

**BENEFITS BEYOND BOUNDARIES:
CROSS-BORDER TOURISM COLLABORATION IN SOUTHERN AFRICAN
TRANSFRONTIER CONSERVATION AREAS**

by

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Tourism is a complex industry and political boundaries are complex lines of contrasts, similarities, struggles and economic opportunities. The two together make a rich area of potential research, and as long as borders exist, there will be many rich opportunities for additional inquiry.*

* D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

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Abstract

In a world beset by conflict and division, peace is one of the cornerstones of the future. Peace parks are building blocks in this process, not only in our region, but potentially in the entire world.¹

These words of the late-former President Nelson Mandela of South Africa on the concept of Peace Parks, underlines their importance beyond the natural into the human domain. This dissertation focusses on an understanding of Peace Parks or Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in the context of southern Africa and shows how collaboration can be used as a tool for the development of these areas. The three main aims of “TFCAs” are to conserve biological diversity, create a platform for poverty alleviation and most importantly, to promote a culture of peace amongst all nations involved in their development. In order to address this concept, the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area (GLTFCA) is used as an example of how South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe are collaborating their efforts towards common goals in terms of biological conservation and poverty alleviation as well tourism and economic development.

In sum, this dissertation analyses collaboration and cooperation in depth as a tool for tourism development within the context of transfrontier conservation areas in southern Africa.

¹ The Peace Parks Foundation (PPF), (2014), ‘South African Peace Parks’, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 12 June 2013.

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List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

ADMADE - Administrative Design for Game Management Areas

AFD - Agence Française de Développement (French Development Agency)

ASEAN - Association of Southeast Asian Nations

AU - African Union

AWF- African Wildlife Foundation

CAMPFIRE - Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources

CBC - Cross-Border Collaboration

CBT - Community Based Tourism

C-BT - Cross-Border Tourism

CBNRM - Community-Based Natural Resource Management

CPA - Communal Property Association

DEAT - Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism

EAC - East African Community

ECOWAS - Economic Community of West Africa

EU - European Union

GEF - Global Environment Facility

GIZ - Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit

(German Federal Enterprise for International Cooperation)

GLTFCA - Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area

GNP - Gonarezhou National Park

GoM - Government of Mozambique

HDIs - Historically Disadvantaged Individuals

IUCN - World Conservation Union

JMB - Joint Management Board

JMP - Joint Management Plan

KAZA - Kavango Zambezi Transfrontier Conservation Area

Kfw - Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau (Reconstruction Credit Institute)

KNP - Kruger National Park

LDC - Less Developed Countries

LNP - Limpopo National Park (see also PNL)

MET - Ministry of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (South Africa)

MITUR - Ministry of Tourism (Mozambique)

MoU - Memorandum of Understanding

NAFTA - North American Free Trade Agreement

NDT - National Department of Tourism

NEPAD - New Partnership for African Development

NGO - Non-Government Organization

OAU - Organisation of African Unity

PDI - Previously Disadvantaged Individuals

PNL - Parque Nacional do Limpopo

PP - Peace Park

PPF - Peace Parks Foundation

RDC - Rural District Council

RETOSA - Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa

RSA - Republic of South Africa

RWG - Resettlement Working Group

SADC - Southern African Development Community

SAFIRE - Southern Alliance For Indigenous Resources

SANParks - South African National Parks

SCL - Sengwe Communal Land

SME - Small and Medium Enterprise

SSA - Sub-Saharan Africa

TBPA - Transboundary Protected Area

TBNRM - Transboundary Natural Resource Management

TEK - Traditional Ecological Knowledge

TFCA - Transfrontier Conservation Area

TFP - Transfrontier Park

TMC - Trilateral Ministerial Committee

UNESCO - United Nations Environmental, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNWTO - United Nations World Tourism Organization

WTO - World Tourism Organization

WTTC - World Travel and Tourism Council

WWF - World Wide Fund for Nature

ZTA – Zimbabwe Tourism Authority

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1. Overview of the Study

The title of this study, 'Benefits Beyond Boundaries', encapsulates the potential of developing cross-border tourism which could bring numerous benefits to the adjacent nations involved. The key concern is cross-border tourism and the importance of collaboration and cooperation among stakeholders within a geographically delineated region. The international best practice is analysed in order to consider these in a southern African context. This includes South Africa and its neighbouring states: Zimbabwe; Mozambique; Namibia; Botswana; Lesotho; and Swaziland, with a case study considering the first three countries and the Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs).

Therefore, the main focus of this study is to assess the concept of collaboration and how it could be used for cross-border tourism development in southern Africa. It will aim to understand the concept of cross-border tourism in its broadest sense in order to assess its significance in the southern African region, where there is potential for cross-border tourism development.

The study will unpack the concept of a 'border' in its many manifestations including its history and its symbolism. It will then discuss issues which are related to borders in a global context, such as borders as artificial and superimposed boundaries; borders as international phenomenon; as well as borders as manufactured products. Following this, the general concept of Cross-Border Tourism (C-BT) will be discussed, along with various local and international

best practice examples. The idea of cooperation and collaboration will also be assessed in terms of being a key strategy for tourism development, especially in the cross-border context. Then finally, the concept of Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) will be discussed and the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area will be used as an example to show how cross-border collaboration can be utilised for tourism development within a region.

The academic study of tourism often involves approaches from a number of different disciplines, such as business studies, social sciences or human geography.² This study is predominately in the domain of the social sciences. It thus takes into account the historical context of the “border” as a social phenomenon, how this has been constructed and how in the context of globalization this has been reconstructed as a significant place in the social landscape. It therefore considers tourism within this specific context.

From a methodological perspective the dissertation is essentially a literature study and includes journal articles, theses, business reports, internet sources, brochures as well as other secondary sources. Besides an in depth analysis of the above mentioned key concepts and situating cross-border tourism within an international context, it considers this so as to filter out best practice criteria which can possibly be applied to the southern African region. In addition, current legislation (national and regional documents) which pertains to tourism, and in particular conservation and wildlife management, is assessed in terms of its potential relevance to cross border tourism

² N.B. Hoffman, ‘Locating’ or ‘Dislocating’ heritage and cultural tourism within the humanities’, *The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa*, 9 (2) December 2013, pp. 341-356.

development. The dissertation is thus essentially a document and secondary data analysis which is then applied to a southern African case study.

1.2. Definitions of Key Concepts

It is apparent from the discussion above that there are four clearly identifiable concepts which are relevant to this study. However, only three of them will be defined initially and include the concepts: 'Border'; 'Cross-Border Tourism'; and 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas'. The concept of 'Collaboration' will be defined in a separate dedicated chapter.

Firstly, border studies scholar, K. Hageman has defined a 'Border' as being:

...constructed as institutions that serve to mark functioning barriers between states, to impose control over the flows of people and regulation of cross-border trade, or to indicate the evolving gateway to contact and interchange.³

Dallen Timothy, another prominent scholar in border studies, has defined a 'border' as:

A place where political entities collide, economies converge, and cultures tend to mix and is therefore considered to be one of the best concepts in terms of their contribution to the study of the globalization process.⁴

Furthermore, the *Oxford English Dictionary* defines a border as:

A line separating two countries, administrative divisions, and/or other areas.⁵

³ K. Hageman, S. Berger, S. Gemie and C. Williams, *Creating and Crossing Borders: The State, Future and Quality of Border Studies*, (2004), University of Glamorgan: Glamorgan, Wales.

⁴ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

⁵ The Oxford English Dictionary, 'Border', Internet: <http://www.oed.com>, Accessed 20 February 2014

Therefore it is evident that “borders” are seen as either tangible or intangible phenomena which are established to serve as barriers or boundaries that separates various nations or populations. They are created with the purpose of placing control over the movement of people across the nations and they also serve to monitor any form of trade.

Timothy has also defined the concept known as “Cross-Border Tourism” as follows:

The movement of tourists across the borders of a country under the guidance of a qualified tour guide.⁶

Finally, a ‘Transfrontier Conservation Area’ has been defined by J. Hanks as:

An area straddling across two or more international borders where natural and cultural resources are collaboratively managed by the governments and authorities involved.⁷

More succinctly, K. Mearns defines a TFCA as:

Areas spanning the borders between countries and comprising a range of different conservation locations, from communal lands to wildlife management areas.⁸

⁶D. Timothy, “Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries”, in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate), (2006), pp. 9-18.

⁷J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), pp. 127-148, (2003), Taylor and Francis.

⁸K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa’, in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

The World Bank has defined a TFCA narrowly as:

Relatively large areas encompassing one or more protected areas, which straddle the frontiers of two or more countries.⁹

In essence, a TFCA can therefore be described as a collection of protected areas which span across the boundaries of multiple nations while encompassing all natural and cultural resources, and their related management and conservation programmes, into one large area.

1.3. Literature Overview

It appears that the study of borders, as a specific concept, did not commence in earnest until about the 1980s. By the turn of this century, E. Brunet-Jailly still suggested that the study of borders had not reached the status of a unified scientific subfield.¹⁰ He ascribes this to there probably being too many types of borders or too many schools of thought pertaining to the study of borders. In addition, he asserts that the theoretical work on borders remains uncertain.¹¹ Border studies are described by V. Kolossov in 2006 as “a complicated social phenomenon related to the fundamental basis of the organization of society and human psychology”.¹²

The earlier research was primarily concerned with the history of border studies. Sources that range from 1988 to the early 2000s have explored the changes that have affected states, their sovereignty and

⁹ World Bank, ‘Mozambique: Transfrontier Conservation Areas Pilot and Institutional Strengthening Project’, in *Report 15534-MOZ*, Agricultural and Environment Division, (1996), The World Bank, pp. 17.

¹⁰ E. Brunet-Jailly, ‘Toward a model of border studies: What do we learn from the study of the Canadian-American border?’, in *Journal of Borderland Studies* 19(1), (2004), pp. 1-12.

¹¹ E. Brunet-Jailly, ‘Toward a model of border studies: What do we learn from the study of the Canadian-American border?’, in *Journal of Borderland Studies* 19(1), (2004), pp. 1-12.

¹² V. Kolossov, ‘Border Studies: Changing Perspectives and Theoretical Approaches’, in *Geopolitics* 10(4), (2005), pp. 606-632.

their borders.¹³ Brunet-Jailly describes one of the first studies by J. Friedman in 1996, as one that perceived borders as either a myth or metaphor.¹⁴ One important piece of literature by V. Kolossov, in the 2012 *Geopolitics* journal, includes a summary of border studies from a chronological perspective.¹⁵ This summary is presented in a table format which includes key issues such as: the period of study; the dominant methods or approaches used; the main concepts and achievements; and the leading scholars in this regard (Annexure 1). It can be deduced from this useful table that border studies began during the mid-twentieth century with two basic approaches: the historical-geographical approach (the mapping of economic and social structures in border regions); and the typology of borders.¹⁶ Since the 1950s, border studies adhered to a functional approach which studied aspects such as the flows of people, goods and information.¹⁷ Since the 1970s, border studies included a more political science approach focussing on the role of a nation's border in international conflicts.¹⁸ After the 1980s a number of different approaches have been introduced into the domain of border studies, including world systems and territorial identities; geo-political perspectives; borders as social

¹³ E. Brunet-Jailly, 'Toward a model of border studies: What do we learn from the study of the Canadian-American border?', in *Journal of Borderland Studies* 19(1), (2004), pp. 1-12.

¹⁴ J. Friedman, 'Borders, Margins, Frontiers: Myth and Metaphor', in Y. Gradus & H. Lithwick (eds.) *Frontiers in Regional Development*, Rowmand and Littlefield: London, (1996), pp. 1-20.

¹⁵ V. Kolossov, 'Border Studies: Changing Perspectives and Theoretical Approaches', in *Geopolitics* 10(4), (2005), pp. 606-632.

¹⁶ V. Kolossov, 'Border Studies: Changing Perspectives and Theoretical Approaches', in *Geopolitics* 10(4), (2005), pp. 606-632.

¹⁷ V. Kolossov, 'Border Studies: Changing Perspectives and Theoretical Approaches', in *Geopolitics* 10(4), (2005), pp. 606-632.

¹⁸ V. Kolossov, 'Border Studies: Changing Perspectives and Theoretical Approaches', in *Geopolitics* 10(4), (2005), pp. 606-632.

representations; the 'practice-policy-perception' approach; and the eco-political approach.¹⁹

In a 2006 study, T. Sofield suggested that borders, whether physical or intangible, have always been considered as demarcations of "us" and "them", of delineating difference, as either "open" or "closed" and are defined centres or peripheries.²⁰ He suggests that it includes both legal demarcations between states and a signifier of differentiation or frontier where both cultures and politics converge.²¹

Brunet-Jailly indicates that there has been an increase in the number of interdisciplinary approaches towards the study of borders over the last half century. One of the first regions to receive this scrutiny was the USA and Canadian border.²² Scholars such as H. Knippenberg and J. Markusse, as well as M. Perkmann and N. Sum, have suggested that there is a renewed interest in the various factors which are affecting states.²³ These include the increased level of sovereignty; the formation of borders; and the increased control implemented at border posts.²⁴ There are also certain factors which have been perceived to have transformed the economics and politics of borders worldwide and these are evident in the works of E. Fry; H. Knippenberg and J.

¹⁹ V. Kolossov, 'Border Studies: Changing Perspectives and Theoretical Approaches', in *Geopolitics* 10(4), (2005), pp. 606-632.

²⁰ T.H.B. Sofield, 'Border Tourism and Border Communities: An Overview', in *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment* 8(2), (2006), pp. 102-121.

²¹ T.H.B. Sofield, 'Border Tourism and Border Communities: An Overview', in *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment* 8(2), (2006), pp. 102-121.

²² E. Brunet-Jailly, 'Toward a model of border studies: What do we learn from the study of the Canadian-American border?', in *Journal of Borderland Studies* 19(1), (2004), pp. 1-12.

²³ H. Knippenberg and J. Markusse, *Nationalising and Denationalising European Border Regions, 1800-2000*, (1999), Kluwer Academic Publishers; M Perkmann and N. Sum, *Globalization, Regionalization and Cross-Border Regions*, (2002), Palgrave MacMillan: UK.

²⁴ K. Hageman, S. Berger, S. Gemie and C. Williams, *Creating and Crossing Borders: The State, Future and Quality of Border Studies*, (2004), University of Glamorgan: Glamorgan, Wales; E. Brunet-Jailly, 'Toward a model of border studies: What do we learn from the study of the Canadian-American border?', in *Journal of Borderland Studies* 19(1), (2004), pp. 1-12.

Markusse; and M. Perkmann and N. Sum. These factors include economic globalization;²⁵ the political integration in Europe (formation of the European Union);²⁶ and the integration of free trade in North America.²⁷

In the last decade of the twentieth century, N. Parker and N. Vaughan-Williams analysed the field of border studies by dividing it into three categories, each including sub-categories.²⁸ Thus, it is apparent that the study of borders or “limology” is an emerging field of studies within the modern and post-modern domain. The term, ‘Limology’, was derived from the Latin word, ‘Limes’, which means ‘boundary’. The Oxford English Dictionary defines it as follows:

The science that is mainly concerned with a complex system of boundaries and interfaces of various origin which are present in the natural environment and also with the study of physical and geo-chemical processes within these boundaries.²⁹

Other literature focusses on specific borders in terms of their geographical location and relation to tourism. In his study of the USA-Canadian border, Dallen Timothy indicates that tourism often involves crossing a border of some type, whether it is natural, international, sub-national or national.³⁰ He also argues that borders often have an influence on tourism as they are a form of controlling the flow of people and they enable officials to enforce certain restrictions on

²⁵ M. Perkmann and N. Sum, *Globalization, Regionalization and Cross-Border Regions*, (2002), Palgrave MacMillan: UK.

²⁶ H. Knippenberg and J. Markusse, *Nationalising and Denationalising European Border Regions, 1800-2000*, (1999), Kluwer Academic Publishers.

²⁷ E. Fry, *The Expanding Role of State and Local Government in U.S. Foreign Affairs*, (1998), Council of Foreign Relations: USA.

²⁸ N. Parker and N. Vaughan-Williams, ‘Lines in the Sand? Towards an Agenda for Critical Border Studies’, in *Geopolitics* 14(3), (2009), pp. 584-585.

²⁹ Oxford English Dictionary, Internet: <http://www.oed.com>, Accessed: 5 March 2014.

³⁰ D. Timothy and C. Tosun, ‘Tourist’s perceptions of the Canada-US Border as a barrier to tourism at the International Peace Garden’, in *Tourism Management* 24, (2003), pp. 411-421.

desired or undesired persons.³¹ The growth of international tourism has also increased the trend of globalization which has spurred more tourism participation through the opening of countries to the outside world (such as many states in the European Union and China). This facilitates easier border crossings and the creation of economic free trade and open border areas. Timothy further points out that borders are places where “political entities collide”, “economies converge” and “cultures blend” and they are therefore the best place to analyse the process of globalization in tourism.³² These trends therefore indicate the scope of the relationship between tourism and borders and are generally agreed upon by scholars such as H. Wachowiak, J. Blatter, J. Prescott, and D. Timothy & C. Tosun.³³

However, the limited nature of academic research on the relationship between tourism and borders is also flagged by both Timothy and Wachowiak. They make the point that numerous tourists around the world cross borders every day and most of them are unaware of this.³⁴ They indicate that some tourists either view a border as the preferred

³¹ D. Timothy, ‘Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries’, in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing), pp. 9-18.

³² D. Timothy, ‘Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries’, in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing), pp. 9-18.

³³ D. Timothy, *Tourism and Political Boundaries*, (2001), London: Routledge; H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing); J. Blatter, ‘Emerging Cross-Border regions as a step towards sustainable development? Experiences and Considerations from Examples in Europe and North America’, in *International Journal of Economic Development*, (2000); J. Prescott, *Political Frontiers and Boundaries*, (1987), London: Allen and Unwin; D. Timothy and C. Tosun, ‘Tourist’s perceptions of the Canada-US Border as a barrier to tourism at the International Peace Garden’, in *Tourism Management* 24, (2003), pp. 411-421.

³⁴ D. Timothy, *Tourism and Political Boundaries*, (2001), London: Routledge; H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

destination, while the majority only see a border as something they pass through while traveling to their intended destination.³⁵

Timothy has been identified as a key scholar in the study of borders and this will become evident throughout the course of this dissertation. He has provided some insightful analysis on the way that borders and tourism are starting to form an even closer relationship. In his article, “Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries”, he provides a brief introduction to this topic and then goes on to discuss a range of aspects such as the appeal of borders (borders as attractions and cross-border shopping); the way that borders may act as obstacles to tourism; borders acting as lines of transit and finally, the changing role of borders today.³⁶

Turning to the relationship between tourism and borders Timothy has argued that this is essentially about the relationship between international neighbours and the way in which they cooperate and collaborate together. This can be across borders, in implementing regional, national and local policies in line with those of their neighbours.³⁷ Timothy as well as B. Bramwell and B. Lane, also focus on the concepts of cooperation and collaboration which adds more to the discussion on cross-border partnerships in tourism.³⁸

³⁵ D. Timothy, *Tourism and Political Boundaries*, (2001), London: Routledge; H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

³⁶ D. Timothy, ‘Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries’, in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing), pp. 9-18.

