mello (2002: 8) define intergovernmental relations as all the interdependent relations amongst the various spheres of government. This definition includes interactions between politicians and officials for purposes of amongst others, environmental policy-making and implementation.

Hattingh (1998: 23-24, 27, and 30) identifies various forms of intergovernmental relations, namely vertical intergovernmental relations, horizontal intergovernmental relations, intragovernmental relations, and extragovernmental relations. Vertical and horizontal intergovernmental relations are the focus of this chapter. Although intragovernmental relations are important for the effective and efficient internal administration of all public institution, it will not be discussed further as this thesis does not focus on any specific sphere of government or state department. Extragovernmental relations will, however, receive attention in the next chapter.

##### **4.4.1 Vertical intergovernmental relations**

Vertical intergovernmental relations refer to the interaction which occurs between one or more public institutions found on the three spheres of government (Hattingh 1998: 23 and Smith 2002: 61). The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism for instance, has to interact with its counterparts in Mpumalanga and Limpopo in order to achieve the objectives of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Although the *Constitution of the*

*Republic of South Africa, 1996* gives the impression that there is equality among the three spheres of government, in practice the national Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism have more power than both the Limpopo and Mpumalanga provincial departments responsible for environmental affairs in matters pertaining to environmental policy although it is a functional area of national and provincial legislative competence. The state of affairs gives rise to dependence that restricts discretion enjoyed by provincial government.

#### **4.4.2 Horizontal intergovernmental relations**

Horizontal intergovernmental relations refer to relations that take place among institutions that are on the same sphere of government. The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism and the Department of Foreign Affairs are on the same sphere of government and have to co-operate to make the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park a success. Most public institutions depend on the assistance rendered by other institutions in order to fulfil their mandates. This interdependence gives rise to co-operation among such institutions. According to Smith (2002: 62) these relations differ considerably from vertical intergovernmental relations as they are not characterised by the concept of formal power. Furthermore, there is no relative disparity in the respective negotiating and bargaining powers of governmental institutions on the same sphere of government. The nature of interdependence among government institutions differs according to the need that gives rise to such relations. The need for co-operation in the establishment and development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is unique hence many national departments and structures are involved.

#### **4.5 DEPARTMENTS AND INTERGOVERNMENTAL STRUCTURES FOR THE NATIONAL SPHERE**

Theron (2004, Personal Interview) states that most departments at the national sphere of government are involved to varying degrees in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. In

addition to the role played by national departments, specialized intergovernmental structures are created as discussed in section 4.5.2.

#### **4.5.1 Departments Involved in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park**

A number of state departments which include, amongst others, the departments of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, South African Police Services, South African National Defence Force, Department of Home Affairs, South African Revenue Services, Departments of Health and Agriculture, and the Department of Foreign Affairs have an important role to play in the management and development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (Department of Foreign Affairs, Transfrontier conservation Areas: History and present status, Available at: [www.dfa.gov.za/foreign/Multilateral/inter/tfcas.htm](http://www.dfa.gov.za/foreign/Multilateral/inter/tfcas.htm) 10/02/2005). Theron (2004: Personal interview) concurs with the foregoing list of Departments. The functions of each of the aforementioned departments are discussed hereunder.

##### **4.5.1.1 Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism**

The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, in collaboration with the South African National Parks, is a key role player in the establishment, development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The extent of the involvement of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is evident in the organizational structure of this Department. The organisational structure of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism has a branch on Biodiversity and Conservation. This Branch is further divided into two chief directorates one of which is Transfrontier Conservation and protected areas (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, About us: Biodiversity and conservation, Available at:

[www.environment.gov.za/AboutUs/BiodConserv/AboutUs\\_Bioconservasp](http://www.environment.gov.za/AboutUs/BiodConserv/AboutUs_Bioconservasp)  
4/2/2005).

The role of the Branch on Biodiversity and Conservation is to ensure the regulation and management of all biodiversity, heritage and conservation matters. Its functions are to manage the conservation of transfrontier conservation areas and protected areas. Furthermore, the Branch is responsible for the promotion and conservation of biological diversity, cultural and local natural resources and ensure the sustainable utilization of resources for the benefit of the people of South Africa (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism About us: Biodiversity and conservation, Available at: [www.environment.gov.za/AboutUs/BiodConserv/AboutUs\\_Bioconservasp](http://www.environment.gov.za/AboutUs/BiodConserv/AboutUs_Bioconservasp) 4/2/2005).

In addition to the role of the Branch explained in the foregoing paragraph, the Chief Directorate on Transfrontier Conservation manages the conservation of the Transfrontier Conservation Areas and protected areas that include the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The function of the Chief Directorate is to ensure effective establishment of the Transfrontier Conservation Areas in each of the areas identified by government and co-ordinate the activities of all relevant government departments with the implementation agency. Other important functions are to ensure effective consolidation, establishment and management of protected areas in each of the main bio-regional areas (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism About us: Biodiversity and conservation, Available at: [www.environment.gov.za/AboutUs/BiodConserv/AboutUs\\_Bioconservasp](http://www.environment.gov.za/AboutUs/BiodConserv/AboutUs_Bioconservasp) 4/2/2005)

#### 4.5.1.2 The South African Police Service

Section 205(3) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* states that the objectives of the Police Service are to prevent, combat and investigate crime, to maintain public order, to protect and secure the inhabitants of the Republic of South Africa and their property and uphold and enforce the law. The National Border Policing component was established in 1995 within the division National Safety Services of the South African Police Services. The component is further divided into four sub-components: land and border posts, sea/coastal, airports, and internal tracing units (Minnaar, Boarder control and regionalism, available at: <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/ARS/10No2/Minnaar.html> 17/01/2005).

The South African Police Service is responsible for the control of border entry and crossing points (Minnaar, Boarder control and regionalism, available at: <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/ARS/10No2/Minnaar.html> 17/01/2005). The main purpose of Border Police is to prevent, detect and enforce law applicable to crossborder and illegal movement of people and goods. Border Police further perform *ad hoc* functions pertaining to immigration control, customs and excise on an agency basis on behalf of the Department of Home Affairs (Immigration) and South African Revenue Services (Customs and Excise) (Hennop, Jefferson, and McLean 2001: Available at: <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No57/Chap2.html> 18/01/2005).

The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism has to consult with the South African Police Service whenever a decision is made on the cutting of the fence between Mozambique and South Africa. The main purpose of this consultation is to determine the risk and the extent (Km) to which the fence can be cut (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 2005: Personal interview)



#### **4.5.1.3 South African National Defence Force**

In terms of section 200 (2) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, the primary object of the South African Defence Force is to defend and protect the Republic of South Africa, its territorial integrity and its people in accordance with the aforementioned *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* and the principles of international law regulating the use of force. The South African Defence Force is responsible for protecting the security of the country and the integrity of the borderline by providing and applying forces for land, air and maritime border protection against non-military threats (Government Communication and Information Service, South Africa Year Book 2003/4: 499 and Minnaar, Boarder control and regionalism, available at: <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/ARS/10No2/Minnaar.html> 17/01/2005).

Apart from the functions of the SANDF outlined above, the Department of Defence plays an important role in intergovernmental relations. The Department of Defence belongs to three Government clusters, namely the Justice, Crime Prevention and Security (JCPS), the International Relations, Peace and Security (IRPS) cluster, and the Governance and Administration (G&A) (Department of Defence 2004:3).

#### **4.5.1.4 Department of Home Affairs**

The Department of Home Affairs is responsible for *inter alia* the implementation of the *Aliens Control Act, 1991* (Act 96 of 1991). The Department of Home Affairs also designates ports of entry such as the Giriyondo Border post which was recently established between South Africa and Mozambique as Part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park project. Furthermore, the Department of Home Affairs provides for the control of the admission of persons to their residences in, and their departure from South Africa and matters connected therewith (Operational working team on border control).

#### **4.5.1.5 South African Revenue Services**

The South African Revenue Services is responsible for *inter alia* the regulation of customs and of the *Customs and Excise Act, 1964 (Act 91 of 1964)*. The regulations of *Customs and Excise Act, 1964* include the responsibility to collect duties on imported and locally manufactured goods, control the export and import of goods, implementation of the tariff protection policy of South Africa, application of customs and excise directives, and to administer Value Added Tax on the importation/exportation of goods (Operational working team on border control).

#### **4.5.1.6 Departments of Health and of Agriculture**

The imposition of quarantine measures on perishables and livestock is the joint responsibility of the Departments of Health and of Agriculture (Hennop, Jefferson, McLean 2001: Available at: <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/Monographs/No57/Chap2.html> 18/01/2005). The departments of Health and of Agriculture should be seen as partners in the prevention and control of veterinary diseases such as Food and Mouth disease which may have fatal consequences for wildlife in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

#### **4.5.1.7 Department of Foreign Affairs**

The Department of Foreign Affairs protects and promotes South African national interests and values through bilateral and multilateral interactions. The Department conducts and co-ordinates South Africa's international relations and promotes foreign policy objectives relating to, amongst others, cross border conservation areas such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The Department of Foreign Affairs also monitors international developments and advises government on foreign policy and related

domestic matters, protects South Africa's integrity, provides consular services to South African citizens abroad and promote multilateralism to secure a rule based international system (Department of Foreign Affairs, About the Department, Available at: <http://www.dfa.gov.za/department/index.html> 10/02/2005).

#### **4.5.2 INTERGOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS STRUCTURES FOR THE GREAT LIMPOPO TRANSFRONTIER PARK**

Intergovernmental relations structures in South Africa are either statutory or non-statutory. Although the status of different intergovernmental relations structures in South Africa may differ, they are all established within the framework of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* and, therefore, fulfil the same objectives. Intergovernmental structures which were informally established prior to 2005 were subsequently formalized by the promulgation of the *Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 2005 (Act 13 of 2005)*. The structures include the President's Coordinating Council, National intergovernmental forums, provincial intergovernmental forums and municipal intergovernmental forums.

##### **4.5.2.1 National Council of Provinces**

As already alluded to, in terms of section 42(1) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, Parliament consists of two houses, namely, the National Assembly and the National Council of Provinces. The National Council of Provinces consists of ten delegates including the Premier from each of the nine provinces. To ensure that there is fair representation in Parliament, section 67 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* makes provision for the participation of not more than ten part-time local government representatives designated by organised local government to represent the different categories of local government in South Africa. The participation of the ten part-time local government representatives has limitations as they are not allowed to vote although they participate when local government issues are discussed.

The National Council of Provinces can initiate or prepare legislation on a functional area as mentioned in schedule 4 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. Reddy (2001:33) argues that the National Council of Provinces has some limitations in performing its duties. Firstly, the National Council of Provinces does not challenge the policy assumptions of the national ministries and does not allow the expression of distinctive regional interests. Although the foregoing and many other criticisms can be levelled against the National Council of Provinces, it provides a valuable platform for intergovernmental relations between the three spheres of government in South Africa.

#### **4.5.2.2 President's Coordinating Council**

The President's Coordinating Council was established prior to the promulgation of the *Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 2005* and continues to exist in terms of section 6 of the same Act. At its establishment, the President's Coordinating Council consists of the President, as chairperson, deputy chairperson, nine premiers and the Minister for Provincial and Local Government (Thornhill, *et al* 2002: 116 and Mubangizi: 2005: 637).

In addition to the abovementioned members, section 6 of the *Intergovernmental Framework Act, 2005* makes provision for the inclusion of the Minister in the Presidency, Minister of Finance, Minister of Public Service and Administration and a representative of organised local government. Furthermore, section 6(3) empowers the President to invite any person who is not a member of the Council. Mubangizi (2005: 637) adds that the President can sometimes invite national and provincial directors-general to discuss high-level issues relating to integrated development, improving service delivery and strengthening institutions of government for the country as a whole. The invitation of directors-general is important for coordination and implementation of decisions taken by the President's Coordinating Council.

The President's Coordinating Council has a responsibility to promote intergovernmental co-operation and interaction so that integrated governance can be enhanced. The President's Coordinating Council boosts the constitutional principle of co-operative government by providing direct interaction between the executive authorities of the national and provincial governmental spheres. The President's Coordinating Council, therefore, presents an opportunity of being a consultative forum to ensure co-ordinated and integrated implementation of policies and programmes of government. It, therefore, plays a role in curbing the possible fragmentation of governance.

The functions of the President's Coordinating Council are, amongst others, to develop provincial policies, preparation and initiation of legislation for provinces, implementation of legislation within the framework of schedules 4 and 5 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, promotion of local government development and prevention of possible intervention in local government in terms of section 139 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*; developing of rural strategies; and the overseeing the planning process to integrate planning in the three spheres of government in South Africa (Cloete and Thornhill 2005: 64).

The involvement of the highest public office in the Republic of South Africa is indicative of the level of commitment of the executive to intergovernmental relations and its importance. The parliamentary system of government described in section 4.2 plays an important role in the establishment of the President's Coordinating Council. This system of government ensures that the President can, amongst others, be held accountable for the implementation of the provisions of Chapter 3 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* and a number of other policies that include environmental management.

#### 4.5.2.3 Forum of South African Directors-General

The Forum of South African Directors-General is an intergovernmental structure which consists of heads of departments. Membership of the Forum for South African Directors-General is confined to national directors-general and the directors-general responsible for the province's Premier's offices in South Africa. The Forum for South African Directors-General is chaired by the national Director-General in the Presidency. While the co-ordination and implementation of national policy is its foremost activity, the Forum provides a regular opportunity for Directors-General to share experiences around policy and implementation, exchange ideas and assist each other in the professional development and management of their departments. Formally, its role in intergovernmental relations includes fostering a dynamic interface between the political structures and the administration at the national and provincial spheres, improving horizontal and vertical co-ordination of national policies and sharing information on best practices in public management (Department of Provincial Affairs and Local Government, 2002: The intergovernmental system in South Africa, available at: <http://www.dplg.gov.za/research/cdp2002-37.rtf> 25/01/2005).

According to Thornhill *et al.* (2002:114), other functions performed by the Forum for South African Directors-General include the following:

- giving technical and administrative support to the President Coordinating Council,
- acting as a technical advisor to Cabinet Committees,
- preparing of reports for Cabinet Lekgotla (Strategic planning session), and
- considering crosscutting issues such rural and economic development strategies.

The wide-ranging brief of the Forum of the South African Directors-General – especially its reference to support and to facilitate the promotion of co-operative governance, makes

it an important instrument to co-ordinate policy and to ensure that the vision of the government of the day is achieved (Levy, 2001:108). The involvement of most national departments in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park makes the Forum for South African Directors-General, by virtue of its composition, a significant structure to co-ordinate efforts in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

#### **4.5.2.4 Minister and Members of Executive Council**

All Committees of Ministers and Members of Executive Council (MINMECs) continue to exist and are formalised in terms of section 9 of the *Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 2005*. A MINMEC comprises the minister, deputy minister, members of the Executive Council responsible for the relevant functional areas and a municipal councillor designated by the national organisation representing organised local government if a functional area for which the MINMEC is established includes a matter assigned to local government in terms of Part B of schedule 4 or part B of Schedule 5 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* or any national legislation. The Minister is the chairperson and has the right to invite a knowledgeable person to the meeting of the MINMEC. To facilitate better co-ordination, representatives of the South African Local Government Association need to be represented on MINMECS.

According to Cloete and Thornhill (2005: 64) Ministers and Members of Executive Council (MINMECs) are established for functional areas of concurrent national and provincial legislative competence as outlined in schedule 4 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa 1996*. The main functions of MINMECs are to provide advice on policy issues; identify problems and potential problems in policy formulation, co-ordination and implementation; comment on proposed national and provincial policies and legislation regarding concurrent competencies; and determine short-term and long-term priorities regarding matters of concurrent competencies (Cloete and Thornhill 2005: 64-65).

The interface between the different sectoral role-players within the MINMECs make them important instruments for intergovernmental co-operation and co-ordination. MINMECs allow provinces such as Limpopo and Mpumalanga to explain the peculiarities of their institutions to each other and provide them with an opportunity to interact with the national Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. MINMECs that are responsible for coordinating environmental affairs and conservation are discussed hereunder.

The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (Environment MINMEC) consists of the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism who also acts as the Chairperson. Furthermore, other members of the Committee are the Deputy Minister and members of the executive councils for tourism and economic affairs from the nine provinces. The functions of the Committee are to provide political leadership, guidance and decision-making on all aspects related to environmental management. Its areas of operation are the national and provincial spheres (Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, Mathebula, Van Dijk and Mello 2002: 120).

The Environment MIPTECH is composed of the Director-General of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (Chairperson), officials from national and provincial environment departments. The MIPTECH is further divided into three working groups, namely Biodiversity and Heritage, Environmental Management as well as Environmental Planning and Co-ordination. The function of the MIPTECH and its working groups is to provide technical input to Environmental Affairs and Tourism MINMEC in respect of all aspects related to the environment (Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, Mathebula, Van Dijk and Mello 2002: 120)

Section 12 of the *Intergovernmental Relations Framework Act, 2005* provides that a MINMEC must report back to the President's Coordinating Council on any matter referred to it by the Council. Similarly, the Minister of Environmental Affairs can, in consultation with the President, refer any matter discussed in the MINMEC to the



President's Coordinating Council. The referral of the President's Coordinating Council and MINMECS such as the Environment MINMEC ensure that specific issues relating environment and others functional areas are dealt with by appropriate structures with the necessary authority and knowledge.

#### **4.5.2.5 Committee for Environmental Coordination**

The Committee for Environmental Coordination is established in terms of section 7 of the *National Environmental Management Act, 1998*. The Committee for Environmental Coordination evaluates environmental implementation plans and environmental management plans. This Committee comprises directors-general of relevant national departments and provincial heads of department responsible for environment and related functional areas. The Committee is a major co-ordinating mechanism for environmental management at national sphere and the assignment, delegation and harmonization of environmental implementation plans/environmental management plans is one of its functions. Through the collective review of environmental implementation plans and environmental management plans, issues of co-operation and integration are addressed (Co-operative environmental governance, Available at: [http://www.environment.gov.za/Docu.../environmental\\_implementation\\_21052003.htm](http://www.environment.gov.za/Docu.../environmental_implementation_21052003.htm) 27/10/2004).

In terms of the *National Environmental Management Act, 1998*, environmental management plans and environmental implementation plans are aimed at achieving a number of objectives. *Firstly*, environmental management plans and environmental implementation plans co-ordinate and harmonise the environmental policies, plans, programmes, and decisions of the various national departments that exercise functions that may affect the environment or are entrusted with powers and duties aimed at the achievement, promotion, and protection of sustainable environment, and of provincial and local spheres of government with a view to minimise duplication of procedures and functions as well as the promotion of consistency in the exercise of functions that may

affect the environment; *Secondly*, they give effect to the principle of co-operative government contained in the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*; *Thirdly*, environmental management and implementation plans secure the protection of the environment within South Africa; *Fourthly*, these plans prevent unreasonable actions by provinces in respect of the environment that are prejudicial to the economic or health interests of other provinces or the Country as a whole; and lastly they enable the Minister for Environmental Affairs and Tourism to monitor the achievement, promotion and protection of a sustainable environment.

#### **4.5.2.6 South African National Biodiversity Institute**

The South African National Biodiversity Institute was established on 1 September 2004 (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism Annual Report 2005/2006, 2006: 36). The South African National Biodiversity Institute is established in terms of section 10 of the *National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act, 2004*. The *National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act, 2004* expands the mandate of the National Botanical Institute to include responsibilities relating to the full diversity of South Africa's fauna and flora.

The South African National Biodiversity Institute has a Board which consists of members who are between seven and nine, an official of another department and the Chief Executive Officer. Members of the Board are appointed by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism after advertisement and nominations are made in consultation with the members of executive councils responsible for environmental affairs in the nine provinces. The Board must be representative in terms of race, gender and must cover a broad range of appropriate expertise in the field of biodiversity. One member of the Board is appointed as a Chairperson by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. The term of office of members of the Board is three years with an option of reappointment for one additional term of three years.

The Board, in consultation with the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism appoints the Chief Executive Officer for a term of five years. The chief executive officer may be appointed for an additional term. The Chief Executive Officer is responsible for the management of the Institute. Section 29 of the *National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act, 2004* makes provision for the Institute to employ staff on a fixed establishment to assist the Chief executive officer in the execution of duties provided for in terms of the aforementioned Act.

The South African National Biodiversity Institute is a public entity and, therefore, manages its finances in accordance with the *Public Finance Management Act, 1999*. The funds of the Institute are derived from the performance of its duties, appropriations by parliament, grants from other organs of state, voluntary contributions, donations and bequests, and money borrowed.

Section 11 of the *National Environmental Management: Biodiversity Act, 2004* prescribes the functions of the South African National Biodiversity Institute. The functions of the National Biodiversity Institute include, amongst others, are to:

- monitor and report regularly to the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism on status of the Republic's biodiversity,
- act as an advisory and consultative body on matters relating to biodiversity to organs of state and other biodiversity stakeholders,
- environmental education and research,
- establish, maintain, protect and preserve collections of animals and micro organisms in appropriate enclosures,
- collect, generate, process, coordinate and disseminate information about biodiversity and sustainable use of indigenous biological resources and establish and maintain databases,

- coordinate and implement programmes for rehabilitation of ecosystems, and involvement of civil society,
- prevent, control or eradication of invasive species,
- any other functions which may be assigned to it by the Minister.

The South African National Biodiversity Institute has successfully launched the R75million *Greening the Nation* project, which targets both urban and rural schools and community centres (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism Annual Report 2005/2006, 2006: 36).

#### **4.5.2.7 Border Control Coordinating Committee**

The Border Control Coordinating Committee is a sub-committee of the Justice, Crime Prevention, Safety and Security Cluster of the Cabinet (BCOCC, available at:[http://www.home-affairs.gov.za/media\\_releases](http://www.home-affairs.gov.za/media_releases). 15/11/2006). According to Pienaar (2006 Personal Interview) the SANDF and SAPS are part of Border Control Coordinating Committee which is responsible for the cross border movement of people, goods and services. The Border Control and Coordinating Committee play a significant role in the development of new border posts and dropping of fences between South Africa and Mozambique.

#### **4.5.2.8 National Interdepartmental Structure**

The National Interdepartmental Structure is an offspring of a meeting held on 5 May 1997 between the head of border police, the head of immigration of the Department of Home Affairs and the Head of Customs and Excise of the South African Revenue Services. The aim of the National Interdepartmental Structure is to ensure that border control is a co-operative venture between functionally independent units located in different government departments. The National Interdepartmental Structure has resulted in the implementation of a management system that has dramatically improved

communication and co-operation among the various departments involved, created a uniform processing system for ports of entry and exit, and reclassified all ports of entry and much more. It has also linked the South African Police Services Vehicle Circulation System and the Department of Transport's National Traffic Information System to the departmental computer networks (Minnaar, Border control and regionalism, available at: <http://www.iss.co.za/Pubs/ARS/10No2/Minnaar.html> 17/01/2005).

The linking of different departmental computer networks ensures that the Giryondo border (Which was opened between South Africa and Mozambique in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park) is not used for illegal activities such as exporting of stolen vehicles and counterfeit goods under the guise of tourism. The aim and functions of National Interdepartmental Structure are to co-ordinate and advise on operational functions in relation to border control. The National Interdepartmental Structure develops recommendations regarding joint operational policy, standards, procedures and future strategic planning. These recommendations include contingency planning. The National Interdepartmental Structure monitors implementation and execution of its recommendations. The National Interdepartmental Structure evaluates the effectiveness of joint operational services of ports of entry. This function includes physical inspections by a task team and reports with findings and recommendations. Furthermore, the National Interdepartmental Structure facilitates inter-departmental communication at all spheres of government.

In addition to the foregoing powers and functions, the National Interdepartmental Structure performs functions which have a bearing on human resources. It facilitates and coordinates joint training requirements for border control. It also provides orientation and ports of entry management training. Optimising all available resources for border control is another essential function performed by the National Interdepartmental Structure. It establishes and maintains joint management structures on regional and ports of entry levels, develops the criteria

for designation and status of all ports of entry (land, sea and air), co-ordinates present and future border control task teams at national sphere; promotes and coordinates joint ventures with other role players and stakeholders such as business and international agencies to add value to projects relating to border control; and maintains and manage a national information centre. (Operational working team on border control, Border control: collective approach implementation plan).

#### **4.5.2.9 National Advisory Forum**

The National Advisory Forum is a statutory intergovernmental structure established in terms of section 3 of the *National Environment Management Act, 1998 (Act 27 of 1998)*. The National Advisory Forum consists of between 12 and 15 members appointed by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. In the appointment of members of the Board, the Minister has to consider the need to appoint women, youth, persons disadvantaged by unfair discrimination, vulnerable and other disadvantaged persons. Before the appointment of the aforementioned persons, the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism must invite nominations of organised labour, organised business, non-governmental organisations and community based organisations by a notice in the Government Gazette and newspapers.

The National Advisory Board advises the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism on environmental issues. The Board also participates in meetings relating to international environmental matters. The composition of the Board indicates that its primary purpose is to stimulate participation by various stakeholders in the community regarding the management of the environment.

#### 4.5.2.10 Immigration Advisory Board

The Immigration Advisory Board is chaired by a designee of the Minister of Home Affairs. The Board further consists of one representative of each of the departments of Trade and Industry, Labour, Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Finance, Safety and Security, South African Revenue Services, Department of Education, Department of Foreign Affairs, and the Department of Defence. In addition to the representatives of the foregoing Departments, membership of the Board include the Director-General of the Department of Home Affairs, up to five persons from civil society, including one representing organized labour and one representing organized business appointed by the Minister of Home Affairs after a notice has been given in the Government Gazette soliciting public nominations of the aforementioned persons. The Minister of Home Affairs appoints up to four individuals on the grounds of the expertise in administration, regulatory matters or immigration law, control, adjudication or enforcement (Department of Home Affairs, Provisions in law relating the powers and functions of the Immigration Advisory Board: Available at: [www.home-affairs.gov.za](http://www.home-affairs.gov.za) 24/01/2005).

The Immigration Advisory Board advises the Minister of Home Affairs on a variety of issues including the contents of regulations made in terms of the *Immigration Act*, 2002 (Act 13 of 2002) formulation of policy pertaining to immigration matters, the implementation of immigration policy by the Department of Home Affairs, the reviewing of a decision of the Department of Home Affairs in terms section 8 and when requested by the Minister of Home Affairs; and on other matters on which the Minister of Home Affairs may request advice on (Department of Home Affairs, Provisions in law relating to the powers and functions of the Immigration Advisory Board: Available at: [www.home-affairs.gov.za](http://www.home-affairs.gov.za) 24/01/2005).