³⁷ H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

³⁸ D. Timothy, ‘Borderlands: An unlikely tourist destination?’, in *Boundary and Security Bulletin* 8(1), (2000), pp. 57-65; B. Bramwell and B. Lane, *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

In line with this, M. Doppelfeld has argued that over the last couple of decades, tourism planners and developers have found new approaches to sustainable planning through the use of stakeholder collaboration. This includes the incorporation of multiple stakeholders involved in the complex nature of the tourism industry, especially in the case of cross-border tourism where multiple nations are involved.³⁹

Bramwell and Lane discuss the importance of collaboration by stating that “the interaction of stakeholders has the potential to lead to dialogue, negotiations and mutually accepted proposals which can lead to sustainable tourism development”.⁴⁰ It is further argued that collaboration can help gain competitive advantage as stakeholders are able to combine their knowledge, expertise, capital and other resources which are essential for the planning and management of tourism initiatives such as Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) or Trans-Boundary Parks.⁴¹

Doppelfeld has also adapted two tables from the work of Bramwell and Lane which analyse the potential problems of collaboration as well as the potential benefits (Annexure 2).⁴² An example of a potential problem is that stakeholders with less power than the others may be excluded from the process of collaborative work or may have less of

³⁹ M. Doppelfeld, ‘Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa’, in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

⁴⁰B. Bramwell and B. Lane, ‘Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning’, in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

⁴¹B. Bramwell and B. Lane, ‘Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning’, in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

⁴²B. Bramwell and B. Lane, ‘Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning’, in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19; M. Doppelfeld, ‘Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa’, in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

an influence in the decision-making process. A potential benefit may be when multiple stakeholders are involved in the decision-making process the resulting policies may be more flexible and are also more sensitive to local circumstances of each participant as well as to their respective changing conditions.⁴³

In terms of literature relating to TFCAs, there are a number of sources from both an international and local contexts. Some of these provide general introductions and definitions of concepts such as “Transfrontier Conservation Areas”; “Trans-boundary Parks”; “Transfrontier Parks”; and “Peace Parks”.⁴⁴ In his 2007 article in *Natural Resources*, S. Munthali discusses how TFCAs may contribute to the tourism industry. It considers specifically how the cross-border tourism sector can promote the conservation of biodiversity; the development of peace and mutual understanding between nations; and the alleviation of poverty through revenues received from tourism.⁴⁵

As indicated, this study sets out to use the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area (GLTFCA) as a case study to assess the importance of cross-border collaboration and partnerships. Scholars such as M. Doppelfeld, S. Ferreira, as well as W. Whande and H. Suich have all discussed or analysed the GLTFCA in their research.⁴⁶

⁴³ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, ‘Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning’, in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19

⁴⁴ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), pp. 127-148, Taylor and Francis.

⁴⁵ S.M. Munthali, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas: Integrating Biodiversity and Poverty Alleviation in Southern Africa’, in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, pp. 51-60. (2007), Blackwell Publishing Ltd.

⁴⁶ M. Doppelfeld, ‘Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa’, in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing; S. Ferreira, ‘Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004), pp. 301-310; W. Whande and H. Suich, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area’, in H. Suich and B.

These scholars touch on aspects such as the general context of the TFCAs in southern Africa, as well as the background to the development of the GLTFCA. Doppelfeld looks at aspects such as stakeholder collaboration and how it can be used to enhance the development of the TFCA.⁴⁷ Ferreira, on the other hand,⁴⁸ has looked at the current state of the TFCA and what can be done to overcome the challenges facing its development.⁴⁸ Whande and Suich look at the general concept of TFCAs and how it contributes to tourism development by specifically focussing on conservation as a prime concern.⁴⁹

A number of different organizations have published reports or related documents on the GLTFCA. Some of these organizations include the Trans-Boundary Protected Areas Research Initiative (TPARI);⁵⁰ the World Conservation Union (IUCN);⁵¹ South African National Parks (SANParks);⁵² and the Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa (RETOSA).⁵³ The TPARI and the IUCN co-hosted a workshop in 2005 which focussed on tourism in the GLTFCA and published two reports from the proceedings which discussed the current state of

Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

⁴⁷ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing

⁴⁸ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004), pp. 301-310.

⁴⁹ W. Whande and H. Suich, 'Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area', in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

⁵⁰ The TPARI website - <http://hdgc.epp.cmu.edu/misc/TBPA.htm>.

⁵¹ The IUCN website - <http://www.iucn.org/>.

⁵² The SANParks website - <http://www.sanparks.co.za/>.

⁵³ The RETOSA website - <http://www.retosa.co.za/>.

development in the GLTFCA.⁵⁴ Both SANParks and the SADC⁵⁵ have published a large quantity of information on the GLTFCA as well as TFCAs in general. The websites provide very basic information on the GLTFCA, including its history, current state of development and proposed future prospects. RETOSA (who are responsible for marketing activities for the SADC region) have also been involved with TFCAs. They have specifically focussed on the GLTFCA and have recently published a framework document which looks at the current state of development of the area. In this, they have identified a number of bottlenecks which need to be addressed in order for the development of the TFCAs to move forward.⁵⁶

It is also important to note that there is always the presence of the human element surrounding these conservation areas. Anthropologists and social scientists such as P. West, J. Igoe and D. Brockington;⁵⁷ A. Songorwa;⁵⁸ H. Goodwin;⁵⁹ and J. Jones⁶⁰ have all discussed the involvement of local communities in the development of national parks and TFCAs. Another key scholar in this regard is K. Mearns who has focussed on community-based tourism in protected areas and local community involvement in ecotourism.⁶¹ Many pieces of legislation

⁵⁴ A. Spenceley, 'Workshop Proceedings' from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN; A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁵⁵ The SADC website - <http://www.sadc.int/>.

⁵⁶ RETOSA, *Regional Infrastructure Development Plan: Tourism (TFCAs) Sector Plan*, (2012).

⁵⁷ P. West, J. Igoe and D. Brockington, 'Parks and Peoples: The Social Impact of Protected Areas', in *Annual Review of Anthropology* 35, (2006), pp. 251-277.

⁵⁸ A. Songorwa, 'Community-Based Wildlife Management (CWM) in Tanzania: Are the Communities Interested?', in *World Development* 27 (12), (1999), pp. 2061-2079.

⁵⁹ H. Goodwin, 'Local Community Involvement in Tourism around National Parks: Opportunities and Constraints', in *Current Issues in Tourism* 5(3-4), (2002), pp. 338-360.

⁶⁰ J. Jones, 'Transboundary Conservation: Development implications for communities in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa', in *International Journal of Sustainable Development & World Ecology* 12(3), (2005), pp. 266-278.

⁶¹ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87; K. Mearns, 'Using sustainable tourism indicators to measure the sustainability of a community-based ecotourism venture: Malealea Lodge & Pony Trek Centre,

consider that humans are always present and involved in the development of wildlife and environmental areas. Although it is an obvious statement, the whole idea of cooperation and collaboration involves a variety of stakeholders and therefore it is necessary to look at the local communities involved with the planning in the TFCAs. The inclusion of local communities in collaboration is discussed in articles such as Goodwin's 2002 "Local Community Involvement in Tourism around National Parks: Opportunities and Constraints"⁶² and Jones's 2005 "Transboundary conservation: Development implications for communities in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa".⁶³ Some of the key works for the section on TFCAs and the GLTFCA are by the following: J. Hanks;⁶⁴ A. Spenceley;⁶⁵ M. Doppelfeld;⁶⁶ W. Wolmer;⁶⁷ and S. Ferreira.⁶⁸

The above review of literature reveals that there is a need for more academic research on the subject of cross-border tourism and Transfrontier Conservation Areas in particular. This study will therefore strive to address an aspect of this from an international context by highlighting the role of collaboration and cooperation. As a case study

Lesotho', *Tourism Review International* 15(1-2), (2012), pp. 135-147; K. Mearns and V. Edwards, 'The social sustainability of community-based ecotourism in southern Africa', *The International Journal of Environmental, Cultural, Economic and Social Sustainability* 5(6), (2009), pp. 27-42.

⁶² H. Goodwin, 'Local Community Involvement in Tourism around National Parks: Opportunities and Constraints', in *Current Issues in Tourism* 5(3-4), (2002), pp. 338-360.

⁶³ J. Jones, 'Transboundary Conservation: Development implications for communities in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa', in *International Journal of Sustainable Development & World Ecology* 12(3), (2005), pp. 266-278.

⁶⁴ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), pp. 127-148, Taylor and Francis.

⁶⁵ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁶ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

⁶⁷ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

⁶⁸ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', *GeoJournal*, 60(3), (2004), pp. 301-10.

in the context of tourism development in southern Africa it will consider the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area as an example.

1.4. Outline of Chapters

The first chapter of this study has introduced the topic and presented a general outline. It also contains definitions and a literature overview. The second chapter will explore a theoretical component which is the relationship between tourism and borders. The history and the idea of a 'border' will be unpacked and its many manifestations will be discussed. Following this, the issue of how borders may influence tourism development is assessed. Essentially, this discussion will provide a platform for the analysis of the final concern of the chapter, 'cross-border tourism' in the GLTFCA.

The next chapter will look at the concept of "collaboration" and "cooperation" in tourism. Various sources will be analysed in order to create a basic understanding of collaboration and why it is so important in the context of cross-border tourism. Practical examples will also be used to increase the scope of knowledge of the concept. This chapter will contribute to the drawing up of conclusions at the end of this study.

The fourth chapter will analyse and discuss Transfrontier Conservation Areas (referred to as TFCAs). This is merely just an example of where cross-border cooperation is taking place in the wider context of cross-border tourism. International as well as local examples will be used to discuss the concept so as to provide a foundation for discussing cooperation and collaboration across national boundaries.

The penultimate chapter will look at an example of cross-border cooperation in a TFCA in southern Africa. The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area consists of the Kruger National Park in South Africa; the Gonarezhou National Park in Zimbabwe; and the Limpopo National Park in Mozambique. This example will reveal practical evidence of how stakeholders are collaboratively aiming to improve tourism and economic development in three separate countries by using natural resources and conservation areas as tourism attractions and destinations.

The sixth, and final chapter, will then conclude the findings of this study, point to a way forward that could also contribute to similar projects and also provide recommendations for further research.

Chapter 2

Border Studies and Tourism

2.1. Introduction

The fact that tourism has been recognised as a highly globalised industry, has led to an increased interest in the forming of new relationships between the tourism sector and other relevant economic sectors.⁶⁹ This is highlighted in the academic study of tourism where multiple disciplines such as history, geography, anthropology, business studies, social development and environmental management are all contributing to this already extensive field of study.⁷⁰ Tourism is an industry that is clearly influenced by the phenomenon of globalization and on-going technological advances have also contributed to the ever-changing face of tourism in modern society.⁷¹ It has been identified as an activity which is related to the exchange and consumption of international goods and services between various people. Therefore this has the potential to influence regions and destinations both economically and socially,⁷² and it also creates a platform for possible cooperation and collaboration between all stakeholders involved.

There is however, one aspect that has not been considered by many scholars and that is the general lacuna in tourism literature regarding

⁶⁹ H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

⁷⁰ S. Williams, *Tourism: The Nature and Structure of Tourism*, (2004), Taylor and Francis; N. Hoffmann, 'Locating or dislocating heritage and cultural tourism within the humanities', in *TD: The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa* 9(2), (2013), pp. 341-356.

⁷¹ M. Mowforth and I. Munt, *Tourism and Sustainability: Development, Globalisation and New Tourism in the Third World*, (2008), Routledge: England.

⁷² H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

the idea of tourism involving the crossing of a certain type of border. As is evident in the literature overview, this aspect has only received academic scrutiny recently.

2.2. Borders and Tourism

Authors such as Timothy, and Timothy and Tosun, argue that any form of tourism will necessarily involve the crossing of borders of some type, whether it be an international, subnational, regional, natural or even an intangible border which is only perceived by certain societies or individuals.⁷³ They further argue that borders, in any form, may further influence tourism as they have been developed as a means of controlling the flow of people and they also allow officials to enforce restrictions on desired or undesired people entering into or departing out of a specific country.⁷⁴

The diversification of modern day tourists is also an issue that has been considered by many scholars and tourism professionals.⁷⁵ Some of these tourists have revealed an emerging trend amongst themselves that has never really been heard of before. They have a desire to 'collect' destinations during their travels in the form of visa stamps in their passports.⁷⁶ Wachowiak has also explored the notion that the ritual of crossing of a border, as an activity, has grown to be a

⁷³ D. Timothy and C. Tosun, "Tourists perceptions of the Canada-USA border as a barrier to tourism at the International Peace Garden", in *Tourism Management*, Vol. 24, (2003), pp. 411-421; D. Timothy, *Tourism and Political Boundaries*, (2001), London: Routledge.

⁷⁴ D. Timothy and C. Tosun, "Tourists perceptions of the Canada-USA border as a barrier to tourism at the International Peace Garden", in *Tourism Management*, Vol. 24, (2003), pp. 411-421; D. Timothy, *Tourism and Political Boundaries*, (2001), London: Routledge.

⁷⁵ H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

⁷⁶ J. Urry, "The Tourist Gaze and the 'Environment'", in *Exploration in Critical Social Science* Vol. 9(3), (1992), pp. 1-26.

popular activity amongst tourists.⁷⁷ In addition to this, Timothy has identified the historic appeal of borders on numerous occasions in his work. He argues that historic border manifestations have become a popular form of tourist attractions. Relics such as the Great Wall of China and the Berlin Wall have become heritage sites which are indeed, a popular form of tourist attractions.⁷⁸

As previously mentioned, the on-going globalization of the world has spurred participation in the context of tourism through the opening of countries to the outside world.⁷⁹ This phenomenon has facilitated border crossings which have led to the creation of economic free-trade and open border areas. This has increased the scope for the relationship between borders and tourism and has once again signalled the intention for increased collaboration between all stakeholders.⁸⁰ The tourism planners, managers and other local stakeholders who have experienced the economic benefits of tourism have only recently begun to realize that the tourism industry is highly susceptible to border issues.⁸¹ Some of these issues may include entry visa regulations, foreign investments and border crossing requirements.

Therefore, the relationship between tourism and borders is essentially about understanding the function of borders in the tourism process as

⁷⁷ H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing); A. Franklin, *Tourism: An Introduction*, (2003), London: SAGE Publications.

⁷⁸ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006)

⁷⁹ H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

⁸⁰ H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

⁸¹ V.L. Smith, Foreword in: M.F. Price, *People and Tourism in Fragile Environments*, (1996), Wiley: Chichester.

well as the relationships between international neighbours.⁸² It is therefore important to explore the way that they cooperate across the different forms of borders such as regional, local, and national borders and how national policies can be aligned with the different nations involved.⁸³

2.3. The History of Borders

As indicated, tourists from all over the world, often unaware, cross over borders every single day either as their intended, final destination or whether merely on route to their final destination.⁸⁴ People not only cross political borders during their travels but they may also cross provincial or municipal borders for work or every day activities such as going to the shops.⁸⁵ While these lower level boundaries may appear to have little effect on the tourism industry, this assumption is often unfounded.⁸⁶ These aspects are starting to be established as key areas of tourism research and the most notable boundaries from a tourism perspective are those that are found at an international level, where most issues and obstacles are encountered.⁸⁷

If one had to look at borders generically in a historical context, it is evident that there are new types of borders that are constantly

⁸² H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

⁸³ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

⁸⁴ H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

⁸⁵ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

⁸⁶ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

⁸⁷ H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

emerging and those that have always existed are slowly adapting to advances in technology over time.⁸⁸ In terms of the history of tourism and the evolution of sectors such as transport and technology, it therefore has a major influence on the meaning and function of borders. As T. Sofield suggests, borders were once only restricted spatially to areas of land yet this all changed with the invention and innovation of a number of technologies and transport modes.⁸⁹ With the introduction of ships and sailing routes between the 16th and 17th centuries, the sovereignty and territories of nation states now expanded from land to also include the sea as a form of territory or sovereign space.⁹⁰ Another example includes the introduction of air travel which led to the expansion of territories in a vertical manner. The most prominent period in history that regarded air spaces as 'bounded dimensions', was during the Second World War where European states declared sovereignty over their respective air space.⁹¹ As previously mentioned, there has been a growing number of interdisciplinary approaches to the study of borders.⁹² Yet, there has not been a clear indication of how border studies can be categorised until N. Parker and N. Vaughan-Williams provided their analysis on border studies, or 'limology'.⁹³ As mentioned in the literature review, they divided the field of border studies into three categories: border

⁸⁸ T.H.B. Sofield, 'Border Tourism and Border Communities: An Overview', in *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment* 8(2), (2006), pp. 102-121.

⁸⁹ T.H.B. Sofield, 'Border Tourism and Border Communities: An Overview', in *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment* 8(2), (2006), pp. 102-121.

⁹⁰ T.H.B. Sofield, 'Border Tourism and Border Communities: An Overview', in *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment* 8(2), (2006), pp. 102-121.

⁹¹ T.H.B. Sofield, 'Border Tourism and Border Communities: An Overview', in *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment* 8(2), (2006), pp. 102-121.

⁹² E. Brunet-Jailly, 'Toward a model of border studies: What do we learn from the study of the Canadian-American border?', in *Journal of Borderland Studies* 19(1), (2004), pp. 1-12.

⁹³ N. Parker and N. Vaughan-Williams, 'Lines in the Sand? Towards an Agenda for Critical Border Studies', in *Geopolitics* 14(3), (2009), pp. 584-585.

epistemology; philosophical approach to border studies; and the “space and time” of borders. Each of these bears important research questions and findings.

Firstly, ‘Border Epistemology’ is the study of borders through an approach that utilises different schools of thought. The scholars who have adopted this approach often argue that borders sometimes give off a certain seductive charm and they provide a sense of “security, comfort, and certainty”.⁹⁴ Borders are often theorised as certain types of experiences by these scholars. These factors will be discussed in the next section of this chapter.⁹⁵

The philosophical approach to border studies, often referred to as ‘Border Ontology’, looks at the more ‘imagined’ or intangible aspects that borders are concerned with. Scholars, of this categorical approach tend to emphasise the question of whether or not borders are “fundamental elements of the imagined world”.⁹⁶

Finally, the idea of ‘The Space-Time of Borders’ looks at certain questions relating to aspects such as “border spatiality’s” [sic]; “border temporalities”; and the “marginality” of borders. This approach includes methods of the earliest approaches of border studies which had a predominantly geo-political dimension and perspective.⁹⁷

Borders have been studied by a variety of disciplines and these have brought about a number of different approaches, with the geo-political

⁹⁴ N. Parker and N.Vaughan-Williams, ‘Lines in the Sand? Towards an Agenda for Critical Border Studies’, in *Geopolitics* 14(3), (2009), pp. 584-585.

⁹⁵ N. Parker and N.Vaughan-Williams, ‘Lines in the Sand? Towards an Agenda for Critical Border Studies’, in *Geopolitics* 14(3), (2009), pp. 584-585.

⁹⁶ N. Parker and N.Vaughan-Williams, ‘Lines in the Sand? Towards an Agenda for Critical Border Studies’, in *Geopolitics* 14(3), (2009), pp. 584-585.

⁹⁷ N. Parker and N.Vaughan-Williams, ‘Lines in the Sand? Towards an Agenda for Critical Border Studies’, in *Geopolitics* 14(3), (2009), pp. 584-585.

approach being the most dominant. The process of globalization and the introduction of new technologies have increased the scope of border studies to much wider fields, with tourism being one of them. Tourism, as an industry, is probably one of the most globalized industries in the world's economy today and several interesting and unique relationships arise when borders and tourism converge.⁹⁸

2.4. Cross-Border Tourism

The convergence of borders and tourism, as previously mentioned, has created a number of interesting relationships such as boundaries as tourist attractions and destinations; borders as barriers to travel and the growth of tourism; boundaries as lines of transit; and the growth of supranationalism and issues of sovereignty.⁹⁹ These aspects will be briefly discussed in order to understand the idea of borders and tourism, which has essentially resulted in the creation of the concept of Cross-Border Tourism (also referred to as C-BT).

First and at a very elementary level, the appeal or attraction of borders, in the context of tourism, has become a popular topic in the study of C-BT. It is apparent that borders have been a fascination of travellers for centuries.¹⁰⁰ Borders have evolved from “vague areas of dubious political control”, where exact borderlines were hardly identifiable into clearly defined demarcations and well-marked

⁹⁸ D. Timothy, “Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries”, in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

⁹⁹ D. Timothy, “Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries”, in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹⁰⁰ A. Gelbman, ‘Border Tourism as a Space of Presenting and Symbolizing Peace’, In: Moufakkir, O. Kelly, I. (Eds.), *Peace through Tourism Myth or reality?*, (2010), CABI.

landscapes.¹⁰¹ International boundaries are much more complex in the modern world and in fact, some have increased their status as attractions even more over the last decade.¹⁰²

Borders have been perceived as attractions by authors such as Timothy, and they are seen from two perspectives:¹⁰³ Firstly, the borderline itself or the physical structure of a border has been known to attract tourists. Any physical form of demarcation such as fences, walls, and guard towers are considered as attractions.¹⁰⁴ Borders, as methods of demarcation, may often provide an interesting contrast in otherwise ordinary landscapes and thus are seen as an attraction for tourists.¹⁰⁵ Another notable aspect of a border as an attraction is that wherever there is a clearly marked borderline, visitor's will often have an interest in standing beside it, hopping over it, or leaning against a sign for photographic opportunities.¹⁰⁶ People also have the urge to straddle borderlines to make a claim that they have been in two places at once or have been in another country for a short period of time.¹⁰⁷

¹⁰¹ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹⁰² J. Hattingh, 'International Success Stories of Cross-Border Tourism Development, Internet: <http://www.aridareas.co.za>, Accessed: 10 March 2014.

¹⁰³ J. Hattingh, 'International Success Stories of Cross-Border Tourism Development, Internet: <http://www.aridareas.co.za>, Accessed: 10 March 2014.

¹⁰⁴ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹⁰⁵ A. Gelbman, 'Border Tourism as a Space of Presenting and Symbolizing Peace', In: Moufakkir, O. Kelly, I. (Eds.), *Peace through Tourism Myth or reality?*, (2010), CABI.

¹⁰⁶ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹⁰⁷ A. Gelbman, 'Border Tourism as a Space of Presenting and Symbolizing Peace', In: Moufakkir, O. Kelly, I. (Eds.), *Peace through Tourism Myth or reality?*, (2010), CABI.

The most famous border attraction is the Great Wall of China and it is the world's most visited tourist attraction.¹⁰⁸ The Great Wall of China was built from the Warring States Period (476 BC - 221 BC) to Ming Dynasty period (1368-1644) as a wartime defense to protect the Chinese Empire from invasions from the North.¹⁰⁹ In 1987, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) proclaimed the Great Wall of China as a World Heritage Site and thus acknowledging its outstanding universal value. It is the world's largest military structure and the largest man-made object on the planet, hence its immense popularity for tourism. It has been considered as the most popular tourist attraction in the East.¹¹⁰ There are a number of other examples of borders as attractions and some of these include historic borders such as the Berlin Wall (Germany); The Golden Triangle (East Asia); and Basle (Switzerland); geographical borders, such as the Bosphorus in Istanbul (a strait that divides Europe and Asia); Greenwich Meridian (found in Greenwich in London, England) or the divide between the Indian Ocean and the Atlantic Ocean (found between Cape Point and Cape Agulhas in the Western Cape, South Africa), are regarded as a form of tourist attraction.

During the 1990s, there were lookout platforms on the western side of the Berlin Wall which allowed visitors to look across the 'Iron Curtain' into the communist, eastern side of Germany. This gave the visitors the experience of exploring the ideological differences in ways of living, economics and political ideologies.¹¹¹ The Berlin Wall is still considered as an attraction today as the relics of the wall have

¹⁰⁸ J. Man, *The Great Wall*, (2010), Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

¹⁰⁹ J. Man, *The Great Wall*, (2010), Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

¹¹⁰ M. Cannings, *China*, (2009), Lonely Planet Publications Pty (Ltd): Australia.

¹¹¹ T.H. Elkins and B. Hofmeister, *Berlin: The Spatial Structure of a Divided City*, (1988), London: Methuen.

become a popular site for tourists.¹¹² The site has become so popular that 'borderland museums' have been developed along the original boundary line and are marketed as tourist attractions.¹¹³

In Asia, the 'Golden Triangle' has become an important tourist destination mainly on the side of Thailand. It is the point at which Thailand, Laos and Myanmar all meet.¹¹⁴ Each year thousands of tourists visit the Golden Triangle Monument on the banks of the Mekong River in Thailand to have their pictures taken. Visitors also visit the site in order to satisfy their psychological craving for being at the convergence of the meeting point of three country's borders.¹¹⁵

The Republic of Turkey is a unique cross-border destination as it stretches between western Asia and south-eastern Europe, where it is bordered by a number of different countries.¹¹⁶ Turkey lies to the south-east of Bulgaria, to the east of Greece and to the south-west of Georgia. Directly east of Turkey are Armenia, Azerbaijan and Iran, while to the south-east are Iraq and Syria. The Mediterranean Sea forms Turkey's southerly coastline and thus beachfront attractions are popular destinations. The Aegean Sea is found to the west of Turkey and includes a number of popular beaches. Since Turkey actually straddles two separate continents, the country's vibrant culture includes features and traditions from both the east and west. The country's tourism industry relies on the appeal of "cheap holidays" and

¹¹² D. Light, 'Gazing on Communism: Heritage tourism and post-communist identities in Germany, Hungary and Romania', in *Tourism Geographies* 2(2), (2000), pp. 157-176 .

¹¹³ D. Light, 'Gazing on Communism: Heritage tourism and post-communist identities in Germany, Hungary and Romania', in *Tourism Geographies* 2(2), (2000), pp. 157-176.

¹¹⁴ J. Hattingh, 'International Success Stories of Cross-Border Tourism Development, Internet: <http://www.aridareas.co.za>, Accessed: 10 March 2014.

¹¹⁵ J. Hattingh, 'International Success Stories of Cross-Border Tourism Development, Internet: <http://www.aridareas.co.za>, Accessed: 10 March 2014.

¹¹⁶ J. Bainbridge, 'Turkey', in *Lonely Planet Guidebooks: Turkey*, (2011), Lonely Planet Publications.

many of its tourist attractions focus on sites of historical and archaeological interest. Turkey is the world's ninth most visited destination.¹¹⁷ Another example of a border as a tourist attraction or destination is a point found near Basle in Switzerland. Once again, visitors have the opportunity to stand at the meeting point of Germany, France and Switzerland's borders.¹¹⁸

The second way in which boundaries and borders may attract the attention of tourists is through the activities, attractions and special features of the communities found in the immediate vicinity of a boundary.¹¹⁹ The cultures and so-called border communities can also be an attraction in their own right as they are either very contrasting to those on the opposing side of the border or they have accumulated as a unique mixed cultural group.¹²⁰ The appeal of an area that surrounds a border is often responsible for creating a sense of competitive advantage from that which lies on the other side.¹²¹ This has been the case at the Swedish-Finnish border, in Europe, as the two nations are trying to develop tourism within the borderland while still trying to maintain the "uniqueness" of their attractions in each of their countries.¹²²

¹¹⁷ J. Bainbridge, 'Turkey', in *Lonely Planet Guidebooks: Turkey*, (2011), Lonely Planet Publications.

¹¹⁸ J. Hattingh, 'International Success Stories of Cross-Border Tourism Development, Internet: <http://www.aridareas.co.za>, Accessed: 10 March 2014.

¹¹⁹ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹²⁰ T.H.B. Sofield, 'Border Tourism and Border Communities: An Overview', in *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment* 8(2), (2006), pp. 102-121.

¹²¹ A. Gelbman and D. Timothy, 'Border Complexity, Tourism in International Exclaves', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 38(1), (2008), pp. 110-131.

¹²² E.K. Prokkola, 'Cross-Border Regionalization and Tourism Development at the Swedish-Finish Border: Destination Arctic Circle', in *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(2), (2007), pp. 120-138.

This second perspective could be regarded both as a tourist destination and activity, while the first perspective would be considered more along the lines of being a tourist attraction.¹²³ Therefore, borders considered to be destinations often have several activities and attractions in common, such as: shopping; prostitution; gambling/casinos; restaurants; bars and nightclubs; and liquor stores.¹²⁴ For example, people who currently reside in a country where gambling or alcohol consumption is not permitted will often see them travel across the border into the neighbouring country where these aspects are legal and available.¹²⁵ This was the case in South Africa under the Apartheid regime where gambling was banned and citizens would travel to neighbouring Botswana, Lesotho or Swaziland in order to participate in these activities.¹²⁶

Another major activity that occurs in border regions is cross-border shopping and is considered to be one of the most popular activities. This activity is often spurred by the availability of cheaper products, lower taxes, wider selections of goods and services and different operating hours in the neighbouring countries.¹²⁷ In southern Africa for example, many people who live in Swaziland travel across the border into South Africa to purchase goods as products have lower taxes, are

¹²³ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹²⁴ A. Gelbman, 'Border Tourism as a Space of Presenting and Symbolizing Peace', In: Moufakkir, O. Kelly, I. (Eds.), *Peace through Tourism Myth or reality?*, (2010), CABI.

¹²⁵ B. Lintner, 'Upstaging Macau: Casino at Centre of Border Development Plan?', in *Far Eastern Economic Review*, (1994), pp. 24; L. Hidalgo, 'British shops suffer as "booze cruise" bargain hunters flock to France', in *The Times*, 22 November 1993, pp. 5.

¹²⁶ A.M. Grundlingh, 'Revisiting the Old South Africa: Excursions into South Africa's Tourist History under Apartheid, 1940-1990', in *South African Historical Journal* 56, (2000), pp. 103-122.

¹²⁷ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

cheaper and there is a wider range.¹²⁸ Another common form of cross-border activities is medical cross-border tourism, whereby people travel to be treated by health professionals across the borders.¹²⁹ Again this is often due to reasons of costs, but also for available specialisation and technologies.

When it comes to borders as barriers, Timothy has identified two distinct types that borders can impose when it comes to travel. These include: real barriers or psychological or perceived barriers.¹³⁰

Firstly, real barriers are created when heavy fortifications are created by a country to defend itself against threatening forces. For example, some border posts are created with barbed wire or electrified fences, mine fields and armed guards. This creates a daunting landscape which is often very uninviting or difficult for tourists to cross.¹³¹

Another factor that adds to the real barrier that a border may impose is the presence of strict immigration and customs policies. In other words, many travellers may be refused entry into a country and therefore be prohibited from taking part in any activities.¹³² Other cases may also amount to cumbersome time factors such as rigorous visa processes or travellers having to undergo physical inspection which may result in them being deterred from travel.¹³³

¹²⁸ C.M. Rogerson and G. Visser, *Urban Tourism in the Developing World: The South African Experience*, (2007), Transaction Publishers; R. Wyllie, Field Work conducted in Swaziland during the 6th-9th of August 2012.

¹²⁹ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹³⁰ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹³¹ D. Timothy, *Tourism and Political Boundaries*, (2001), London: Routledge.

¹³² D. Timothy, *Tourism and Political Boundaries*, (2001), London: Routledge.

¹³³ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-

The second type of barrier that borders may impose on travellers is psychological or perceived barriers. This situation often arises at borders that are often heavily guarded to prevent the entry of hostile neighbours.¹³⁴ However, even at borders that are not as hostile, some people still become nervous, insecure and uncertain. For example, factors such as language and cultural differences; different currencies; and opposing social or political ideologies may contribute to a tourist's reluctant attitude to attempt to cross the border.¹³⁵ The USA-Mexico border is a good example of this scenario as the borderline is a clear separation of two very different worlds and cultures - that of the developed world from the less developed world. This border is a distinct example where there is a perception of keeping the 'other' out.¹³⁶

The next aspect regarding the role that borders play in the tourism industry is one that is probably the least understood and that is borders as lines of transit.¹³⁷ Borderlines have been labelled as simple places that an individual travels beyond in order to reach a final destination.¹³⁸ As mentioned, many tourists will pass through various entry procedures on their journey to their final destination, without

18; In the case of southern Africa long delays, government regulations as well as corruption and language problems fall into this first category of barriers.

¹³⁴ A. Gelbman, 'Border Tourism in Israel: Conflict, Fear, Peace and Hope', in *Tourism Geographies* 10(2), (2008), pp. 193-213.

¹³⁵ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹³⁶ D. Timothy and C. Tosun, "Tourists perceptions of the Canada-USA border as a barrier to tourism at the International Peace Garden", in *Tourism Management*, Vol. 24, (2003), pp. 411-421.

¹³⁷ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹³⁸ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

even registering this as part of their overall experience.¹³⁹ The border regions are often areas that produce a high level of flowing traffic and often contain many tourism services such as petrol stations, banks, currency exchange offices and restaurants.¹⁴⁰

As regards this aspect, P. Travlou has identified another interesting feature about borders which is that they are very similar to airports, as they are often seen as 'non-places' or 'placeless spaces'.¹⁴¹ Many people perceive tourist attractions or destinations to lie more towards the inland regions of a country thus creating the assumption that borders cannot be a tourist destination.¹⁴² One scenario that could explain this assumption-based theory is where most North Americans see borders and the adjacent communities as non-places and unrecognizable. Thus Mexico is only recognized by the main urban areas well inside the inland regions of the country and the border areas are overlooked and ignored.¹⁴³

It is difficult to continually discuss the concept of cross-border tourism without repeating the on-going phenomenon of globalization as well as the fact that the world is constantly changing around us. With the development of technologies and various changes in the geo-political environment, it comes as no surprise that the relationship between

¹³⁹ A. Gelbman, 'Border Tourism as a Space of Presenting and Symbolizing Peace', In: Moufakkir, O. Kelly, I. (Eds.), *Peace through Tourism Myth or reality?*, (2010), CABI.

¹⁴⁰ A. Gelbman, 'Border Tourism as a Space of Presenting and Symbolizing Peace', In: Moufakkir, O. Kelly, I. (Eds.), *Peace through Tourism Myth or reality?*, (2010), CABI.

¹⁴¹ P.S. Travlou, 'Airport terminals and hotel lobbies: Gazing Athens from in-transit spaces', Working Paper, (2003), New Orleans: Association of American Geographers.

¹⁴² A. Gelbman and D. Timothy, 'Border Complexity, Tourism in International Exclaves', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 38(1), (2008), pp. 110-131.

¹⁴³ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

tourism and borders is rapidly changing.¹⁴⁴ The changes in the relationship may either decrease the barrier effect of borders or they may unintentionally or intentionally increase them.

Firstly, the European Union has enforced much stricter controls at their eastern and southern border posts since the terrorist attacks in the USA (September 11th attacks in 2001) and in London, England (terrorist bombings on the London transport system in 2005). Stricter security measures often mean inflated visa fees and often cumbersome procedures to enter the countries. These, as well as many other factors, are often responsible for causing tourists to be deterred from travel.¹⁴⁵ In an example a bit closer to the key geographical area of this study, Africa often experiences problems with regional tourism due to the poor image that is created by international tourists. In other words, many international tourists believe that if there is civil unrest in one state, then the entire region is unsafe and they will not travel.

On the other hand, Timothy and Teye have identified one of the key factors that has led to the decrease of this effect which borders may impose on the movement of tourists.¹⁴⁶ This concept has been termed as 'Supranationalism' and it originated as early as the twentieth century when countries began to realize the importance of working together to improve one another's economic development.¹⁴⁷ This

¹⁴⁴ A. Gelbman, 'Border Tourism as a Space of Presenting and Symbolizing Peace', In: Moufakkir, O. Kelly, I. (Eds.), *Peace through Tourism Myth or reality?*, (2010), CABI.

¹⁴⁵ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

¹⁴⁶ D. Timothy and V. Teye, 'Political boundaries and regional co-operation in Tourism', in A. Lew et al (eds.), *A Companion to Tourism*, (2004), London: Blackwell, pp. 584-595.

¹⁴⁷ D. Timothy and V. Teye, 'Political boundaries and regional co-operation in Tourism', in A. Lew et al (eds.), *A Companion to Tourism*, (2004), London: Blackwell, pp. 584-595; B. Jessop, 'Regional economic blocs, cross-border tourism, and local economic strategies in post-colonialism', in *American Behavioural Scientist* 38(5),

concept runs hand in hand with one of the key concerns of this study, the notion of forming partnerships and collaborative efforts to increase the benefits of tourism development.

Since the beginning of the twentieth century, numerous supranational alliances have been formed. There are many alliances that exist in the political world today, and some countries may belong to more than one. One of the first alliances to be formed on the 8th of August 1967 was the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN). The ASEAN was established for a number of reasons, such as to accelerate economic growth within the region and to promote regional peace and stability.¹⁴⁸ Another renowned alliance that was established in 1975 was the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). It was formed to promote economic integration in "all fields of economic activity such as transport, energy, agriculture, natural resources, commerce, financial aspects, and social and cultural matters".¹⁴⁹

The next alliance to be formed in 1984, once again in Africa, was the East African Community (EAC). It was formed with the purpose to widen economic, political, social and cultural integration in order to improve the quality of life of the people of East Africa through increased competitiveness, value added production, trade and investments.¹⁵⁰ The European Union (EU) was established in 1993 for the basic purpose of economic regionalization in Europe.¹⁵¹ The North

(1995), pp. 674-715; V. Teye, 'Regional cooperation in tourism development in Africa', in P. Dieke (ed.), *The Political Economy of Tourism Development in Africa*, (2010), pp. 217-227.

¹⁴⁸ ASEAN, (2014), 'ASEAN Overview', Internet: <http://www.asean.org/asean/about-asean/overview>, Accessed: 09 April 2014.

¹⁴⁹ ECOWAS, (2014) 'About', Internet: http://www.comm.ecowas.int/sec/index.php?id=about_a&lang=en, Accessed: 09 April 2014.

¹⁵⁰ EAC, (2014) 'About', Internet: <http://www.eac.int>, Accessed: 09 April 2014.

¹⁵¹ The European Union, (2013), Internet: <http://europa.eu/about-eu>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) which was established on the 1st of January 1994 was created for the purpose of creating one of the world's largest free trade zones and laying the foundations for strong economic growth and rising prosperity for Canada, the United States and Mexico.¹⁵²

One alliance which has not received much attention in regional tourism research is the South African Development Community (SADC) that was established in Windhoek, Namibia on the 17th August 1992 with 15 member states entering into a collaborative alliance. This alliance was formed with the intention to promote sustainable and equitable economic growth and socio-economic development across the region.¹⁵³

The majority of these associations were formed without considering any protocol for tourism development, yet almost all of them deal with issues that may have an indirect impact on tourism.¹⁵⁴ They are often referred to as trading blocs, custom blocs, or economic communities. Yet they all have a common goal to collaborate in an effort to reduce trade barriers, tariffs and the costs of import and export.¹⁵⁵

Another key aspect that has been identified in the literature on cross-border cooperation and development is the scale of environmental conservation that is taking place on bilateral and multi-lateral levels across borders.¹⁵⁶ The United Nations' World Tourism Organization

¹⁵² NAFTA, (2014), Internet: <http://www.naftanow.org/>, Accessed: 09 April 2014.

¹⁵³ The Southern African Development Community, (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

¹⁵⁴ D. Timothy, 'Supranationalist alliances and tourism: Insights from ASEAN and SAARC', in *Current Issues in Tourism* 6(3), (2003), pp. 250-266.

¹⁵⁵ D. Timothy, 'Supranationalist alliances and tourism: Insights from ASEAN and SAARC', in *Current Issues in Tourism* 6(3), (2003), pp. 250-266.

¹⁵⁶ D. Timothy, "Relationships between Tourism and International Boundaries", in H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (Hampshire, England: Ashgate, 2006), pp. 9-18.

(UNWTO) has recognised the biodiversity of a destination as a key contributor for sustainable tourism development and economic growth as well as an irreplaceable asset.¹⁵⁷ During the past two decades, and along with the various geo-political transformations, many national parks and conservation areas are found lying adjacent to or lying across national borders.¹⁵⁸ This creates a complex, yet fascinating area for research on the relationship between tourism, borders and the collaborative efforts between all stakeholders. For example, the formation of TFCAs within the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC), has provided an excellent opportunity for research to be conducted on the relationships between borders, natural resources, wildlife tourism, community and the various collaboration between stakeholders.

2.5. Conclusion

It is therefore apparent that while some significant research has been done, there is still a need for further research on the concept of borders and tourism and the ever changing relationship between the two. This chapter has analysed the general idea of borders and tourism and the range of relationships that these two may share. The history of borders and border studies throws light onto the concept of a border and its changing characteristics. The concept of Cross-Border Tourism reveals various relationships that may impact on tourism development. Such, borders are tourist attractions and destinations; they are perceived as barriers to tourism but also as lines of transit.

¹⁵⁷ United Nations World Tourism Organization, Internet: <http://wildlifeday.org/content/world-tourism-organization-unwto>, Accessed: 6 March 2014.

¹⁵⁸ D. Timothy, 'Supranationalist alliances and tourism: Insights from ASEAN and SAARC', in *Current Issues in Tourism* 6(3), (2003), pp. 250-266.