Due to the size of the Immigration Advisory Board, provision is made for the Board to appoint standing committees from its members to assist in the performance of its functions. These standing committees report to the Board on matters that include amongst

others, border control and administration of ports of entry; investigation and enforcement, international relations; security and liaison with law enforcement agencies (Department of Home Affairs, Provisions in law relating the powers and functions of the Immigration Advisory Board: Available at: [www.home-affairs.gov.za](http://www.home-affairs.gov.za) 24/01/2005).

A careful analysis of the functions performed by the Border Control Coordinating Committee, National Interdepartmental Structure and the Immigration Advisory Board indicates some similarities in the functions that they perform. These similarities require careful coordination in order to avoid duplication of functions.

#### **4.6 PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT**

South Africa is made up of nine provinces. Each of these provinces has the legislative and executive powers within the concurrent functions listed in schedule 4 and executive functions assigned exclusively in schedule 5 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. Environment is classified under schedule 5 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. Provincial powers that include amongst others, making policies pertaining to the environment are subject to the national overrides. Furthermore, provinces are responsible for overseeing and supporting municipalities and can intervene whenever municipalities are unable to meet their obligations (section 139 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*). Provincial intergovernmental relations structures in Limpopo and Mpumalanga are discussed below.

##### **4.6.1 Directorate: Intergovernmental Relations and Protocol Services**

The Directorate: Intergovernmental Relations and Protocol Services is a statutory intergovernmental structure. It co-ordinates, promotes and maintains good relations with the national government departments, the provincial government and other countries worldwide. It co-ordinates and renders protocol services during provincial functions and accompany MEC, Ministers, Premier, Presidency and other Very Important Persons



(VIPs) to all functions inside and outside the Republic of South Africa. The Directorate: Intergovernmental Relations and Protocol Services further promotes the ceremonial system of rules and accepted behaviour by government officials and members of the community in line with universally accepted standards (Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, Mathebula, van Dijk and Mello 2002: 138).

In addition to all the aforementioned general functions, the Directorate: Intergovernmental Relations and Protocol Services performs specific intergovernmental functions. *Firstly*, the Directorate: Intergovernmental Relations and Protocol Services initiates new ties with other provinces for the good of the people of the province. *Secondly*, it forges new ties with developed and developing countries. *Thirdly*, the directorate coordinates intergovernmental relations in the province (Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, Mathebula, van Dijk and Mello 2002: 138). The Directorate: Intergovernmental Relations and Protocol Services is a suitable institution for the coordination of efforts aimed at the improvement of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and the involvement of the Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces as the Park falls within their area of jurisdiction.

#### **4.6.2 Mpumalanga Province Cluster Committees**

The Mpumalanga Province Cluster Committees are non-statutory coordinating structures established at Executive Council level. There are three cluster committees in Mpumalanga, namely governance and administration, Economic, Employment and Investment; and social services. The Governance and Administration cluster is chaired by the Premier of the Province. Its membership consists of MECs for Housing, Land Affairs, and Local Government, Safety and Security and the 7 executive mayors of local municipalities in the province. The Economic, Employment and Investment cluster is chaired by the MEC for Finance, Economic Affairs and Tourism (Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, van Dijk 2002: 72).

The main aim of the clusters is to bring about coherence and consistency and to clarify lines of communication between the local government and provincial sphere of government. Furthermore, the clusters' objectives are to enhance and promote co-operative governance; create a platform for co-ordination of activities of the Mpumalanga provincial government and its municipalities; to review and make recommendations on local government legislation to ensure that such legislation conforms with the democratic system of governance; and to discuss MINMEC issues (Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, van Dijk 2002: 73). The Economic Cluster Committee mentioned above should be involved by the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park management in promoting tourism for both the Province and the Park.

#### **4.6.3 Mpumalanga Intergovernmental Relations Forum**

The Mpumalanga Intergovernmental Relations Forum is a non statutory co-ordinating structure which operates at provincial and local sphere of government. The Forum consists of the Premier or MEC for Local Government and Traffic (who also acts as a chairperson in the absence of the Premier), Deputy Chairperson, the Head of Department of Local Government and Traffic, all mayors and municipal managers; Chairperson and Secretary and CEO of LOGAM; Chairperson for the Portfolio Committee on Local government, all MECs and heads of department including the Director-General of the Premier's Office (Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, van Dijk 2002: 73).

The Mpumalanga Intergovernmental Relations Forum acts as a policy recommending structure. The Mpumalanga Intergovernmental Relations Forum should be given an opportunity to make an input regarding policies and the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. It monitors the activities of municipalities in relation to agreed national and provincial policies. It reviews and makes recommendations on the financial status of municipalities. The Forum meets twice per annum on condition that various cluster groups and functional committee meetings take place between such plenary meetings (Thornhill, Odendaal, Malan, van Dijk 2002: 73).

#### 4.7 LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Local government in South Africa is the third sphere of government. Municipalities are a division of local government that lay one sphere down from the provincial government (Municipalities of South Africa, available at: [http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/municipalities\\_of\\_south\\_africa](http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/municipalities_of_south_africa). 11/05/2006). There are 284 municipalities in South Africa (local government, available at: [http://www.southafrica.info/ess\\_info/sa\\_glance/government/gov.htm](http://www.southafrica.info/ess_info/sa_glance/government/gov.htm). 11/05/2006).

Municipalities are established in terms of section 155 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* as the third sphere of government in South Africa. Section 151(1) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* establishes category A, B and C municipalities. Category A municipality has executive and legislative authority in its area. Category B municipality shares municipal executive and legislative authority in its area with category C municipality within whose area it falls. Category C municipality has municipal executive and legislative authority in an area that includes more than one municipality.

According to Cloete and Thornhill (2005:46), there are six category A Municipalities, 231 category B municipalities and 47 category C municipalities. Only category B and C are relevant for this study. District and local councils are interdependent and involve a division of powers. A district council has municipal executive and legislative authority over a large area, its primary responsibility is district-wide planning and capacity building. Within a district council's area are individual local councils which share their municipal authority with the district council under which they fall.

In addition to the three categories provided for by the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, there is a fourth "category". This category is known as the district management areas. Although the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* does not expressly provide for the establishment of district management areas the Minister of

Provincial and Local Government can establish a management area in specified areas. The Kruger National Park is not attached to any local municipality. The Kruger National Park is, therefore, classified and demarcated as a district management area.

Section 6 of the Municipal Structures Act, 1998 stipulates that areas that cannot be demarcated as metropolitan municipalities can be declared as district or local municipalities. However, in areas where the establishment of a local municipality is not possible such areas are district management areas. The Minister of Provincial and Local Government makes declarations on the recommendation of the Municipal Demarcation Board after consulting the member(s) of executive council for local government in the provinces concerned. In the case of the Kruger National Park, the Limpopo and Mpumalanga members of executive councils for local government are consulted.

The Kruger National Park was declared as a management area in terms of notice 421 published in Government Gazette 21617 of 29 September 2000. A district management area is an area within a district municipality which is not part of a local municipality and is governed and managed directly by the district municipality under whose jurisdiction it falls. A district municipality assumes all the local government functions and becomes responsible for basic service provision. The service provision includes among others, the provision of water, electricity, solid waste disposal, health and firefighting. The district municipality co-ordinates development and service delivery in district management area settlements. The Kruger National Park is a designated piece of land that has a high diversity and environmental value which requires protection and conservation

According to the HSRC (2005: 11), there are 25 district management areas in South Africa. These management areas can be categorised into three types of district municipalities, namely:

- the deserts and semi-arid areas;
- state protected and conservation areas; and
- special economic areas such as world heritage sites.

The second type of district management area is relevant for the study. In state protected and conservation areas, the SANParks takes over overall management. District management areas are located in areas where the establishment of a local municipality would not be viable. These areas such as state owned national parks and protected areas and desert regions where low population over an extended area would make fulfilling the objectives of local government difficult. Since district municipalities do not belong to a local municipality, should the declaration of a district management area be withdrawn, either a local municipality must be established for that area or it must be incorporated into an existing local municipality. The latter option is more probable as the Municipal Demarcation Board is unlikely to establish new municipalities with little or no viable economic base. The purpose of the district municipalities taking over the responsibility is to ensure development and basic service delivery in sparsely populated areas, particularly for disadvantaged communities.

Section 151 further states that the local sphere of government consists of municipalities that are established for the whole of the Republic. This provision of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, 1996 implies that the Kruger National Park which is part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park falls within a specific municipal area. According to Pienaar (2006, Personal Interview), the Kruger National Park is located in two district municipalities. The northern part of the Kruger National Park, from the Olifant River up to Pafuri falls within the Mopani District Municipality. The southern part of the Kruger National Park, which borders on the Olifant River falls within the Ehlanzeni District Municipality. The involvement of the two district municipalities is crucial for the success of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

The inclusion of the Kruger National Park within the area of jurisdiction of a number of municipalities suggests that such municipalities have to be involved or at least be consulted in the management and development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (2005: Personal interview)

confirms that municipalities are involved whenever the Department implements projects such as poverty alleviation.

Although the Kruger National Park falls within the area of jurisdiction of the Mopani and Ehlanzeni district municipalities, it is a national entity which is controlled by national government. It follows, therefore, that the aforementioned municipalities do not have limited power over the Kruger National Park. The management of the Kruger National Park performs its duties independently from the two municipalities. However, to avoid inconsistent land use planning, councillors of both municipalities are represented on park forums. The power that the municipality has over the Kruger National Park is confined to rates and taxes that the Kruger National Park has to pay to the respective municipalities.

#### **4.8 CONCLUSION**

The nature and system of government that is guided by the constitutional framework lays the foundation for intergovernmental relations in South Africa. Two forms of intergovernmental relations in South Africa, namely, vertical intergovernmental relations and horizontal intergovernmental relations feature prominently in the establishment and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Although most national state departments are involved in the development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, only those departments that seem to play a prominent role have been discussed. Other departments are being consulted whenever the development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park a service that resorts within their functional area of jurisdiction. The development of transfrontier parks in South Africa and SADC is of recent origin hence adaptation in management and approaches can be expected in the further development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Further development of transfrontier parks will require unique intergovernmental relations between the three spheres of government, amongst departments on each sphere of government and more specialised coordinating structures.

## CHAPTER FIVE: EXTRA-GOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

The foregoing chapter focused on the nature of the state and constitutional principles which allow state institutions to be involved in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. State institutions are only part of the system, other non-state actors need to be involved in order to complete the management system.

The government in South Africa exists to satisfy the needs of members of the society. If government exists for communities and society in general, it can be argued that a democratic government always has to be in contact with the communities it serves. The word public is used as a general concept which includes individual members of communities, organized groups, non-governmental organisations, and the private sector. Extra-governmental relations explore the relations between governmental institutions involved in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and members of the public as well as non-governmental organisations.

The democratization of South Africa started before the election of the Government of National Unity in 1994. However, the year 1994 was the culmination of efforts to transform the government. This transformation represented a paradigm shift in the manner in which government relates and interacts with citizens. One of the fundamental and inevitable changes relates to government and governance. Citizens are, in terms of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* awarded fundamental rights which include, amongst others, the right to access information and participate actively in decision-making processes of public institutions.

The rights accorded citizens further empower them to actively seek innovative ways of improving their livelihood and environments. This is a positive step in the direction of

governance as citizens are no longer wholly dependent on government for guidance and means for survival. Community based natural resource management by communities such as at Makuleke is evidence that citizens can add value to their lives and environment without the state having to act as a catalyst. In addition, the pressure on government to do more with limited resources means that government has to consider alternative ways to service delivery. One such alternative method is to enter into partnerships. The types of partnerships discussed in this chapter are community-government partnerships, public-private partnerships and partnerships with non-governmental organizations.

## **5.2 DEFINITION OF THE PHENOMENON**

The central theme of this chapter is extra governmental relations. Logic dictates that one should define this phenomenon known as extra-governmental relations within the context of this study. Hattingh (1998:30) defines governmental relations as the different relations which exist between governmental institutions and members of the public, non-governmental organizations and the private sector. Du Toit, Van der Walddt, Bayat, Cheminais(1998: 255) are in agreement with this definition. Hattingh (1998) and du Toit *et al.* (1998) further categorise extra-governmental relations into social, political, economic and institutional relations. Social and economic extra-governmental relations are relevant for the discussion in this study.

## **5.3 CO-OPERATIVE GOVERNANCE**

Co-operative governance is a phenomenon which consists of two words, namely co-operative and governance. The former word suggests collaboration. The latter word is used differently by different authors hence it is necessary to define this concept within the context of this study. Furthermore, the word governance is often used as a synonym for government (Naidoo 2004:27). It is, therefore, necessary to clear the confusion and indicate the differences between these two words.



According to Cloete (1998: 57) the word government refers to a group of individuals who have been elected to implement laws passed by the legislature. Naidoo(2004:24) interprets the word government as a body of public institutions that makes and applies all enforceable decisions for a society. A closer look at these two definitions shows that they are different although they attempt to define the same word. Cloete's definition refers to a group of elected individuals whilst Naidoo refers to a body of public institutions. These differences in the definition of the same concept highlight the fact that different people and authors attach different meanings to the same word.

Cloete's definition describes the government-of-the-day. In South Africa, the President and his cabinet are normally referred to as the government-of-the-day. Cloete's definition is, therefore, more specific. Naidoo's definition is more comprehensive. This definition implies that government includes institutions such as the legislature, the executive on the three spheres of government, and the judiciary. For purposes of this study, a more comprehensive definition is more appropriate.

According to Olowu (2002: 1) governance has become an important issue in development policy discourse and social science research. However, the lack of conceptual consensus on the term results in a multiplicity of definitions. Hyden and Court (2002: 13) concurs that the term means different things to different people.

Maserumule (2005:201) defines governance as a process of decision-making by political and administrative actors to formulate and implement policies aimed at enhancing the quality of the lives of citizens. According to Swilling and Wooldridge (1997: 491) governance refers to working with and listening to citizens in order to manage the public's resources and respond to the needs and expectations of citizens and individuals, interest groups and society as a whole. Governance involves active co-operation and ongoing engagement in the process of policy formulation and implementation between politicians, senior management, frontline workers and citizens.

To Sharfritz (2004) the word governance refers to interpersonal and inter-organisational efforts to cope with public or cross boundary problems by using networks of people and organisations. Naidoo (1994:29) takes Sharfritz's definition even further by listing the actual actors in the governance process. These actors include, amongst others, civil society which encompasses non-governmental organizations and community based organisations, the media, business institutions, communities and individuals. The foregoing two definitions suggest the existence of an interactive process in governance. Co-operative governance is a new approach to government and administration. It represents an attempt to shift from a narrow focus on government to a wide range of governance mechanisms which are concerned with the growing roles of associations and partnerships that reflect the dynamic and interactive nature of co-ordination (Co-operative environmental governance, available at [http://www.environmenta.gov.za/docu/envirmental\\_implementation\\_21052003.htm](http://www.environmenta.gov.za/docu/envirmental_implementation_21052003.htm) 27/10/2004).

Co-operative governance seeks to involve participants from more than one sector implying not just co-operation but collaboration. This implies that all must consult each other and work together for the attainment of objectives relating to sustainable natural resources management. It further depends on consensus formation, thus it is through shared experience of attempting to come to terms with a complex issue, through exchange and interaction among participants from different backgrounds, that the parties come to construct a common understanding of the problems to be addressed and of the nature of potential solutions. Co-operative governance requires each partner to join in carrying out the agreed solution. It includes a framework for review of the original agreements in the light of practical experience. Furthermore, it involves a significant cross-section of the groups and interests in a particular problem nexus (Co-operative environmental governance, available at [http://www.environmenta.gov.za/docu/envirmental\\_implementation\\_21052003.htm](http://www.environmenta.gov.za/docu/envirmental_implementation_21052003.htm) 27/10/2004).

Co-operative governance should, for purposes of this study, be understood as interaction which take place among government, parastatal institutions, citizens and non-governmental organizations with the aim of effective management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The underlying principle of co-operative governance is the quest to involve all stakeholders or their representatives. It puts a premium on inclusiveness and consensus building. Citizen participation is a corollary to co-operative-governance

#### **5.4 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION**

Brynard (1996: 39) argues that the idea of public participation arises from the classical theory of democracy, but the structure of modern government is not that of a pure democracy, but that of a republic. According to Mmethi (2006: telephone interview) the word public within the context of the Kruger National Park refers to three categories of the public. *Firstly*, it refers to neighbouring communities within a 20 kilometre radius. *Secondly*, it refers to people with historic ties to the Kruger National Park and lastly it refers to the economic category which includes businesses in nearest towns.

Mc Lavery (2002: 185-186) argues that public participation is desirable because no one is able to express the views of another. Rousseau is quoted by Mc Lavery as saying that as a result of participating in decision-making the individual is educated to distinguish between his/her own impulses and desires, the individual learns to be a public as well as a private citizen. Through this educative process the individual eventually feels little or no conflict between the demands of the public and private spheres. The reconciliation of the individual interest and public interest is often the cause of conflict in public decision-making.

Some of the ideals expressed by Mc Lavery are difficult to achieve due to the nature of the South African communities. The size and complexity of South African communities in the 21<sup>st</sup> century make it impossible for all individuals in communities to be involved in

the process of decision-making. Representative democracy is, therefore, practised in South Africa and elsewhere in democratic countries in the World.

Citizen participation is the result of the existence of a social contract between elected politicians and members of the public (voters, non-voters and those who choose not to vote). Freyden (1999: 44-45) argues that the government is created by a contract between the ruler and the ruled after the ruler has been identified directly or indirectly from amongst individuals. The essence of a social contract is that, people born free with exactly the same inherent and inalienable right and, therefore, being equal, consent freely to the creation of government. This free consent of all constitutes the legitimacy of government as well as its limits. The existence of a contract implies that the ultimate power in the state is vested in the people and the people are therefore the source of power and government is subservient to the people.

Clapper (1996: 53-55) identifies popular sovereignty, political equality, popular consultation and majority rule as fundamental principles of citizen participation. These four principles of citizen participation support the notion that the democratic government is subservient to the people and, therefore, people have a legitimate right to participate in decision-making processes. Citizen participation is a process wherein ordinary members of the public exercise power over decisions related to the general affairs of the community (Brynard 1996: 40). It is both formal and informal.

The advantages of citizen participation are according to Clapper (1996: 75-76) the following:

- reduction of apathy,
- positive application of citizen powers
- converting opponents,
- information dissemination, and
- retraining the abuse of authority

Although one cannot dispute the validity of the foregoing advantages, it is necessary to point out a few disadvantages. Firstly, consulting members of the public is time consuming as officials are expected to arrange meetings with all stakeholders or their representatives. The involvement of stakeholders with different backgrounds will inevitably lead to conflict which could take time to resolve. Low citizen participation levels and citizen competence are mentioned by Clapper (1996: 73-74) as challenges that can be overcome. Most citizens are not keen on attending meetings and when they do attend they often lack competence in areas such as reading, writing and basic analytical skills. Illiteracy requires public officials to translate and interpret the content of a policy document before individuals can make any meaningful contributions. Translation and interpretation increase the costs of citizen involvement.

As indicated in section 5.1 of this chapter, government exists for purposes of satisfying the needs of citizens. Citizens as the main beneficiaries of the outcome of government decisions and policies should always be consulted in matters pertaining to the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and other policies aimed at the promotion of the general welfare. The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* provides a firm basis for citizen participation in South Africa and consequently by inference, the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The Preamble to the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* states that its purpose is to lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by law. By implication, this provision of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* mandates public institutions to devise methods through which citizens can be consulted in matters such as conservation policy-making and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Section 32 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* makes provision for citizens to have the right to access any information held by the state or any person. Access to information is further echoed by the *Promotion of Access to Information Act, 2000 (Act 2 of 2000)*. Although the purpose of the latter Act is to facilitate access to

information held by the state, there are numerous grounds on which access to information can be denied. These grounds include, amongst others, defence, security and international relations of the Republic of South Africa as well as the operations of public bodies. The promotion of access to information and grounds for refusal may sound contradictory. However, it is necessary for the state to refrain from making sensitive information available should it negatively affect the interests of its citizens.

Access to information will be meaningless if it is not coupled with the right to freedom of expression including the right to criticise government and conservation agencies without fear of reprisals. In terms of Section 16 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, communities living on the outskirts of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park have the right to freedom of expression which include, but are not limited to the freedom of the press and other news media to receive or impart information or ideas. The press and other media play a significant role in providing citizens with a platform to express their views. The press serves as a mirror for government successes and failures. However, press freedom should not only be used to criticise government. Through the press, citizens can make valuable suggestions which could shape policies on conservation management.

Section 24 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* accords all members of the public the right to have their environment protected, for the benefit of present and future generations, through reasonable legislative and other measures which by implication should, *inter alia*, prevent pollution and ecological degradation, promote conservation and secure ecologically sustainable development and use of natural resources while promoting justifiable economic and social development.

Section 195 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* echoes the sentiments expressed in the Bill of Rights. Section 195(1)(e) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* provides that the people's needs must be responded to and the public must be encouraged to participate in policy-making. Furthermore, section

195 (1)(f) and (g) put emphasis on accountability and transparency. Accountability and transparency are essential tenets of democracy. These tenets ensure that communities such as Makuleke are continuously being updated about the manner in which their land is administered by their representatives and government. Annual reports of the national Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism as well as the South African National Parks can be accessed by members of the public who have an interest in conservation matters. The internet has further enhanced transparency as members of the public can now access information from their homes and offices.

Although legislation in South Africa lays a foundation for citizen participation, in practice citizen participation appears to be seen as a waste of time by government officials and conservation agencies. Maluleke (2003: 5) argues that the lack of respect has pervaded the whole Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park planning process. The community of Makuleke had expected that as the official landowners of the central piece of land that allows Kruger National Park to join Zimbabwe, the community should have been consulted. Furthermore, Buscher and Dietz (2005:12) also believe that the Makuleke community has not been taken seriously as a discussion partner by the national states involved by for example not including them in the management board.

Contrary to the aforementioned legitimate expectation, the Makuleke community only became involved after a protest letter was written to the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. The non involvement of the Makuleke Community from the start of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park process suggests that government and South African National Parks still, to some extent, practise planning for the people instead of planning with the people. The former approach could lead to unnecessary delays as citizens may place obstacles in the implementation phases of projects if they are not consulted.

In view of the fact that South African citizens and the Makuleke community in particular are increasingly becoming aware of their rights to participate in important decisions, it

would be advisable for the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism and South African National Parks to follow processes that are more transparent and inclusive of the majority of the citizens. It is true that citizen participation can be time consuming. It is however, a necessary component in a democratic country such as South Africa. Citizen participation should not be seen as a formality, but inputs and genuine concerns of individuals and groups should form the basis of policies and decisions.

Van Zyl[s.a] believes that a transfrontier park initiative requires the support of people living in villages adjacent to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The needs of the rural communities have to be considered and participation should be given priority. Coomer in Du Toit *et al.* (1998:270) argues that a sustainable society is one that lives within the self-perpetuating limits of its environment; recognises the limits of growth; and continues to search for alternative ways of growing.

A sustainable community will, according to Du Toit *et al.*, (1998:270) be based the following:

- help for the poor because they are left with no option but to destroy the environment to survive;
- self-reliant development within natural resource constraints;
- cost-effective development using economic criteria that differ from the traditional approach which was unsustainable; and
- people centred initiative

Sustainability is based on the recognition and supporting of close linkages between natural and social systems located at several levels. This understanding leads to giving equal emphasis to environmental and social sustainability. Although the Makuleke and other communities have not as yet realized these ideals, steps are progressively being taken to ensure that they become sustainable communities.



Good community liaison is fundamental to improving park community relations. Communication is fundamental to relations between park and community. (Conservation: Strengthening community relations and economic empowerment, available at: [http://www.sanparks.org/people/community\\_3/1/2005](http://www.sanparks.org/people/community_3/1/2005)). Communication can either be written or oral. Depending on the levels of literacy, local languages can be used for effective communication of messages relating to nature conservation and participation opportunities. The role of the communities living within or near the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park cannot be overemphasised.

An opportunity for communities to participate was created by the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park when it organised exchange visits for the local communities from Makuleke in South Africa, Shingwezi and Limpopo in Mozambique and Shengwe and Chiredzi in Zimbabwe in February 2004. The aim of these exchanges was to share ideas on potential opportunities in conservation. The visits took place in two phases. The first phase consisted of a visit by the Makuleke community to Mozambique and the second phase a visit by the Mozambicans and Zimbabweans to the Makuleke area. The exchanges will continue as a valuable knowledge sharing tool concerning involvement in nature conservation (Exchange visits continue, [www.greatlimpopopark.com](http://www.greatlimpopopark.com). 15/02/2005).

Transfrontier conservation areas are a means for socioeconomic upliftment and empowerment of previously marginalised communities who are able to derive benefits from and participate in their management as key sub-entities. However, communities are seldom consulted. Consultation of communities is a formality as decisions have, as far as it could be ascertained, already been made by government officials. Given the formal bilateral nature of most transfrontier conservation areas agreements are by definition top-down. Power asymmetries and structural conditions work against development of appropriate institutions for local conservation by local actors themselves (Wolmer, transboundary protected areas governance: tensions and paradoxes, available at: <http://www.earthlore.ca/clients/wpc/English/sessions.html> 20/07/2005. )

A problem inherent in using transfrontier conservation areas as vehicles for rural development is that the revenues and job opportunities they provide for local communities are often dwarfed by the opportunity costs of livelihood strategies foregone. With ecotourism initiatives, there is a particularly high drainage of revenue away from local communities to national and international structures. The paradox is that just as transfrontier conservation areas are allowing freedom of movement of tourists and wildlife across borders, long-established cross-border livelihood activities are being policed and constrained thus limiting unrestricted movement of the communities directly affected (Wolmer, transboundary protected areas governance: tensions and paradoxes, available at: <http://www.earthlore.ca/clients/wpc/English/sessions.html> 20/07/2005.)

As the South African experience of land restitution in national parks has shown, where communities have been granted sovereign power to control the use of their ancestral land within protected areas there is considerably more potential for them to voice their views in transfrontier planning processes. To have explicit and secure land rights, provide local communities opportunities to outsource their own ecotourism and safari concessions and affords them bargaining power vis-à-vis government and the private sector.