There is therefore a distinct changing role of borders in the modern world, much of which points to the need for collaboration across borders as well as the notion of national parks that span across national boundaries.

Chapter 3

Collaboration in Tourism

3.1. Introduction

The tourism industry, and in particular the management and planning of tourism destinations, is often very complex due to the involvement of multiple stakeholders. Scholars, such as M. Doppelfeld, claim that the incorporation of multiple stakeholders in the tourism industry has contributed to its complex nature.¹⁵⁹ He further states that the complexity is increased in the cross-border environment whereby multiple stakeholders from multiple nations are involved.¹⁶⁰ According to the stalwart author E. Inskeep, the degree of complexity can, however, be reduced through the establishment of continuous, integrated planning.¹⁶¹ Furthermore, the lack of coordination and cohesion within this complex industry is a well-known problem to many tourism destination managers and planners.¹⁶² Therefore, the majority of tourism planners and developers have started to turn towards the concept of stakeholder collaboration for the effective implementation of sustainable tourism.¹⁶³

¹⁵⁹ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

¹⁶⁰ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

¹⁶¹ E. Inskeep, *Tourism Planning: An Integrated and Sustainable Development Approach*, (1991), New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold.

¹⁶² T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration Theory and Community Tourism Planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

¹⁶³ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

In the light of this, this chapter is concerned with the key role collaboration plays within the tourism industry. It will consider the collaboration theory in its various facets as well as collaboration at regional and supranational levels.

The term collaboration effectively looks at how multiple stakeholders are drawn together to achieve a set of objectives, and it has been defined in many texts with Doppelfeld stating that:

Collaboration occurs when a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engage in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms, and structures, to act or decide on issues related to that domain.¹⁶⁴

In addition to this, B. Gray claims that “collaboration” is:

A process of joint decision making among key stakeholders of a problem domain about the future of that domain.¹⁶⁵

And finally, T. Jamal and D. Getz recognise the concept as:

A process of joint decision-making among autonomous, and key stakeholders of an inter-organizational, community tourism domain to resolve problems of that domain and/or to manage issues related to the planning and development of that domain.¹⁶⁶

Therefore, in the context of this study, it can be said that “collaboration” involves the interaction between autonomous and key stakeholders of a tourism destination domain. These stakeholders engage in joint decision-making processes in order to discuss current issues relating to the domain and to also plan for the future by sharing their ideas, knowledge and expertise.

¹⁶⁴ M. Doppelfeld, ‘Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa’, in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

¹⁶⁵ B. Gray, *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*, (1989), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

¹⁶⁶ D. Ioannides; P.A. Nielsen and P. Billing, ‘Transboundary Collaboration in Tourism: The Case of the Bothnian Arc’, in *Tourism Geographies: An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment* 8(2), (2006), pp. 122-142; T. Jamal and D. Getz, ‘Collaboration theory and community tourism planning’, in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

In their research on tourism partnerships, B. Bramwell and B. Lane emphasise the importance of collaboration.¹⁶⁷ They claim that the interaction of stakeholders has the potential to lead to dialogue, negotiations and mutually accepted proposals which can then lead to improved sustainable tourism development.¹⁶⁸ In addition to this, they argue that collaboration can help stakeholders and their respective destinations gain a competitive advantage as they can combine aspects such as knowledge, expertise, capital as well as other important resources which are essential for the planning and management of tourism initiatives.¹⁶⁹

The theory and application of collaboration to the planning and management of tourism, especially in protected areas, continues to evolve as new forms of collaborative practices have begun to arise.¹⁷⁰ New collaborative efforts have been introduced in order to manage growing concerns over issues such as: climate change; biodiversity loss; resource depletion; and impacts of globalization on indigenous and local inhabitants.¹⁷¹ There are numerous examples, on a global scale, of where adjacent regions in different countries have a share in the same natural and cultural resources.¹⁷² This creates a platform for potential joint tourism ventures which could lead to improved conservation and development of these resources. There are many

¹⁶⁷ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

¹⁶⁸ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

¹⁶⁹ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

¹⁷⁰ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

¹⁷¹ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

¹⁷² D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

definitions regarding the term, 'collaboration', yet it is commonly accepted as being essentially concerned with 'joint efforts'.¹⁷³

3.2. The Theory of Collaboration

As indicated above, collaboration can often add a competitive advantage to the development of tourism as stakeholders are given a platform for combining their knowledge, expertise, finances, as well as other resources.¹⁷⁴ Furthermore, collaboration often occurs where complex problems are identified and cannot be solved by a single organization. This then leads to joint decision-making approaches, which involve multiple stakeholders, in order to address or solve the issue at hand.¹⁷⁵ J.S. Harrison and R.E. Freeman have defined a 'stakeholder' as the following:

Group(s) or individual(s) that can effect or are affected by an achievement of an organization's objectives.¹⁷⁶

'The Stakeholder Map' (Figure 1), as adapted by M. Doppelfeld in 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions' is used here to illustrate the complexity of the potential stakeholders who are commonly involved in the collaboration process.¹⁷⁷ These include: tourism planners; local businesses; employees; national business

¹⁷³ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

¹⁷⁴ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications.

¹⁷⁵ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

¹⁷⁶ J.S. Harrison and R.E. Freeman, 'Stakeholders, Social Responsibility, and Performance: Empirical Evidence and Theoretical Perspectives', in *Academy of Management Journal* 42(5), (1999), pp. 479-485.

¹⁷⁷ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

chains; residents; government; activist groups; competitors; and tourists.



Figure 1: Tourism Stakeholder Map¹⁷⁸

After identifying the type of stakeholders who are potentially involved at a destination domain, it is therefore necessary to identify the key stakeholders in order to carry out an effective collaboration process.¹⁷⁹ There are a number of elements that need to be considered when planning and establishing collaboration at a tourism destination, such as: the complexity of the destination domain; collaboration between various stakeholders; the scale, scope and structure of collaboration; and the implementation and institutionalization of collaboration.¹⁸⁰

¹⁷⁸ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

¹⁷⁹ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

¹⁸⁰ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

The multiple stakeholders who are involved at a tourist destination may often hold diverse views on tourism development and may also have varying degrees of influence over the decision-making process.¹⁸¹ There are often conflicts over the different interests of the private and public sectors with regard to a number of activities that can impact the economic, ecological and socio-cultural well-being of the people.¹⁸² Another case whereby complexity is intensified is when communities located in or around protected areas become extremely vulnerable in the collaboration and planning process.

B. Farrell and L. Twinning-Ward have noted that the interaction between tourism and other sectors, such as mining or conservation agencies, can often increase the complexity of a destination domain.¹⁸³

P. Eagles highlights that collaboration is therefore essential for the management of tourism as it creates an understanding that the relationship between tourism and the other sectors is an interrelated and interactive one.¹⁸⁴

Conservation and tourism, for example, could be considered as two interdependent systems, yet they are conducted by two very different organizations within and outside of the tourism destination.¹⁸⁵ Therefore, the integration of tourism into the traditional functions of a park or protected area is not an easy option due to financial

¹⁸¹ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

¹⁸² T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

¹⁸³ B. Farrell and L. Twinning-Ward, 'Reconceptualising Tourism', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 2, (2004), pp. 274-295.

¹⁸⁴ P. Eagles, 'Global trends affecting tourism in protected areas, in R. Bushell and P. Eagles (eds.), *Tourism in Protected Areas: Benefits beyond Boundaries*, (2007), pp. 27-43, Walingford: CAB International.

¹⁸⁵ P. Eagles, 'Global trends affecting tourism in protected areas, in R. Bushell and P. Eagles (eds.), *Tourism in Protected Areas: Benefits beyond Boundaries*, (2007), pp. 27-43, Walingford: CAB International.

constraints and the complexity of the domain destination.¹⁸⁶ In other words, the management of protected areas becomes complex as it is considered to include the balancing of tourism management along with the conservation and protection of cultural and natural resources. The tourism industry and park agencies should therefore collaborate and form partnerships for mutual benefit. However, G. Budowski warns that park management should not be run by the tourism authorities.¹⁸⁷ Tourism and conservation agencies both have different sets of knowledge, training programmes, resources and priorities and these should be utilised separately but also in collaboration with one another.

The tourism destination domain has also been labelled as a “turbulent environment” due to the complexities brought about by the presence of multiple stakeholders.¹⁸⁸ Therefore, in order to cope with the “turbulence” of the destination environment, E. Trist has argued that the organizations will need to shift their focus from intra-organizational to a more inter-organizational domain.¹⁸⁹ An intra-organizational domain implies that business or collaborative methods are done within an organization and there is no relationship with external forces.¹⁹⁰ The proposed shift to an inter-organizational domain would essentially mean that organization’s focus will look at

¹⁸⁶ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, ‘Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability’, in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

¹⁸⁷ G. Budowski, ‘Tourism and environmental conservation: Conflict, coexistence, or symbiosis?’, in *Environmental Conservation* 3(1), (1976), pp. 27-31.

¹⁸⁸ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, ‘Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability’, in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

¹⁸⁹ E.L. Trist, ‘Referent organizations and the development of inter-organizational domains’, in *Human Relations* 36, (1983), pp. 247-268.

¹⁹⁰ E.L. Trist, ‘Referent organizations and the development of inter-organizational domains’, in *Human Relations* 36, (1983), pp. 247-268.

determining goals and objectives which will maximize the interests of all the stakeholders involved.¹⁹¹

Jamal and Stronza have identified five key characteristics that are associated with inter-organizational collaboration.¹⁹² Firstly, all stakeholders are interdependent, meaning they depend on each other to ensure a successful collaboration process. Secondly, solutions may emerge by constructively dealing with the diverse values and views of all the stakeholders. Thirdly, when it comes to decision-making all stakeholders are involved in a joint decision-making process. The fourth characteristic states that the stakeholders must all assume a collective responsibility for the on-going plans and direction of the destination environment. Finally, the fifth characteristic sees collaboration as an emergent process by which organizations collectively deal with the complexity of the destination.¹⁹³

Furthermore, Gray has identified the need to involve the key individuals and groups of stakeholders as early as possible as it may be impossible to incorporate them at a later stage in the process.¹⁹⁴ Therefore, his three stage framework outlines the different phases of the collaboration framework: problem setting; direction setting; and implementation or institutionalization.¹⁹⁵ It is also necessary to ensure that there is an equal distribution of power and benefits throughout

¹⁹¹ E.L. Trist, 'Referent organizations and the development of inter-organizational domains', in *Human Relations* 36, (1983), pp. 247-268.

¹⁹² T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

¹⁹³ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

¹⁹⁴ B. Gray, *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*, (1989), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

¹⁹⁵ B. Gray, *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*, (1989), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

this three-phase framework and joint decision-making is a critical step in achieving this.¹⁹⁶

Table 1 provides a visual representation of the collaboration process, redrawn from the work of Gray:¹⁹⁷

Table 1: Gray's Three-Phase Collaboration Process¹⁹⁸

Stages and Propositions	Facilitating Conditions	Actions/Steps
<p><i>Stage I</i></p> <p>Problem Setting</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Recognition of interdependence; ▪ Identification of required number of stakeholders; ▪ Perceptions of legitimacy of stakeholders; ▪ Legitimate/skilled convener; ▪ Positive beliefs about outcomes; ▪ Shared access power; ▪ Mandate (external or internal); ▪ Adequate resources to convene and enable collaboration process. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Define purpose and domain; ▪ Identify convener; ▪ Convene stakeholders; ▪ Define problems and issues to resolve; ▪ Identify and legitimize stakeholders; ▪ Build commitment to collaborate by raising awareness of interdependence; ▪ Balancing of power differences; ▪ Addressing stakeholder concerns; ▪ Ensure adequate resources available to collaboration to proceed with key stakeholders present.
<p><i>Stage II</i></p> <p>Direction Setting</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Coincidence of values; ▪ Dispersion of power among stakeholders. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Collect and share information; ▪ Appreciate shared values, enhance perceived interdependence; ▪ Ensure power is distributed equally among stakeholders; ▪ Establish rules and agenda for direction setting; ▪ Organization of sub-groups; ▪ List alternatives ; ▪ Discuss various options; ▪ Select appropriate solutions; ▪ Arrive at shared vision or plan/strategy through consensus.
<p><i>Stage III</i></p> <p>Implementation/Institutionalization</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ High degree of on-going interdependence; ▪ External mandates; ▪ Redistribution of power; ▪ Influencing the contextual environment. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Discuss means of implementation and monitoring solutions, shared visions, plans and strategies; ▪ Select suitable structures for the institutionalization process; ▪ Assign goals and tasks; ▪ Monitor on-going progress and ensure compliance to collaboration decisions.

¹⁹⁶ B. Gray, *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*, (1989), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass; T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

¹⁹⁷ B. Gray, *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*, (1989), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass; T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

¹⁹⁸ B. Gray, *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*, (1989), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

The three-phase process can be summed up in the following manner. The first stage, problem-setting, is where the key stakeholders, as well as the main issue regarding the domain, are identified. Secondly, the direction-setting stage is where the identification and sharing of future collaborative interpretations occur. It is also the stage whereby all stakeholders aim to achieve a common purpose. The third and final stage is where the implementation of all ideas and objectives occurs. It also includes the implementation of all shared decisions as the domain develops.¹⁹⁹

In the light of the three stage collaboration process, it is important to note that it may often occur over numerous organizational levels which include: local regional; national; and international levels.²⁰⁰ These collaborative arrangements can either be formalized or they may operate through informal agreements and unstructured forums.²⁰¹ The collaboration process may focus on various issues and topics within the destination domain. Discussions by stakeholders at a protected areas domain, for example, may include issues such as: conservation; the use of resources; economic development; poverty alleviation; cultural protection; heritage management; tourism growth; and many other issues.²⁰²

The collaboration process, as defined earlier in the chapter, discusses an interaction between autonomous and key stakeholders who often form partnerships to sustain the need for joint decision-making.

¹⁹⁹ B. Gray, *Collaborating: Finding common ground for multiparty problems*, (1989), San Francisco: Jossey-Bass

²⁰⁰ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

²⁰¹ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

²⁰² T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

Timothy has identified four types of partnerships which are considered to be essential in the context of tourism planning and management.²⁰³

Figure 2 has been redrawn to outline this further.

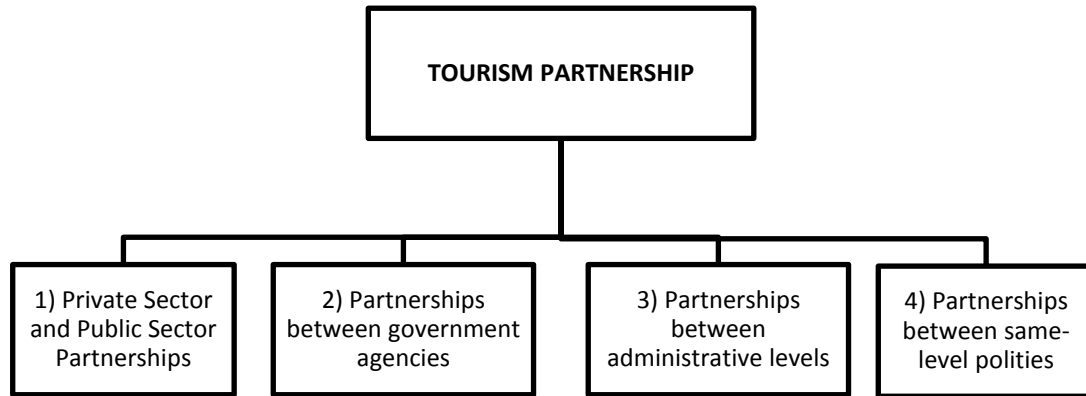


Figure 2: Types of Partnerships in Tourism²⁰⁴

Firstly, the private-public sector partnership (which includes Non-Government Organizations (NGO's)), are important as the public sector often depends on private investors to provide services and finance for the development of tourism facilities.²⁰⁵ Yet at the same time, private sector initiatives often require government (public sector) support, approvals and infrastructure development.²⁰⁶

The cooperation between government agencies is the second type of partnership which should be established in tourism. It is essential that coordinated efforts between these agencies are established as they can decrease misunderstandings and conflicts over goals and

²⁰³ D. Timothy, 'Cooperative tourism planning in a developing destination', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 6(1), pp. 52-68.

²⁰⁴ D. Timothy, 'Cooperative tourism planning in a developing destination', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 6(1), pp. 52-68.

²⁰⁵ D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

²⁰⁶ D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

objectives; assist in eliminating the rates of unemployment; and they help avoid the duplication of research and development projects.²⁰⁷

The development of tourism in a region often requires coordinated efforts between two or more administration levels, such as national, provincial, municipal, or district administrative agencies.²⁰⁸ This is therefore the third type of partnership and it is essential as each level is often responsible for different elements of the tourism system as a whole.

Finally, according to Timothy the partnerships between same-level polities are especially important in areas where natural and cultural resources lie adjacent to or across international boundaries. They have the potential of preventing the over-utilisation or even the under-utilisation of resources and can even eliminate some economic, social and environmental disparities that occur on opposite sides of the border.²⁰⁹

O. Martinez also analyses the levels of tourism collaboration but in terms of cross-border. His 1994 four-type typology of cross-border partnerships in tourism returns to the field of border studies, as discussed in Chapter 1 and 2, and it looks at the evolution of alliances which are formed in border regions.²¹⁰ The original typology is illustrated in Figure 3 below:

²⁰⁷ D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

²⁰⁸ D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

²⁰⁹ D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

²¹⁰ O. Martinez, 'The dynamics of border interaction: New approaches to border analysis', in CH. Schofield (ed.) , *World Boundaries Vol. 1: Global Boundaries*, (1994), pp. 1-15, London: Routledge.

Figure 3: Martinez’s Four-Type Typology of Cross-Border Interaction²¹¹

Martinez has identified the first type of interaction, ‘alienated’ borderlands, as being the regions where day-to-day communication and interactions between the populations are minimal.²¹² The second type is the ‘coexistent’ borderland regions, and this is where minimal levels of interaction at slightly open frontiers occur. ‘Interdependent’ borderlands are characterised by the willingness between adjacent countries to form cross-border partnerships. The fourth, and final type, is the ‘integrated’ borderlands and this is where all significant political and economic barriers have been eliminated and there is a free flow of trade and people.²¹³

Martinez’s typology has since been readapted, due to a number of advances in tourism research, by scholars such as Doppelfeld and Timothy. They have merely added to the original model and integrated two new concepts, namely: ‘cooperation’ and ‘collaboration’.²¹⁴ Therefore, the diagram below (Figure 4) sets out the adapted model of different levels of cross-border partnership in tourism, or the five-part typology of cross-border partnership in tourism.

²¹¹ O. Martinez, ‘The dynamics of border interaction: New approaches to border analysis’, in CH. Schofield (ed.), *World Boundaries Vol. 1: Global Boundaries*, (1994), pp. 1-15, London: Routledge; D. Timothy, ‘Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border’, in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

²¹² O. Martinez, ‘The dynamics of border interaction: New approaches to border analysis’, in CH. Schofield (ed.), *World Boundaries Vol. 1: Global Boundaries*, (1994), pp. 1-15, London: Routledge.

²¹³ O. Martinez, ‘The dynamics of border interaction: New approaches to border analysis’, in CH. Schofield (ed.), *World Boundaries Vol. 1: Global Boundaries*, (1994), pp. 1-15, London: Routledge.

²¹⁴ M. Doppelfeld, ‘Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa’, in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing; D. Timothy, ‘Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border’, in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

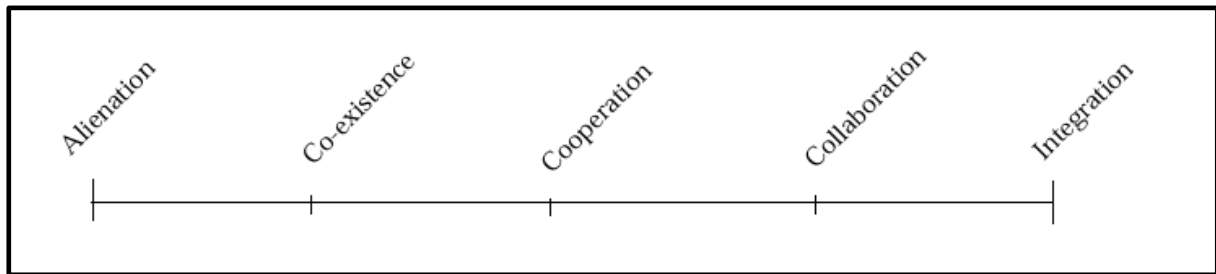


Figure 4: Levels of Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism²¹⁵

Doppelfeld and Timothy's five-type typology now includes the concepts, alienation; co-existence; cooperation; collaboration; and integration. Firstly, they regard alienation as being characterised by partnerships being non-existent between the multiple nations that are involved. The co-existence level, being the same as the original model, denotes that there are minimal levels of partnership and interaction between the nations. Thirdly, the new level of cooperation or cooperative partnerships are characterised by the initial efforts that are made between adjacent authorities to solve common problems such as illegal migrations and the utilisation of resources. Collaboration occurs in regions where bi-national (or multi-national) relations are considered to be stable and joint-efforts are already established. Finally, integrated partnerships are those which exist with no hindrances from the boundary and all nations in the region have merged completely.²¹⁶

It is important to note that in a global sense, international cross-border partnerships are considered to be the ultimate form of partnership.²¹⁷ The so-called "supranational alliances", as discussed earlier are therefore seen as regional cross-border tourism

²¹⁵ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing; D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

²¹⁶ J. Blatter, 'Explaining cross-border cooperation: a border focussed and border-external approach, in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 12(1-2), (2000), pp. 151-174.

²¹⁷ D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

partnerships. However, these cross-border partnerships are time consuming and are very costly and often result in outcomes which are not equal to original efforts.²¹⁸ Therefore, these partnerships require careful planning and formalisation rather than just linkages between authorities and the private sector within a country. It goes without saying that greater degrees of efficiency, integration, balance and harmony will result from the formation of regional tourism partnerships.²¹⁹

3.3. Regional Collaboration in Tourism

As indicated in Chapters 1 and 2, the last two decades have seen many international borders become more permeable, especially in the context of the European Union (EU), where integration policies are promoting borders as places of communication rather than barriers.²²⁰ This new form of governance has been conceptualized as 'cross-border regionalization' by authors such as J. Häkli.²²¹ Tourism has become one of the most pioneering industries as travellers have always found the urge to challenge boundaries. Tourists continue to cross over national borders and tourism developers have also now started to expand their interests across these boundaries. Thus, this had led to the development of transnational tourist destinations.²²² Examples of

²¹⁸ D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

²¹⁹ J. Blatter, 'Explaining cross-border cooperation: a border focussed and border-external approach, in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 12(1-2), (2000), pp. 151-174.

²²⁰ E.K. Prokkola, 'Cross-border Regionalization and Tourism Development at the Swedish-Finnish Border: Destination Arctic Circle', in *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(2), (2007), pp. 120-138

²²¹ J. Häkli, 'Governing the mountains: Cross-border regionalization in Catalonia, in O. Kramsch and B. Hooper (eds.), *Cross-Border Governance in the European Union*, (2004), pp. 56-69, London: Routledge.

²²² E.K. Prokkola, 'Cross-border Regionalization and Tourism Development at the Swedish-Finnish Border: Destination Arctic Circle', in *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(2), (2007), pp. 120-138.

these include the Land of the Arctic Circle in Europe²²³, local examples include the TFCAs found throughout southern Africa such as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area (South Africa, Zimbabwe and Mozambique) and the Maloti-Drakensberg Transfrontier Park (South Africa and Lesotho).²²⁴

Cross-border regions are often regarded by researchers as 'laboratories' where the advancement of the integration process between multiple nations can be measured and evaluated.²²⁵ A cross-border region, as described by M. Perkmann and N. Sum, is "a territorial unit that comprises contiguous sub-national units from two or more nation states".²²⁶ The process of regionalization is understood to be a political project where the goal is to bring the enterprise and decision making to a regional level, and to promote cooperation and regional competitiveness.²²⁷

Therefore, with regard to the above mentioned statement, it can be noted that governments all over the world are starting to form regional partnerships and collaborative frameworks for the sake of increasing their competitiveness as a region and their marketability for tourism. The EU and the SADC will be analysed and discussed in the sections that follow to provide an outline of how organisations, which focus on

²²³ E.K. Prokkola, 'Cross-border Regionalization and Tourism Development at the Swedish-Finnish Border: Destination Arctic Circle', in *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(2), (2007), PP. 120-138.

²²⁴ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

²²⁵ H. Knippenberg, 'The Maas-Rhine Euroregion: A Laboratory for European Integration', in *Geopolitics* 9, (2004), pp. 608-626.

²²⁶ M. Perkmann and N. Sum, 'Globalization, regionalization and cross-border regions: Scales, discourses and governance', in M. Perkmann and N. Sum (eds.), *Globalization, Regionalization and Cross-Border Regions*, (2002), pp. 3-21, Hampshire: Palgrave Macmillan.

²²⁷ E.K. Prokkola, 'Cross-border Regionalization and Tourism Development at the Swedish-Finnish Border: Destination Arctic Circle', in *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism* 7(2), (2007), PP. 120-138.

regional collaboration, are important for cross-border tourism development.

The European Union, or otherwise known as the EU, is a unified organization that consists of 27 European member states with the sole purpose of creating a political and economic community throughout the continent.²²⁸ The member states and the date of their inclusion, as a member state of the EU, are outlined in Table 2.

Prior to the formal establishment of the EU in 1993, the forerunners of the European collaboration began to cooperate just after the Second World War during the late 1940s. In an effort to unite all the War stricken countries of the continent, cooperation began in the early 1950s between Belgium; France; Germany; Italy; Luxembourg and Netherlands.²²⁹ In 1987, the Single European Act was signed with the intention of creating a “single market” for trade. The continent was further unified in 1989 when the boundary between East and West Germany (i.e. the Berlin Wall) was eliminated.²³⁰ Throughout the 1990s, the idea of a “single market” allowed for easier trade and more citizen interaction based on issues such as the environment and security. One vital factor that is evident is that travel throughout the different countries increased as it was much more accessible and there were a lot less barriers to overcome in travel.²³¹ On February 7th 1992 the Treaty of Maastricht founding the European Union was signed and finally put into action on November 1st 1993.²³² Upon the signing of

²²⁸ The European Union, (2013), Internet: <http://europa.eu/about-eu>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

²²⁹ The European Union, (2013), Internet: <http://europa.eu/about-eu>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

²³⁰ The European Union, (2013), Internet: <http://europa.eu/about-eu>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

²³¹ P. Rita, ‘Tourism in the European Union’, in *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality* 12(7), (2000), pp. 434-436.

²³² The European Union, (2013), Internet: <http://europa.eu/about-eu>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

this treaty, five goals were established to achieve the unification of Europe. They are as follows: to strengthen the demographic governance of participating nations; to improve the efficiency of nations; to establish an economic and financial unification; to develop a “community social dimension”; and to establish a security policy for nations involved.²³³

Table 2: EU Member States²³⁴

Country	Year of Inclusion in EU
Austria	1995
Belgium	1952
Bulgaria	2007
Croatia	2013
Cyprus	2004
Czech Republic	2004
Denmark	1973
Estonia	2004
Finland	1995
France	1952
Germany	1952
Greece	1981
Hungary	2004
Republic of Ireland	1973
Italy	1952
Latvia	2004
Lithuania	2004
Luxembourg	1952
Malta	2004
Netherlands	1952
Poland	2004
Portugal	1986
Romania	2007
Slovakia	2004
Slovenia	2004
Spain	1986
Sweden	1995
United Kingdom	1973

²³³ The European Union, (2013), Internet: <http://europa.eu/about-eu>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

²³⁴ The European Union, (2013), Internet: http://europa.eu/about-eu/countries/index_en.htm, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

Europe is one of the main tourism regions in the world and it accounts for more than 59 per cent of international tourist arrivals and more than 52 per cent of tourism revenues.²³⁵ Europe is also considered to be one of the main tourism generating markets on a global scale. Tourism is an essential economic activity with regards to the EU's GDP, employment rates and the external trade in services.²³⁶ In the context of the EU, tourism is often seen as a means to encourage a macro-regional consensus among the citizens.²³⁷

The EU has also introduced innovative policies and initiatives to increase the free movement of people across the region and allow for increased trade. The introduction of the Schengen Visa in 1995 was a clear indication of the EU adhering to their original plans and objectives of creating a cross-border region. The Visa has been proven to have created a much easier and less bureaucratic travelling environment for the 25 member countries.²³⁸ The Schengen Visa includes 22 EU states and three non-EU states²³⁹ and it is therefore important for applicants to understand which EU states are members of the Schengen Visa system.

Travelling with a Schengen Visa allows the holder to travel to any of the member states by using the single Visa, thus avoiding the hassle and expense of obtaining individual visas for each individual country.²⁴⁰

²³⁵ P. Rita, 'Tourism in the European Union', in *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality* 12(7), (2000), pp. 434-436.

²³⁶ P. Rita, 'Tourism in the European Union', in *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality* 12(7), (2000), pp. 434-436.

²³⁷ D. McNeil, *New Europe: Imagined Spaces*, (2004), New York: Oxford University Press Inc.

²³⁸ List of 25 Schengen Member States - Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Iceland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, Netherlands, Norway, Poland, Portugal, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden, and Switzerland.

²³⁹ Schengen Visa, (2013), Internet: <http://www.schengenvisa.cc/>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁴⁰ Schengen Visa, (2013), Internet: <http://www.schengenvisa.cc/>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

This concept has proven to be beneficial for visitors who wish to visit several European countries during the same trip.²⁴¹ The Schengen Visa is strictly a “visitor visa” or a tourist visa that is issued to citizens of countries that are required to obtain a visa before entering any country in Europe. The purpose of this visit is strictly confined to leisure, tourism or business and a tourist will have to clearly identify their purpose of visit.²⁴² The Visa holder is allowed to travel freely within the member states for a maximum stay of 90 days within a six month period.²⁴³

Another key factor in the integration of the EU was the introduction of the Euro (€), which is a single currency that is shared by 18 of the EU member states.²⁴⁴ The introduction in 1999 was a major step towards the integration of the region and currently more than 333 million citizens use the currency.²⁴⁵ Although this single currency is more of a topic for economic discussion, it has however made travel a lot easier as tourists may now carry one currency from one country to another, thus relieving them of the burden of continually exchanging currency.²⁴⁶ However, as the Euro has only been accepted in 18 member states²⁴⁷ travellers need to be aware of where they can and cannot use the currency.

²⁴¹ Schengen Visa, (2013), Internet: <http://www.schengenvisa.cc/>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁴² Schengen Visa, (2013), Internet: <http://www.schengenvisa.cc/>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁴³ Schengen Visa, (2013), Internet: <http://www.schengenvisa.cc/>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁴⁴ The European Union, (2013), Internet: <http://europa.eu/about-eu>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

²⁴⁵ P. Rita, ‘Tourism in the European Union’, in *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality* 12(7), (2000), pp. 434-436.

²⁴⁶ P. Rita, ‘Tourism in the European Union’, in *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality* 12(7), (2000), pp. 434-436.

²⁴⁷ List of euro member states (and dates of inclusion) – Belgium, Germany, Ireland, Spain, France, Italy, Luxembourg, Netherlands, Austria, Portugal, and Finland (1999); Greece (2001); Slovenia (2007); Cyprus and Malta (2008); Slovakia (2009); Estonia (2011); Latvia (2014).

The Southern African Development Community (SADC) was originally established as the Southern African Development Coordinating Conference (SADCC) in 1980, but was later transformed into the SADC in 1992.²⁴⁸ It was established as an inter-governmental organization whose goal was to promote sustainable and equitable economic growth and socio-economic development among fifteen member states of southern Africa.²⁴⁹ The member states, along with their dates of inclusion, are listed in Table 3 below:

Table 3: The SADC Member States²⁵⁰

Country	Year of Inclusion
Angola	1997
Botswana	1997
Democratic Republic of the Congo	1997
Lesotho	2014
Madagascar	2014
Malawi	1995
Mauritius	1995
Mozambique	1990
Namibia	1990
Seychelles	2008
South Africa	1994
Swaziland	1980
Tanzania	1980
Zambia	1980
Zimbabwe	1980

The organization strives for regional integration to promote economic growth, peace and security in southern Africa. It aims to share

²⁴⁸ The Southern African Development Community, (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁴⁹ The Southern African Development Community, (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁵⁰ The Southern African Development Community, (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

common political values, systems and institutions among the member states in order to: build social and cultural ties; help alleviate poverty; and enhance the standard of living among a regional population of over 250 million.²⁵¹ Furthermore, in September 1999, the Heads of State and the Government of the Organisation of African Unity (OAU) issued a declaration calling for the establishment of the African Union (AU) with the aim of accelerating the process of continental integration.²⁵² The establishment of the union thus enabled Africa to:

...play a rightful role in the global economy while also addressing multifaceted social, economic and political problems by certain aspects of globalisation.²⁵³

Some of the main objectives of the AU are in parallel with the objectives of the EU and thus the similarities between the two unions are evidently clear. Some of the parallel objectives include, amongst others: to defend the sovereignty, territorial integrity and independence of its member states; to promote peace, security, and stability on the continent; and to promote sustainable development at the economic, social and cultural levels as well as the integration of Member State's economies.²⁵⁴

The SADC has also been active in developing an idea of a regional visa and the Regional Tourism Organization of Southern Africa (RETOSA) has since devised a concept, based on the Schengen Visa,

²⁵¹ South Africa Info, (2014), Internet: <http://www.southafrica.info/africa/sadc>, Accessed: 10 March 2014.

²⁵² The African Union, (2014), 'AU in a Nutshell', Internet: <http://www.au.int/en/about/nutshell>, Accessed: 02 July 2014.

²⁵³ The African Union, (2014), 'AU in a Nutshell', Internet: <http://www.au.int/en/about/nutshell>, Accessed: 02 July 2014.

²⁵⁴ The African Union, (2014), 'AU in a Nutshell', Internet: <http://www.au.int/en/about/nutshell>, Accessed: 02 July 2014; The European Union, (2013), Internet: <http://europa.eu/about-eu>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

known as the Univisa.²⁵⁵ RETOSA, which is a private regional institution of the SADC, have developed frameworks, such as the *Regional Infrastructure Development Plan: Tourism (TFCAs) Sector*, with the objective of developing TFCAs in the region.²⁵⁶ RETOSA is also responsible for tourism growth and development within the SADC.²⁵⁷ The aims of RETOSA include: increasing tourist arrivals to the region through sustainable development initiatives, improved regional competitiveness, as well as effective destination marketing. Therefore, like its European equivalent, the Univisa will permit the holder to travel across the 15 member states for leisure or tourism purposes.²⁵⁸ The project has three primary aims: to increase tourist arrivals and revenue from tourism within the region; to strengthen the regional tourism segment (i.e. travel to multiple countries); and to foster the international competitiveness of southern Africa.²⁵⁹

However, unlike the Schengen Visa, the Univisa has yet to be established since its proposal around 1995. The main reason for this is that many SADC member states have rejected the proposal and idea on a number of occasions. For example, Botswana has rejected the concept on numerous occasions. Their most recent objection in December 2012 reiterates their belief that there will be issues of safety and security associated with the implementation of the visa.²⁶⁰

²⁵⁵ A. Douglas; B.A. Lubbe and E.A. Kruger, 'Would a single regional visa encourage tourist arrivals in southern Africa?' in *Development Southern Africa* 29(3), (2012), pp. 488-505.

²⁵⁶ RETOSA, *Regional Infrastructure Development Plan: Tourism (TFCAs) Sector Plan*, (2012).

²⁵⁷ RETOSA, (2014), 'About Us', Internet: <http://www.retosa.co.za/Retosa-About-Us.aspx>, Accessed: 02 July 2014.

²⁵⁸ A. Douglas; B.A. Lubbe; and E.A. Kruger, 'Would a single regional visa encourage tourist arrivals in southern Africa?' in *Development Southern Africa* 29(3), (2012), pp. 488-505.

²⁵⁹ RETOSA, *SADC UNIVISA: An Economic Case Study*, (2010, GRF Tourism Planning).

²⁶⁰ M. Dube, 'Botswana rejects SADC common visa plan', Internet: <http://www.africareview.com/News/Botswana-rejects-SADC>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

The case of the SADC Univisa is a clear example of how so-called collaborative frameworks can be hindered by disagreements between stakeholders regarding a certain issue. It is therefore evident that there is a need for more collaboration and cooperation regarding the concept of the Univisa.

Another important initiative by the SADC is the introduction of the 26 SADC protocols which are legal instruments which have been established to help guide and standardise the activities of the member states.²⁶¹ A protocol is described as a legally binding document that commits the member states to the objectives and specific procedures that are outlined within it.²⁶² In order for a Protocol to be entered in to force, two thirds of the 15 member states (i.e. at least 10 of the member states) need to sign the document, which essentially gives their formal consent and then the document becomes valid.²⁶³

The two most relevant protocols, in the context of this dissertation, are the *Protocol on the Development of Tourism* (established in 1998); and the *Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement* (established in 1999).²⁶⁴ These Protocols will be discussed with the intention of displaying the current steps that are being taken for tourism development in the region, and more specifically in the TFCAs.

²⁶¹ The Southern African Development Community, 'The SADC Protocols', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.org/sadcprotocols>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁶² The Southern African Development Community, 'The SADC Protocols', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.org/sadcprotocols>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁶³ The Southern African Development Community, 'The SADC Protocols', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.org/sadcprotocols>, Accessed: 13 April 2013

²⁶⁴ The Southern African Development Community, 'The SADC Protocols', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.org/sadcprotocols>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

a) The SADC Protocol on Tourism

The SADC have recognised tourism as a particular sector with regards to the overall development of the region, mainly due to the fact that it is a fast growing industry with socio-economic benefits.²⁶⁵ In order to develop an increased interest for tourism development in the region and to increase economic development, the SADC passed the Protocol on September 14th 1998 and it was finally amended in 2009.²⁶⁶ All 15 member states of the SADC have signed this Protocol, thus emphasising the recognised importance of tourism for the region.

The Protocol seeks to build upon the potential of the region as a tourist destination and it intends to ensure an even distribution of tourism development throughout the region. By creating a favourable environment for tourism, the SADC can then use it as a vehicle for socio-economic development.²⁶⁷ The Protocol has established systems for the facilitation of travel and the marketing and promotion of the region as a tourism destination.²⁶⁸

In the 'Preamble' of the document it is highlighted that the member states are aware of the global significance of tourism as the world's largest and fastest growing industry and it is recognised as an instrument for promoting economic development, understanding, goodwill and close relations between people.²⁶⁹ The member states

²⁶⁵ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Development of Tourism', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/818>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁶⁶ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Development of Tourism', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/818>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁶⁷ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Development of Tourism', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/818>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁶⁸ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Development of Tourism', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/818>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁶⁹ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Development of Tourism', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/818>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

have also recognised that the southern African region has a rich tourism potential with a variety of natural features as well as sites that offer diverse historical and cultural attractions.²⁷⁰

In 'Chapter II, Article 2' of the Protocol the objectives are listed and these focus on using tourism to facilitate economic growth for the region as a whole. One of the objectives states the need to use tourism as a tool for achieving sustainable socio-economic development and this can only be achieved if the potential of tourism, as an instrument for economic development is realised by all member states. Another objective looks at local community development through the establishment of small and micro-enterprises and the woman and youth are especially encouraged to engage in this. In addition to this, the Protocol aims to contribute to the development of human resources through the establishment of skills development and the creation of jobs. One of the most important objectives is one that looks at the facilitation of intra-regional travel through the removal of visa requirements and the harmonization of immigration procedures.²⁷¹

In 'Chapter IV, Article 5: Travel Facilitation', the first issue that is raised is the call for member states to make the entry of and the travel of visitors as smooth as possible. They also have the responsibility to remove practices that are likely to create obstacles to the development of travel and tourism both regionally and internationally.²⁷² Some of the solutions to this include: improving transport such as air, land and sea between the member states; the

²⁷⁰ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Development of Tourism', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/818>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁷¹ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Development of Tourism', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/818>, Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁷² The South African Development Community, *Protocol on the Development of Tourism*, (1998).

removal of visas; creating a single tourist visa; and the harmonization of legislation pertaining to tourism and the movement of peoples.²⁷³

Another relevant section is 'Article 11 of Chapter IV' and this looks at Environmentally Sustainable Tourism.²⁷⁴ The full Protocol can be found in Annexure 3.

b) The SADC Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement

It goes without saying that Africa, let alone southern Africa, has one of the world's best natural resource bases and since the very earliest times tourists have travelled to the region to experience these unique attractions.²⁷⁵ Furthermore, wildlife resources in southern Africa have the potential to affect the region's economic development and environmental protection, which are two primary concerns for the SADC.²⁷⁶ Therefore on August 18th 1999 the SADC passed the *Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement* in order to establish a common framework for conservation and sustainable use of wildlife in the region.²⁷⁷ The full Protocol can be found in Annexure 4.