SANParks argues that the relations between the Kruger National Park and neighbouring communities can be facilitated by the creation of park forums. Representatives of such forums are elected by the community. Representatives get to know the park's concerns such as poaching and attempt to minimize the friction between the park and the local people. The establishment of park forums is an attempt to encourage communities to participate actively in the management of their local natural resources and raise issues affecting their environment and their lives. The scope of concerns of adjacent communities range from unemployment, HIV/AIDS to safety (Conservation: Strengthening community relations and economic empowerment, available at: <http://www.sanparks.org/people/community> 3/1/2005).

There are seven community park forums. These forums have been constituted for Makuya, Giyani, Phalaborwa, Orpen Gate, Bushbuckridge, Hazyview, Malelane and Komatipoort (Mmethi 2006: Telephone interview). In addition to these small park forums, there is one big Kruger National Park forum consisting of stakeholders representing organizations, government departments, municipalities and community based organizations. There are 47 members serving on the Kruger National Park Forum (Pienaar, 2006: Personal interview).

In many of the remote areas, unemployment is in excess of 80%. People and conservation authorities are involved in the running of projects designed to train, promote self-empowerment and create job opportunities for rural people who need skills. This includes the provision of tools, building facilities and management support designed to encourage self-help. The assistance provided by the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park includes, amongst others, arts and craft production and sale, wildlife field guide training and the support of a variety of entrepreneurial activities amongst the previously disadvantaged communities

The Mbaula community is situated between the Groot and Klein Letaba rivers and has 10 000 inhabitants. About 78% of the people in the village have never been employed. The Makuleke community falls within the Malamulele region which is one of the poorest regions of the Limpopo Province. The unemployment rate is more than 60% in the Makuleke community and there are indications that it is increasing at a rate of 20 % per annum (Joint Management Board, 2002: 108). The foregoing figures show that unemployment figures differ from one village to another.

It is evident from community representatives that there is a considerable dissatisfaction within communities with the degree of communication and consultation among the authorities and planners and the communities. The gap between the planning and development processes and the communities should be limited or removed to obtain

support for new policy initiatives. Traditional leaders should be encouraged to use their influence among local citizens to convince them to participate.

In an attempt to involve local communities more in the park activities, a number of measures have been put in place. Firstly, people who have always lived in or adjacent to the park are given preferential access. This preferential access includes reduced rates for school children and teachers and organised community groups. Secondly, members of those communities that formerly lived within the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are granted special access for any visit of a cultural or traditional nature at no charge.

Within the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, there is an obligation to market the opportunity for neighbouring communities to provide cultural products for tourists to experience. This is done by creating awareness amongst park visitors that cultural tourism is available adjacent to the park and by creating enabling regulations allowing visitors to the park to visit the neighbouring areas without incurring additional park re-entry costs (Joint Management Board, 2002:110-111).

Traditional leaders play a significant role in citizen participation. Traditional leaders in communities such as Makuleke are respected by members of the communities they are involved with. Occasionally, the Chief of the Makuleke community calls local villagers to a meeting for announcements and to discuss important matters affecting the community (Maluleke 2006: Personal Interview). Section 211(1) of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* recognizes the institution, status and role of traditional leadership. Traditional leaders are individuals occupying communal political leadership sanctified by cultural mores and values. Leaders enjoy the legitimacy of particular communities to direct their affairs, but their legitimacy is based on tradition that includes a variety of inherited culture and way of life (Sindane in Tshikwatamba 2004:264).

## **5.5 COMMUNITY BASED NATURAL RESOURCE MANAGEMENT**

Community based natural resources management is essential for the promotion of responsible and sustainable natural resource management which ultimately contribute to the ideals and objectives of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as outlined in chapter one. Community based natural resource management is essential for the promotion of responsible natural resource use which will ultimately contribute to the ideals of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. There are two paradigms that are worth mentioning in nature conservation. The first one is the fortress conservation which is in favour of protectionist and coercive conservation policies. This first view was more prevalent in the 1950s and 1960s. The core elements of the fortress conservation consisted of, according to Buscher and Dietz (2005: 2) observation in the establishment of protected areas, excluding local communities and forbidding their rights for consumptive use, together with strict enforcement of the rules through fences and fines. This approach included forceful removal of communities such as Makuleke from their ancestral land.

A new paradigm emerged in the 1970s. This paradigm puts emphasis on community based natural resource management. Buscher and Dietz (2005:3) further argue that the exclusion of people from the resources they depended on for a major part of their livelihoods had proved unattainable and even counterproductive. Involving local communities in conservation management would not only correct the social wrongs of the past, but will also lead to improved conservation of natural resources. From a governance perspective this implies decentralization of authority and decision-making and the empowerment of the local communities.

Community based natural resource management is a grassroots initiative, a bottom-up approach to understanding how best to achieve results in connecting people to attend to specific problems and development tasks along both horizontal and vertical channels of communication and integration. Community based natural resource management is an approach which attempts to build upon what exists at local level as well as at other

societal levels and integrating such knowledge. Community based natural resource management concerns taking local communities as a point of departure and empowering them to create a social movement in managing local natural resources (CBNRM Net, 2001. Community-Based Natural Resource Management: Knowledge management and knowledge sharing in the age of globalization. Prepared by Lars T. Stoefstad. [www.cbnrm.net](http://www.cbnrm.net). 7/11/2005).

Communities in or adjacent to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park with special emphasis on under-resourced communities such as Makuleke are the key beneficiaries and partners in community based conservation initiatives. Community-based, implies that activities or interventions should be located in the community for the benefit of the community and conservation within this context refers to the protection and sustainable use of biodiversity for the benefit of marginalized communities and future generations.

The objectives of the community based conservation are (Conservation: Strengthening community relations and economic empowerment, available at: <http://www.sanparks.org/people/community> 3/1/2005) to:

- build constituencies for parks and promote biodiversity conservation;
- improve access for communities to sustainable resources in the parks which can be used for cultural, spiritual and recreational purposes;
- facilitate the establishment of park forums providing a platform for effective collaboration, co-management initiatives and information sharing between communities, stakeholders and parks;
- assist communities to use their natural resources wisely;
- build capacity and skills that promote sustainable lifestyles within communities;
- enable communities to gain access to sustainable resources in parks to generate employment and income generating opportunities.

One of the areas that were previously overlooked within the conservation agenda was the identification, management and development of cultural resources and heritage sites in and adjacent protected areas. Coupled with this is the growing need to mobilise associated oral histories and indigenous knowledge and practices which are fast disappearing from South Africa's diverse indigenous communities (Conservation: Strengthening community relations and economic empowerment, available at: <http://www.sanparks.org/people/community 3/1/2005>).

### **5.5.1 Knowledge management and sharing**

Knowledge management is a new branch of management which focuses on achieving performance through synergy of people, processes and technology. Knowledge management caters for critical issues of organisational adaptation, survival and competence in an increasingly changing environment. The goal of knowledge management is sustained individual and institutional performance through ongoing learning, unlearning and adaptation (Knowledge management network, available at: <http://www.brint.com/km. 7/3/2006>). Government institutions such as the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, SANParks, non-governmental organisations and community based organisations could benefit by managing knowledge and disseminating it to communities.

Van Dijk (2004: 517) indicates that the creation, integration and dissemination of knowledge are the key elements of knowledge management. These three elements constitute knowledge conversion which can be divided into four distinct types, namely

- socialisation which points to the sharing of implicit knowledge between individuals either through formal and informal communication channels;
- externalisation which refers to the conversion of implicit knowledge into explicit knowledge through a process of codification to ensure formal conversion and widespread dissemination;

- combination refers to the spread of explicit knowledge to all individuals and groups through the use of information systems; and
- internalisation indicates the reinforcement of explicit knowledge

Knowledge management and its conversion are necessary for survival in any sphere of life in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. The management of knowledge therefore becomes imperative for effective community based natural resource management. A structured approach to identifying, collecting, managing, producing, disseminating and using appropriate knowledge about development is necessary for the success of community based natural resource management. In Southern Africa, there is an increasing amount of experimentation with knowledge management strategies applied to community based natural resource management. These strategies include print, audio, and World Wide Web media. These efforts are the results of collaboration among civil society, the public sector, training and research institutions as well as donors.

The multipurpose community centre established in the Makuleke village can be used for purposes of managing and sharing knowledge on conservation management. Schools in the area are also central to the dissemination of knowledge to build a future community that is knowledgeable about and respect the conservation of nature. For knowledge management and sharing to succeed, it is important for role players such as civil society and non-governmental organisations to be committed.

Civil society is increasingly becoming an important factor in connection with democratisation movements and decentralisation of fiscal and governing bodies. Non-governmental organisations which are involved in community based natural resource management have a number of responsibilities which include funding, planning, implementing and managing activities and projects, monitoring, evaluating projects and advocacy. NGOs also act as intermediaries between local communities and the government.



### 5.5.2 Indigenous knowledge

Indigenous knowledge refers to knowledge that is confined to a specific community. It is unique to every culture. Indigenous knowledge forms the basis for local level decision-making in areas such as agriculture, education and natural resources management (Indigenous knowledge program, available at: <http://www.worldbank.org/afr/ik/what.htm>. 2/2/2006). Indigenous knowledge is commonly held by communities rather than families of individuals. Indigenous knowledge is a tacit knowledge and not easy to codify as it is embedded in the communal practices, institutions, relationships and rituals (Ibid).

Semali and Kincheloe as quoted in Hesse and Wissink (2004: 49-50) indicate that “indigenous knowledge reflects the dynamic way in which the residents of an area have come to understand themselves in relation to their natural environment and how they organize the folk knowledge of flora and fauna, cultural beliefs, and history to enhance their lives”.

Indigenous knowledge is important for a variety of reasons which include amongst (Indigenous knowledge program, available at: <http://www.worldbank.org/afr/ik/what.htm>. 2/2/2006):

- indigenous knowledge provides problem solving strategies for local communities, especially those that are poor,
- indigenous knowledge represents an important contribution to global development knowledge,
- indigenous knowledge systems are at the risk of becoming extinct,
- indigenous knowledge relevant for the development process, and
- indigenous knowledge is an underutilized resource in the development process.

Learning from indigenous knowledge by investigating first what local communities know and to provide a productive context for activities designed to help the communities

should be a first step in managing indigenous knowledge. Tshikwatamba (2004: 256-257) argues that it is important to recognise indigenous knowledge culture and values of Africans as colonialism devastated originality and imposed foreign cultures. Indigenous knowledge is in most cases not documented and it becomes difficult to transfer it from one generation to another.

Hesse and Wissink (2004:47) indicate that development theories are to be blamed for the extent to which indigenous knowledge has been undermined and ignored. Two theories, namely, modernisation and dependency theories are at the centre of ignorance. Modernisation theory contends that development can only occur if African societies abandon their traditional social, institutional structures, attitudes as well as behavioural patterns. Dependency theory is based on the dependence of the South on the North. This theory depicts the South as helpless and powerless. This implies that the knowledge of the South is regarded as insignificant in development.

Previously indigenous knowledge was associated with being ‘primitive’ or barbaric (Hesse and Wissink 2004: 49). Negative and subjective perceptions such as viewing indigenous knowledge as being primitive or barbaric creates psychological barriers which serve as stumbling blocks in learning and unearthing new indigenous knowledge. These perceptions are counter-developmental as only limited knowledge which is not adaptable to local conditions serve as a point of departure for development.

Indigenous knowledge should be the starting point for any attempt to promote conservation awareness in areas in which indigenous communities are involved. It may be assumed that communities such as Makuleke have little or no knowledge regarding conservation management. However, it is essential for conservation agencies to ascertain from communities the knowledge they possess regarding conservation. There will be positive spin-offs to such an endeavour. Firstly, awareness programmes will be more appealing to communities if they assume that their indigenous knowledge about nature is acknowledged. The second benefit is psychological in nature. The fact that a community

has been consulted, implies that the knowledge is being recognised and valued. Such recognition can earn nature conservation agencies such as SANParks greater compliance with sustainable ways of using natural resources and in changing attitudes of communities towards nature conservation.

Oral tradition manifests itself in the historical consciousness of pre-literate societies and has a functional character. It is an effective method to relate social and community history and addresses the needs of the most disadvantaged and illiterate. African communities engage individual members in memorisation, recitation and the passing of oral history from one generation to another. In some African communities recitations are often accompanied by music. Proverbs, praises, riddles, poems and songs are effective mediums of knowledge sharing (Tshikwatamba 2004: 256).

The beauty of the melody of songs sang by Makuleke Community disguises the sadness while they recall how 3000 people were forced in 1969, at gunpoint to burn their own homes whose ruins still litter parts of what is now the Pafuri section of the Kruger National Park. A quote from one of the songs says “don’t be deceived, our hearts are sore because of poverty. Don’t be deceived because many of us are dying, even if you take us back only few will be able to return. Because the rest will be dead” (Koch and Collins [s.a]: 1).

Today in the Makuleke villages, the old songs about forced removals are mixed with new and more happy melodies. At the clan’s cultural centre, for example, visitors may hear a choir singing about the way villagers are developing their own game lodges and tourism projects in what is currently known as the Makuleke region of the Kruger National Park (Koch and Collins [s.a]: 1). Songs are important in oral tradition. They inform the youth about the past while also celebrating current achievements by the community.

### 5.5.3 Ownership of resources

Ownership of natural resources is important for natural resources situated in areas in which particular communities have an interest. It is unlikely for individuals and communities to destroy what they intrinsically consider to be theirs. It is necessary for community leaders to play an educational role by inculcating a sense of ownership and attachment to their natural resources.

Against the prevalent Western concept of individual or private property rights to natural resources, a broader conceptualisation is emerging. This conceptualisation relates to communal ownership of natural resources. This ownership relates in particular to communities which were forcefully removed to establish conservation areas and subsequently denied access to such resources. This broader and more complex picture of how local natural resources are owned, utilised, accessed and managed are increasingly becoming an important issue for investment in protected areas such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

There are two forms of ownership which need to be understood for purposes of community based natural resource management. The first type of ownership refers to the legal ownership based on a title deed and the second one is communal ownership which is not based on the possession of a title deed. These types of ownership relates to communities such as Makuleke. Communal ownership is considered to be managed effectively through consensus in decision-making.

Communal ownership by its nature may lead to conflicts which necessitate that the Makuleke Community should acquire conflict management skills. Communal ownership within the African communities such as Makuleke is made easy by the adherence to the principles of *Ubuntu*. The expressions “A man(woman) is only a man through others” and “I am because we are” as quoted in Tshikwatamba (2004: 261) indicates that collectivism is more important than individualism within the African communities. In the

African communities, life revolves around a collective body. A collective body can be a tribe, a village and in some cases the extended family. Tshikwatamba (2004: 263) defines collective management as “an African value-laden practice of decision making by the collective body for the benefit of all within the spirit of *ubuntu*”. Collective management differs from participative management in conceptual and fundamental application and the former is more African while the latter is more Western.

For the Makuleke to take back their land as a result of the successful land claim, the community was required to set up a communal property association. The communal property association hold title deed to the land. This organisation is made up of nine members. Four members are village representatives. The other four are general representatives. The Chief serves as an ex-officio chairperson. The eight members of the communal property association executive committee are elected democratically every two years (Koch and Collins [s.a]: 4-5).

#### **5.5.4 Training and capacity building**

Training is a planned process to modify attitude, knowledge, skills and behaviour through learning experience in order to achieve effective performance in an activity or range of activities. Its purpose is to develop the abilities of the individual and satisfy the current and future needs of the organization (Nel, Gerber, van Dyk, Haasbroek, Schultz, and Sono 2001: 467). Training and capacity building have become important in spheres of development including community based natural resource management. Traditional means of training and capacity building such as meetings and workshops are used in rural communities such as the Makuleke.

There is increasing interest in using the new electronic media and channels of communication in advancing learning and capacity building in development work. The Makuleke community has benefited from training programmes since the restitution of their land. The Makuleke Community Property Association has initiated various training

programmes designed to empower leadership and the Makuleke residents to participate in governance, conservation and economic activities that are likely to arise out of the programme. Training that has been conducted thus far include amongst others (Mahony and van Zyl 2001: 33-34):

- training of artisans and semi-skilled workers,
- training of field rangers (A group of 20 Makuleke residents have undergone training in the Kruger National Park to acquire field ranging skills),
- two Makuleke students have undergone extensive training on the use of cybertracker, a palm held computer designed to allow rapid collection of data on habitat condition, animal movement and behaviour, and
- four Makuleke students have been sent to the University of South Africa for a specialist hunters guide training. This type of training will allow students to participate in and plan sustainable hunting operations.

Training is an important corollary to the process of learning. As learning is a lifelong process, training programmes for the Makuleke Community must be continuously improved and adapted to meet the challenges of the changing environment. Training will further enhance the ability of the Makuleke community to enter into partnership agreements without the assistance of consultants who render services at a particular rate of remuneration.

## **5.6 PARTNERSHIPS**

Partnership refers to a collaborative arrangement between two or more parties with a mutual interest and a clear understanding or contract that sets out the objectives and terms of arrangement. Partnering arrangements can be formal or informal and can include the government, community, private sector and non-governmental organisations.

### **5.6.1 Community-government partnership**

The Makuleke Community has entered into a number of partnerships. One such partnership is community-government partnership. This partnership was premised on the fact that the Makuleke Community did not have the expertise to manage the wildlife and plants which were returned to them after their successful land claim, hence it was decided that the land must be managed jointly with SANParks. The agreement to manage the land jointly resulted in the establishment of the Joint Management Board. The Joint Management Board is made up of the Makuleke Communal Property Association and SANParks (Maluleke 2003:2).

The Joint Management Board takes decisions about anti-poaching, road and fence maintenance, land and wildlife management as well as other conservation issues. Decisions of the Joint Management Board are confined to and implemented only in the Makuleke region of the Kruger National Park (Koch and Collins [s.a]: 5). The establishment of the Joint Management Board is a transitional measure which is aimed at transferring conservation management knowledge to the Makuleke Community. As soon as the two parties in the Joint Management Board are satisfied that the Makuleke Community can manage their land, the Joint Management Board will be dissolved.

### **5.6.2 Public-private partnership**

The use of the concept and application of public-private partnership in conservation management is fairly new in South Africa. It is for this reason that it becomes necessary for the concept to be defined. Public private partnership refers to a commercial transaction between a public institution and a private party in terms of which the private party performs an institutional function on behalf of the institution or acquires the use of state property for its own commercial purposes. It then assumes substantial financial, technical and operational risk in connection with the performance of the institutional function and or use state property. In return it receives a benefit for performing the

institutional function or from utilizing the state property either by way of consideration to be paid by the institution which derives from a revenue fund. Where the institution is a national government business enterprise, income derives from the revenues of such institution or charges or fees to be collected by the private party from users or customers of a service provided to them or a combination of such consideration and such charges or fees (National Treasury, PPP Manual, Module 2, Code of good practice for BEE in PPPs, available at: <http://www.treasury.gov.za/organisation/ppp20manual/module/2002.pdf>. 08/02/2006).

Public-private and private-community partnerships are global switches to public-private networks to provide goods and services that were once the preserve of government. The extent to which government should form alliances with businesses in areas of general public interest and the intrusion of private sector values into these spheres are matters which require meticulous attention (Wolmer, transboundary protected areas governance: tensions and paradoxes, available at: <http://www.earthlore.ca/clients/wpc/English/sessions.html> 20/07/2005)

Until 2000, all tourism infrastructures inside the Kruger National Park was developed, owned and operated by SANParks. The commercialisation process that allowed SANParks to grant concessionaires rights for the use of defined areas of land and infrastructure within the National Parks. The objectives of the commercialisation process was to promote economic empowerment of previously disadvantaged communities, the promotion and provision of business opportunities to emerging entrepreneurs and the application of SANPark's environmental regulations and global parameters of all concessions.

A typical concession is a 20 year contract which allows the concessionaire the right to takeover, upgrade existing lodges or build new ones. The concessionaire is granted exclusive commercial use rights to an area of land (between 5 000 and 15 000 hectares) within the Kruger National Park. The concessionaire pays a concession fee for the



duration of the contract. At the end of the contract, ownership of all property reverts to SANParks (Spencely 2005, Tourism investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Scoping report, available at: <http://www.wits.ac.za> 17/11/2006).

The Concession contract may be terminated if the concessionaire does not fulfil the terms of the contract relating to finance, environmental management, social and empowerment objectives. Apart from the termination of the contract, there are penalties for not fulfilling the above requirements (Spencely 2005, Tourism investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Scoping report, available at: <http://www.wits.ac.za> 17/11/2006).

Historically disadvantaged entrepreneurs from local communities adjacent to the park are given priority. Principal elements of empowerment shareholding, affirmative action and training, and economic empowerment of communities through development of small, medium and micro-enterprises. Accommodation concessions in the park include the following lodges: Singita Lebombo, Jock Safari, Imbali Safari, Tinga, Lukimbi Safari, Rhino walking Safari and Shishangeni (Spencely 2005, Tourism investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Scoping report, available at: <http://www.wits.ac.za> 17/11/2006).

The crucial question relating to the creation of transfrontier conservation areas is whether these new partnership arrangements prioritise investment or equity? Do they spread the benefits of new investments in and around protected areas, or do they simply constitute a licence for the private sector territorial claims at the expense of communities' land and resource commons? Partnerships are often characterised by power asymmetries. The private sector is almost always the stronger partner and initiator of joint-ventures, with communities often relegated to the role of a landowner- in what are in reality little more than lease agreements- and an employee, ceding representation to community leaders in processes that are not always transparent. These communities often lack the capacity to hold the private sector to account as governments have not provided adequate incentive,

regulation, or technical back-up for communities to act as genuine partners (Wolmer, transboundary protected areas governance: tensions and paradoxes, available at: <http://www.earthlore.ca/clients/wpc/English/sessions.html> 20/07/2005).

It has been argued that ideas of private affluence and public squalor influence the actions of some entrepreneurs of the private sector towards nature conservation. If this argument is true, the private sector values of profit and loss may be in conflict with the public interest and may also be inadequate to evaluate the intangible values of conservation (Van Zyl [s.a]). The private sector operates on principles that are significantly different from the public sector. The private sector will always be keen for opportunities which will profit at the expense of the community. It is, therefore, imperative for government to assume the role of a regulator to safeguard the interests of the society.

Where government's first priority is seeking private sector investment and there is limited competition among investors, the private sector also often has considerable power vis-à-vis the state. The focus on investment and economic growth can overshadow conservation and livelihood priorities. This is evident where transfrontier conservation areas are being integrated into regional economic integration initiatives such as South Africa's spatial development initiatives where government funds are used to leverage private sector investment to unlock economic potential in certain zones and initiate growth. Transfrontier conservation areas are, despite their potential ecotourism and spin-offs from investment potential, vulnerable to competition from other potentially more lucrative private sector interests (Wolmer, transboundary protected areas governance: tensions and paradoxes, available at: <http://www.earthlore.ca/clients/wpc/English/sessions.html> 20/07/2005).

The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park enters into concessions which promote the principle of socio-economic development through public-private partnership. Concessionaires are given the opportunity to run lodges and tourism operations in selected zoned areas. As part of the implementation of tourism strategy, South Africa has

allocated R216 107 000 towards tourism infrastructure development within the transfrontier initiatives. These funds are part of the government objective to alleviate poverty through job creation and improving tourism potential by creating facilities (Moosa).

The Makuleke community has entered into a number of concessions with the private sector. The first contractual relationship was entered into with the Outpost for the development of a six-star 36-bed lodge. Another concessionaire is Wilderness Safaris which plans to invest approximately R45 000 000 to develop a top-of-the-range safari lodges in the Makuleke region of the Kruger National Park, effectively converting the region into one of South Africa's major ecotourism destinations (Koch and Collins [s.a]:5). Concessions entered into for the construction of two lodges as the Makuleke Community did not have the capital and expertise necessary to access capital needed to make a success of a tourism venture. The process followed was a public call for proposals which were compared and then three potential developers were shortlisted. Eventually, one preferred bidder was chosen (Maluleke 2006: Personal interview).

According to Maluleke (2003: 5) the key aspects of the partnerships are:

- the Makuleke Community Property Association receives 10% of the turnover,
- the Community is guaranteed a high proportion of the jobs and skills training to be able to take up the jobs, and
- the arrangement is a build-operate-transfer which means that the private partners will build and operate for a specific number of years and then transfer ownership of the property to the Makuleke Communal Property Association.

By the end of the term the community can decide to run the lodges or to invite the private partner to continue to operate on different terms as the community will then be owners of the facility.

Governments are the main role players in the establishment and development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. However, because government does not have all the resources and capacity, the private sector becomes a donor. Donors and NGOs which contributed financially include the World Bank, USAID Regional Centre for Southern Africa, the German Federal Ministry for Economic Cooperation and Development through Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau, WWF Netherlands, Novamedia, the Rufford Maurice Laing Foundation, the Dutch National Postcode Lottery, Deutsche Bank, SAFRI/DaimlerCrysler, the African Wildlife Foundation and Peace Parks Foundation (Conservation: Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, available at: [http://www.sanparks.org/conservation/transfrontier/great\\_limpopo.php](http://www.sanparks.org/conservation/transfrontier/great_limpopo.php) 1/3.2005).

In 2001, SANParks signed a build-operate-transfer (BOT) concession with Nature's Group, a consortium formed to outsource management of 11 restaurants, two shops and three picnic sites in the Kruger National Park for 10 years. The consortium which is made up of a technical partner, financial partner and an empowerment partner, has the right to operate the facilities (including the use, design and construct) according to limitation set by South African National Parks. Nature's Group in turn pays South African National Parks a monthly concession fee equivalent to 13 % of its turnover (Farlam, Working together: Assessing public private partnerships in Africa, Available at: <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/44/4/34867724.pdf>. 07/02/2006).

SANParks-Nature's Group partnership had both positive and negative spin-offs. Positive results included an increase in South African National Parks' profit, the upgrading of restaurants and an eventual increase in service and quality. The first year was characterised by poor service delivery as the technical partner did not have the experience to operate effectively, and staff resistance to the changeover.

### 5.6.3 Government-NGO partnerships

Non-governmental organizations are voluntary, independent and altruistic organisations established to render assistance and transfer resources to promote development on the grassroots level. Most non-governmental organisations believe in popular participation, human resources development and community education (Du Toit *et al.* 1998: 264).

Turner and Hulme (1997) argue that until the 1970s there was little appreciation of the potential role that non-governmental organisations can play in implementing development projects and influencing policy. The 1980s have witnessed a remarkable change in the scale and significance of non-governmental organisations. To date non-governmental organisations have occupied centre stage in terms of development practice and debate and their relations with government have improved. A typical example is the relations that have been forged between South African National Parks, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, and the Peace Parks Foundation. The relationship is formalised by tri-lateral agreement which identify roles and responsibilities in order to minimise duplications. These new relations can according to Du Toit *et al.* (1998: 264) be beneficial to development if the two sides plan their activities jointly, understand each other's goals, strengths and weaknesses, learn from her experiences and are more flexible in accordance with the dictates of the environment.

The Peace Park Foundation was established by the WWF South Africa on 1 February 1997 with an initial grant of US\$260 000 from the Rupert Nature Conservation. The Peace Park Foundation is established as a section 21 company and therefore does not have a profit motif. The Peace Park Foundation was established as a separate body to coordinate, facilitate and drive the process of transfrontier conservations areas establishment and funding (Origin of peace Park Foundation, Available at <http://www.peaceparks.org/new/story.php>. 2/12/2005).

The Peace Parks Foundation is assisted by co-ordinators for each of the transfrontier conservation areas. These co-ordinators are approved by the South African, Mozambican and Zimbabwean governments. The Peace Parks Foundation is also funding the post of a transfrontier conservation area programme manager in the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. This is further an indication of the commitment to the relationship which exists between the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism and the Peace Park Foundation.

Non-governmental organisations such as the Peace Park Foundation have a number of advantages in comparison to public institutions. *Firstly*, they are accessible to the poor communities and disadvantaged groups. *Secondly*, they can facilitate the mobilisation of resources for the poor people to participate in their own development. *Thirdly*, they provide services at a low cost as they can tap into voluntary labour. *Fourthly*, they can find creative solutions to unique problems and also support successful innovation in government programmes. Lastly, non-governmental organisations are flexible and more likely to be free from political constraints.

Turner and Hulme (1997) classify non-governmental organisations into six categories. These categories are:

- relief and welfare agencies,
- technical innovation organisation,
- public service contractors,
- popular development agencies
- grassroots development organisations
- advocacy groups and networks

Except for categories first and third above, the Peace Park Foundation seems to fit the description of all the other categories. The Peace Park Foundation has to devise

innovative ways to fund its projects. The Peace Park Foundation made R8 million available for the elephant translocation project (Theron 2004:5). Furthermore, the Peace Park Foundation advocates the concept of a peace park instead of a transfrontier conservation area. The argument behind this choice of a noun is that these parks have the potential to foster peace between the governments of South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. Various forms of partnership elaborated on above are intended to improve service delivery and to promote Black Economic Empowerment policies. Black economic empowerment policies. Black Economic Empowerment is described hereunder.

## **5.7 BLACK ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT**

Following the political transformation of South Africa in 1994, much of the emphasis has since been on economic transformation, and the economic empowerment of previously disadvantaged citizens. Economic empowerment is about the transfer of ownership of equity, increased control and influence in management of organisations and the broadening and deepening of the role of black-owned small, medium and macro enterprises in the economy (Mahony and van Zyl 2001: <http://.propoortourism.org.uk>. 13/01/2006). Natural resource management and tourism have been identified as potential economic growth areas which can help to achieve the ideals of economic empowerment.

Black Economic Empowerment is an integrated and coherent socio-economic process that directly contributes to the economic transformation of South Africa and brings about significant increases in the number of black people that manage, own and control the country's economy, as well as significant decrease in income inequalities (Black Economic Empowerment in South Africa, available at: [www.fwdklerk.org.za](http://www.fwdklerk.org.za). 09/05/2006). In terms of section 1 of *Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, 2003 (Act 53 of 2003)* Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment relates to the empowerment of Blacks including women, workers, youth, people with disabilities and poor people who mostly live in the rural areas.

Black Economic Empowerment policies in South Africa have been introduced to promote the achievement of the constitutional right to equality, increase broad-based and effective participation of black people in the economy and to promote higher growth rate, increased employment and more equitable income distribution. Black Economic Empowerment in the management of natural resources has to be implemented in such a way that it does not lead to reverse discrimination.

In terms of section 1 of the *Broad-Based Black Economic Empowerment Act, 2003 (Act 53 of 2003)* strategies to promote Broad Based Economic Empowerment include, amongst others, the following:

- increasing the number of black people who manage, own and control enterprises and productive assets;
- facilitating ownership and management of enterprise and productive assets by communities, workers, cooperatives and other collective enterprises;
- human resources and skills development;
- preferential procurement; and
- investment in enterprises that are owned or managed by Black people.

Furthermore, empowerment of communities takes place through:

- involvement and responsibility in the planning and decision-making processes related to tourism;
- involvement in the management of tourism and tourism related enterprises;
- control over the use of land and assets;
- equity sharing in tourism and related activities;
- access to SMME opportunities and support;
- capacity building (Mahony and van Zyl 2001: <http://.propoortourism.org.uk>. 13/01/2006).



Although Black Economic Empowerment policies have noble intentions, there are unintended consequences and challenges. Black Economic Empowerment tends to benefit mainly the rising black middle class and as a result deepens the class inequality in South Africa. Black Economic Empowerment is more meaningful to individuals who are qualified or skilled where those who belong to one of the designated groups have to be given preference over the others. Corruption has been a serious problem affecting public procurement. Officials have found ways to direct contracts to favoured bidders (Farlam 2005 <http://www.oecd.org/dataoecd/44/4/34867724.pdf>. 07/02/2006)

Alexander (2006:11) states that there is an emerging consensus that the mere granting of shares to some influential black individuals by large South African and multinational corporations is not the only, and certainly not the optimal form of Black economic empowerment as it widens the gap between the rich and poor. Black Economic Empowerment is perceived as the perpetuation of racial identities which is implicit in its very conceptualisation and evident in the day-to-day expression of the policy in practice.

Policies on Black Economic Empowerment do not specify a time frame. It is necessary to specify time-frame for implementation of Black Economic Empowerment. The question is whether the time has not come to terminate the policies of BEE. The use of income categories will be equally effective if targeted at individual beneficiaries in a specific class or income group. Alexander (2006:11) argues that the overlap between race and class in South Africa makes this approach possible.

The acknowledgement of superficial differences should not become a reason for marginalisation or exclusion of any individual or group of people. This is the essence of a non-racial approach to the promotion of national unity and social integration and cohesion. As against this insight, most Black Economic Empowerment measures tend to undermine such integration and cohesion (Alexander 2006: 11). Empowerment strategy should under these circumstances give preference to skills development. Transparency,

class and income category should become fundamental principles in the promotion of Black Economic Empowerment.

## 5.8 CONCLUSION

Different people may attach different meanings to the same word. It is for this reason that extra-governmental organizations and co-operative governance were given particular attention to avoid ambiguous meanings in this chapter. Extragovernmental relations and co-operative governance refer to the relations which exist between government institutions and a variety of stakeholders that include citizens, non-governmental organisations and businesses. Co-operative government is different from cooperative governance as the former is restricted to institutional relations.

Citizen participation is at the core of governance processes. Citizen participation in South Africa is no longer a privilege, but it has become an indisputable right as per the provisions of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. However, a right becomes irrelevant if the people who are meant to exercise it do not know about its existence. Rights require some knowledge and vigilance by communities such as Makuleke who hold title deeds in the northern part of the Kruger National Park.

Community based natural resource management is based on the initiative of the community with the government creating an enabling environment. It is an effort aimed at the sustainable use of renewable and non-renewable natural resources. Knowledge management and sharing, active participation, indigenous knowledge, ownership of resources, training and capacity building are essential ingredients of community based natural resources management.

Partnering is an alternative method of achieving goals in the public sector by government institutions and the community. The Makuleke Community has entered into formal and informal partnerships with government, the private sector as well as non-governmental

organizations. Partnerships seek to supplement the inadequacies which are noticed in the capacity of either party entering into such a contract. Partnership should be based on mutual benefit between the parties involved. Government needs to maintain a balance between the interests of the business community and the ever-changing public interest.

## **CHAPTER SIX: TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN THE GREAT LIMPOPO TRANSFRONTIER PARK**

### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

Chapter 5 focused on extra-governmental relations i.e. the analysis of non-state actors in the management of natural resources in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. This chapter shifts the focus to the management of tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Tourism management is a functional area that requires government to play a primary role in its development. However, although the role of government cannot be underplayed, a number of other role players are involved in managing tourism in South Africa. For purposes of this chapter, the role players discussed, include conservation agencies, South African Tourism Board, the private sector, World Tourism Organization, World Travel and Tourism Council, and the Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa.

The involvement of South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park suggests that there should be cooperation and agreements on a number of areas relating to the management of the Great Limpopo Park. Such areas relate to, amongst others, entry fee structures and the sharing of revenue generated by the three constituent parks.

Tourism forms an integral part of the spatial development initiative and transfrontier conservation area programmes. This strategic initiative aims to unlock the inherent and underutilized economic development potential places across South and Southern Africa (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism Annual Report 2005/2006, 2006:33). Tourism in the 21<sup>st</sup> century is considered as an important factor in the development of the economy. This is in particular a challenge to developing countries such as South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe as they have to reach their potential and claim their stake in

the world tourism market. This chapter further analyses the impact of tourism on different sectors of the economy which include balance of payments, employment and the Gross Domestic Product. The concept tourism is defined within the context of this chapter.

## 6.2 TOURISM

Tourism is defined differently in various publications. Although definitions analysed do not reflect substantial differences, it is important to scrutinise minor deviations observed. The concept tourism include any activity concerned with the temporary or short-term movement of people away from places where they normally live and or work, and their activities during their stay at their destinations of interest (Bennett 2000: 6). The Concise Oxford Dictionary defines tourism as the commercial organization and operation of holidays and visits to places of interest. According to the *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa, 1996*, tourism refers to all travel for whatever purpose that result in one or more nights being spent away from home.

The foregoing definitions concur on a number of aspects relating to tourism. There is consensus that tourism involves the movement of tourists from their homes or workplaces to places of interest where there are activities which provide a change of scenery. The definition advanced by the *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa, 1996* suggests that tourism is about spending one or more nights away from home. In an era where the transport system is more advanced, one can envisage a situation whereby South Africans can travel to and from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park or any destination of interest without having to spend a night away from home. This scenario is more practical for people who live in communities adjacent to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. On the basis of the above definitions, a new definition can be advanced. For purposes of this study, tourism is defined as the movement of people or tourists from homes or workplaces to places of interest where they are entertained daily or provided with overnight accommodation for short or longer stay. This definition of

tourism suggests the involvement of a number of role-players in an attempt to satisfy the need of a tourist. These role players are discussed in the next section.

### **6.3 ROLE-PLAYERS IN TOURISM MANAGEMENT**

Effective tourism management in South Africa requires a synergistic approach which calls for the involvement of a number of role players. The role players mentioned and discussed in this chapter are not exhaustive. The role players discussed in this chapter are government, conservation agencies and private sector. Furthermore, it is important to note that tourism is not confined within the borders of the Republic of South Africa. It is for this reason that this section also scrutinizes the role played by international tourism institutions such as World Tourism Organisation, World Travel and Tourism Council and the Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa.

#### **6.3.1 Government**

In terms of section 40 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* government in South Africa is constituted as national, provincial and local spheres. Schedule 4 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* classifies tourism as one of the functional areas of concurrent national and provincial legislative competence. This implies that the national and provincial legislatures can make laws relating to tourism. Such laws must be based on the authority and the area of jurisdiction of each sphere. Coordination envisaged in chapter 3 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* is necessary to avoid conflicts and duplication.

Government should create positive economic, social, cultural, environmental, political and technological benefits and security for both local citizens and tourists (Lubbe 2003:173; Elliot, 2002:2). The extent to which the three spheres of government will be involved in tourism depends on the prevailing political ideology of the government-of-the-day at the national sphere of government. Political ideologies are sets of public

beliefs about the political economic and cultural affairs by the majority of people in a society. Ideologies concern themselves with how to allocate power and resources (Politics and law: political ideologies, available at: <http://www.fisicx.com/quickreference/politics/ideologies.html>. 15/06/2006).

Divergent political ideologies are reasons for the existence of different political parties which aspire to govern the Republic of South Africa. There appears to be three basic political ideologies. These ideologies are Communism, Capitalism, and Welfare ideology. It will suffice for purposes of this study to provide an explanation of the two extreme ideologies. Capitalism also popularly known as *Laissez-faire* ideology is a rightwing political ideology where the principal means of production and distribution are in private hands (Politics and law: political ideologies, available at: <http://www.fisicx.com/quickreference/politics/ideologies.html>. 15/06/2006). Capitalism is based on the principle that people should be allowed to do as they choose and that government is best when it governs least (Gildenhuys 1993:5). A government which subscribes to capitalism will, in line with its principles, be less directly involved in the tourism industry. Communism is the opposite of capitalism.

Communism is the left wing ideology based on the revolutionary socialist teaching of Karl Marx. Communism is based on collective ownership and planned economy and that each person should work to their capabilities and receive according to their needs (Politics and law: political ideologies, available at: <http://www.fisicx.com/quickreference/politics/ideologies.html>. 15/06/2006). Communist government could be inclined to be more involved in tourism management, if it is accepted.

The nature and extent of the application of capitalism and communism have been modified over the years for implementation in different countries. South Africa and its counterparts in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are no exceptions. The question is, however, which ideology does the current African National Congress government

subscribe to? A closer observation of the functions performed by the government gives the impression that the government-of-the-day is neither purely communist nor purely capitalistic. The current South African government attempts to address poverty through the development of tourism and effective management of natural resources. Furthermore, government offers the private sector a chance to prosper while standards are set through minimal regulation.

An analysis of the principles of the foregoing ideologies suggests that South Africa's African National Congress lead government-of-the-day is more sympathetic towards the social welfare ideology. The rise of a social welfare state represents the rejection of communism and socialism as both extremes are not suitable for the future of the individual and that a balance should be found between the two (Gildenhuys 1993: 9).

Government in South Africa provides essential services and basic infrastructure. It is only national government which can negotiate and make agreements with other governments on matters such as immigration procedures which may have a major impact on tourism as a result of international tourists' intent on visiting the country. Public services are part of the total tourism product and can either add or detract from its attractiveness (Elliot 2002: 2-4). There are a number of reasons for government to be involved in tourism.

Reasons for government involvement in tourism include amongst others (Lubbe 2003:173) the following:

- tourism creates foreign exchange earnings (balance of payments);
- coordination of development and marketing;
- employment opportunities;
- regulation-consumer protection and prevention of unfair competition;
- public goods and infrastructure;
- protection of resources and environment;



- regulation of behaviour such as gambling; and
- monitoring and statistical surveys

Most of the foregoing roles played by the government cannot be left in the hands of private companies. The government therefore provides an environment that is conducive for tourism to flourish. Political stability, infrastructure as well as safety and security are basic government functions which are necessary for the development of sustainable tourism in South Africa. The importance of tourism has necessitated the establishment of a Department that is responsible for tourism.

At national government sphere, tourism shares the portfolio with environment under the Ministry of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. While at first sight, these two functions may seem to be ideally compatible functions, in reality, environment and tourism exist under one roof, but do not necessarily work closely together. The environmental division of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism has more personnel than the tourism division (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996 *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa*, available at: [http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white\\_papers/tourism.html](http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white_papers/tourism.html). 25/05/2006).

In terms of vote 27 on Environmental Affairs and Tourism (available at: <http://www.treasury.gov.za/documents/budget/2006/ene/vote27>. 21/08/2006) the tourism programme is allocated R418 097 000 and other environment programme such as environmental quality and protection, marine and coastal management and biodiversity conservation received R747 945 000 in 2005/06 revised estimate. Currently the Department has 1 240 employees. This number is envisaged to increase to 1 416 in 2007, 1 429 in 2008 and 1 437 in 2009. Diagram 3 below indicates that the Tourism Branch has 76 posts while the Environmental quality and protection has 146 posts. The allocation of less human resources to the tourism Branch is an indication of the extent to which government is committed to tourism. The political rhetoric regarding government's

commitment to tourism need to be translated into action and the consequent allocation of resources such as human capital and funds.

The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism plays a key role in tourism management in South Africa. The Tourism Branch within the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism leads and directs policy formulation and implementation towards tourism growth. It works in partnership with South African Tourism, the provincial tourism authorities, and other stakeholders such as the private sector. The aim of the Branch is to accelerate practical delivery of tourism benefits to South Africans (South Africa Year Book, 2005: 536).

Raising awareness about opportunities for domestic travel is a priority of the Tourism Branch. The challenge of the Branch is to encourage South Africans to travel more and explore their own country, make tourism accessible to all, facilitate the development of a culture of tourism, and encourage South Africans to create a safe and welcoming environment for both local and foreign visitors (South Africa Year Book, 2005: 537). The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism is supported by parastatal institutions such as the SANParks and the South African Tourism Board in its endeavour to achieve its objectives relating to tourism and natural resources management.

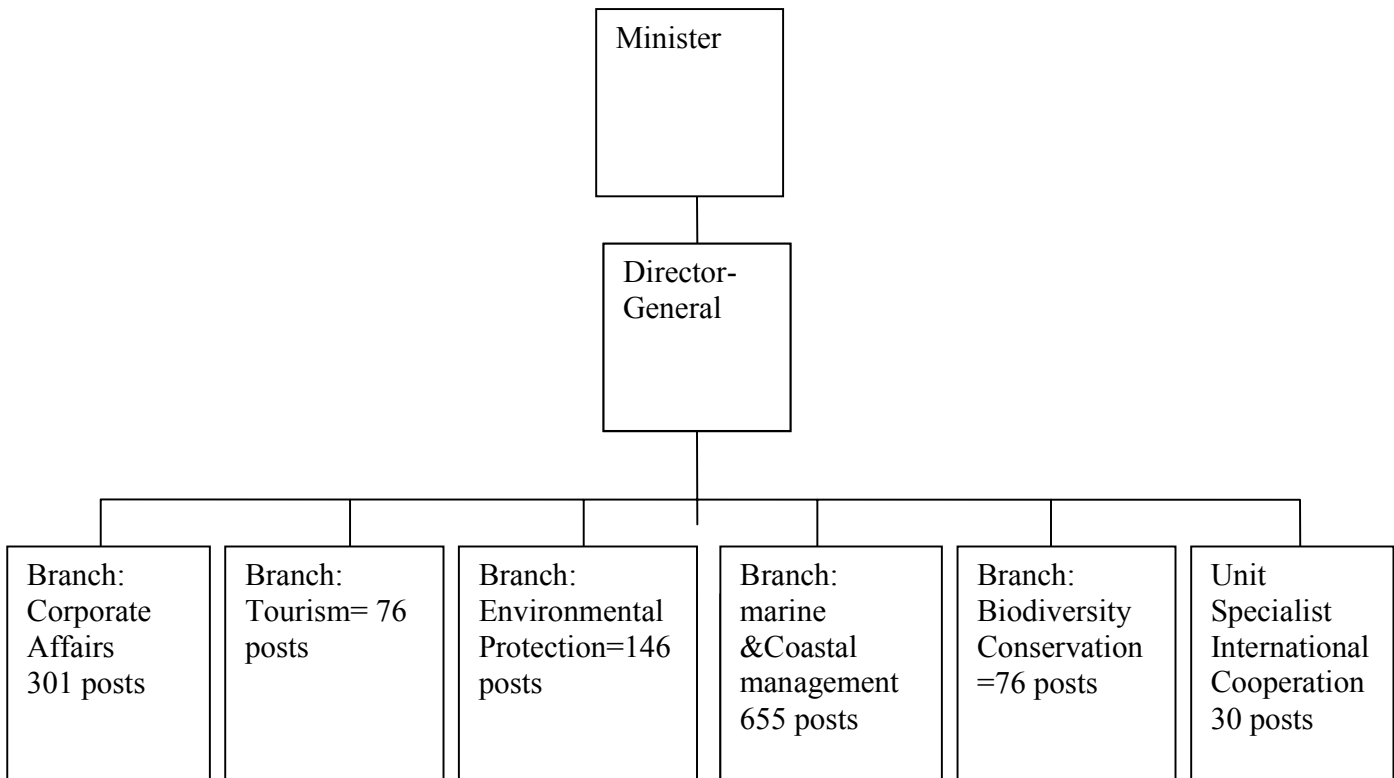


Diagram 3: Department of environmental Affairs and Tourism Top Structure

Source: Adapted from: 200/6 Annual Review of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism

### 6.3.2 Conservation agencies

Three conservation agencies are important for tourism management in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The SANParks is a national conservation agency. SANParks is a statutory organisation governed by the *National Parks Act, 1976 (Act 57 of 1976)* and continue to exist in terms of the *National Environment Management: Protected Areas Act, 2003* (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism Annual Report 2005/2006, 2006:36). SANParks and provincial conservation agencies such as Limpopo and Mpumalanga play an important role in developing and managing state conservation land for tourism purposes. SANParks is a statutory body which manages a number of parks which include the Kruger National Park (About SANParks, available at: <http://www.sanparks.org/about/defaultd.php>. 12/06/2006). The Kruger National Park offers visitors an exceptional diversity of adventure tourism opportunities which include game viewing, bush walks, and exposure to cultural and historical experiences. The roles of tourism agencies are to (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996 *White paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa*, available at: [http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white\\_papers/tourism.html](http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white_papers/tourism.html). 25/05/2006):

- ensure the protection of biodiversity in South Africa within a network of protected areas which contribute to nature conservation and tourism;
- proactively integrate areas under their control into the tourism resource base by providing controlled access to and use of protected areas to the public and commercial tourism operators;
- provide tourist facilities and experiences in areas under their control in a responsible manner;
- promote the diversity of tourism experiences offered within protected areas;
- make tourism affordable to the average South African;
- facilitate and support the establishment of partnership tourism ventures among communities, private business and conservation agencies;
- promote and provide opportunities for local entrepreneurs to integrate their operations with tourism activities inside protected areas;

- assist tourism authorities in conducting environmental tourism awareness programmes, and
- contribute to the development of policies and plans for the tourism industry.

An analysis of the functions performed by tourism agencies and the Tourism Branch of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism shows that there are similarities in goals and functions. This suggests that coordination and consultation mechanisms should be reviewed regularly to avoid duplication. The successful protection of biodiversity in South Africa is a function which requires the commitment of members of the public. If members of the public are aware of the consequences of environmental degradation and the positive spin-offs of conserving the environment, the role of conservation agencies becomes easier. The establishment of partnership with communities and local entrepreneurs will lead to the economic empowerment of blacks who live in rural areas, and to poverty alleviation.

SANParks needs revenue to be able to effectively manage the Kruger National Park and other parks under its jurisdiction. A visitor to the Kruger National Park can either pay a standard daily conservation fee; a reduced daily conservation fee for South African residents and Southern African Development Community nationals; or acquire a Wild Card membership. Currently, the standard daily conservation fee for entrance into the Kruger National Park is R120. Children under the age of 12 pay 50% of the fee and those under the age of two enter free of charge (Wild Card: SANParks introduces innovative subsidization for conservation objectives, available at: <http://www.sanparks.org/tourism/wild.12/06/2006>). South Africans and Southern African Development Community nationals pay R30 and R60 respectively. The reason for offering South Africans concessions is that residents already provide incremental support through the taxes they pay (Wild Card: SANParks introduces innovative subsidization for conservation objectives, available at: <http://www.sanparks.org/tourism/wild.12/06/2006>). The lower rates can further be viewed as an incentive for South Africans to be tourists in their own country. The Wild

Card is an innovative way to guarantee steady income for SANParks and securing benefits through cash back and discounted rates for the tourist.

The Wild Card is divided into four categories, namely, the Bushveld Cluster, Dry Cluster, River Cluster, and Cape Cluster. A member of the public has the discretion to apply for a Wild Card for all categories or a specific cluster. The important category for this study is the bushveld cluster which permits the cardholder to visit the Kruger National Park. The applicant has a choice to apply for individual (R170), couple –any two persons (R295), or family-two adults and their children up to the age of 18(R395). Application for all clusters for individual, couple and family would respectively cost R195, R335 and R440. International tourists can only apply for all clusters and their fee is slightly higher. An individual international member pays R795, couple pays R1395 and a family pays R1795 (SANParks Wild Card: Type of card and Price Structure, available at: [http://www.sanparks.org/tourism/wild/type\\_cluster.php](http://www.sanparks.org/tourism/wild/type_cluster.php). 12/06/2006).

Wild Card carries additional benefits for members. When Wild Card members present their cards at more than 2000 infinity partners countrywide, it entitles them to cash back rewards for holidays, accommodation, tours, attractions, airlines, car hire, shopping, leisure and entertainment. Wild Card members also contribute to conservation through an income sharing agreement among SANParks, Infinity, South Africa's premier loyalty and smart card management company and its 2000 partners, which channels a percentage of the income generated from Wild Card transactions to conservation (Wild Card: SANParks introduces innovative subsidisation for conservation objectives, available at: <http://www.sanparks.org/tourism/wild>. 12/06/2006).

### **6.3.3 South African Tourism Board**

The South African Tourism Board is established in terms of section 2 of the *Tourism Act, 1993 (Act 72 of 1993)*. The South African Tourism Board consists of members who are not fewer than nine and not more than 15. The South African Tourism Board members are appointed by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism by virtue of their

knowledge of tourism or their potential active involvement in the tourism industry. The Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism may appoint one official of the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism as a representative of the Department on the South African Tourism Board. Members of the South African Tourism Board occupy their offices for a period of three years and are eligible for reappointment. Two members of the Board are appointed as Chairperson and Deputy Chairperson.

Section 13 (a) and (b) of the *Tourism Act, 1993* deals with relations between the South African Tourism Board and Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism as well as provinces. In the performance of its functions, the South African Tourism Board is expected to co-operate closely with the Department in order to promote efficiency by eliminating the duplication of their functions. Through the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, the South African Tourism Board can also liaise with other state departments. The Chairperson of the South African Tourism Board shall submit a copy of the minutes of every meeting of the Board to the member of the provincial executive council responsible for tourism in each province. The South African Tourism Board, in consultation with every member of the executive council determines procedures and programmes to promote and maintain a sound working relationship between the Board and the nine provinces. The South African Tourism Board has in terms of section 3 of the *Tourism Act, 1993* to take measures to ensure that services and tourism facilities are of the highest standard. It also manages information and conduct research relating to tourism.