With the signing of the Protocol, all of the member states therefore agree to the policy as well as the administrative and legal measures for promoting conservation and sustainable wildlife practices. As part

²⁷³ The South African Development Community, *Protocol on the Development of Tourism*, (1998).

²⁷⁴ The South African Development Community, *Protocol on the Development of Tourism*, (1998).

²⁷⁵ W. van Beek and M. Spierenburg, 'Tourism in Africa', *African Studies Centre Information Sheet*, (2008), African Studies Centre: Netherlands; M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

²⁷⁶ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁷⁷ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

of the Protocol, the member states agree to address the following issues: harmonise legal instruments for wildlife; establish management programmes for wildlife; create a regional database of wildlife status and management; and develop initiatives such as Transfrontier Conservation Areas.²⁷⁸

In the 'Preamble' of the document it states that the member states have the sovereign right to manage their wildlife resources and the corresponding responsibility to sustainably use and conserve these resources. It further states that member states should be aware that the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife can contribute to sustainable economic development and the conservation of biological diversity within the region.²⁷⁹ Wildlife resources, which are found in the region, require collective and co-operative action by all member states and it is believed that the regional management of wildlife will promote awareness of the socio-economic value of wildlife and enable equitable distribution of the benefits derived from the sustainable use of wildlife. Furthermore there is a need for co-operation among member states in enforcing laws which govern wildlife. This information about wildlife resources and wildlife law enforcement needs to be shared amongst members. In doing this, member states can then

²⁷⁸ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013; J. Carruthers, 'Creating a National Park, 1910-1926', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 15(2), (1989), pp. 188-216.

²⁷⁹ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

build capacity at both national and regional levels in order to manage wildlife resources and enforce the laws that govern it.²⁸⁰

The next key section of the Protocol is 'Article 4: Objectives', whereby a primary objective is stated and a list of specific objectives are listed. The primary objective is therefore to establish common approaches to the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife resources within all member states. In addition to this, the protocol also aims to assist with the effective enforcement of laws governing these resources.²⁸¹

The specific objectives, which are listed in the Protocol, also address a number of relevant issues such as harmonizing legal instruments which govern wildlife use and conservation and facilitating the exchange of information concerning wildlife management. The two most important objectives are as follows: "to promote the conservation of shared wildlife resources through the establishment of Transfrontier Conservation Areas" and "to facilitate community-based natural resources management practices for management of wildlife resources."²⁸²

These final two objectives clearly identify the need for the development of TFCAs for the purpose of not only promoting the use

²⁸⁰ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁸¹ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁸² The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

of wildlife as a tourism resource, but it also stresses the importance of the conservation of the natural resources of these regions.

There are a number of other sections that are also of relevance to the focus of this study. This starts with Article 6 which looks at which legal instruments are used for the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife; Article 7 then considers issues relating to the management of wildlife and conservation programmes; the sharing of information, which is a vital element in the collaboration process, is included in Article 8 of the Protocol; cooperation, a key topic in wildlife law enforcement is then outlined in Article 9; and finally, the capacity building for effective wildlife management is included in Article 10 of the Protocol.²⁸³

3.4. Collaboration at a Community Level

In areas where natural and cultural resources lie across, or adjacent to, international boundaries, then it is necessary to apply the main principles of sustainable tourism development. These four principles, as discussed by Bramwell and Lane, are as follows: holistic planning and strategy formulation; preservation of ecological processes; protection of cultural and natural heritage; and sustained productivity developed over the long term for future generations.²⁸⁴ These principles, of sustainability, can be further enhanced through the

²⁸³ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

²⁸⁴ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Sustainable Tourism: An Evolving Global Approach', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 1(1), pp. 1-5.

formation of cross-border partnerships and the purpose of community development initiatives such as community-based tourism (CBT).²⁸⁵

The relationship between cultural groups and the biophysical environment is often very complex and it can vary significantly with respect to religious, spiritual, traditional, historical and subsistence relationships.²⁸⁶ Therefore, the stakeholder theory of collaboration in protected areas should take cognisance of integrating the relationship between the private and public sector organizations, the natural area destination (i.e. the biophysical world within the protected area), and those that inhabit the area (i.e. the cultural dimension).²⁸⁷ This situation is further intensified when the key stakeholders, who are not located at the destination, make the decisions and alienate the local communities, who are actually at the destination.²⁸⁸ This may lead to certain other short-term and long-term impacts, as discussed above, such as economic, ecological and socio-cultural issues. Economic impacts may include the unequal distribution of revenue, while ecological impacts may include erosion and other damage associated with development.²⁸⁹ The socio-cultural impacts are caused by the globalization of labour, capital and information which causes

²⁸⁵ D. Timothy, 'Cross-Border Partnership in Tourism Resource Management: International Parks along the US-Canada Border', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 7(3-4), (1999), pp. 182-205.

²⁸⁶ R. Paloniemi and P.M. Tikka, 'Ecological and social aspects of biodiversity conservation on private lands', in *Environmental Science and Policy*, (2008).

²⁸⁷ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

²⁸⁸ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

²⁸⁹ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

multiculturalism or acculturation and challenges the unique heritage of the people in an already fragmented planning domain.²⁹⁰

One of the most important factors of collaboration within local community areas is to ensure unbiased and equal participation of the most disadvantaged or least capable stakeholders (i.e. the local residents). Close attention needs to be paid to not only the input of various stakeholders, but there is also the need for direct participation and control of the local community members in the decision making process.²⁹¹

The process of collaboration at a community level is an important area for the scope of collaborative efforts, especially for the purpose of this thesis. L. Scherl and S. Edwards have identified three major categories regarding the development of tourism in protected areas: community management; involvement of the private/public sector, government and NGOs; and joint ventures.²⁹² They identify two important factors that need to be considered in community-based partnerships. Firstly, these partnerships must ensure the long term sustainability of tourism development as well as the natural and cultural resources in the domain. The second factor emphasises the need for the establishment of community or local ownership, management and control and tourism enterprises and activities.²⁹³

²⁹⁰ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

²⁹¹ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

²⁹² L.M. Scherl and S. Edwards, 'Tourism, indigenous and local communities and protected areas in developing nations', in R. Bushell and P. Eagles (eds.), *Tourism in Protected Areas: Benefits beyond boundaries*, (2007), pp. 71-88, Wallingford: CAB International.

²⁹³ L.M. Scherl and S. Edwards, 'Tourism, indigenous and local communities and protected areas in developing nations', in R. Bushell and P. Eagles (eds.), *Tourism in Protected Areas: Benefits beyond boundaries*, (2007), pp. 71-88, Wallingford: CAB International.

Community-run “Eco-lodges”, community involvement in the guiding of tourists, cultural activities, and the production of goods for the consumption by tourists - these are all examples of how ownership and management of tourism can be placed in the hands of the local community.²⁹⁴

3.5. The Potential Problems and Benefits of Collaboration

It is never an easy discussion when it comes to the debate on the potential problems versus the potential benefits in any situation regarding tourism development, especially within the scope of community-based tourism (CBT) collaboration. Authors such as Doppelfeld,²⁹⁵ and Bramwell and Lane²⁹⁶ have identified numerous potential problems of collaboration and partnerships in tourism planning as well as potential benefits.

The original research conducted by M. Doppelfeld as well as Bramwell and Lane includes a vast list of numerous problems and benefits, respectively. However, for the purpose of this dissertation only the most relevant topics will be discussed below. The original table, which outlines all of the problems and benefits, can be found in Annexure 2.

The problems associated with collaboration and partnerships in tourism, within the context of this study, are as follows:

²⁹⁴ L.M. Scherl and S. Edwards, ‘Tourism, indigenous and local communities and protected areas in developing nations’, in R. Bushell and P. Eagles (eds.), *Tourism in Protected Areas: Benefits beyond boundaries*, (2007), pp. 71-88, Wallingford: CAB International.

²⁹⁵ M. Doppelfeld, ‘Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa’, in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

²⁹⁶ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, ‘Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning’, in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

The first problem that has been identified is that there are often a limited number of traditional community members within a tourism domain who can participate in the policy and decision-making process.²⁹⁷ This is often the case in protected areas and even when traditional members are available, they can sometimes refuse to get involved in tourism related issues.²⁹⁸ They assume that their traditional beliefs will cause conflict with the diverse views of the other stakeholders.²⁹⁹

Collaboration efforts may sometimes be under-resourced in terms of human resources and this relates to the requirements for issues such as additional staff time, leadership and administrative duties.³⁰⁰ As indicated in the first mentioned problem identified above, there may be a number of community members present, but they may not be fully qualified for the task or job that is required. The lack of human resources in terms of the collaborative process is further obstructed by the lack of training, knowledge and expertise of the local community members.³⁰¹

The problem arises that the power within collaborative partnerships can often shift to the groups or individuals with more effective political skills.³⁰² Therefore the local communities or any other group

²⁹⁷ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

²⁹⁸ L.M. Scherl and S. Edwards, 'Tourism, indigenous and local communities and protected areas in developing nations', in R. Bushell and P. Eagles (eds.), *Tourism in Protected Areas: Benefits beyond boundaries*, (2007), pp. 71-88, Wallingford: CAB International.

²⁹⁹ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

³⁰⁰ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³⁰¹ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

³⁰² B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

or individual with little political influence, are often considered to be the minority and are shifted down the 'pecking order' when it comes to the power and the equal share of benefits.³⁰³ The issue of power balance amongst all stakeholders will be discussed further in the next chapter and research by scholars such as R. Scheyvens will be used to elaborate on this.

It is becoming evident that there is often a certain level of obliviousness or "unawareness" or just simply that many stakeholders are uninterested or disinterested in getting involved with a partnership. The next problem that has been identified is that some key groups often decline the opportunity to get involved as they may be uninterested or inactive in terms of working with others.³⁰⁴ In addition to this, stakeholders sometimes involve themselves in a collaborative framework but they decide to rely on the other stakeholders to produce the benefits that were outlined as outcomes of the partnership.³⁰⁵ This is a common case in southern Africa, and especially around the protected areas or even rural areas. Many local communities want the benefits but they have no intention to get involved in the development process. Thus, they become dependent on the private and public sectors to produce the so-called benefits for them.³⁰⁶

³⁰³ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204; The issue of power balance amongst all stakeholders will be discussed further in the next chapter and research by scholars such as R. Scheyvens will be used to elaborate on this.

³⁰⁴ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³⁰⁵ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³⁰⁶ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing; S. Ferreira, 'Problems

The collaboration process may also lead to an increased uncertainty regarding the future of the destination domain as policies that are developed by multiple stakeholders are more difficult to predict compared to those that are established by a single, central authority.³⁰⁷ The involvement of multiple stakeholders is known to increase the complexity of the tourism destination.³⁰⁸ Therefore when these diverse views of the stakeholders are expressed in a single policy it then becomes even harder to evaluate the long term direction of the collaborative efforts.

The need to develop agreements between all stakeholders involved as well as the need to disclose new ideas prior to their actual introduction, may discourage the development of entrepreneurship activities.³⁰⁹ This is a serious issue when it comes to community-based tourism as one of the major activities in this regard is the promotion of small scale enterprises that are developed, owned and managed by the local community members.³¹⁰ Sometimes in order to increase the scope of benefits and initiate a wider distribution of revenue, local community members are encouraged to set up their own tourism related businesses such as guiding companies or localised craft

associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004), pp. 301-310.

³⁰⁷ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³⁰⁸ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

³⁰⁹ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³¹⁰ R. Scheyvens, 'Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities', in *Tourism Management* 20, (1999), pp. 245-249.

groups, both allowing the consumption of unique products by the tourists.³¹¹

The first potential benefit is that stakeholders may often be affected and learn from the multiple issues of tourism development and are then considered to be in a good position to introduce changes and propose certain improvements.³¹² Stakeholders from the higher levels (such as the public sector) do not often possess the same amount of tourism expertise compared to the stakeholders who are at the 'coal face' of the industry (such as the local communities).³¹³ It is clear that each stakeholder brings with them a certain level of expertise and knowledge. Thus, collaborative efforts can be beneficial in terms of sharing experience and knowledge with the potential to develop the tourism industry.

The involvement of multiple stakeholders also has the potential to increase the social acceptance of policies in a way that the implementation and enforcement of these may be easier to effect.³¹⁴ The influence of one stakeholder upon another, within a group of stakeholders, may often have the potential of being beneficial in a way that the minority will understand the proposed policy after consulting with other stakeholders. This, once again, endorses the idea of working together in a way that everyone understands every

³¹¹ R. Scheyvens, 'Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities', in *Tourism Management* 20, (1999), pp. 245-249.

³¹² B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³¹³ H. Goodwin, 'Local Community Involvement in Tourism around National Parks: Opportunities and Constraints', in *Current Issues in Tourism* 5(3-4), (2002), pp. 338-360.

³¹⁴ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

step of the collaboration process which aims to achieve all goals and objectives.

The stakeholders who are directly affected by a certain issue may often gain knowledge and experience from these situations. They are then enabled with the opportunity to bring their newly acquired knowledge and attitudes and other capacities to the policy and decision making processes.³¹⁵ In order to understand this, one should look at the example of local communities in the various processes. It is without a doubt that the local communities have the greatest knowledge and experience of the destination environment. Therefore their knowledge and experience are considered as vital additions to the policy and decision making processes.³¹⁶

A creative synergy, in collaborative efforts, may result from all stakeholders 'working together' and it may also lead to improved innovation and effectiveness of the overall process.³¹⁷ Once again, the idea of 'working together', as expressed by Jamal and Stronza, and Jamal and Getz, emerges and it is clearly evident that numerous benefits can potentially develop from this.³¹⁸ Some of the benefits may include: sharing of capital; sharing of knowledge and expertise; assistance regarding political policies and legislation; and many others. The partnerships can often promote learning capabilities

³¹⁵ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³¹⁶ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204; R. Scheyvens, 'Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities', in *Tourism Management* 20, (1999), pp. 245-249.

³¹⁷ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³¹⁸ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204; T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189.

regarding certain issues, the development of skills, and the development of increased group interaction and negotiation skills which can lead to more successful partnerships.³¹⁹

The stakeholders who are included in the policy and decision making processes may have a greater commitment to actually putting the resulting policies into practice.³²⁰ It has been argued, by scholars such as Jamal and Getz and others involved in CBT research, that the inclusion of the local community members is a priority as it increases their interest and leads to a positive attitude about the issue at hand.³²¹ Therefore, this case is no different. When a stakeholder is involved in the various decision making processes, they will potentially favour the policy, thus the process of implementation is then considered to be easier, quicker and often more effective.

In the process of collaboration and the formation of partnerships, there may be a greater consideration for diverse economic, environmental and social issues that may affect the sustainable development of natural and cultural resources.³²² In some cases, partnerships often reveal a sense of 'togetherness' during the later stages as stakeholders have started to reach a certain consensus and understanding between themselves. Therefore, the tolerance and

³¹⁹ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³²⁰ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³²¹ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204; B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19; H. Goodwin, 'Local Community Involvement in Tourism around National Parks: Opportunities and Constraints', in *Current Issues in Tourism* 5(3-4), (2002), pp. 338-360; K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³²² B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

consideration for each other becomes higher and social, environmental, and economic factors are mutually understood by the group.³²³

There may be a greater recognition of the importance of non-economic issues and interests if they are included in the collaborative framework. This may in turn essentially strengthen the range of tourism products that are available.³²⁴ Examples of non-economic issues include: socio-cultural interests; environmental concerns; traditional lifestyles of the community; and many others.³²⁵ These issues and interests are just as important as economic factors and it is therefore necessary to include them in the collaborative process to increase the scope of the tourism activity experience.

In short, the pooling of resources is often a common practice and this can potentially lead to them being used more effectively.³²⁶ This effectively means that resources, such as cultural or natural resources, are grouped separately for the purpose of sustainable management. By doing this, the resources can be preserved in the specific way that is required, ensuring their use for the long term.³²⁷

The policies that are formed from a decision making process with the engagement of multiple stakeholders may often be more flexible and sensitive to the needs of the local communities and may also take

³²³ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

³²⁴ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³²⁵ V. Cho, 'A Study of the Non-economic Determinants in Tourism Demand', in *International Journal of Tourism Research* 12, (2010), pp. 307-320.

³²⁶ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³²⁷ International Finance Corporation, (2012), Internet: <http://www.ifc.org/>, Accessed: 19 March 2014.

changing conditions into account.³²⁸ If the most crucial stakeholders as well as the right quantity are involved in the decision making process from the start, there is the possibility that policies will be more flexible to everyone's needs. In addition to this, if the local communities are incorporated in all decision making processes, the policies should adhere to their needs and aspirations.³²⁹

Finally, activities that are not directly related to tourism may also be encouraged for the purpose of economic development and the creation of employment.³³⁰ Communities are often encouraged to form small scale enterprises which can be unrelated to tourism. The main aim of developing a community through tourism is to contribute to the overall economic growth and infrastructure development.³³¹

3.6. Conclusion

This chapter has provided an analysis of the concept of collaboration within the tourism industry. It points to the complexities and emphasises the need for the collaboration, or 'working together', of all stakeholders. Within the collaborative framework of Jamal and Stronza, a number of aspects related to partnerships in tourism and the types of cross-border interaction were explored, especially in the domains of protected areas. Stakeholder collaboration is explored in terms of its complexity along with the scale, structure and scope of collaborations. The potential benefits and the potential problems of collaboration of

³²⁸ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³²⁹ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

³³⁰ B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

³³¹ D. Timothy, 'Tourism and community development issues', in R. Sharpley and J. Telfer (eds.), *Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues*, (2002), pp. 149-164.

stakeholders in tourism are also considered. The European Union (EU) was explained as an international, best practice, example, where the Southern African Development Community (SADC) was posited as a local example of collaboration for the purpose of tourism. Two Protocols were analysed in order to determine what legal instruments are being used to promote tourism development in the region, and specifically in the TFCAs.

The next chapter will build on this discussion of collaboration between stakeholders, especially in protected areas, and will focus specifically on the concept of Transfrontier Conservation Areas. It will analyse why they are seen as vehicles for cross-border tourism development, as well as regions that assist in the development of sustainable resource management of both natural and cultural resources.

Chapter 4

Transfrontier Conservation Areas

4.1. Introduction

The biodiversity in southern Africa serves as an important draw card for tourists and over more than three centuries the tourism industry has become almost synonymous with wildlife safaris.³³² The long term conservation of the biodiversity often occurs within protected areas and these may be in the form of national parks and wildlife reserves.³³³ Not only are these parks and reserves important for tourism and generators of foreign exchange for the government, they are also established environments that allow for the protection of wildlife populations from poachers and the ever-expanding human encroachment.³³⁴ The further expansion of these nature-based tourism initiatives can contribute to a general improvement in the quality of life of the people in the region, especially those living in close proximity in and around the parks.³³⁵

However, there are many places in the world where these protected areas are clustered along international boundaries which has

³³² S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310; K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87; J. Carruthers, 'Creating a National Park, 1910-1926', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 15(2), (1989), pp. 188-216; J. Carruthers, 'Africa: Histories, Ecologies and Societies', in *Environment and History* 14(2), (2009), pp. 221-252.