In terms of Section 13 of the *Tourism Act, 1993* the South African Tourism Board has the power to:

- enter into agreements within and outside the Republic of South Africa for the promotion of tourism;
- compile, make, publish and sell or make available free of charge, books, guides, maps, publications, photographs, films, and videos intended to promote and inform potential tourists about attractions in South Africa;
- give advice and guidance to all persons engaged in the tourism industry;

- negotiate and cooperate with educational institutions with a view to the institution, continuation or expansion of courses for the training of persons who intent working in the tourism industry.

South African Tourism is a statutory body responsible for marketing and promoting tourism in South Africa. South African Tourism has representative offices in the international marketplace (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996 White paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa, available at: [http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white\\_papers/tourism.html](http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white_papers/tourism.html). 25/05/2006). South African Tourism spent R468 Million in 2004 to market the country as the most preferred destination in the World, to retain the existing markets and to grow the country's share of the global tourism market to 2% (SA YearBook, 2005:537).

South African Tourism Board aims to (Lubbe 2003: 174 ):

- make tourism the leading economic sector in South Africa and to promote sustainable economic and social empowerment of all South Africans;
- market South Africa as an integral part of Africa and particularly the Southern Africa;
- increase the number of international arrival;
- assist provinces to market and promote themselves;
- increase the wider deployment of visitors across South Africa with a view to spread the economic benefits and encourage development;
- promote national tourism culture, environmental awareness and build partnerships;
- coordinate data, research, statistics, and product information nationally for the industry;
- promote Southern Africa, through cooperation, as a tourism hub for the benefit of the whole region;
- promote unique African experiences; and
- offer visitors quality experiences.



To achieve the foregoing objectives, South African Tourism Board participates in major travel shows. It further coordinates advertising, public relations and direct mailing campaigns. It organises educational work sessions with international partners of South Africa's travel industry.

The foregoing objectives are aimed at marketing and promoting tourism in South Africa. The marketing of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is not the responsibility of South African Tourism alone as the economic benefits will be enjoyed by all the three countries which are signatories to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park Treaty. This state of affairs suggests that the structures of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park discussed in chapter 2 may still evolve further to cater for tourism marketing of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

#### **6.3.4 Private sector**

At private sector level, there are a variety of institutions which represent specific interests- from car rental, guest houses, to hotels and tour operators. In 1996, the Tourism Business Council of South Africa was established. The Tourism Business Council has a Board which consists of 16 members appointed by different member categories. The Tourism Business Council membership comprises tour operators, accommodation establishment, restaurants, providers of transport facilities and crown members. Crown members are corporations from various business sectors, which appreciate the value that tourism has to add to their business. Crown members are Coca-Cola, Johnnic Publishing, Nedbank and the South African Breweries (TBCSA: available at: <http://www.tbcsa.org.za/tbcsa.html>. 27/07/2006).

The Tourism Business Council of South Africa is a private sector representative body in tourism which enables the private sector to speak with one voice (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996 *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa*, available at: [http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white\\_papers/tourism.html](http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white_papers/tourism.html). 25/05/2006).

The partnership between government and the private sector is represented by the Tourism Business Council of South Africa to ensure joint response to South Africa's tourism policy, its strategic direction and implementation. This commitment reflected in the representation of Tourism Business Council of South Africa on a number of institutions established by the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. These institutions include amongst others, South African Tourism Board, Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism Affairs' Advisory Committee on Research and Information, and the SANParks (TBCSA: available at: <http://www.tbcsa.org.za/tbcsa.html>. 27/07/2006)..

The private sector plays a significant role in the development and promotion of tourism. The private sector bears major risks regarding tourism investment as well as large part of responsibility in satisfying the needs of the tourists. The delivery of quality tourism services and providing the customer with value for money are largely private sector responsibilities. In addition, the private sector is in a position to promote involvement of local communities in tourism ventures by, *inter alia*, establishing partnership tourism ventures with communities. The private sector role in tourism include amongst others, the following (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, 1996 *White Paper on the Development and Promotion of Tourism in South Africa*, available at: [http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white\\_papers/tourism.html](http://www.polity.org.za/html/govdocs/white_papers/tourism.html). 25/05/2006):

- advertising and promotion of individual tourism as well as the country locally, regionally and internationally;
- developing and promoting socially and environmentally responsible tourism;
- ensuring the safety, security and health of visitors in collaboration with the government and other private sector members;
- collaborating with government in planning, promoting and marketing tourism;
- involving local communities and previously disadvantaged groups in tourism industry through establishing partnerships ventures with communities, outsourcing, purchasing of goods and services from communities;

The role played by the private sector in the development of tourism and attraction of both local and international tourists as well as the involvement of communities and their empowerment is significant. Tourism Business Council of South Africa contributes to the funding of the international marketing of South Africa. However, one should consider the main reason why the private sector gets involved in tourism. The primary reason for private sector involvement in tourism is the desire to make profit. The Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, tourism agencies, and South African Tourism Board should collaborate with the private sector but bear in mind that the profit motif could motivate private companies to sway public policies and plans in a way that would be detrimental to the environment.

### **6.3.5 World Tourism Organisation**

The World Tourism Organization was established in 1925. The structures of the World Tourism Organization include the General Assembly, Committees and the Secretariat. Members of World Trade Organisation include 138 countries and territories, 350 affiliate members that represent local governments, tourism associations, educational institutions, and private companies. South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe respectively joined the World Tourism Organization in 1994, 1995 and 1981 (World tourism Organisation, available at: <http://www.world-tourism.org/states/eng.html>. 15/06/2006). The main focus of World Tourism Organisation is international tourism policy issues and provides practical information for the tourist industry. The World Tourism Organisation aims to stimulate economic growth and job creation, to provide incentives for the protection of the environment and heritage in different countries and to promote peace (Lubbe 2003: 173).

The functions performed by the World Tourism Organisation include the following (Lubbe 2003:173):

- co-operation and development. It assists developing countries with information relating to sustainable development.

- Statistics, market research and publications
- environment and planning. World Tourism Organisation cooperates with its members and other international organizations for proper planning and management of tourism development,
- human resource development. World Tourism Organisation assists member countries to assess their educational needs and develop high quality education and training.
- quality of tourism development. World Tourism Organisation assists member states to improve quality in the tourism sector and to remain more competitive.

In an information age, South Africa cannot afford to ignore information generated by the World Tourism Organisation. Information is a powerful resource for a developing tourism industry such as South Africa's. Market research and subsequent publications reveal best practices and pitfalls that South Africa can avoid in developing its tourism. The World Tourism Organisation is not directly involved in the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. However, its publications are resources that should be considered by all the parties involved in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

### **6.3.6 World Travel and Tourism Council**

The World Travel and Tourism Council was established in 1990. It is a global Business Leaders' forum for travel and tourism. It is composed of chief executives from all sectors of the travel and tourism industry (accommodation, catering, entertainment, recreation, and transportation) (Lubbe 2003: 174)

According to (Lubbe 2003: 174-175) the World Travel and Tourism Council aims to:

- work with government to realise the potential of travel and tourism;
- remove all barriers that impede the growth of the travel and tourism industry;
- pursue sustainable development; and

- eliminate barriers to growth by urging governments to avoid policies which impede growth.

The activities and objectives of the World Travel and Tourism Council and the Tourism Business Council of South Africa are similar. These institutions can serve as valuable advisory institutions on government policy relating to tourism. However, government has to be cautious not to accept all their recommendations as they may be motivated by their members' need to make profit at all cost. The government's responsibility is to ensure that there is responsible tourism and sustainable use of resources. Thus in the case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, commercialisation in the form of lodges and the number of people entering the park has to be regulated in the interests of sustainable tourism.

### **6.3.7 Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa**

The Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa was established in 1997 by the representatives of Southern African Development Community member states. The Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa has a membership of tourism organizations in 14 Southern African countries. Its membership is divided into *bona fide* members such as state departments, private sector organisations, associate members such as Sun International (SA), and cooperating partners (Lubbe 2003: 177).

The Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa as the official Southern African Development Community tourism body aims to create an explicit destination identity for the region. It also aims to increase consumer awareness and motivation within and outside the Southern African Development Community. The Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa identifies and develops niches for the region. The Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa assists its members and the public with information relating to airlines and transport, accommodation, health services, travel agencies, other travel services, travel information, leisure, food and guides (Lubbe 2003: 177).

The objectives of the Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa are (Charter of the Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa, available at: [http://www.iucnrosa.org.za/elisa/SADC-Protocols/tourism\\_charter.html](http://www.iucnrosa.org.za/elisa/SADC-Protocols/tourism_charter.html) 27/07/2006):

- encourage and facilitate the movement and flow of tourists into the SADC region, applying the necessary regional or national policies and mechanisms, which facilitate the liberation of exchange control regulations;
- facilitate a community and rural-based tourism industry and culture throughout the region;
- facilitate a community and rural-based tourism industry and culture throughout the region;
- develop, coordinate and facilitate tourism marketing and related promotional opportunities in the region by whatever means, including internal and external collaboration, mutual marketing programmes, and utilisation of legitimate methods focusing on the region's quality, as a desirable and safe tourist destination and investment target;
- encourage and facilitate international and regional transport, tourism training and accommodation;
- encourage and promote consistency in the quality and maintenance of tourism standards within the region; and
- acts as a communication channel between member states and organisations to enhance the region's tourism and tourist confluence.

The Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa is favourably placed to promote and market tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and other similar parks in Southern Africa. The assessment of its suitability is based on the fact that it is a regional institution which does not have to be sympathetic to any specific country.

#### 6.4 THE STATE OF TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA, MOZAMBIQUE AND ZIMBABWE

The state of tourism in South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe is crucial for the successful integration of the three parks. Table 1 below gives an indication of the number of tourists who visit the South African and Zimbabwean parts of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Kruger National Park receives 1 059 122 annually. Gonarezhou received only 2 601. These figures and consequent income need to be borne in mind whenever possibilities of sharing income are discussed.

Table 1: Visitors to the GLTP Parks

	<b>National</b>	<b>International</b>	<b>Total</b>
<b>Mozambique</b>			
Limpopo National Park	Not available	Not available	Not available
<b>South Africa</b>			
Kruger National Park	778 516	280 606	1 059 122
<b>Zimbabwe</b>			
Gonarezhou National Park	2 400	201	2601

Source: Hecht 2004:3

SANParks and the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority are both parastatals expected to cover their own costs. SANParks does not cover all its costs. It receives a subsidy each year from the national budget. In 2003 the subsidy was R72million of the operating budget of R427 million. Kruger generates most of the revenue of the SANParks system and subsidises other parks in South Africa (Hecht 2004: 7). Income derived from tourism for year 1997/98 was R220 737 million. The KNP generates approximately 75% of its operating costs from tourism and trade activities (Bennett 2000: 385).

Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Management Authority has covered its operating costs over the past few years. Like SANParks, it has received allocations from the national budget to cover investment (Z\$ 900 000 000- US \$1 125 000 for investments in the Gonarezhou related to the GLTP) (Hecht 2004: 7). The situation in Mozambique is different from South Africa and Zimbabwe. The Mozambican national parks are part of the Ministry of Tourism and as such do not have fiscal autonomy.

Politics play an important role in tourism. The political, economic or social situations in any given country can either attract or turn away potential tourists. A general overview of the state of tourism in South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe is provided hereunder.

#### **6.4.1 SOUTH AFRICA**

Tourism has increased significantly since 1994. South Africa is a popular tourism destination with arrivals growing from 640 000 in 1994 to more than 6,5 million in 2003 (South Africa Yearbook 2005:539). The total tourist expenditure in 1996 was estimated to be R26,8 billion. Domestic and international tourists' expenditure in 1996 was approximately R14,8 billion and R12 billion respectively. International tourism grew by 22% in 1994. The overseas tourism grew by 44% from 704 000 visitors to 1 015 000 in 1995. Arrivals from the African continent grew by 12%. This accounted for an increase of more than R3 billion in foreign exchange earnings for the year, from approximately R7billion to almost R11 billion (Mafunzwaini 2003: 35-36).

#### **6.4.2 MOZAMBIQUE**

Mozambique was historically regarded by the international community as a premier tourist destination in Africa. The armed conflict which started in 1973 in Mozambique had a negative impact on tourism. The armed conflict was instrumental in the destruction of infrastructure and the eradication of wild life resources. Since 1990, tourism has started to recover. Tourism arrivals reached an estimated 400 000 in 2001(Equal to the pre-war arrivals in 1972). Tourism contributes 1,2 % to the Gross Domestic Product of



Mozambique and is the largest investment sector in the country. This recovery is coupled with the increase in the number of tourists and investment (Travel and tourism-Mozambique, available at: <http://www.marketresearch.com/product/display.asp>. 14/07/2006).

There is no infrastructure in the Limpopo National Park. The infrastructure that was available was destroyed by flooding in 1999. There is no electricity in the Limpopo National Park although bulk power lines from Cahora Bassa power station in South Africa pass through the northern part of the Limpopo National Park toward Phalaborwa (Spencely, 2005. Tourism investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Scoping report, available at: <http://www.wits.ac.za> 17/11/2006).

Although there are no tourism facilities inside the Limpopo National Park, plans are there to effect some improvement. A road from Massingir to Giryondo has been constructed and the Giryondo Border Gate has been opened to facilitate the movement of tourists between Kruger National Park and the Limpopo National Park. It is envisaged that the Limpopo National Park will be able to accommodate 2 184 overnight visitors and 160 day visitors. It is further anticipated that once the infrastructure has been developed, the Limpopo will have a capacity of 486 180 visitors per annum (Spencely, 2005. Tourism investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Scoping report, available at: <http://www.wits.ac.za> 17/11/2006).

The government of Mozambique is committed to the development of tourism in its country. In 2000, a 3% tourist tax added to hotel service charges was abolished (Opening the Gateway to vast tourism potential. Available at: <http://www.summitreports.com/mozambique/tourism1.htm>. 15/06/2006). It could be argued that Mozambique has the political and economic potential to develop its section of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park to be at the level of South Africa.

### 6.4.3 ZIMBABWE

There was rapid growth in tourism once Zimbabwe gained independence in 1980. Between 1980 and 1999 tourist arrivals grew at an average growth rate of 17,5% whilst tourism income increased at an average annual growth rate of 18% (US\$). Zimbabwe tourism sector contributed up to 6 % of the country's GDP and employed 200 000 people prior to 2001. Tourism generated \$400M (US) yearly in foreign currency (Machipisa, L. 2001. Sun sets on Zimbabwe tourism. Available at: <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/africa/1220218.stm>. 15/06/2006). The tourism sector in Zimbabwe is currently facing regression as a result of social, economic and political instability. This situation has led to 11% decline in tourist arrivals between 1999 and 2000 (Spencely, 2005. Tourism investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Scoping report, available at: <http://www.wits.ac.za> 17/11/2006).

Between 1996 and 1998 there were approximately 6 000 visitors to the Gonarezhou National Park per annum, of whom 20% were foreign visitors. In 2000 this number declined steeply to just over 2000 per annum of which more than half were day visitors. Gonarezhou National Park has one rest camp known as Mwenezi. The Mwenezi rest camp provides rondavels with 16 beds, the only roofed accommodation in the Limpopo National Park. The transport infrastructure in the Gonarezhou National Park is in a state disrepair as a result of poor funding and maintenance. Most roads in the Park are only accessible by 4X4 vehicles (Spencely, 2005. Tourism investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Scoping report, available at: <http://www.wits.ac.za> 17/11/2006).

The recent political and economic instability in Zimbabwe has resulted in decreasing levels of biodiversity in its Gonarezhou Park. Combined with the past influx of people into Gonarezhou, this could negatively affect biodiversity levels throughout the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Tourism industry is highly sensitive to political unrest. The political crisis in Zimbabwe has led to a dramatic decline in tourism. When it became clear that Zimbabwe's Gonarezhou would join the Mozambican and South African parts

of the Great Limpopo, it was feared that tourists might also avoid these areas out of fear of spill-over effects from the situation in Zimbabwe (Van Ameron and Buscher, 2005: 17-18). It is the responsibility of both the Zimbabwean Government with the assistance of South African and Mozambican governments to restore tourist confidence in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. This could be done through bilateral and trilateral talks which are aimed at restoring stability in Zimbabwe.

Invasion of commercial farms by war veterans and violence that ensued in the run-up to the 2009 elections have put Zimbabwe on the list of unsafe destinations. Fuel and foreign currency shortages impact negatively on tourism. Due to the deteriorating political and economic situation, a number of airlines terminated its services to and from Zimbabwe. These airlines include amongst others, Australia's Qantas, German Airline, and Lufthansa (Machipisa, L. 2001. Sun sets on Zimbabwe tourism. Available at: <http://news.bbc.co.uk/1/hi/world/africa/1220218.stm>. 15/06/2006).

## **6.5 REVENUE SHARING IN THE GREAT LIMPOPO TRANSFRONTIER PARK**

The sharing of revenue is a challenge which faced the Joint Management Board at the initial phases of the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The main aim was to find a simple, equitable option that allows co-operation and autonomy of the three parks involved in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (Great Limpopo: Talk of the Transfrontier. Official Newsletter of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, January 2004-March 2004, Issue 1: 9)

Mozambique and Zimbabwe initially envisaged that all the income from park fees would be shared by all the three countries. However, South Africa insisted that each country be entitled to keep the revenue that it has collected. The issue was resolved in favour of South Africa. Although the dispute was resolved, it will linger in the institutional memories and may impact negatively on the future course of action. The months' long delays on the Mozambican side in signing the treaty of the Great Limpopo could be

interpreted as Mozambican anger over South African dominance in the Great Limpopo Park (Van Ameron and Buscher, 2005: 12).

Mozambique and Zimbabwe fear that South Africa will benefit disproportionately from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park due to its dominance in the region's tourist industry. It could result in much of the income generated by ecotourism on their territories flowing back to South Africa. The risk is especially apparent if the Great Limpopo Park develops into a full-scale transboundary conservation area allowing South Africa to offer a more diversified tourism package featuring not only parks, but also Mozambican beaches. South Africa on the contrary argues that the Kruger Park, which is currently a major tourism attraction, will serve as a springboard for increasing tourism throughout the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Perceptions that South Africa will benefit disproportionately from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park were further reinforced by South Africa's construction of a new airport near Nelspruit. The airport diminishes the chances for Maputo international airport to be the main entry gate for tourism to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (van Ameron and Buscher, 2005: 12).

A revenue sharing study was undertaken with a number of options identified and discussed amongst the three countries which are party to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. After deliberations on the results of the study, it was decided that, for a while, each park will charge its own fees for entry into the Park. The rationale behind this decision was that there are still too many differences in the amenities and wildlife viewing opportunities available in the various parks (Revenue sharing decision, Available at: <http://www.peaceparks.org/new/news.php?pip=161&mid=497>. 22/05/2006).

The sharing of revenue is a somewhat complex issue given the different stages of development of the parks which are part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The Kruger National Park is more advanced in terms of infrastructure compared to the Limpopo and Gonarezhou. Kruger currently funds 71% percent of SANParks operating revenue. A decision which allows Kruger Park's revenue to be channelled to other countries would substantially impact on SANParks operational budget. Kruger's visitors

are estimated to be 1 million per year. Kruger Park's visitors generate more revenue while the Limpopo and Gonarezhou are bringing in little or no revenue.

Although each park is currently collecting its own and keeping its revenue, it is necessary to analyse possible entry fee structures and revenue allocation strategies which may be considered for implementation in future.

### **6.5.1 Possible Entry fee structures**

Four entry fee structures have been discussed among South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The following subsections analyse the merits and demerits of each of the structures.

#### **6.5.1.1 One GLTP fee**

Visitors under the one GLTP fee structure pay a single fee for the entire Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park which permits them to move among the three parks. The fee remains the same irrespective of where the visitors enter the Park. All revenue from entry fee would be paid into the trilateral organisation responsible for managing the Park. The fee would be set in a single currency such the South African Rand or US Dollar (Hecht 2004: 9).

#### **6.5.1.2 Wholly separate fees**

The second approach allows each of the three parks to charge their own entry fee. Visitors moving from the first park of entry to another pay the full fee for the second park. This approach is the direct opposite of the approach explained above. It makes the three parks independent units. Wholly separate fees are easy to implement as they avoid the complexity that may be caused by exchange rates (Hecht 2004: 9).

### **6.5.1.3 Primary fee only**

In this system, visitors pay one entry fee to their park of entry, and movement into other parks is free (Great Limpopo: Talk of the Transfrontier. Official Newsletter of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, January 2004-March 2004, Issue 1: 9). It differs from the *one GLTP fee* in that each country sets its own entry fees in accordance with its priorities. This system may trigger competition among the three parks and, therefore, undermine the underlying principle of establishing the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

### **6.5.1.4 Dual fee: National or transfrontier**

The dual fee structure gives the tourist a choice of either to pay separately for each park (wholly separate fees) or tourists can buy a single combined ticket to the entire Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, which would allow them to move freely among the parks. The price of the combined ticket is the sum of the individual tickets, discounted by 20-25% (Great Limpopo: Talk of the Transfrontier. Official News Letter of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. January 2004-March 2004. Issue 1:19). The revenue from the combined tickets would be distributed among the three parks proportionally to their individual entry fees. Each park would, therefore, receive its entry fee less the discount.

The dual fee system combines the advantages of the single Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and a wholly separate fee system. The management of this system is easier as it is clear what amount of the fee entry fee each park receives. It makes it easier to market the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as a single product. The exchange rate fluctuations as a result of market volatility would make the system more complicated to manage. The dual fee would encourage visitors to visit less developed parts of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. In this way the benefits of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are not confined to South Africa.

#### **6.5.1.5 Discounted separate fees**

The discounted separate fees approach allow tourists to pay the full fee for the primary entry and can buy discounted tickets to the other two parks when they arrive at their respective gates and present their primary park ticket. If each park keeps its own revenue, then a given park will be better off if more additional visitors are enticed by the discount than would have paid full fee to see additional parks (Hecht 2004: 11).

This system is advantageous as it encourages tourists to expand their travels beyond a single park without requiring them to decide from the start if they wish to do so. The system circumvents the exchange rate complexities posed by the dual fee structure as all tickets are priced and purchased in local currency and each country reserves the right to adjust entry fees in accordance with exchange rate fluctuations. Although this system ensures the sovereignty of each park and it is easy to manage, it defeats the primary aim of marketing the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as a single destination.

#### **6.5.2 Revenue allocation strategies**

After revenue has been collected in accordance with one of the foregoing possible entry fee structures, it is necessary to consider strategies which can be followed in allocating or reallocating revenue.

##### **6.5.2.1 Keep what is collected**

The keep what is collected approach allows each one of the three parks to keep the revenue it collects and use it at its discretion to cover own operational costs (Great Limpopo: Talk of the Transfrontier. Official Newsletter of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, January 2004-March 2004, Issue 1: 9). This approach will be possible if either the wholly separate or dual fee structures is adopted. This approach is easy to manage and does not raise questions relating to how and how much money has to be reallocated. Each park will have an incentive to make its offerings attractive with a view

to maximise its revenue. Furthermore, there would be no fear that Mozambique or Zimbabwe will be a free rider on South Africa's revenue generated by the Kruger National Park.

Although this approach may be preferred due to its simplicity, it has disadvantages that need to be overcome for optimal implementation. The first disadvantage is that it does not guarantee that there will be revenue to improve the conditions in both Limpopo and Gonarezhou parks. The political climate in Zimbabwe would not secure funding for the improvement of Gonarezhou. Lack of funding for Zimbabwe implies that it will not be a viable partner in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

#### **6.5.2.2 Share the funds equally**

The equal sharing of revenue seems to be a socialist approach which believes that one should receive according to his/her needs. This approach, according to Hecht (2004:11), poses a threat that could destroy the entire South African park system. This argument is based on the fact that Kruger National Park provides 71% of the SANParks revenue and therefore the rest of the South African parks system relies on it.

#### **6.5.2.3 Formula for reallocation**

The adoption of a formula for reallocation would treat the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park revenue as a single fund to be allocated to the three parks on the basis of criteria agreed upon by the Joint Management Board. This approach is suitable if a single entry fee is adopted.

Two types of revenue allocation are possible. The first type intends to reflect the contribution that each country made to the park so that the revenue sharing could be a fair return on the country's investment. The second type of criteria reflects the cost of operating each of the three parks.



The following items need to be included in the revenue sharing formula:

- amount of land;
- quantity of wildlife that each park offers to visitors;
- the quality of visitor experience;
- number of visitors in each of the three parks;
- number of visitor days in each of the three parks;
- number of gates at each park;
- kilometres of roads in each park, and quality of those roads;
- number of staff;
- total salaries; and
- operational costs which includes the cost of capital.

Items listed above ensure that there can be equity based on the resources that a country possess and use. This approach is likely to favour South Africa as the country has more resources and spend substantial amounts of money on the aforementioned items than Mozambique and Zimbabwe.

#### **6.5.2.4 Reallocation based on need and ability to pay**

The reallocation based on need and ability approach is based on the identification of specific expenditures which will benefit the Park as a whole. Under this approach each of the three parks will contribute a portion of its revenue to a fund from which expenditure will be defrayed. Since each country would contribute the same share of its annual revenue or entry fees, in principle the burden would be distributed equitably among the three parks. The disadvantage of this approach is that Kruger National Park will contribute almost all the money as the Limpopo has no revenue and Gonarezhou's revenue is less than one tenth of one percent of Kruger's revenue. The percentage established will be based on how much SANParks can contribute to such a fund without undue impact on the many other activities which it funds out of the Kruger National Park revenue. This can be expressed as a percentage levied against each park's revenue or simply as an amount contributed from each park.

The rationale behind this reallocation approach is to ensure that key expenditure on which the overall increase in the tourist pool depends will not be blocked by the inability of Mozambique and Zimbabwe to fund them. This approach encourages the three countries to realise that, while they are still responsible for operating and attracting visitors to their own parks, they also have some responsibility for the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as a whole. In this approach, it might also be possible to obtain matching funds from donors to increase the amount of money in the fund. If the funds are managed well, donors who are not willing to provide bilateral aid to Zimbabwe might be willing to contribute to a fund for the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

This approach could be combined with the wholly separate or dual fee structures. Each country would keep its own revenue except the share to be contributed to the joint fund which has to be low enough not to distort the individual park's operations. It would not create the distortions inherent in an allocation formula, nor would it distort the incentive for each park to make itself attractive for tourists. The danger of this approach is that there will not be an *a priori* fixed sum or share of revenues to be reallocated from the Kruger National Park to other parks, in practice it will turn out to be difficult to obtain funds for activities that benefit the park as a whole.

The establishment of a joint fund requires each country to contribute a proportion of its entry fees in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Reallocation of funds is based on need and ability to pay. The money contributed to the fund will be used for training, designing of monitoring systems, animal translocations, marketing and all other activities which are likely to advance the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

## **6.6 ECONOMIC SIGNIFICANCE OF TOURISM**

The post World War II years have, according to Edgell (1999:13), seen a worldwide increase in leisure time for millions of people in both the developed and developing countries. Shorter working hours, greater individual prosperity, faster and cheaper travel,

and the impact of advanced technology have all helped to make leisure and travel a fast-growing industry.

Tourism plays an important role in the economic and technological development of countries. It stimulates the development of basic infrastructure such as roads, airports, sewers and electrical power. It contributes to the growth of domestic industries that supply the tourism industry (transportation, agriculture, food processing and construction). It attracts foreign investment. It facilitates the transfer of technology. Transfer of technology has been evident in the hotel industry as hotels in developing countries have acquired computer based reservation systems (Edgell 1999:19).

Tourism is South Africa's fastest growing industry and its contribution rose from 3% in 1986 to 6% in 1999 and about 7,1% of the GDP in 2005 (South Africa Year Book 2005: 537). Tourism follows manufacturing and mining in its contribution to South Africa's economy (Jackson, C and Cloete, L., Lessons from www tourism in South Africa, Available at: <http://www.isoc.org>. 21/08/2006). Tourists make an important contribution to the balance of payments in South Africa. The total income earned from international tourists, minus payments made by host country's tourists on their travel abroad, represents the balance of payments on the tourism account (Bennett 2000: 361). Positive changes in the GDP and the balance of payments are signs of an improving economy. Economic prosperity is linked to stability. A stable country in terms of politics and economy has the potential to attract more tourists.

Tourism employs an estimated 3% of the total South African workforce and is regarded as potentially the largest provider of jobs and earner of foreign exchange. It is projected that in 2010 the South African tourism economy will employ more than 1,2 million people directly and indirectly (South Africa Year Book 2005: 535). This projection is based on the anticipation of the hosting of the 2010 Soccer World Cup in South Africa. It is hoped that the Soccer World Cup will be an opportunity for South Africa to attract more tourists and sell its tourism products to the World.

## **6.7 CHALLENGES FACING TOURISM IN SOUTH AFRICA**

For South Africa to realise its tourism potential, a numbers of challenges have to be overcome. These challenges include amongst others, Inadequate funding of tourism, myopic private sector, limited integration of local communities, ground transportation, crime and regional stability.

### **6.7.1 Inadequate funding of tourism**

One of the problems facing the tourism industry is that the government has had a limited view of the potential of the industry. The result of this narrow view is that marginal resources were devoted to developing and promoting the sector. Tourism is still narrowly viewed as tourists and hotels (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. 1996. White Paper on the Development and promotion of Tourism in South Africa. Available at: [http://www.policy.org.za/html/govdocs/white\\_pepers/tourism.html](http://www.policy.org.za/html/govdocs/white_pepers/tourism.html). 25/05/2006). The diversification of tourism in South Africa can lead to increased number of tourist who visits South Africa.

### **6.7.2 Myopic private sector**

Hotels and other tourism establishments tend to have a limited view of the product they offer. They tend to think and be concerned about the goods and services within their individual businesses. If a tourist is harassed, overcharged by the taxi driver, it is not considered to be the hotel's concern (Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. 1996. White Paper on the Development and promotion of Tourism in South Africa. Available at: [http://www.policy.org.za/html/govdocs/white\\_pepers/tourism.html](http://www.policy.org.za/html/govdocs/white_pepers/tourism.html). 25/05/2006). Partnership between business, and government is essential to give tourists different but consistent services of a high quality.

### **6.7.3 Limited integration of local communities**

Local communities can increase the diversity of the tourism product offered by South Africa and the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in particular. According to the White Paper on the Development and promotion of Tourism in South Africa (Available at: [http://www.policy.org.za/html/govdocs/white\\_pepers/tourism.html](http://www.policy.org.za/html/govdocs/white_pepers/tourism.html). 25/05/2006) local communities can offer services such as:

- guest houses or bed and breakfast establishments;
- taverns and shebeens;
- taxi services;
- historical attractions, entertainment such traditional music, dance, theatre and story telling;
- craft shops, hair salons.

However, these are not fully utilised as rural communities are mostly not regarded as tourist destinations by tour operators and guides. This perception need to be reversed. The change of perceptions implies that a number of challenges need to be overcome by rural communities. Local communities lack access to tourism markets as visitors are kept within hotels and resorts. Large companies are in control of the market. This makes it impossible for small businesses to enter the market.

### **6.7.4 Ground transportation**

There is a major hype around the improvement of the transport system in South Africa in view of the 2010 Soccer World Cup. However, major developments are focused on towns and cities. The underdevelopment of rural infrastructure and transport systems relegate rural areas to no-go areas for tourists.

### **6.7.5 Crime**

Crime impacts negatively on tourism. Tourists visit areas which are peaceful and safe. Crime is a major problem which has the potential to frustrate South Africa's attempts in realising its tourism potential. The increase in the number of violent crimes reported in the media and in the World Wide Web can influence the decision of the tourist to visit South Africa. Ferreira and Harmse (2000: 80) believe that widely publicised crimes committed against foreign tourists have an immediate impact in terms of declining foreign tourist visits. The power of the media in forming images of an area must not be underestimated. Personal experience and word of mouth communication are most important factors influencing tourist decision to visit South Africa.

Robbery with aggravated circumstances has for instance increased from 84 785 cases reported in 1995 to 133 658 in 2004 (Crime information analysis, available at: <http://www.statsa.gov.za>. 21/08/2006). The more the tourist realizes that chances of being robbed, the more the likelihood that such a tourist would choose an alternative destination.

### **6.7.6 Regional stability**

Stability in Southern Africa is essential for the attraction of visitors. Apart from crime, perceived safety from the perspective of terrorism affects the decision of the tourist to visit South Africa. Economic migrants from an unstable country such as Zimbabwe can have a negative consequence on tourism. Economic and illegal immigrants can contribute to a higher crime rate in South Africa. The stabilisation of Southern Africa is the responsibility of the Southern African Development Community and governments of different states.

## 6.8 CONCLUSION

The success of tourism in South Africa needs role players to contribute their part and consider themselves as individual pieces of a puzzle. Government plays a significant role as a regulator. Furthermore, government should be seen as a catalyst which is needed by all role-players. Government should enable conservation agencies, South African Tourism, and the private sector to realise South Africa's potential in tourism. A positive enabling environment for tourism could be cultivated if government sees itself as a facilitator for tourism development. The interdependence of countries has necessitated the establishment of international tourism organisations. The World Tourism Organisation, World Travel and Tourism Council as well as the Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa have been established to share experiences and develop tourism throughout the World.

Political and economic stability of Southern Africa is essential for the realisation of the objectives of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Diplomatic solutions to the political and economic problems in Zimbabwe would be beneficial for the marketing of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The state of tourism and level of development of the three parks have implication for revenue sharing. While Limpopo and Gonarezhou are still in need of capital to develop, the subsidisation of these two parks by Kruger National Park should not be detrimental to the park system in South Africa. There is potential for tourism to contribute significantly to the economy in South Africa. The challenges which face the South African tourism market can be overcome through joint efforts of the government, business and members of the community. The next and last chapter concludes, provides the findings and recommendations for the improvement of intergovernmental relations for the benefit of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

## CHAPTER SEVEN: CONCLUSIONS, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The essence of any public administration research is to solve a relevant administrative or managerial problem or problems identified in Public Administration or any related field. Chapter one of this thesis identified a problem around which this research revolves. The following quote from chapter one captures the problem investigated in this study:

*“For the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, relevant stakeholders have to be involved to ensure effective and efficient management. The thesis examines the effects of the consultation and co-ordination processes on the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park”.*

Consequently, the research question posed in this study is: *“Were the relevant stakeholders sufficiently involved in negotiations to obtain effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park?”*

Furthermore, apart from the focus on the problem statement and research question, chapter one’s main aim was to introduce the study. The chapter outlined a background to the study. The chapter also paid attention to the objectives of the study and its significance, limitations of the study, ethical requirements, research methodology, sequence of chapters and clarified terms to avoid ambiguities.

Chapter two focused on the requirements for effective and efficient management. Effectiveness and efficiency are key words in the problem statement hence it is necessary for the research to establish the basic elements which are necessary for efficient and effective management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. It is important for natural resources to be managed in a manner that is sustainable. A variety of reasons for effective and efficient management of natural resources were explained.

Values and principles of public administration contained in different pieces of legislation and policy documents are described. The essence of legislation and policies is to provide a framework within which intergovernmental structures can be established. Furthermore,



the legislative and policy framework make provisions which facilitate the functioning of intergovernmental structures on the three spheres of government in South Africa. It can, therefore, be concluded that the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, other subordinate legislation and policies contribute to the effective and efficient service delivery as well as intergovernmental relations.

Chapter two concluded that an African dimension is necessary for the application of principles and values. The African dimension is, however, not universal. Each community in South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe is unique and needs to be understood as a separate constituent unit. This Chapter further concluded that efficiency and effectiveness call for continuous improvement and modernisation of service delivery. Use of least resources to achieve more objectives is an ideal worth pursuing given the scarcity of resources in South Africa.

It was argued in chapter two that laws, skills, research and information management, technology, conservation awareness and education, training and development, communication are essential ingredients for effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. In addition, a number of structures are responsible for exercising control and ensuring effectiveness and efficiency are described.

Due to the international nature of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, two distinct types of intergovernmental structures were identified. The first group of structures have authority on the South African part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Although the area of jurisdiction of institutions such as Parliament, Cabinet, and the Auditor-General is limited to South Africa, these institutions can influence policy and the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park through policies and accountability requirements. The second group of structures, which is described in chapter two as the governing and management structures are unique supranational structures established with the sole purpose of achieving the common objective of sustainable natural resources management. The three countries represented in these structures are equal partners. The chairing of the Trilateral Ministerial Committee and the Joint Management Board on a

rotational basis is an attempt to balance power and ensure equity. Although the treaty attempts to balance power and maintain equality, it is not always possible to regulate the two aspects through treaties. Knowledge and the possession of more resources place politicians and officials in a better position when bargaining on a number of issues relating to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. In view of the disparity of resources and knowledge elaborated on in chapter six it could be concluded that South Africa plays an influential role in the management and development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

The Coordinating Party is meant to balance power and bring about equity. Each country gets an opportunity to co-ordinate the activities of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park for a period of two years with an individual co-ordinator being appointed. The intention for the establishment of a co-ordinating party is noble, but the shift in responsibilities from one country to another may have adverse consequences on continuity and consistency. On the basis of the foregoing argument, chapter two concluded that the co-ordinating party needs to be reviewed as it may affect intergovernmental relations and the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park negatively. A diagram was used to illustrate the structures established for the management and control of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Chapter three described South Africa as an independent state which cannot isolate itself from the rest of the international system of governments. Furthermore, chapter three elaborated on the challenges relating to the cutting of some parts of border fences separating South Africa and Mozambique. This chapter raised questions relating to threats to sovereignty of the states concerned in view of the cutting of fences.

Globalisation was described as an involuntary process which impact on nation states differently depending on their level of development and influence that they have on processes and international relations. Regional integration and the African Renaissance philosophy represent ways to respond to globalisation. Chapter three concluded that South Africa cannot be adversely affected by globalisation concerning the Great

Limpopo Transfrontier Park due to its influence and the extent of its political and economic stability.

South Africa's foreign policy as a guide for relations with other countries was assessed. The locus of South Africa's foreign policy was explained. The contribution of different international institutions and the New Partnership for Africa's Development in the relations among different states is explained. The significance and nature of bilateral and multilateral relations between the three countries is explained. It was concluded in chapter three that international institutions are significant role players in the establishment and enforcement of treaties. Previous relations among the South African government-of-the-day with Mozambique and Zimbabwe made it possible to enter into Trilateral Treaty which established the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Chapter three concluded that concrete fence posts should remain intact to avoid future border disputes among the three countries. The dominant role played by South Africa in the establishment and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park should not be exploited, but be used as a way to rectify mistakes of the past and harness cordial relations.

Chapter four described the impact of the nature of the South African state and its system of government on the intergovernmental relations structures which evolve. The vertical and horizontal forms of intergovernmental relations were discussed with a view to assess their relevance in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The relationship between the national, provincial and local spheres of government is a manifestation of vertical intergovernmental relations. Interaction amongst departments on the same level gives rise to horizontal intergovernmental relations. A number of departments at the national sphere of government are part of a relationship matrix necessary for the development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. These departments on South Africa's side include the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, South African Police Service, South African National Defence Force, Department of Home Affairs, South African Revenue Services,

Department of Health, Department of Agriculture as well as the Department of Foreign Affairs.

Other intergovernmental relations structures discussed in chapter four were the National Council of Provinces, President's Coordinating Council, the Forum for South African Directors-General, Minister and Members of Executive Council, Committee for Environmental Coordination, National Interdepartmental Structure, National Advisory Forum, Immigration Advisory Board. The extent to which the Limpopo and Mpumalanga provincial governments as well as Ehlanzeni and Mopani municipalities were involved in the establishment and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park were assessed in chapter four.

Chapter four concluded that the Limpopo and Mpumalanga provincial governments as well as Ehlanzeni and Mopani municipalities do not play a significant role as they are not involved in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. This is an indication of the missing link between the three spheres of government in South Africa in matters pertaining to the establishment and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Chapter five focused on the theme of extra-governmental relations. This chapter started by defining the concepts extra-governmental relations and co-operative governance. A distinction was made between governance and government as the two concepts are often used interchangeably. Furthermore, chapter five presented an argument relating to the locus and essence of citizen participation in public administration.

Community based natural resource management was explained as a paradigm shift which puts more responsibility on rural communities or communities which live adjacent to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park to manage natural resources in a manner that is sustainable. Knowledge management and sharing; indigenous knowledge; ownership of resources; training and capacity building are pillars upon which community based natural resources rest. Different types of partnerships were also described. The Makuleke

Community was used as a typical example for both community based natural resources management and partnerships.

It was concluded in chapter five that it is incorrect to use the concepts government and governance as synonyms. It is further established that citizen participation is an indispensable democratic principle which cannot be ignored in the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Citizen participation has not been given priority in the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The success of the Makuleke Community in the management of natural resources dispels notions that African and South African communities in particular do not care about the environment and are inclined to destroy instead of conserving it.

Partnerships can be seen as a vehicle for the promotion of Black Economic Empowerment. Partnerships are meant to improve service delivery and to advance the economic interests of previously disadvantaged communities and individuals. However, it was concluded in chapter five that partnerships tend to benefit those individuals who are already well-off. Black Economic Empowerment policies and their implementation should not be permanent as they may lead to reverse discrimination and racial tensions.

Chapter six commenced with the redefinition of tourism. Tourism was defined broadly to include day travellers and visitors as opposed to the Department of Environmental and Tourism's definition which emphasize spending one or more nights in its definition. It could, therefore, be inferred that the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism's definition is narrow and can eventually lead to gathering of inaccurate statistics relating to the number of tourists who visit tourist attraction areas such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Furthermore, the contribution of a number of role players in the development and management of tourism in South Africa is explained. The underlying ideology and the rationale for the South African government's involvement in tourism were explained.

Government's primary responsibility towards tourism and conservation is outlined in the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*. In terms of schedule 4 of the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996*, tourism is a functional area of concurrent national and provincial legislative competence. The National Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism plays a prominent role in the management of tourism in South Africa. The South African government subscribes to social welfare ideology. Government, therefore, gets involved in tourism in order to promote the general welfare of all South Africans by ensuring that positive spin-offs from tourism are equitably distributed in accordance with the social welfare ideology.

The role of the private sector in tourism was explained and it is argued that government does not have the capacity and resources to provide all services relating to tourism in South Africa. It was further argued in chapter six that the international environment in which tourism takes place cannot be ignored by all role players in South Africa. Major role players in the international tourism environment explained in chapter six include the World Tourism Organisation, World Travel and Tourism Council, and the Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa. From the foregoing, it could be inferred that collaborative efforts are necessary at an international, regional, and national spheres for the success of tourism in South Africa and the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

An appraisal of the state of tourism in South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe was presented in chapter six. It was further argued that the contribution of the three countries is crucial for the success of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. South Africa has a well developed infrastructure and its political stability is an added advantage for the attraction of tourists. Although Mozambique can not be compared to South Africa due to armed conflict which has impacted negatively on natural resources and tourism, Mozambique is making a steady progress politically and economically. Zimbabwe's tourism industry is suffering due to political and economic instability. The speedy resolution of Zimbabwe's political and economic crisis is crucial for the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

The sharing of revenue collected by the constituent parks which form the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park was explained. Although each one of the constituent parks of the great Limpopo Transfrontier Park keeps the gate fees they collect, an alternative method of sharing funds may be necessary in future. Tourism is South Africa's fastest growing industry and has the potential to develop South Africa's economy. Tourism contribution to the economy rose significantly in 2005. The growth in the tourism sector can be attributed to the smooth transition from the apartheid government to a government which is based on the wishes of the majority in 1994. In addition to its contribution to the Gross Domestic Product, tourism provides jobs and is an earner of foreign exchange. For tourism to continue growing, it is necessary for government and the private sector to invest more capital in infrastructure development and conservation.

A number of challenges that face South Africa in its quest to realize tourism potential were elaborated on. It was concluded that these challenges could be overcome if the inter-, intra- and extra-governmental relations are harnessed in South Africa.

In addition to the inferences made above, a number of findings can be reported at the end of the study. None of the structures that have been created to manage and control the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park include members of the public in their private capacities or their relationship with the non-governmental organizations.

Parts of the fences separating South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe are progressively being removed as they are seen as barriers to the movement of game. However, the fence between South Africa and Zimbabwe has not been removed. It is envisaged that it will also follow suit in the near future. The cutting of fences is a noble practice which is also an indication of Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as a unified entity. These noble concepts and subsequent actions may have negative consequences. The consequences of these actions are the spread of veterinary diseases, crime and poaching.

Although the *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996* makes provision for intergovernmental relations and related structures, the number and forms of intergovernmental structures can still change with the evolution of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The marginalisation of the Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces and the Ehlanzeni and Mopani municipalities in the management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park are weaknesses in intergovernmental relations which require attention.

Citizen participation has not been given the attention it deserves during all stages of the establishment and development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park has been the prerogative of the National Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism as well as the South African National Parks. The Makuleke Community only became marginally involved after writing a protest letter to the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism. The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park has not received a buy-in from adjacent communities as effective consultation measures were not put in place. Ignoring members of communities in decision-making reinforces the notion that government plans for the people and not with the people. The top-down approach is followed. The result of this top-down approach is that members of the public in communities adjacent to the Park become insignificant *partners* in decision-making as they are only being informed about developments in the development of the Park.

The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is a means to empower previously marginalised communities. However, its contribution to marginalised communities in South Africa is confined to those communities which had successfully claimed their ancestral land in the Kruger National Park. Other communities living near the Park are yet to reap the benefits of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Park forums have not been used effectively despite South African National Parks Board advocating their use as a method for increasing community participation. Traditional leaders still command considerable respect among members of the communities within their areas of influence. Their strength in acting as champions of community participation have not been explored by Park authorities.



Contrary to popular belief that rural communities in Africa are involved in the destruction of natural resources, the Makuleke Community in Limpopo (Northern part of South Africa) has proven that community based natural resource management can be implemented successfully. Knowledge management, particularly indigenous knowledge has not been sufficiently documented and acknowledged in formal decision-making processes. Ownership of resources promotes a sense of belonging and appeals to members of the public to protect natural resources.

Partnerships can be used successfully by local communities to develop own infrastructure, reduce unemployment and boost local economic development. However, rural communities such as in Makuleke do not have the capacity to enter into a partnership. This state of affairs may lead to communities being misused by unscrupulous businesses or incurring expenses on consultants to safeguard their interests relating to long term contracts. Partnerships are means to empower previously disadvantaged communities that live adjacent to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

There are significant inconsistencies between South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe regarding biodiversity. South Africa has a well developed infrastructure in the Kruger National Park and has more wildlife. The war which started in 1973 in Mozambique has contributed to the destruction of wildlife and infrastructure. The political and economic instability in Zimbabwe has led to a perception that Zimbabwe is an unsafe tourist destination. These perceptions threaten the successful marketing of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as a prime tourist destination. Deteriorating economic conditions in Zimbabwe may in the near future endanger wild life in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Famine could result in residents of Zimbabwe to poach wild animals for survival.

Tourism has the potential to boost the economy of South Africa. This potential will only be realised if the challenges facing South African tourism are overcome. These challenges include inadequate investment in tourism, narrow view of tourism by the

private sector, marginalisation of the local and in particular the rural communities, transport system, and crime.

In the light of the foregoing conclusions and findings, a number of recommendations can be advanced. Although the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and its structures are established at an international level, it is important for members of communities in the so-called traditional areas to be involved in the management structures. There are two ways in which members of the public can be involved. *Firstly*, independent advisory bodies can be established to advise on the unique circumstances in the three countries. *Secondly*, the Joint Management Board of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park could be expanded to accommodate representatives of communities directly affected by the existence of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

The South African government is established on the three spheres, namely the national, provincial and local spheres. These three spheres are constituent units of a system of government in South Africa. For a system to function effectively, it is necessary for all parts to function effectively as individual units and as a collective. It is against the background of the foregoing assertion that it is recommended that the Limpopo and Mpumalanga provinces as well as Ehlanzeni and Mopani district municipalities be actively involved in the development and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. After all, part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is situated in two provinces and municipal areas in South Africa.

The positive effects of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park need to be enjoyed by all members of the public, especially the previously marginalized communities who live adjacent to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. A fifty kilometre radius from the fence of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park can be used as a yardstick for the empowerment of communities and individuals. These communities are strategically located on routes used by tourists. Empowerment should take the form of stalls for the sale of arts, craft, vegetables and fruits. Furthermore, tourist attractions which exist in local communities need to be advertised widely to tourists who visit the South African

part of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Local tourist attractions should not be perceived as competition by SANParks, but as opportunity to diversify the experience of the tourist. These efforts will contribute significantly to the reduction of unemployment. Park forums and traditional leaders need to be utilised effectively to bolster community participation. Traditional leaders must serve as *ex officio* members of any organisational structure meant to promote community participation.

The cutting of fences separating the three constituent parks of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and countries should not be done hastily. Although the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism and South African National Parks argue that fences are only cut in areas that are mountainous or have rivers. The prevention of diseases, crime and poaching should be considered in cutting of more fence around the Kruger National Park linking it to Mozambique and Zimbabwe. Until the political and economic crisis in Zimbabwe has been brought under control, the fence separating South Africa and Zimbabwe should remain in tact.

Communities which have successfully claimed land incorporated into the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park need to be capacitated through training to enable them to enter into partnership and other contracts without incurring expenses on consultants.

Inconsistencies among South African, Mozambican and Zimbabwean parts of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park regarding wildlife and infrastructure need to be addressed. The political and economic situation needs to be changed before the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park's tourism potential can be realised. South Africa's and Mozambique's intervention in Zimbabwe are limited as they cannot interfere in the internal situations of a sovereign state. Negative perceptions are related to negative economic and political situations in the two countries.

Challenges relating to investment, narrow view by the private sector, marginalisation of local rural communities, transport system and crime need concerted efforts by a variety of stakeholders. These stakeholders include the three spheres of government, the private

sector, members of communities and non-governmental organisations. Government needs to invest more in the rural area infrastructure to narrow the disparities between rural and urban areas. Previously marginalised rural communities need to be given information on the establishment of small businesses such as bed and breakfast establishment, bidding for service and management contracts and marketing of businesses to potential tourists.

There is a need to foster the development of community-based tourism products by providing marketing and mentoring support. Tour operators and guides need to be encouraged to be more innovative in their itineraries by including shebeens, local museums, arts and craft, shops and local ethnic restaurants. Visitor feedback needs to be used to develop rural products and to ensure that they excite the tourist taste.

In Chapter one a number of limitations to the study were outlined. Time and financial resources dictate the scope of the research. To ensure that there is continuity and in-depth research on the subject intergovernmental relations and transfrontier parks, it was important for this study to identify areas which require further investigation in future.

The study had identified four areas which justify further research. Firstly, intergovernmental structures relating to the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park established in Mozambique and Zimbabwe. Secondly, an assessment of the impact of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park on communities in Mozambique and Zimbabwe. Thirdly, comparison between Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park and other transfrontier Parks established between South Africa and other neighbouring Southern African Development Community states, particularly agreements which are bilateral in nature. Fourthly, it has been established in this study that indigenous knowledge relating to the conservation of natural resources has been ignored in favour of Western knowledge which is regarded as being advanced. For community based natural resource management to be harnessed, communities need to use methods that they relate to.

To conclude the study it is essential for one to provide an answer to the problem question. The question whether the relevant stakeholders were sufficiently involved in negotiations

to obtain effective and efficient management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park has been elaborated in previous chapters. To provide an answer to this question one needs to classify stakeholders involved in the great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. These stakeholders are government institutions, non-governmental organisations, communities, the private sector, and international institutions. All these stakeholders are important for the success of the great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. The assessment of the extent of the involvement of these stakeholders will provide an answer to the question which is at the centre of this study.

The first group of stakeholders is public sector institutions. As elaborated in the text, the South African government has established a number of intergovernmental relations structures which are meant to facilitate intergovernmental relations. At the national sphere of government, it can be concluded that all stakeholders are sufficiently involved as a number of structures which have a bearing on the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park have been established. Provincial and local governments were not sufficiently involved in the establishment of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

Non-governmental organisations, the private sector, and international institutions are sufficiently involved in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. However, communities are not sufficiently involved and this state of affairs raises suspicions whether communities would benefit from the success of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park. Finally, it could be concluded that stakeholders were selectively involved in the establishment and management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park.