³³³ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³³⁴ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

³³⁵ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

sometimes led to their convergence.³³⁶ This phenomenon, of the joint management of protected areas, came to be known as “Peace Parks”. The first use of the term Peace Park can be traced back to 1932, when the USA developed the Waterton/Glacier International Peace Park along its border with Canada.³³⁷ The two federal governments aimed to establish “an enduring monument of nature of the long-existing relationship of peace and goodwill between the people of the two nations”.³³⁸ Other International examples of TFCAs include: Lake Constance and the trans-boundary cooperation that takes place between Germany and its neighbours (Austria and Switzerland); and the Wadden Sea Transfrontier Conservation Area which straddles the borders of Germany, Denmark and the Netherlands.³³⁹

During the mid-1990s in southern Africa, “Peace Parks” were established with the intention of increasing tourism in the region as well as modernizing conservation policies and the development of rural economies.³⁴⁰ The establishment of Peace Parks in Africa was one of the most ambitious conservation moves since the creation of the continent’s first game reserve, the Kruger National Park in South Africa, more than a century before.³⁴¹ Governmental agencies, wildlife departments, NGOs, as well as international funding agencies started to plan international, cross-border parks that would address the needs

³³⁶ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

³³⁷ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

³³⁸ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

³³⁹ B. de Villiers, *Peace Parks: The Way Ahead*, (1999), HSRC Press.

³⁴⁰ S. Ferreira, ‘Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

³⁴¹ S. Ferreira, ‘Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

of nature conservation and the alleviation of poverty, as well as other issues.³⁴²

Peace Parks (PPs) have also been referred to as: Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs); Transfrontier Parks (TFPs); and Transboundary/Transfrontier Protected Areas (TBPA).³⁴³ All these terms relate to areas which span over borders of specific countries and which comprise of a range of different conservation locations, including communal lands and wildlife areas.³⁴⁴ Therefore, the two main concepts which need to be analysed is what is meant by a 'park' and what is meant by an 'area'. Firstly, a 'park' adheres to one land-use option, usually with strict conservation measures in place. Secondly, an 'area' combines multiple land-use options in one region.³⁴⁵

In 1996, the World Bank suggested that cooperation should not be restricted to single protected areas such as national parks and it was recommended that the term TFCA should be used as it emphasises the use of multiple resources, especially by the communities.³⁴⁶ Therefore, for the purpose of this dissertation, the term 'Transfrontier Conservation Area' is used as a TFCA extends beyond national parks and game reserves, to also incorporate private land, communal land, forest reserves and wildlife management areas.³⁴⁷ TFCAs also include

³⁴² S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60; J. Carruthers, 'Africa: Histories, Ecologies and Societies', in *Environment and History* 14(2), (2009), pp. 221-252.

³⁴³ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³⁴⁴ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³⁴⁵ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

³⁴⁶ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

³⁴⁷ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

innovative approaches such as biosphere reserves and a wide range of community-based tourism activities as well as community-based natural resource management programmes (CBNRM).³⁴⁸ Furthermore, the World Bank also identified the general aim of TFCAs as: “to conserve biodiversity while promoting tourism, local economic opportunities, and regional collaboration”.³⁴⁹

4.2. Establishment of Transfrontier Conservation Areas in the SADC

The commitment of the SADC to the establishment of TFCAs is clearly outlined in the SADC *Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement*, which has been previously referred to. At present, there are approximately 20 existing and potential TFCAs in the SADC region (see Table 4 and Figure 5 below) which involve multiple member states of the region.³⁵⁰ These TFCAs are all at various stages of their development with some having treaties signed or a Memorandum of Understanding (MoU) agreed upon. It is clearly evident that many of the SADC nations have bought into the concept as there are plans for future developments constantly arising.³⁵¹ These nations have seen the potential of including rural areas in the development of TFCAs for the

³⁴⁸ World Bank, ‘Mozambique: Transfrontier Conservation Areas Pilot and Institutional Strengthening Project’, in *Report 15534-MOZ*, Agricultural and Environment Division, (1996), the World Bank, pp. 17.

³⁴⁹ World Bank, ‘Mozambique: Transfrontier Conservation Areas Pilot and Institutional Strengthening Project’, in *Report 15534-MOZ*, Agricultural and Environment Division, (1996), The World Bank, pp. 17; K. Mearns, ‘Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa’, in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³⁵⁰ SADC, ‘SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014; The Southern African Development Community, ‘The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement’, (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

³⁵¹ SADC, ‘SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014; The Southern African Development Community, ‘The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement’, (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

overall objective of increasing regional integration and economic growth.³⁵²

Figure 5 shows a map of the location of all the TFCAs in the SADC region and Table 4 outlines the different TFCAs that have been developed in the region along with their status and the countries involved in their establishment.

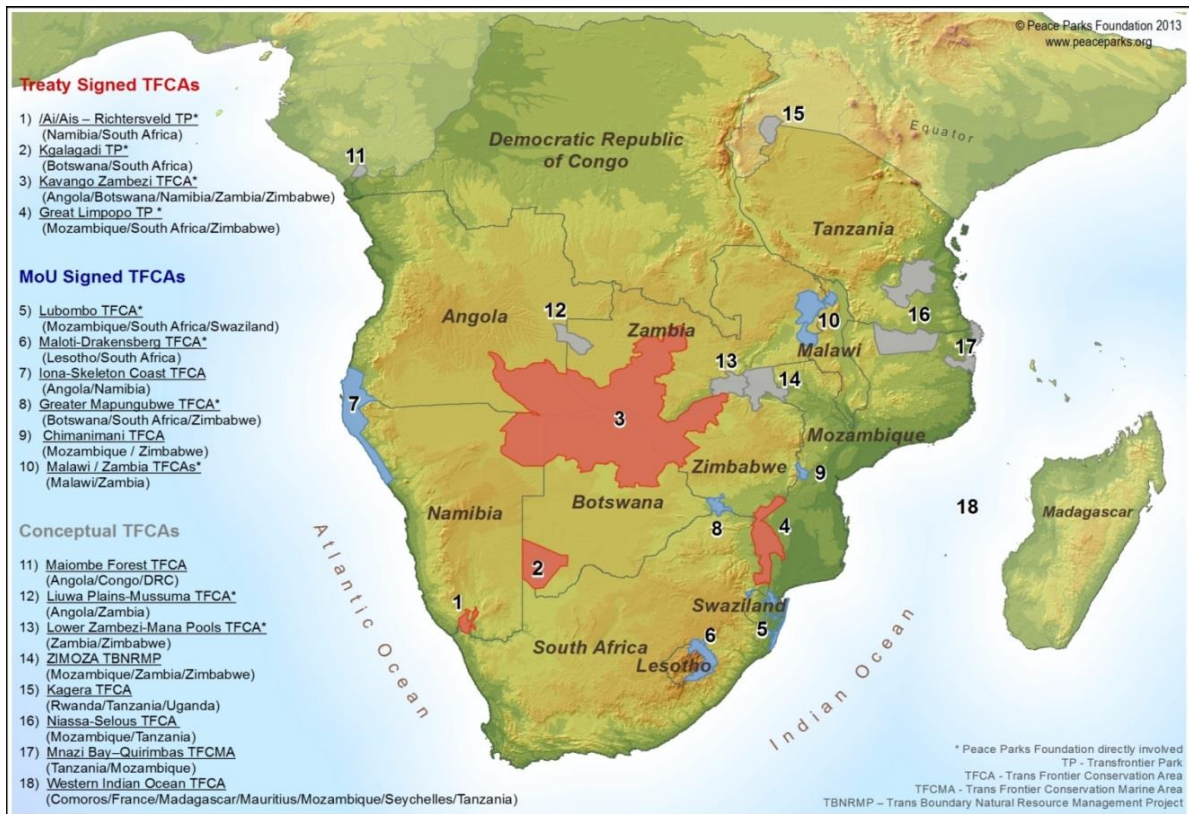


Figure 5: Map of all SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas³⁵³

³⁵² SADC, 'SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas', Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014.

³⁵³ Peace Parks Foundation, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/tfca>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

Table 4: The SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs)³⁵⁴

Name of TFCA	Countries Involved	Status of Development
1. Ais-Ais/Richtersveld Transfrontier Park	Namibia, South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MoU signed 17 August 2001 Treaty signed 1 August 2003
2. Kgalagadi Transfrontier Park	Botswana, South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Treaty signed May 2000
3. Limpopo-Shashe TFCA	Botswana, South Africa, Zimbabwe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MoU signed 13 June 2006
4. Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area	Mozambique, South Africa, Zimbabwe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MoU signed 10 November 2000 Treaty signed 9 December 2002
5. Lubombo Transfrontier Conservation and Resource Area	Mozambique, South Africa, Swaziland	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Trilateral Protocol signed 22 June 2000
6. Maloti-Drakensberg Transfrontier Conservation and Development Area	Lesotho, South Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MoU signed 11 June 2001
7. Iona-Skeleton Coast TFCA	Angola, Namibia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MoU signed 1 August 2003
8. Liuwa Plain Kameia TFCA	Angola, Zambia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conceptual Phase
9. Kavango-Zambezi TFCA (KAZA)	Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zambia, Zimbabwe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MoU in development phase, since 2006
10. Lower Zambezi-Mana Pools TFCA	Zambia and Zimbabwe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conceptual Phase
11. Malawi-Zambia TFCA (combination of Nyika & Kasungu/Lukusuzi TFCAs)	Malawi, Zambia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MoU signed 13 August 2004
12. Niassa-Selous TFCA	Mozambique, Tanzania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conceptual Phase
13. Mnazi Bay - Quirimbas Transfrontier Marine Conservation Area	Mozambique, Tanzania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conceptual Phase
14. Chimanimani TFCA	Mozambique, Zimbabwe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> MoU signed
15. Maiombe Forest TFCA	Angola, Congo, DRC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conceptual Phase
16. Kagera TFCA	Rwanda, Tanzania	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conceptual Phase
17. ZIMOZA TFCA	Mozambique, Zambia, Zimbabwe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Conceptual Phase

³⁵⁴ SADC, 'SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas', Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014.

The TFCAs in southern Africa includes ten countries and covers a total area of approximately 470,000 square kilometres which is almost equal to 50% of the combined size of all former protected areas in the SADC region.³⁵⁵ With 11 of these TFCAs having entered into the process of being officially established, and with nine remaining TFCAs in their conceptual (i.e. planning) phase, there is still great potential for the future of TFCAs in the SADC, especially in the development of more marine TFCAs.³⁵⁶

This development will therefore facilitate dialogue between all countries who share the natural resources and they will contribute towards the upliftment of communities who are living in and around these key conservation areas.³⁵⁷ The equitable sharing of benefits and revenue received from tourism across these international boundaries will enhance the participation of the local communities and thus, the conservation of natural resources.³⁵⁸ In essence, TFCAs should accelerate the harmonization of natural resource management policies and strategies, as well as promote the sustainable use of all natural resources, as well as cultural resources, that straddle the boundaries of the SADC region.³⁵⁹

³⁵⁵ SADC, 'SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas', Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014.

³⁵⁶ SADC, 'SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas', Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014.

³⁵⁷ SADC, 'SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas', Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014.

³⁵⁸ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

³⁵⁹ SADC, 'SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas', Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014.

4.3. The Function of Transfrontier Conservation Areas

The introduction of transfrontier conservation approaches in southern Africa came at a time when there were a number of other developments being undertaken by the governments of the southern African states. The development of conservation initiatives, regional economic integration programmes and social development objectives also occurred during the mid-1990s.³⁶⁰ As mentioned before, the concept of creating TFCAs has been recognised as an important tool for promoting economic growth of rural communities and the conservation of natural resources. Therefore, it was no surprise that TFCAs were established at the same time as these above mentioned developments.³⁶¹

It is obvious that, the SADC strongly supports the development of TFCAs. This is evident in the *SADC Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement* which outlines the need for the establishment of TFCAs in Article 4(f) where it specifically states: “promote the conservation of shared wildlife resources through the establishment of transfrontier conservation areas”.³⁶² The protocol also provides a platform for cooperation between the member states within the management and sustainable use of ecosystems that are found along

³⁶⁰ W. Whande and H. Suich, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area’, in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

³⁶¹ SADC, ‘SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014.

³⁶² The Southern African Development Community, ‘The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement’, (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

political boundaries, as well as developing a common framework for natural resource management with the communities.³⁶³

The central foundation of TFCAs is that there is an opportunity for the co-management of natural resources which are found along political boundaries and this can be achieved through the establishment of agreements on national levels between all of the nations involved.³⁶⁴

This complies with what Timothy has identified as the rise of supranational agreements in cross-border tourism and involves the establishment of bi-lateral and multi-national agreements between national governments.³⁶⁵ These agreements have a number of advantages as they can lead to a more peaceful resolution of international conflicts; promote economic integration and development within the region; contribute to efforts made for the conservation of biodiversity; and they may address a number of other social issues.³⁶⁶

Conservation and tourism development are both, undoubtedly, very important for southern Africa and the transfrontier approaches to policy making and co-management of both of these can essentially enhance their development even more.³⁶⁷ During the colonial period, many political boundaries were drawn with very little regard for the

³⁶³ SADC, 'SADC Transfrontier Conservation Areas', Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 12 February 2014; The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

³⁶⁴ W. Whande and H. Suich, 'Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area', in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

³⁶⁵ D. Timothy, *Tourism and Political Boundaries*, (2001), London: Routledge; H. Wachowiak, *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), (Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing).

³⁶⁶ W. Whande and H. Suich, 'Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area', in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

³⁶⁷ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

ecological systems and the ethnic groupings that existed at the time.³⁶⁸ These boundaries were later transformed into international fences which would cut through traditional migration routes of wildlife and thus interrupting natural processes while at the same time dividing up communities.³⁶⁹ Therefore, the increased cooperation in TFCAs will improve the opportunities for the management from a more cultural and ecological approach by looking at populations and ecosystems rather than merely politically determined features.³⁷⁰

Transfrontier Conservation Areas are established with three objectives in mind: the conservation of biodiversity; socio-economic development; and the promotion of a culture of peace.³⁷¹ Although these precise objectives of TFCA establishment are not always clearly expressed, they are usually exercised at all levels of stakeholder collaboration.

It is now generally accepted that the world lacks a sufficient amount of resources (e.g. scientific equipment, skills) that are needed to conserve all fauna and flora species which are under threat of extinction.³⁷² Therefore one of the main approaches of TFCAs is the integration of biodiversity conservation with rural development.³⁷³

The concept of a TFCA attempts to abolish ideas surrounding the political connotations of a border and move towards a more ecological

³⁶⁸ K. Shillington, *History of Africa*, (2012), Palgrave Macmillan.

³⁶⁹ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

³⁷⁰ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

³⁷¹ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

³⁷² J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

³⁷³ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

stance by ensuring that key ecological processes continue to function in areas where physical borders have been established.³⁷⁴ For example, some borders in southern Africa have divided ecosystems, river basins and/or wildlife migratory routes and corridors and this is evident in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area, which will be discussed in the next chapter.³⁷⁵ J. Singh has identified three ecological reasons for establishing TFCAs for the purpose of biodiversity conservation: to protect ecosystems which are shared by multiple nations; to increase the area that is available for wildlife and flora populations which reduces the extinction risk due to random and unpredicted events; and to re-establish seasonal migratory routes of wildlife species.³⁷⁶ The TFCAs therefore make use of a number of conservation methods for conserving the various fauna and flora species that inhabit the area. These include the establishment of protected areas by the nation's government; the development of private conservancies and projects; and Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM).³⁷⁷ A 'protected area' is described as an area of land or sea that is especially dedicated to the protection and conservation of biological diversity and natural resources and is managed through legal and governmental measures.³⁷⁸

The conservation function of a TFCA has been justified by numerous conservation agencies and biologists who support the need for the

³⁷⁴ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

³⁷⁵ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

³⁷⁶ J. Singh, 'The lessons learnt: The development and management of transboundary parks world-wide', in USAID study on: *Development and Management of Transboundary Conservation Areas*, (1998).

³⁷⁷ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

³⁷⁸ IUCN, *Guidelines for Protected Areas Management Categories*, (1994), pp. 268.

expansion of conservation activities across larger areas to include entire ecosystems rather than just single national parks.³⁷⁹ R. Duffy has discovered that the increased isolation of habitats in the confinement of national parks has reduced the genetic diversity of key species in certain ecosystems.³⁸⁰ Therefore, TFCAs can lead to the establishment of a network that may restore ecosystems and especially corridors for wildlife migration.³⁸¹ This view is supported by R. van Aarde and T. Jackson who indicate that the establishment of a network of conservation areas can form a solution to solving issues that are associated with the management of large populations of mammals, such as the on-going threat of rhino poaching in southern Africa.³⁸²

The TFCA concept allows the formation of alliances between numerous stakeholders for the purpose of enabling finite skills and resources for the promotion of sustainable land use, biodiversity conservation and community development.³⁸³ The New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD) is an organization that has accepted the SADC's *Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement*; the *Protocol on Tourism* and the *Protocol on Shared Water Resources* (2000) as important tools for promoting the shared conservation of

³⁷⁹ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278; K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³⁸⁰ R. Duffy, 'The potential and pitfalls of global environmental governance: The politics of transfrontier conservation areas in southern Africa', in *Political Geography* 25, (2006), pp. 89-112.

³⁸¹ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³⁸² R.J. Van Aarde and T.P. Jackson, 'Megaparks for megapopulations: Addressing the causes of local high elephant numbers in southern Africa', in *Biological Conservation* 134, (2007), pp. 289-297.

³⁸³ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

biodiversity and tourism for the economic and social benefit of the local communities.³⁸⁴

Poverty, in all of its manifestations, is a persistent socio-economic issue in southern Africa and this can be related to the under-performance of the majority of the governments in the region and is attributed to a number of interrelated factors.³⁸⁵ As a continent, Africa has approximately 400 million people that live in absolute poverty, but in southern Africa the poverty rate is 1% more than the rest of the continent.³⁸⁶ Some of the most notable factors that contribute to the persistent rise of poverty include: the recurrence of natural disasters such as droughts and floods which often lead to famine; malnourishment; the general under-performance of the human capital in rural areas; periods of civil war and armed conflict.³⁸⁷

In order to counter-act poverty, southern Africa has adopted numerous policies and strategies with the aim of alleviating it. One of these strategies is the establishment of TFCAs.³⁸⁸ The main objective of a TFCA, as previously mentioned, is to generate sustainable economic development through tourism, which is the fastest growing industry in the world.³⁸⁹ In analysing this objective it is then clear that one of the underlying aims of TFCAs is to address poverty through tourism and

³⁸⁴ The New Partnership for African Development (NEPAD), Internet: <http://www.nepad.org/about>, Accessed 31 March 2014.

³⁸⁵ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

³⁸⁶ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

³⁸⁷ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

³⁸⁸ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

³⁸⁹ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

related factors such as economic growth and local community development.³⁹⁰ The majority of people living in and around TFCAs, and other protected areas, often have very few alternatives to the resources that their livelihoods depend on and this can lead to the over utilization and eventual depletion of natural resources. Therefore, tourism in the TFCAs can bring economic benefits for the communities. Furthermore, the development of sustainable forms of tourism can educate the local communities on the proper utilization of natural resources in a sustainable manner for their long-term benefit.³⁹¹ The knowledge and expertise that the local communities gain from this education will thus lead to the conservation of natural resources and how they can be utilized to increase their value.³⁹² The development of tourism within TFCAs not only benefits the local communities but it is intended to assist the community to be economically self-sustaining and to provide revenue to the national government as well as the conservation agencies who are involved in the development process.³⁹³ S. Nkiwane has stated that an additional motivation for the establishment of TFCAs is the fact that so many borders in Africa are artificial manifestations that have divided ethnic groupings, and many of them have expressed much dissatisfaction with this issue.³⁹⁴

³⁹⁰ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³⁹¹ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

³⁹² K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³⁹³ R. Duffy, 'The potential and pitfalls of global environmental governance: The politics of transfrontier conservation areas in southern Africa', in *Political Geography* 25, (2006), pp. 89-112.

³⁹⁴ S.M. Nkiwane, *Zimbabwe's international borders: a study in national regional development in Southern Africa*, (1997), Harare: University of Zimbabwe.