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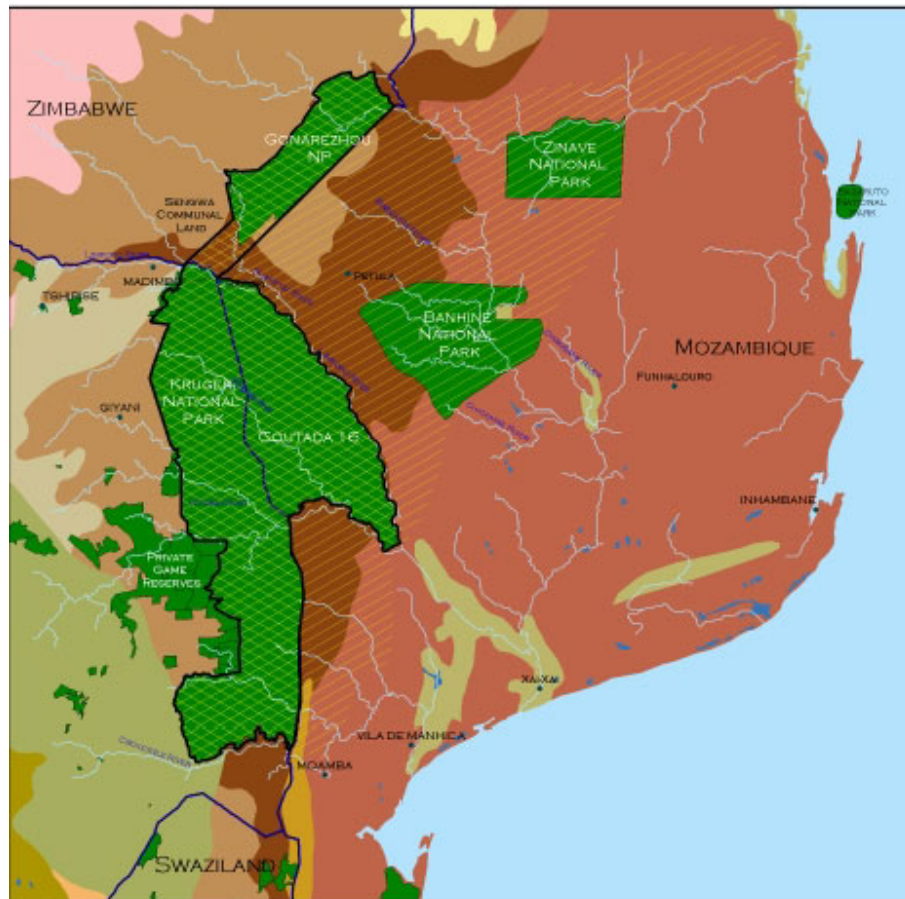
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Annexure A



# Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park

Please note that, until October 2001, the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park was called the Gaza-Kruger-Gonarezhou Transfrontier Park.



- Places
- Core and Extended Area of TFCA
- Core Area
- Extended Area
- International Boundary
- Rivers
- Conservation Areas
- General African Landscape Description
- Flat plain at a very low level (<300m)
- Flat plateau at a medium level (300 - 1500m)
- Flat wet plain at a very low level (<300m)
- Moderately steep high hills (local relief of > 400m)
- Moderately steep high minor escarpment zone (local relief of >400m)
- Moderately steep high ridge (local relief of >400m)
- Steep low major escarpment zone (600 - 1500m)
- Steep medium major escarpment zone (1500 - 3000m)
- Undulating plain at a low level (300 - 600m)
- Undulating plain at a very low level (<300m)
- Undulating plateau at a high level (1500 - 3000m)
- WATER



THE GAZA-KRUGER-GONAREZHOU TFCA

Digital Elevation Model derived from USGS grid data.  
Vector Data obtained from African Data Sampler (ADS)  
Projection System:  
Lamberts Equal-Area Azimuthal  
Central Meridian 20  
Reference Latitude 0

Logo's of Park Authorities to be added.

Maps Compiled by:  
Peace Parks Foundation (PPF)  
Prof. Willem van Riel  
Dr. Lize Brink  
Orlando Bensch

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Annexure B



**Gaza-Kruger-Gonarezhou Transfrontier Park Agreement**  
Signed on 10 November 2000

**AGREEMENT<sup>1</sup> ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE  
GAZA-KRUGER-GONAREZHOU TRANSFRONTIER PARK**

**BETWEEN**

**THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF MOZAMBIQUE,  
THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA, AND  
THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF ZIMBABWE**

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<a href="#">Article 4</a>	Processes and Procedures
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***PREAMBLE***

The Government of the Republic of Mozambique, the Government of the Republic of South Africa and the Government of the Republic of Zimbabwe (hereinafter jointly referred to as "the Parties" and in the singular as "a Party")

RECOGNISING the principle of sovereign equality and territorial integrity of their states;

CONSCIOUS of the benefits to be derived from close co-operation and the maintenance of friendly relations with each other;

ACKNOWLEDGING the necessity to conserve the environment for the benefit of all the people of Southern Africa;

RECALLING that the countries promoting the Transfrontier Park (hereinafter also referred to as "the Park") initiative are signatories or Parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity (Rio de Janeiro, 1992), United Nations Convention to Combat Desertification (Paris, 1994), SADC Wildlife & Law Enforcement Protocol (Maputo, 1999), the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Flora and Fauna (CITES) (Washington, 1973); as well as other Conventions and Agreements of relevance, and

DESIRING to promote ecosystem integrity, biodiversity conservation and sustainable socio-economic development across international boundaries;

HEREBY AGREE AS FOLLOWS:

---

## **ARTICLE 1**

### **Establishment of a Transfrontier Park**

1. The Parties hereby agree to jointly establish and develop a Transfrontier Park which will integrate for conservation and ecotourism purposes the areas detailed in Sub-article (2) below.

2. It is agreed that the Transfrontier Park will include the areas as follows:

(a) In Mozambique, the area known as -

(i) Coutada 16

(b) In South Africa, the areas known as -

(i) Kruger National Park; and

(ii) The Makuleke Region administered as part of the Kruger National Park.

(c) In Zimbabwe, the areas known as -

(i) Gonarezhou National Park;

(ii) Malipati Safari Area;

(iii) Manjinji Pan Sanctuary; and

(iv) the community areas linking Gonarezhou to the Kruger National Park further south.

3. It is agreed that an area adjacent to the GKG Transfrontier Park, comprising compatible conservation areas but not lending themselves to integration with the GKG Transfrontier Park, will be managed as the GKG Transfrontier Conservation Area (hereinafter referred to as the "GKG TFCA"). In Mozambique these areas will include the Banhine and Zinave National Parks, the Massingir and Corumana areas, as well as the interlinking regions as reflected in the accompanying map. In South Africa and Zimbabwe it is proposed that areas forming part of the GKG TFCA would include the various private and provincial reserves bordering the GKG Transfrontier Park.

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## **ARTICLE 2**

### **Name of the Transfrontier Park**

The term "Gaza-Kruger-Gonarezhou Transfrontier Park", hereinafter referred to as "the GKG Transfrontier Park", shall be an interim name to refer to the area under discussion, and a more permanent name shall be arrived at through a process of public participation as jointly determined by the Parties.

---

## **ARTICLE 3**

### **Transfrontier Park Objectives**

The objectives of the creation of the GKG Transfrontier Park shall be:

1. to foster transnational collaboration and co-operation among the Parties in implementing ecosystem management through the establishment, development and management of the Transfrontier Park;
2. to promote alliances in the management of biological natural resources by encouraging social, economic and other partnerships among the Parties, Private Sector, Local Communities and NGOs;
3. to enhance ecosystem integrity and natural ecological processes by harmonising environmental management procedures across international boundaries and striving to remove artificial barriers impeding the natural movement of animals;
4. to develop frameworks and strategies whereby local communities can participate in, and tangibly benefit from, the management and sustainable use of natural resources that occur within the Transfrontier Park;
5. to facilitate the establishment and maintenance of a subregional economic base by way of appropriate development frameworks, strategies and work plans; and
6. to develop trans-border ecotourism as a means for fostering regional socio-economic development.

---

## **ARTICLE 4**

## **Processes and Procedures**

1. The sovereign rights of each Party shall be respected, and no Party shall impose decisions on another.
2. The process of planning and implementation of the Transfrontier Park shall be done through joint decision-making by accredited country representatives.
3. Each Party shall ensure that full stakeholder participation is engaged in within their respective countries, so that broad social and political acceptance is achieved for the process.
4. The Parties undertake to follow relevant regional treaties and international protocols in the development and management of the Transfrontier Park.

---

### **ARTICLE 5 Co-operation**

1. The Parties undertake to ensure that the various areas committed for Transfrontier Park development within this Agreement, shall be managed in accordance with the broad objectives as outlined in Article 3 of this Agreement, and in particular with the Management Plan that will jointly be developed and agreed upon between the Competent Authorities designated by each respective Party as defined in Article 6.
2. The Parties undertake to:
  - (a) consult, assist and support each other in the implementation of this Agreement;
  - (b) promote integrated and co-ordinated management of the Transfrontier Park for their optimal benefit;
  - (c) use their best endeavours to harmonise legislation and policies to facilitate integrated and complementary conservation and socio-economic development activities;
  - (d) ensure that during development of the Transfrontier Park effective measures are implemented to address issues relating to customs and immigration, security and border control, public health, wildlife diseases and other matters which affect relations between the Parties;
  - (e) synchronize where possible related development actions in areas bordering each other; and
  - (f) from time to time, enter into further agreements which may be required to give effect to the spirit and intent of this Agreement.

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### **ARTICLE 6 Implementation**



1. The Competent Authorities responsible for the implementation of this Agreement shall be:

(a) on behalf of the Government of the Republic of Mozambique, the *DirecVão Nacional de Florestas e Fauna Bravia* (hereinafter referred to as the "DNFFB"), designated through the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development;

(b) on behalf of the Government of the Republic of South Africa the South African National Parks (hereinafter referred to as the "SANP"), designated through the Ministry of Environmental Affairs and Tourism; and

(c) on behalf of the Government of the Republic of Zimbabwe, the Department of National Parks and Wild Life Management (hereinafter referred to as the "DNPWLM"), designated through the Ministry of Environment and Tourism.

2. The parties shall delegate such powers and functions to their respective Competent Authorities as are required for the co-ordination of activities leading to the establishment, development and management of the Transfrontier Park.

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## **ARTICLE 7**

### **Institutional Framework for International Collaboration**

1. For purposes of executing this Agreement the following bodies are hereby established:

(a) the GKG Transfrontier Park Trilateral Ministerial Committee (hereinafter referred to as "the Trilateral Ministerial Committee");

(b) the GKG Transfrontier Park Technical Committee (hereinafter referred to as "the Technical Committee");

(c) the GKG Transfrontier Park Co-ordinating Party (hereinafter referred to as "the Co-ordinating Party"); and

(d) the GKG Transfrontier Park Working Group (hereinafter referred as "the Working Group").

2. Other committees may be established should the need arise.

---

## **ARTICLE 8**

### **The Trilateral Ministerial Committee**

1. The Trilateral Ministerial Committee shall consist of the Ministers designated and mandated by the respective Parties.

2. The Trilateral Ministerial Committee shall:

(a) be responsible for overall policy guidance in the development of the Transfrontier Park;

- (b) be chaired on a rotational basis;
  - (c) meet at least once a year; and
  - (d) monitor progress in the implementation of the action plans for the Transfrontier Park.
3. The decisions of the Trilateral Ministerial Committee shall be by consensus.

---

**ARTICLE 9**  
**The Technical Committee**

1. The Technical Committee shall consist of senior representatives of the Competent Authorities and/or their respective Ministries from Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe.
2. The Technical Committee shall be responsible for:
- (a) interpreting the political directives of the Trilateral Ministerial Committee into a set of operational guidelines and policies;
  - (b) approving action plans for the development and management of the Transfrontier Park;
  - (c) harmonising the expectations and aims of the Parties with respect to the establishment, development and management of the Transfrontier Park;
  - (d) monitoring the implementation process of the establishment, development and management of the Transfrontier Park; and
  - (e) preparing reports and other appropriate documentation for the Trilateral Ministerial Committee.
3. The Technical Committee shall:
- (a) be chaired on a rotational basis; and
  - (b) meet at least twice a year, or more frequently, depending on the urgency of the issues tabled for discussion.
4. Decisions of the Technical Committee shall be by consensus.

---

**ARTICLE 10**  
**The Co-ordinating Party**

1. It is hereby agreed that a specific Party be designated on a rotational basis as Co-ordinating Party in order to promote accountability and sustained momentum in the Transfrontier Park implementation process.

2. The Co-ordinating Party shall be appointed for a period of two years, and will commence upon Tri-nation ministerial signature of this Agreement.

3. A Party may elect to forfeit its designation as Co-ordinating Party depending on circumstance, in which event the function will rotate to the next Party eligible.

4. The Co-ordinating Party shall be recommended by the Technical Committee, but final designation shall be by the Trilateral Ministerial Committee.

5. The Co-ordinating Party shall:

(a) coordinate the activities associated with the planning and implementation of the GKG Transfrontier Park;

(b) ensure that an effective Working Group is established, with full representation by all the Parties and that a working programme focussed on achieving the objectives of the GKG Transfrontier Park is sustained;

(c) co-ordinate the drafting and implementation of an effective Action Plan for achieving the objectives of the GKG Transfrontier Park, with full participation of relevant stakeholders;

(d) promote appropriate processes and procedures which are in accordance with relevant regional treaties and international protocols, during the planning and implementation of the GKG Transfrontier Park;

(e) prepare reports on key resolutions and directives emanating from the Trilateral Ministerial and Technical Committees;

(f) facilitate the convening of various Committee meetings; and

(g) and liaise with all the Parties in identifying joint activities that require funding and identify sources for funding.

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## **ARTICLE 11**

### **The Working Group**

1. The Working Group shall be composed of representatives appointed by the Competent Authorities of the Parties and/or representatives delegated by the relevant Ministries of the Parties.

2. The Working Group shall:

(a) be responsible for implementation of the Action Plan as developed and guided by the Technical Committee;

(b) ensure full participation by all appropriate stakeholders in the preparation of policy recommendations, resource management plans, and other relevant documents relating to the GKG Transfrontier Park;

(c) liaise and collaborate with other relevant regional initiatives, such as the Maputo Development Corridor, in the establishment, development and management of the Transfrontier Park; and

(d) provide feedback and progress reports to the Technical Committee.

3. The Working Group shall have no decision-making authority, but shall make recommendations to and receive guidance and supervision from the Technical Committee regarding its activities.

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## **ARTICLE 12**

### **Financing for Committees**

1. The Technical Committee shall be responsible for identifying financial needs and sourcing such funds as are required to achieve the objectives of this Agreement. Such sourcing of funds will be done either directly or indirectly from the Competent Authorities of each Party, donor agencies, aid agencies, or other means approved by prior consent of the Ministers or their approved delegates forming part of the Trilateral Ministerial Committee.

2. As a general principal the Technical Committee will not become involved in the direct administration of funds, but will leave such matters either to the donor agencies or aid agencies themselves, or the Financial Departments or equivalent structures within each of the Competent Authorities of the three Parties. However, this arrangement is in no way meant to detract from the ability of the Technical Committee to decide and prioritize on financial needs, and decision-making regarding expenditure required for purposes aimed at achieving the objectives of the Agreement.

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## **ARTICLE 13**

### **Settlement of Disputes**

1. In the event of any dispute arising between the Parties as to the interpretation, application or performance of this Agreement including its existence, validity or termination, such dispute shall be settled amicably through consultation and negotiation between the Parties, or be referred for mediation.

2. Should the dispute not be resolved in the manner referred to above, any Party may submit the dispute to final and binding arbitration in accordance with the Permanent Court of Arbitration Optional Rules for Arbitrating Between Two States, as in effect on the date of signature of this Agreement.

3. The appointing authority shall be the Secretary-General of the Permanent Court of Arbitration in The Hague.

---

## **ARTICLE 14**

### **Entry into Force**

1. This Agreement shall enter into force on the date on which each Party has notified one another in writing, through the diplomatic channel, of its compliance with the constitutional requirements necessary for the implementation of this Agreement. The date of entry into force shall be the date of the

last notification.

2. In the event of any one Party not signing this Agreement, the remaining signatory Parties shall remain bound by the intent and spirit of this Agreement.

---

**ARTICLE 15**  
**Amendments to Agreement**

1. This Agreement may be amended by mutual consent of the Parties through an Exchange of Notes between the Parties through diplomatic channel.

2. Any amendment to this Agreement shall be in writing and signed by all Parties.

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**ARTICLE 16**  
**Termination of Agreement**

This Agreement shall remain in force until terminated by any of the Parties giving one year's written notice in advance to the other Parties through diplomatic channels.

---

IN WITNESS WHEREOF the undersigned, being duly authorised by their respective Governments, have signed and sealed this Agreement in English.

SIGNED at \_\_\_\_\_ on this \_\_\_\_\_ day

of \_\_\_\_\_ 2000

FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF MOZAMBIQUE

\_\_\_\_\_

FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

\_\_\_\_\_

FOR THE GOVERNMENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF ZIMBABWE

\_\_\_\_\_

**Annexure c**

**Southern African Development Community**

**Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement**

**PREAMBLE**

WE, the Heads of State or Government of:

The Republic of Angola

The Republic of Botswana

The Democratic Republic of Congo

The Kingdom of Lesotho

The Republic of Malawi

The Republic of Mauritius

The Republic of Mozambique

The Republic of Namibia

The Republic of Seychelles

The Republic of South Africa

The Kingdom of Swaziland

The United Republic of Tanzania

The Republic of Zambia

The Republic of Zimbabwe

.

AFFIRMING that Member States have the sovereign right to manage their wildlife resources and the corresponding responsibility to sustainably use and conserve these resources;

NOTING that Article 5 of the SADC Treaty states that the sustainable use of natural

resources and effective protection of the environment is one of the objectives of SADC;  
NOTING also that Article 21 of the SADC Treaty designates natural resources and environment as an area of co-operation for SADC Member States;  
AWARE that the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife in the SADC Region contribute to sustainable economic development and the conservation of biological diversity;  
CONVINCED that the viability of wildlife resources in the SADC Region requires collective and co-operative action by all SADC Member States;  
CONVINCED also that the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife in the SADC Region depend on the proper management and utilisation of wildlife, including enforcement of laws governing such use ;  
RECOGNISING that the survival of wildlife depends on the perceptions and development needs of people living with wildlife;  
BELIEVING that the regional management of wildlife and wildlife products will promote awareness of the socio-economic value of wildlife and enable equitable distribution of the benefits derived from the sustainable use of wildlife;  
ACKNOWLEDGING the need for co-operation among Member States in enforcing laws governing wildlife, in sharing information about wildlife resources and wildlife law enforcement, and in building national and regional capacity to manage wildlife and enforce the laws that govern it;  
RECALLING that all SADC Member States are members of the International Criminal Police Organisation (Interpol), and that all are signatories or parties to the Convention on Biological Diversity (Rio de Janeiro, 1992), the African Convention on the Conservation of Nature and Natural Resources (Algiers, 1968) and the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora (CITES) (Washington, 1973);  
NOTING ALSO the agreement for the establishment of the Southern African Convention for Wildlife Management (SACWM, 1990), the Lusaka Agreement on Cooperative Enforcement Operations Directed at Illegal Trade in Wild Fauna and Flora (Lusaka, 1994) and the Master Plan for the Security of Rhino and Elephant in Southern Africa (1996);  
DESIRING to establish a common framework for the conservation and sustainable use of

wildlife resources in the SADC Region and to assist with the effective enforcement of laws governing those resources;

HEREBY agree as follows:

## **ARTICLE 1**

### **DEFINITIONS**

In this Protocol the terms and expressions defined in Article 1 of the Treaty shall bear the same meaning unless the context otherwise requires.

In this Protocol, unless the context otherwise requires:

"Community-based wildlife management" means the management of wildlife by a community or group of communities which has the right to manage the wildlife and to receive the benefits from that management;

"Conservation"

means the protection, maintenance, rehabilitation, restoration and enhancement of wildlife and includes the management of the use of wildlife to ensure the sustainability of such use;

"State Party"

means a member of SADC that ratifies or accedes to this Protocol;

"Sustainable use" means use in a way and at a rate that does not lead to the long-term decline of wildlife species;

"Transfrontier conservation area"

means the area or the component of a large ecological region that straddles the boundaries of two or more countries, encompassing one or more protected areas, as well as multiple resources use areas;

"Taking" means the hunting, killing, injuring, capturing, harassing, collecting, picking, uprooting, digging up, cutting, destruction and removal of any species of wildlife and include any attempt to engage in such conduct;

"Wildlife"



means animal and plant species occurring within natural ecosystems and habitats;

## **ARTICLE 2**

### **SCOPE**

This Protocol applies to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife, excluding forestry and fishery resources.

## **ARTICLE 3**

### **PRINCIPLES**

1. Each State Party shall ensure the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife resources under its jurisdiction. Each State Party shall ensure that activities within its jurisdiction or control do not cause damage to the wildlife resources of other states or in areas beyond the limits of national jurisdiction.

2. Pursuant to the attainment of the principles contained in Article 3 of this Protocol, States Parties shall:

- a) ensure co-operation at the national level among governmental authorities, non-governmental organisations hereinafter referred to as NGOs, and the private sector;
- b) cooperate to develop as far as possible common approaches to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife; and
- c) collaborate to achieve the objectives of international agreements which are applicable to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife and to which they are party.

In implementing this Protocol, States Parties shall:

- a) take such policy, administrative and legal measures as appropriate to ensure the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife;
- b) take measures as are necessary to enforce national legislation pertaining to wildlife effectively; and
- c) cooperate with other Member States to manage shared wildlife resources as well as any transfrontier effects of activities within their jurisdiction or control.

## **ARTICLE 4**

### **OBJECTIVES**

1. The primary objective of this Protocol is to establish within the Region and within the framework of the respective national laws of each State Party, common approaches to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife resources and to assist with the effective enforcement of laws governing those resources.
2. To this end, specific objectives of this Protocol shall be to:
  - a) promote the sustainable use of wildlife;
  - b) harmonise legal instruments governing wildlife use and conservation;
  - c) enforce wildlife laws within, between and among States Parties;
  - d) facilitate the exchange of information concerning wildlife management, utilisation and the enforcement of wildlife laws;
  - e) assist in the building of national and regional capacity for wildlife management, conservation and enforcement of wildlife laws;
  - f) promote the conservation of shared wildlife resources through the establishment of transfrontier conservation areas; and
  - g) facilitate community-based natural resources management practices for management of wildlife resources.

## **ARTICLE 5**

### **INSTITUTIONAL ARRANGEMENTS**

1. The institutional arrangements shall be:
  - a) the Wildlife Sector Technical Coordinating Unit;
  - b) the Committee of Ministers responsible for Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources;
  - c) the Committee of Senior Officials; and
  - d) Technical Committee.
2. The Committee of Ministers responsible for Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources shall:
  - a) be composed of Ministers responsible for Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources in Member States;

- b) meet at least once a year; and
  - c) be chaired by the Minister representing the Member State co-ordinating for Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources.
3. The functions of the Committee of Ministers shall include:
- a) adopting regional wildlife policies and development strategies;
  - b) considering and approving any amendment to the policies and strategies;
  - c) providing policy guidance with respect to matters referred to it by the Committee of Senior Officials;
  - d) considering and approving the sectoral Annual Report before submission to the Council;
  - e) submitting proposals to the Council for amending the provisions of this Protocol;
  - f) supervising the implementation of this Protocol;
  - g) supervising the work of any Committee or Sub-committee established under this Protocol;
4. The Committee of Senior Officials shall:
- a) consist of administrative heads of Ministries responsible for wildlife or their representatives;
  - b) meet at least once a year;
  - c) be chaired by the nominated officials representing the country responsible for Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources.
5. The functions of the Committee of Senior Officials shall include:
- a) assessing the requirements of and the need for updating and amending the regional policy and development strategies;
  - b) reviewing and coordinating the activities of the Committees;
  - c) considering any amendment to this Protocol;
  - d) reporting to the Committee of Ministers of Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources on matters relating to the implementation of the provisions contained in this Protocol;
  - e) reviewing the work of the Wildlife Sector;
  - f) approving the documents prepared by the Wildlife Sector Technical Coordinating Unit (hereinafter referred to as WSTCU) to be submitted to the Committee of Ministers of Food, Agriculture and Natural Resources;

- g) monitoring the implementation of this Protocol; and
- h) performing such other functions as may be determined by the Committee of Ministers.

6. The Wildlife Sector Technical Committee (hereinafter referred to as WSTCU) shall comprise the Heads of Wildlife Departments or their representatives and shall:

- a) meet at least once a year;
- b) be chaired by the official representing the country responsible for co-ordinating the Wildlife Sector

7. The functions of the Wildlife Sector Technical Committee shall be to;

- a) supervise the implementation of this Protocol; and
- b) co-ordinate development of policy guidelines for common SADC regional approaches to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife.

8. The WSTCU shall:

- a) be the Secretariat responsible for implementing this Protocol at the regional level;
- b) co-ordinate with the designated sectoral contact points;
- c) co-ordinate the efforts of States Parties to adopt common approaches to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife, to harmonise their applicable legislation, and to co-operate in necessary law enforcement;
- d) support the efforts of Governments and NGOs to ensure the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife and the involvement of local communities in such efforts;
- e) promote such co-operation between the national wildlife law enforcement authorities, communities and by NGOs, on all issues related to enforcement;
- f) serve as the regional clearinghouse for the exchange of information;
- g) co-ordinate SADC regional programmes for research and capacity building in the management of wildlife;
- h) liaise with other SADC sectors to promote intersectoral co-operation in wildlife management; such as standardising veterinary regulations which govern the movement of wildlife and wildlife products; and
- i) perform any other task which may be assigned by the Council for the purpose of implementing this Protocol.

## **ARTICLE 6**

### **LEGAL INSTRUMENTS FOR THE CONSERVATION AND SUSTAINABLE USE OF WILDLIFE**

1. States Parties shall adopt and enforce legal instruments necessary to ensure the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife as provided in Article 7 of this Protocol.

2. States Parties shall endeavour to harmonise national legal instruments governing the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife; such harmonisation shall include but not be limited to standardising:

- a) measures for the protection of wildlife species and their habitat;
- b) measures governing the taking of wildlife;
- c) measures governing the trade in wildlife and wildlife products and bringing the penalties for the illegal taking of wildlife and the illegal trade in wildlife and wildlife products to comparable deterrent levels;
- d) powers granted to wildlife law enforcement officers;
- e) procedures to ensure that individuals charged with violating national laws governing the taking of and trading in wildlife and wildlife products are either extradited or appropriately sanctioned in their home country;
- f) measures facilitating community based natural resources management practices in wildlife management and wildlife law enforcement;
- g) economic and social incentives for the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife;
- h) measures incorporating obligations assumed under applicable international agreements to which Member States are party;
- i) any other measures which the Council may deem necessary.

3. The WSTCU shall co-ordinate initiatives of Member States to harmonise national legislation governing the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife.

## ARTICLE 7

### WILDLIFE MANAGEMENT AND CONSERVATION PROGRAMMES

1. States Parties shall establish management programmes for the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife and integrate such programmes into national development plans.
2. States Parties shall assess and control activities which may significantly affect the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife so as to avoid or minimise negative impacts.
3. Measures which shall be taken by States Parties to ensure the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife shall include -
  - a) the protection of wildlife and wildlife habitats to ensure the maintenance of viable wildlife populations;
  - b) prevention of over-exploitation and extinction of species;
  - c) restrictions on the taking of wildlife, including but not limited to restrictions on the number, sex, size or age of specimens taken and the locality and season during which they may be taken; and
  - d) restrictions on trade in wildlife and its products, both nationally and internationally, as required by relevant international agreements.
4. States Parties shall establish or introduce mechanisms for community-based wildlife management and shall, as appropriate, integrate principles, and techniques derived from indigenous knowledge systems into national wildlife management and law enforcement policies and procedures.
5. States Parties shall, as appropriate, establish programmes and enter into agreements:
  - a) to promote the co-operative management of shared wildlife resources and wildlife habitats across international borders; and
  - b) to promote co-operative management, the conservation of species and populations and the marketing of their products.
6. States Parties shall, as appropriate, promote economic and social incentives to encourage the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife.
7. States Parties shall, as appropriate, develop programmes and mechanisms to:

- a) educate the general public and raise public awareness concerning issues of the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife;
- b) build national and regional capacity for wildlife management and law enforcement;
- c) promote research which contributes to and supports the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife.

8. States Parties shall in recognition of the important role played by rural communities in the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife, promote community-based conservation and management of wildlife resources.

9. States Parties shall, in recognition of the location of key wildlife resources near international boundaries, promote the development of trans frontier conservation and management programmes.

## **ARTICLE 8**

### **INFORMATION SHARING**

1. The States Parties shall establish a regional database on the status and management of wildlife. The regional database shall:

- a) comprise data on all wildlife resources within the Region; and
- b) be accessible to States Parties and to the general public.

2. The WSTCU shall:

- a) co-ordinate surveys of all wildlife databases in the SADC Region;
- b) on the basis of the results of the surveys, coordinate the establishment of a Regional database which complements those already in existence;
- c) co-ordinate the development of standard methodologies for wildlife inventories;
- d) upon request assist efforts at the national level and co-ordinate efforts at the regional level to gather data for incorporation into the regional database;
- e) serve as the clearing house mechanism for the regional database;
- f) ensure that the regional database is linked with other appropriate databases in the Region and that it is mutually accessible; and
- g) perform any other task necessary for the establishment and functioning of the regional database.

## ARTICLE 9

### CO-OPERATION IN WILDLIFE LAW ENFORCEMENT

1. States Parties shall take the necessary measures to ensure the effective enforcement of legislation governing the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife.
2. States Parties shall allocate the financial and human resources required for the effective enforcement of legislation governing the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife.
3. States Parties shall enforce legislation governing the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife, particularly in trans frontier contexts. Such enforcement shall include:
  - a) coordinating with their designated Interpol National Central Bureaus (Interpol NCBs);
  - b) exchanging information concerning the illegal taking of, and trade in, wildlife and wildlife products;
  - c) co-ordinating efforts with wildlife law enforcement authorities and Interpol NCBs to apprehend illegal takers and traders and to recover and dispose of illegal wildlife products; and
  - d) undertaking any other initiatives which promote the effective and efficient enforcement of wildlife laws and regulations within, between and among States Parties.
4. Through the designated Interpol NCB, the wildlife law enforcement authorities in a State Party may request from the designated Interpol NCB in any other State Party or States Parties any assistance or information which may be required to locate, apprehend, or extradite an individual charged with violating the wildlife laws of the State Party.
5. The wildlife law enforcement authorities in each State Party shall provide to the designated Interpol NCB in that Member State all available data on, inter alia, the location and movements of illegal takers and traders and the location of routes for illegal transfrontier trafficking in wildlife and wildlife products, except where the provision of such information would jeopardise investigations or impinge on the security of a State Party.



## **ARTICLE 10**

### **CAPACITY-BUILDING FOR EFFECTIVE WILDLIFE MANAGEMENT**

1. States Parties shall co-operate in capacity-building for effective wildlife management.
2. States Parties shall endeavour to incorporate into existing training programmes, techniques such as community-based natural resources management and administration, indigenous knowledge systems as well as current practices in both the wildlife management and wildlife law enforcement fields.
3. States Parties shall identify aspects of wildlife management and wildlife law enforcement for which adequate training programmes are not available within the Region and shall establish training programmes to meet the needs identified.
4. The WSTCU shall co-ordinate, at the regional level, initiatives of States Parties to standardise and initiate training programmes.

## **ARTICLE 11**

### **FINANCIAL PROVISIONS**

1. States Parties shall allocate the necessary financial resources for the effective implementation of this Protocol at the national level.
2. Member States shall meet their own expenses for attending meetings of the WSTC .
3. Member States shall create a fund known as the Wildlife Conservation Fund for programmes and projects associated with this Protocol pursuant to Article 25 of the Treaty.
4. Other resources of the Wildlife Conservation Fund may include grants, donations, technical assistance and funds for specified projects and programmes pursuant to this Protocol.

## **ARTICLE 12**

### **SANCTIONS**

1. Sanctions may be imposed against any State Party which:

- a) persistently fails, without good reason, to fulfil obligations assumed under this Protocol; or
- b) implements policies which undermine the objectives and principles of this Protocol.

2. The Council shall determine whether any sanction should be imposed against a State Party and shall make the recommendation to the Summit if it decides that a sanction is called for. The Summit shall decide, on a case-by-case basis, the appropriate sanction to be imposed.

## **ARTICLE 13**

### **SETTLEMENT OF DISPUTES**

Any dispute arising from the interpretation or application of this Protocol which cannot be settled amicably shall be referred to the Tribunal for adjudication.

## **ARTICLE 14**

### **ANNEXES**

1. States Parties may develop and adopt annexes for the implementation of this Protocol.
2. An annex shall form an integral part of this Protocol unless the annex contains a provision stipulating otherwise.

## **ARTICLE 15**

### **AMENDMENT**

1. An amendment to this Protocol shall be adopted by a decision of Members of the Summit who are Parties to this Protocol.

2. A proposal for the amendment of this Protocol may be made to the Executive Secretary by any State Party to this Protocol. Within thirty (30) days of receipt, the Executive Secretary shall notify the States Parties to this Protocol of any proposal for amendment. Three (3) months after notification, the Executive Secretary shall submit the proposal for amendment to the Council for preliminary consideration.

## **ARTICLE 16**

### **SIGNATURE**

This Protocol shall be signed by the duly authorised representatives of the Member States.

## **ARTICLE 17**

### **RATIFICATION**

This Protocol shall be ratified by the signatory Member States in accordance with their constitutional procedures.

## **ARTICLE 18**

### **ENTRY INTO FORCE**

This Protocol shall enter into force thirty (30) days after the deposit of the instruments of ratification by two-thirds of the Member States.

## **ARTICLE 19**

### **ACCESSION**

This Protocol shall remain open for accession by any Member State.

## **ARTICLE 20**

### **RESERVATIONS**

No reservations shall be made to this Protocol.

## **ARTICLE 21**

### **WITHDRAWAL**

1. Any State Party wishing to withdraw from this Protocol shall give written notice of its intention, six (6) months in advance, to the Executive Secretary. Withdrawal shall be effective on the date of expiration of the notice period.
2. Any States Parties withdrawing from this Protocol shall:
  - a) cease to enjoy all rights and benefits under this Protocol from the effective date of the withdrawal;
  - b) remain bound to the obligations assumed under this Protocol for a period of twelve (12) months from the date of withdrawal.

## **ARTICLE 22**

### **TERMINATION**

This Protocol may be terminated by a decision of the Summit.

## **ARTICLE 23**

### **DEPOSITARY**

1. The original text of this Protocol and all instruments of ratification and accession shall be deposited with the Executive Secretary who shall transmit certified copies to all Member States.
2. The Executive Secretary shall register this Protocol with the Secretariats of the United Nations and the Organisation of African Unity.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, WE, the Heads of State or Government, or duly authorised representatives of SADC Member States have signed this Protocol.

DONE at Maputo, on the 18th day of August, 1999, in two (2) original texts, in the English and Portuguese languages, both texts being equally authentic.

REPUBLIC OF ANGOLA  
REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA  
DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO  
KINGDOM OF LESOTHO  
REPUBLIC OF MALAWI  
REPUBLIC OF MAURITIUS  
REPUBLIC OF MOZAMBIQUE  
REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA  
REPUBLIC OF SEYCHELLES  
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA  
KINGDOM OF SWAZILAND  
UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA  
REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA  
REPUBLIC OF ZIMBABWE

Annexure D

**SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY  
PROTOCOL ON TOURISM**

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### **PREAMBLE**

WE, the Heads of State or Government of:

The Republic of Angola

The Republic of Botswana

The Democratic Republic of Congo

The Kingdom of Lesotho

The Republic of Malawi

The Republic of Mauritius

The Republic of Mozambique

The Republic of Namibia

The Republic of Seychelles

The Republic of South Africa

The Kingdom of Swaziland

The United Republic of Tanzania

The Republic of Zambia

The Republic of Zimbabwe

IN PURSUANCE of Article 22 of the SADC Treaty which provides for Member States to

conclude Protocols which may be necessary in agreed areas of co-operation to spell out the objectives and scope of, and institutional mechanisms for, such co-operation and integration;

AWARE of the global significance of tourism as the world's largest and fastest growing industry, which on account of its socio-cultural and economic dynamics also forms an excellent instrument for promoting economic development, understanding, goodwill and close relations between peoples;

CONSCIOUS that Africa's share of world tourism receipts and SADC countries' share of the global takings stands at a very low level;

MINDFUL of the Region's rich tourism potential which offers an array of natural features and a number of sites containing natural wonders of the world; added to all these being the diversity of history and cultural lifestyles of the people of the Region;

DEEPLY CONCERNED that most of this potential remains underdeveloped and, therefore,

not contributing to the economic well being of the people of the Region as it should;

CONVINCED that the realisation of the full potential can only be achieved through the collective and concerted action of all SADC Member States by evolving clearly defined policies and strategies for the development and promotion of the tourism industry regionwide;

RECOGNISING that for sustainable tourism development to become a reality, the increased co-operation and facilitation from the sectors responsible for immigration, transport and aviation, information, trade and local government, is fundamental to the full realisation of this Protocol;

REALISING the pivotal role that host communities of Member States play in any successful tourism development endeavour;

WISHING to contribute, through common action in tourism development, to the progress and well being of the peoples of the Region;

CONSIDERING the provisions of the WTO as an intergovernmental organisation of Tourism and WTTC as a global coalition of all sectors of travel and tourism industry

HEREBY AGREE as follows:

## **CHAPTER I: DEFINITIONS**

### **ARTICLE 1**

In this Protocol, unless the context otherwise requires:

"Community" means the organisation for economic integration established by Article 2 of this Treaty;

"Council" means the Council of Ministers of SADC established by Article 9 of the Treaty;

"Member State" means a State which is a Member of SADC;

"Region" means the geographical area of all Member States;



"RETOSA" means Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa;

"SADC" means the Southern African Development Community established by Article 2 of the Treaty;

"Service providers" means those -persons and corporations in the public and private sector who provide a service to visitors as their main source of business or income;

"Stakeholder" means any Government Department or Agency, Corporation, Organisation, Individual or other legal or commercial entity having an interest

in the furtherance of the specific or broad objectives of any SADC legal instrument;

"Summit" means the Summit of the Heads of State or Government of SADC established by Article 9 of the Treaty;

"TCU" means the Tourism Coordinating Unit of SADC;

"Travel document" means a valid passport or other document used to identify a traveller which contains personal particulars and a clear photograph of the holder, issued by or on behalf of the government of a Member State of which the holder is a citizen and on which endorsements may be made by immigration authorities and shall include a laissez-passer or border pass approved by the Council;

"Treaty" means the Treaty establishing SADC;

"Tribunal" means the Tribunal as established under Article 9 of the Treaty;

"Visitor" means any person traveling to a place other than that of his/her usual environment for less than 12 months and whose main purpose of trip is other than the exercise of an activity remunerated from within the place visited;

"WTO" means World Tourism Organisation

"WTTC" means World Travel and Tourism Council

## **CHAPTER II**

### **ARTICLE 2: OBJECTIVES**

The objectives of this Protocol are:

1. To use tourism as a vehicle to achieve sustainable social and economic development through the full realisation of its potential for the Region;
2. To ensure equitable, balanced and complimentary development of the tourism

industry region-wide;

3. To optimise resource usage and increase competitive advantage in the Region vis-a-vis other destinations through collective efforts and co-operation in an environmentally sustainable manner;
4. To ensure the involvement of small and micro-enterprises, local communities, women and youth in the development of tourism throughout the Region;
5. To contribute towards the human resource development of the Region through job creation and the development of skills at all levels in the tourism industry;
6. To create a favourable investment climate for tourism within the Region for both the public and private sectors, including small and medium scale tourist establishments;
7. To improve the quality, competitiveness and standards of service of the tourism industry in the Region;
8. To improve the standards of safety and security for tourists in the territories of Member States and to make appropriate provision for disabled, handicapped and senior citizens in their respective countries;
9. To aggressively promote the Region as a single but multifaceted tourism destination capitalising on its common strengths and highlighting individual Member State's unique tourist attractions;
10. To facilitate intra-regional travel for the development of tourism through the easing or removal of travel and visa restrictions and harmonisation of immigration procedures;
11. To improve tourism service and infrastructure in order to foster a vibrant tourism industry.

### **CHAPTER III**

#### **ARTICLE 3: PRINCIPLES**

This Protocol recognises the following basic principles for achieving the Objectives of the

Protocol.

The Member States shall:

1. facilitate private sector involvement and investment by providing incentives,

- infrastructure and the appropriate legal and regulatory framework;
2. fully involve the private sector and other stakeholders in the formulation of policies governing the operations of the tourism sector;
  3. establish within the tourism sector, areas of co-operation between the public and private sector and encourage private sector-driven tourism development;
  4. formulate and pursue policies and strategies that promote the involvement of local communities and local authorities in the planning and development of tourism;
  5. promote environmentally and socially sustainable tourism development based on sound management practices;
  6. preserve and promote the natural, cultural and historical resources of the Region;
  7. promote a culture of human rights, gender sensitivity and be responsive to the requirements and involvement of people with disability.

#### **CHAPTER IV: UNDERTAKINGS**

##### **ARTICLE 4: GENERAL UNDERTAKING**

1. Member States shall take all necessary steps both at national and regional levels, to ensure that the Objectives of this Protocol are achieved and their national laws and policies are in harmony with and supportive of the Objectives and Principles set out in this Protocol.
2. Member States shall refrain from taking any measures, which may hinder the implementation of this Protocol.

##### **ARTICLE 5: TRAVEL FACILITATION**

1. Member States shall endeavour to make the entry and travel of visitors as smooth as possible and shall remove practices likely to place obstacles to the development of travel and tourism both regional and international by:
  - a. co-operating in facilitating travel by air, land or water and to increase and improve transport and communication facilities within the region;
  - b. having visa requirements for regional tourists who wish to enter their territory as visitors, abolished, in furtherance of existing and future

SADC Protocols;

- c. having a tourism univisa which will facilitate movement of international tourists in the region in order to increase the market share and revenue of the region in world tourism on the basis of arrangements to be negotiated and agreed upon by Member States;
- d. removing obstacles to the development of tourism, travel and other impediments and to harmonise legislation relating thereto;
- e. providing appropriate facilities related to the travel of disabled and handicapped persons and senior citizens.

2. Any form of transportation used by visitors and which is registered in the territory of a Member State shall be allowed entry in terms of the relevant provisions of the SADC Protocol on Transport, Communications and Meteorology.

3. Member States shall harmonise tourist registration documents in their respective countries such as visa application forms, entry - exit forms, and other statistical documents.

#### **ARTICLE 6: TOURISM TRAINING AND EDUCATION**

1. Member States shall endeavour to evolve a common education policy with regard to imparting tourism education in schools and include tourism and environmental-related issues in subjects presently taught at school.

2. Member States shall endeavour to co-ordinate and harmonise training at tourism training institutions and develop exchange programmes through the public and private sectors and mobilise support for training institutions in the Region.

3. Member States shall endeavour to harmonise standards of training in their countries and ensure that tourism training institutions in different parts of the Region are complementary to one another in the training courses.

#### **ARTICLE 7: MARKETING AND PROMOTION**

1. The Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa (RETOSA) established in accordance with the provision of the RETOSA Charter shall be the promotional and marketing arm of SADC tourism sector.

2. In accordance with RETOSA Charter, Member States shall:

- a. develop common and coordinated marketing and promotion strategies, action plans, and implementation programmes to promote both intra-regional and international tourism in the Region and respond to market demand;
- b. in pursuit of the tourism marketing strategies, market the Region as a tourist destination of choice and utilise the RETOSA logo and brand to promote the regional destination identity and competitiveness;
- c. undertake marketing and promotion activities, which highlight the diversity of the tourist product of the Region;
- d. notwithstanding and without prejudice to this Article individual Member States may collaborate in packaging their destinations.

#### **ARTICLE 8: TOURISM RESEARCH AND STATISTICS**

1. Member States shall ensure that a unified system of collection and analysis of tourism statistical data is established in line with the Guidelines on the collection and presentation of domestic and international tourism statistics established by the World Tourism Organisation.

2. Member States shall create a regional tourism research, statistics and information exchange network and individually or jointly undertake product development and diversification initiatives through private and public sector cooperation with a view to enriching the Region's product range.

#### **ARTICLE 9: SERVICE STANDARDS**

Member States shall:

- a. establish an agreed regional quality and standards control mechanism;
- b. harmonise the standards for registration, classification, accreditation and grading of service providers and tourism facilities in Member States.

#### **ARTICLE 10: TRANSPORTATION**

1. Member States shall enhance the overall quality of tourism transport in the Region by implementing the relevant provisions of the SADC Protocol on Transport, Communications and Meteorology.

2. Member States shall develop appropriate tourism signage and markings at

relevant locations in their respective countries.

#### **ARTICLE 11: ENVIRONMENTALLY SUSTAINABLE TOURISM**

Member States shall, in implementing the objectives of this Protocol pursue sound, sustainable policies on utilisation and management of the natural and cultural resources and environment.

#### **ARTICLE 12: INVESTMENT INCENTIVES AND DEVELOPMENT**

Member States shall:

- a. in accordance with their respective laws, create the necessary enabling environment so as to enhance the competitiveness of the Region as an attractive investment location and develop appropriate tourism-specific incentives to encourage the growth of private sector initiatives in the tourism sector.
- b. develop and pursue tourism investment policies and strategies that promote the growth and development of private sector initiatives. In addition, special consideration is to be given to the private sector for the involvement of the local community in the tourism development process.
- c. ensure that the local communities, as providers of goods and services to the tourism sector, are involved and benefit from the development of tourism.
- d. within the framework of SADC, facilitate the establishment of a tourism financial mechanism so as to facilitate the meaningful participation of the local population.
- e. give priority to investment in the sustainable development of natural and cultural resources that transcend territorial boundaries.

#### **CHAPTER V**

#### **ARTICLE 13: INSTITUTIONAL FRAMEWORK FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROTOCOL**

1. The institutional mechanisms for the implementation of this Protocol shall comprise the SADC Summit, the SADC Committee of Tourism Ministers, Committee of Senior Officials, Tourism Coordinating Unit and Regional Tourism Organisation of Southern Africa (RETOSA).
2. The Committee of Tourism Ministers, responsible for tourism matters, shall:

- a. be composed of Ministers of Member States responsible for Tourism;
- b. meet at least once a year;
- c. be chaired by the nominated Minister representing the country responsible for coordinating the Tourism Sector.

3. The functions of the Committee of Tourism Ministers shall include:

- a. adopting regional tourism sector policies and development strategies;
- b. considering and approving any amendment to the policies and strategies;
- c. providing policy guidance in response to matters referred to it by the Committee of Senior Officials;
- d. considering and approving the sectoral Annual Report before submission to the Council;
- e. submitting proposals to the Council for the amendment of the provisions of this Protocol;
- f. approving new or amending existing annexes to this Protocol;
- g. supervising the implementation of this Protocol;
- h. supervising the work of any committee or sub-committee established under this Protocol.

4. The Committee of Senior Officials shall:

- a. consist of administrative heads of Ministries responsible for tourism or their representatives;
- b. meet at least once a year;
- c. be chaired by the nominated officials representing the country responsible for coordinating the sector,

5. The function of the Committee of Senior Officials shall include:

- a. assessing the requirements of and the need for the updating and for amendments to the regional policy and development strategies;
- b. reviewing and coordinating the activities of the sub-sectoral committees;
- c. considering any amendment to this Protocol;

- d. reporting to the Committee of Tourism Ministers on matters relating to the implementation of the provisions contained in this Protocol;
  - e. reviewing the work of the Tourism Coordinating Unit;
  - f. approving the documents prepared by the Tourism Coordinating Unit to be submitted to the Committee of Tourism Ministers.
  - g. liaising with Tourism Coordinating Unit, RETOSA, private sector, stakeholders and any other technical committees;
  - h. monitoring the implementation of this Protocol;
  - i. performing such other functions as may be determined by the Committee of Tourism Ministers;
6. The Tourism Coordinating Unit shall perform the following functions:
- a. prepare and implement an annual programme of work;
  - b. prepare annual schedules of meeting of the TCU for the following year;
  - c. maintain all records necessary for the efficient discharge of the functions of the TCU;
  - d. coordinate the day-to-day operations in the implementation of this Protocol;
  - e. provide technical and administrative assistance to the Committee of Tourism Ministers of Tourism and the Committee of Senior Officials;
  - f. provide assistance to subsidiary committees, sub-committees and any panels that may be established to implement this Protocol;
  - g. work in consultation with the private sector and RETOSA;
  - h. identify research needs and priorities in order to ensure the sustainability and competitiveness of the SADC Tourism Sector;
  - i. liaise closely with the SADC Secretariat in the implementation of this Protocol;
  - j. facilitate the formulation of policy framework that are geared at enhancing the development and growth of tourism in the Region;
  - k. liaise closely with Member States.
7. RETOSA shall, fulfill its objectives as specified in its Charter by performing,



inter alia, the following functions:

- a. prepare and implement an annual programme of work;
- b. develop tourism through effective marketing of the region in collaboration with the public and private sectors;
- c. work closely with the TCU and the private sector in the implementation of the annual programme;
- d. have full responsibility for the implementation of the tourism development programmes as provided for in its Charter.

## **CHAPTER VI**

### **ARTICLE 14: SETTLEMENT OF DISPUTES**

1. Any dispute which may arise between Member States regarding the interpretation or application of the provisions of this Protocol shall be resolved amicably through negotiations between the parties to the dispute.
2. Any disputes between Member States regarding the interpretation or application of the provisions of this Protocol which are not settled amicably through negotiated settlement shall be referred for adjudication to the Tribunal.

## **CHAPTER VII**

### **ARTICLE 15: AMENDMENT OF THE PROTOCOL**

1. An amendment to this Protocol shall be adopted by a decision of three-quarters of all the members of the Summit.
2. A proposal for the amendment of this Protocol may be made to the Executive Secretary by any Member State for preliminary consideration by the Council, provided, however, that the proposed amendment shall not be submitted to the Council for preliminary consideration until all Member States have been duly notified of it, and a period of three months has elapsed after such notification.
3. Any Member State may propose the inclusion of an annex to this Protocol which shall be adopted as per paragraph (1) under this Article.

## **CHAPTER VIII: FINAL PROVISIONS**

### **ARTICLE 16: SIGNATURE**

1. This Protocol shall be signed by duly authorised representatives of Member States.

2. This Protocol shall remain open for signature by Member States listed in the Preamble, until the date of its entry into force.

**ARTICLE 17: RATIFICATION**

This Protocol shall be ratified by the Member States in accordance with their constitutional procedures.

**ARTICLE 18: ENTRY INTO FORCE**

1. This Protocol shall enter into force thirty (30) days after the deposit of the instruments of ratification by two-thirds of the Member States.

2. Upon its entry into force, this Protocol shall form an integral part of the Treaty.

**ARTICLE 19: ACCESSION**

This Protocol shall remain open for accession by any other Member State subject to Article 8 of the SADC Treaty.

**ARTICLE 20: DEPOSITARY**

1. The original texts of this Protocol and all instruments of its ratification and accession shall be deposited with the Executive Secretary of SADC, who shall transmit certified true copies thereof to all Member States giving notice of the date of each instrument of ratification or accession.

2. The Executive Secretary shall register this Protocol with the Secretariats of the United Nations Organisation and the Organisation of African Unity.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, WE, the Heads of State or Government, or duly authorised Representatives of SADC Member States, have signed this Protocol.

DONE at \*\*\*\*\* this \*\*\*\*\* day of 1998 in two (2) original texts, in the English and Portuguese languages, both texts being equally authentic.

REPUBLIC OF ANGOLA

REPUBLIC OF BOTSWANA

DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF CONGO

KINGDOM OF LESOTHO

REPUBLIC OF MALAWI

REPUBLIC OF MAURITIUS

REPUBLIC OF MOZAMBIQUE

REPUBLIC OF NAMIBIA

REPUBLIC OF SEYCHELLES

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

KINGDOM OF SWAZILAND

UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

REPUBLIC OF ZIMBABWE