Therefore, the establishment of TFCAs is a means of reuniting these communities through closer cooperation and collaboration.³⁹⁵

The emphasis of state ownership or control is often expressed in the concept of TFPs, whereby local communities are usually marginalized into so-called 'buffer zones' and are given menial, low-paying jobs such as cooks, labourers or security guards.³⁹⁶ Therefore the concept needs to be shifted away from a TFP to a TFCA whereby the alleviation of poverty is regarded as a high priority.³⁹⁷ The development of tourism in TFCAs places economic growth, which includes job creation, as the number one priority and it often outweighs many other considerations. J. Lea has identified three types of employment that are generally created by tourism: direct employment; indirect employment; and induced employment.³⁹⁸ Direct employment is created from direct expenditure at tourism facilities such as hotels or restaurants. An example of this type of employment would be being hired as a chef or a restaurant manager.³⁹⁹ The second type of employment, indirect employment, is created through a wide range of businesses that are influenced by tourism in a secondary manner - such as transport, handicrafts, and financial institutions such as banks.⁴⁰⁰ The third type of employment is known as induced

³⁹⁵ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

³⁹⁶ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

³⁹⁷ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

³⁹⁸ J. Lea, 'Tourism's Economic Impacts', In L. France, *Sustainable Tourism*, (1997), pp. 157-161, Earthscan Publications: London.

³⁹⁹ J. Lea, 'Tourism's Economic Impacts', In L. France, *Sustainable Tourism*, (1997), pp. 157-161, Earthscan Publications: London.

⁴⁰⁰ J. Lea, 'Tourism's Economic Impacts', In L. France, *Sustainable Tourism*, (1997), pp. 157-161, Earthscan Publications: London.

employment and this is created through the spending of the local resident's from the income they have received from tourism.⁴⁰¹

However there are still a number of factors that hinder the alleviation of poverty in southern Africa. For example, the serious lack of local capacity (i.e. lack of skills and expertise) is obstructing the ability to provide the required standards of goods and services that many tourists expect or demand.⁴⁰² Poor customer service can also cripple local businesses and thus decrease the total revenue that is earned through tourism. One of the most significant constraints in the region is the "leakage" of profits out of the host country to the developed nations, as well as out of the rural areas to the urban areas.⁴⁰³ It has been estimated that the "leakage" of foreign exchange from developing countries to developed countries is approximately 60-75%, with most of the jobs being created being menial, unskilled and low-paid.⁴⁰⁴

It is important to note that not all TFCAs can create significant job opportunities through tourism and it is irresponsible to perceive tourism as being a "panacea" for poverty relief. It is also unrealistic and irresponsible to raise the expectations of the local communities regarding the immediate benefits of tourism for development and job creation.⁴⁰⁵ One of the reasons for this is that some of the areas may

⁴⁰¹ J. Lea, 'Tourism's Economic Impacts', In L. France, *Sustainable Tourism*, (1997), pp. 157-161, Earthscan Publications: London.

⁴⁰² J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁰³ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁰⁴ S. Wheat, 'The Tourism Juggernaut', in *People and the Planet* 6(4), (1997), pp. 6-8.

⁴⁰⁵ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

have great potential for the conservation of biodiversity, but they have very little appeal for tourism.⁴⁰⁶

Another approach to alleviating poverty through TFCAs is the utilization of wildlife resources for economic purposes. In southern Africa, 70% of the population consume “bushmeat” and it is thus considered to be an important food source for many local residents.⁴⁰⁷ However, during the late 1990s, Africa was hit by the “bushmeat crisis” and it created an awareness for the conservation and sustainable use of wildlife resources on the continent.⁴⁰⁸ J. Hanks has therefore emphasised the need for a more sustainable approach for wildlife resources and has suggested three ways in which wildlife can be used for economic development.⁴⁰⁹ Firstly, the development of wildlife viewing tourism or “safari” tourism is the most popular and sustainable way in which wildlife can be used for economic yields.⁴¹⁰ Secondly, the sale or use of wildlife products (i.e. their meat and skins) and the sale of live animals to private reserves or conservancies is another way of creating revenue.⁴¹¹ However this method will need to be closely monitored and a number of legal instruments will need to be implemented to monitor the industry.⁴¹² The third method, the creation of safari hunting tourism is a highly

⁴⁰⁶ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁰⁷ Bushmeat Crisis Task Team, Internet: <http://www.bushmeat.org/>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

⁴⁰⁸ Bushmeat Crisis Task Team, Internet: <http://www.bushmeat.org/>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

⁴⁰⁹ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴¹⁰ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴¹¹ SM. Munthali, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas’: Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa’, in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

⁴¹² J. Lea, ‘Tourism’s Economic Impacts’, In L. France, *Sustainable Tourism*, (1997), pp. 157-161, Earthscan Publications: London. J. Lea, ‘Tourism’s Economic Impacts’, In L. France, *Sustainable Tourism*, (1997), pp. 157-161, Earthscan Publications: London.

controversial one and it has been banned in many southern African countries - such as Botswana and Zambia.⁴¹³ Many international tourists come to Africa for the thrill of shooting an animal and to claim their “trophy”. But this method has caused the owners of game farms to become greedy for the economic returns and thus many wildlife species are diminishing because of this.⁴¹⁴ One possible solution to this comes in the form of the proposed Kavango Zambezi TFCA (KAZA), where the borders of Angola, Botswana, Namibia, Zambia and Zimbabwe all converge. Here, community owned conservancies and wildlife management areas have been established with the purpose of creating income from wildlife resources, in a sustainable manner.⁴¹⁵ A MoU for this TFCA was signed in December 2006 and the treaty, that formally and legally established the TFCA, was signed in August 2011.⁴¹⁶

Transfrontier Conservation Areas also have the potential to promote and strengthen the cooperation and peace between neighbouring countries, which is a key factor for sustainable development and foreign investment in Africa.⁴¹⁷ The promotion of peace and cooperation between nations is very important for African countries that have all been significantly affected by decades of political and ethnic conflict,

⁴¹³ E. Theunissen, ‘Tracking Down Hunting Tourism: The State of the Hunt in Southern Africa’, Honours Research Report, Department of Historical and Heritage Studies, University of Pretoria, (2012), pp. 40-44; Wildlife Extra, ‘Seeing the light – Benefits to banning hunting in Botswana and Zambia’, Internet: <http://www.wildlifeextra.com/go/news/zambia-hunting>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

⁴¹⁴ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴¹⁵ Peace Parks, ‘The Kavango Zambezi TFCA’, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/tfca>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

⁴¹⁶ Peace Parks, ‘The Kavango Zambezi TFCA’, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/tfca>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

⁴¹⁷ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

such as Mozambique, Angola and Zimbabwe.⁴¹⁸ The periods of conflict have not only had an effect on the human populations but they have also had an impact on natural resources, such as wildlife populations, and the general image of the country for international tourists.⁴¹⁹

Many African leaders have considered the removal of international boundaries and begun to form cross-border alliances to rebuild their nations following periods of conflict.⁴²⁰ However, many countries still perceive international boundaries as important symbols of national sovereignty and demarcations of territory. These views could therefore hamper the development of TFCAs as their development may be delayed or even made impossible by political or military barricades between countries, as well as cultural and language differences and the desire for complete sovereignty.⁴²¹

Countries all around the world are still exploring the idea of creating peace between nations through the establishment of conservation areas that straddle international borders.⁴²² In some cases, cooperation has helped to resolve border conflicts due to military hostilities. For example, a peace agreement between Peru and Ecuador has been signed to ensure that both countries end a decade of boundary

⁴¹⁸ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴¹⁹ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

⁴²⁰ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴²¹ J.J. Singh, 'Transboundary Conservation in the African Context: A Threat to Sovereignty?', Paper Presented at *Border Regions in Transition IV: Rethinking Boundaries, Geopolitics, Identities and Sustainability*, (2000).

⁴²² J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

conflict by sharing the management of conservation areas.⁴²³ This example can be seen as qualifying as a true “Peace Park”.⁴²⁴

The establishment of Peace Parks in southern Africa gained a lot of momentum in the post-1994 period after the political demise of Apartheid.⁴²⁵ Therefore, the establishment of Peace Parks in Africa has led to a dynamic, exciting and multi-faceted approach that allows nations to jointly manage natural resources which are found across political borders and has led to partnerships between both government and private sector organizations. Peace Parks in Africa have been labelled as “an African success story that will ensure peace, prosperity and stability for generations to come”.⁴²⁶

Peace Parks have been considered as a tool for creating a culture of peace by the late Nelson Mandela and he has been quoted to have said the following:

I know of no political movement, no philosophy, and no ideology that does not agree with the peace parks concept as we see it going into fruition today. It is a concept that can be embraced by all. In a world beset by conflict and division, peace is one of the cornerstones of the future. Peace parks are building blocks in this process, not only in our region, but potentially in the entire world.⁴²⁷

In terms of the collaboration theory, as discussed in the previous chapter, the establishment of TFCAs is probably the most complex and time-consuming process out of all collaborative tourism

⁴²³ D.C. Zbicz, ‘The Nature of Transboundary Cooperation’, in *Environment* 41(3), (1999), pp. 15-16.

⁴²⁴ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴²⁵ K. Mearns, ‘Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa’, in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴²⁶ Peace Parks, ‘Peace Parks Foundation: The Global Solution’, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.org>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

⁴²⁷ Peace Parks, ‘Peace Parks Foundation: The Global Solution’, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.org>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

developments.⁴²⁸ The establishment requires both intensive and extensive support and facilitation between all participating nations, with each nation having a sense of ownership for the entire process.⁴²⁹ There are many sensitive issues that surround the formation of TFCAs such as the need for respect of a country's national sovereignty and an acceptance of existing national legal systems.⁴³⁰

There are two domains that need to be considered in the establishment of any TFCA: the political and legal environment as well as the financial constraints. Furthermore, there are three separate levels of stakeholders that are involved in TFCA development: regional organizations; government departments and conservation agencies; and finally, the local communities.

Firstly, in terms of the political and legal environment of TFCAs there is often a very unique and high level of international cooperation concerning sensitive issues such as the removal of fences and the free movement of tourists across international borders.⁴³¹ Therefore the leaders of each member state are required to clearly commit to the establishment of the TFCA which will essentially determine its overall success.⁴³² The TFCA must be supported by three important documents: an international agreement between all of the countries that are involved; an agreement or understanding between all the conservation

⁴²⁸ Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴²⁹ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴³⁰ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴³¹ T. Ron, 'Southern African Development Community (SADC): Proposed Framework for Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs)', in *SADC Propose Framework for TFCA: Issues and Options Report*, (2007).

⁴³² T. Ron, 'Southern African Development Community (SADC): Proposed Framework for Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs)', in *SADC Propose Framework for TFCA: Issues and Options Report*, (2007).

agencies; and finally, a Management Plan, that is drawn up with the assistance of all stakeholders involved, which will guide how the TFCA will be run on a daily basis.⁴³³

The Management Plan is the only “living” document out of these three as it requires updates on a constant basis and it must be reviewed on a regular basis. The vision, mission and objectives of the TFCA must be clearly outlined in the first stages of the Management Plan.⁴³⁴ Support programmes are often initiated to avoid the issue of “top-down planning” - a hierarchy type system whereby the top levels of stakeholders (government) take preference over the lower levels (local communities).⁴³⁵ These programmes aim to gain support at both national and local community levels.⁴³⁶

In order for a TFCA to reach its full potential, there is a need for infrastructure development, but this is often crippled by financial constraints.⁴³⁷ An investment of capital is required for the building of new roads across international borders; the development of new access gates; the removal or realignment of fences; and the development of tourist facilities such as hotels and information offices.⁴³⁸ It is important to note that for example in South Africa many of its National Parks will not survive financially without investment from the private sector. In the light of this it is important to note that

⁴³³ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴³⁴ T. Ron, ‘Southern African Development Community (SADC): Proposed Framework for Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs)’, in *SADC Propose Framework for TFCA: Issues and Options Report*, (2007)

⁴³⁵ B. de Villiers, *Peace Parks: The Way Ahead*, (1999), Pretoria: HSRC Publishers.

⁴³⁶ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴³⁷ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴³⁸ T. Ron, ‘Southern African Development Community (SADC): Proposed Framework for Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs)’, in *SADC Propose Framework for TFCA: Issues and Options Report*, (2007).

of South Africa's 19 National Parks only three of them actually make a profit each year.⁴³⁹ Therefore tourism related activities are constantly being outsourced to the private sector with many donor agencies being approached for capital development for the running costs, with the ownership still being the responsibility of the national government.⁴⁴⁰

Many conservation agencies, such as South African National Parks (SANParks) in South Africa, have been exploring opportunities for private/public sector partnerships and potential options for future funding of TFCA development. SANParks was originally known as the South African National Parks Board and were responsible for general wildlife preservation under the, then, Transvaal Government.⁴⁴¹ If managed properly, this can lead to a significant percentage of revenue being shared amongst the management of the TFCA as well as to the local communities, and not directly into the hands of government agencies.⁴⁴²

Following the discussion on the institutional environment of a TFCA, it is therefore relevant to discuss the three levels of stakeholders in the framework of TFCAs. These include: the regional organizations; the government departments and conservation agencies; and the local communities.⁴⁴³

⁴³⁹ SANParks, Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za>, Accessed: 02 April 2014.

⁴⁴⁰ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁴¹ J. Carruthers, 'Africa: Histories, Ecologies and Societies, in *Environment and History* 14(2), (2009), pp. 221-252.

⁴⁴² J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁴³ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

The southern African region is governed by the SADC and, as indicated, they have developed many legal instruments and programmes for the governance of TFCAs. The SADC has clearly outlined their intentions of making TFCAs a high priority in the region due to their commitment that they have made in the *Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement*.⁴⁴⁴ The SADC has also established the SADC Wildlife Programme of Action and within this they have outlined the development of TFCAs as a key objective. They feel that the region will benefit immensely from these TFCAs as they can contribute to sustainable development, the promotion of peace, and the alleviation of poverty.⁴⁴⁵ The expectations of the SADC include: the consolidation of natural ecosystems that straddle international boundaries and the increased collaboration and cooperation of local stakeholders with the private and public sectors in natural resource management across borders.⁴⁴⁶ The SADC also believes that there are many socio-economic benefits and impacts arising from TFCAs, such as economic integration that is brought about by cross-border trade and direct revenue received by the local communities and conservation agencies.⁴⁴⁷

Other regional organizations include RETOSA (already discussed in Chapter 3) and “Boundless Southern Africa”. Boundless Southern is also an organization in the private sector and they are responsible for promoting tourism and community development within the TFCAs found

⁴⁴⁴ S.M. Munthali, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas’: Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa’, in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

⁴⁴⁵ SADC, ‘SADC Wildlife Programme of Action’, Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 3 June 2013.

⁴⁴⁶ SADC, ‘SADC Wildlife Programme of Action’, Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 3 June 2013.

⁴⁴⁷ SADC, ‘SADC Wildlife Programme of Action’, Internet: <http://www.sadc.org>, Accessed: 3 June 2013.

in southern Africa.⁴⁴⁸ Various expeditions have been undertaken whereby the organization has created awareness and achieved the promotion of tourism and investment opportunities in the seven TFCAs. Therefore, nine southern African countries - the seven countries as previously identified as well as Angola and Zambia - have currently accepted the “brand” of “Boundless Southern Africa” as a way of showcasing their various TFCAs.⁴⁴⁹ The organization assists these countries in offering a tourism product that allows tourists to experience the wildlife and scenic beauty of the country, as well as allowing them to engage with local communities to learn about their cultural traditions and heritage.⁴⁵⁰

The second level of stakeholders includes the government departments and the associated conservation agencies. The inclusion of a wide range of department and agencies are needed for the establishment of TFCAs and also to act as consultants thereafter.⁴⁵¹ When a TFCA encompasses a large area that includes various land use zones - such as state land; private land; communal land; national parks; game reserves; forest reserves; and wildlife management areas - the situation becomes complex and the need for international cooperation is imperative.⁴⁵² The government departments and conservation agencies need to collaborate on the following issues: legal agreements; land tenure; natural resource conservation and

⁴⁴⁸ Boundless Southern Africa, Internet: <http://www.boundlessa.co.za>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

⁴⁴⁹ Boundless Southern Africa, Internet: <http://www.boundlessa.co.za>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

⁴⁵⁰ Boundless Southern Africa, Internet: <http://www.boundlessa.co.za>, Accessed: 01 April 2014.

⁴⁵¹ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁵² J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148; J. Singh, ‘Transboundary Conservation in the African Context: A Threat to Sovereignty?’, Paper Presented at *Border Regions in Transition IV: Rethinking Boundaries, Geopolitics, Identities and Sustainability*, (2000); S. Ferreira, ‘Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310.

management; the use and management of water catchments and rivers; customs; immigration and visa requirements; national security measures; health conditions; and veterinary restrictions.⁴⁵³ In an ideal situation, each TFCA should be a designated “visa free” zone where tourists could be allowed to move freely between countries *within* the TFCA.⁴⁵⁴

In southern Africa, many of the member states have government ministries and departments that govern all issues concerning their wildlife and other natural resources. For example, South Africa has the Department of Environmental Affairs and Zimbabwe has the Ministry of Environment and Tourism.⁴⁵⁵ In terms of conservation agencies, or other related organizations that work with government departments, the following exist: SANParks, of South Africa, are responsible for the management of all National Parks and Transfrontier Conservation Areas which are found in the country;⁴⁵⁶ and the Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Authority are responsible for the management and conservation of wildlife and natural resources within all designated National Parks in Zimbabwe.⁴⁵⁷ Mozambique, on the other hand, are still feeling the effects of many years of civil conflict in the country and thus their tourism and wildlife industries are still emerging ones.

⁴⁵³ J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁵⁴ S. Ferreira, ‘Problems associated with tourism development in Southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, in *GeoJournal* 60, (2004) pp. 301-310; SM. Munthali, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas’: Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa’, in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60; J. Hanks, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa’, in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁵⁵ South African Department of Environmental Affairs, Internet: <https://www.environment.gov.za/>, Accessed: 03 April 2014; Zimbabwe Ministry of Environment and Tourism, Internet:

<http://www.zim.gov.zw/index.php/ministries/ministry-of-environment-and-tourism>, Accessed: 03 April 2014.

⁴⁵⁶ SANParks, ‘About Us: Profile’, Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/about/>, Accessed: 03 April 2014.

⁴⁵⁷ The Zimbabwe Parks and Wildlife Authority, ‘About Us’, Internet: <http://www.zimparks.org/>, Accessed: 03 April 2014.

The third, and final level of stakeholders is the most overlooked and underprivileged level, the local communities. All too often the majority of the local communities that live in the developing country are considered to be incidental to its development, rather than being its main focus.⁴⁵⁸ All development strategies, including TFCA's, should be measured by the benefits that may be shared among the local communities who live in or near the area of development.⁴⁵⁹ The collaborations that may occur at this level can often be complex due to the interaction between local community members and other stakeholders who hold diverse and divergent views.⁴⁶⁰

It has now been widely accepted that the local communities, living in or adjacent to the TFCA, must be consulted at the start of the development project as well as at all stages throughout the process.⁴⁶¹ Special provisions need to be made to ensure that economic benefits, as well as social benefits, are made available to the local communities for the purpose of sustainable development.⁴⁶² In addition to this, an effort needs to be made to assist the local residents in the development of small scale enterprises (SMEs) so that they can become economically self-sufficient.⁴⁶³ Just as the investment of physical capital is important for economic growth, so too is the

⁴⁵⁸ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁵⁹ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

⁴⁶⁰ T. Jamal and D. Getz, 'Collaboration theory and community tourism planning', in *Annals of Tourism Research* 22(1), (1995), pp. 186-204.

⁴⁶¹ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁶² J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁶³ H. Wells, 'Fighting over Fences: Organizational Cooperation and Reciprocal Exchange Between the Savé Valley Conservancy and Its Neighbouring Communities in Zimbabwe', (2003), PhD Thesis: Virje Universiteit, Amsterdam.

investment in human resources and it should be seen as a driving force for development.⁴⁶⁴ The technical and professional development of labour forces at a national level is essential for the establishment and maintenance of all aspects concerning TFCAs, especially if they strive to become competitive on national and international levels.⁴⁶⁵

4.4. Transfrontier Conservation Areas and Community Development

Thus it is apparent that the third level of stakeholders relevant for the establishment of the TFCA is crucial. It has been argued that the long term success of any TFCA in southern Africa can only be made possible if the local communities are involved in the development process. Furthermore, they must receive significant benefits from tourism and other revenue-generating activities.⁴⁶⁶ Therefore, the introduction of initiatives such as community-based tourism (CBT) and community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) will provide a means whereby the communities may receive benefits which will contribute to socio-economic growth.⁴⁶⁷

The opportunities and benefits which are brought about by the development of tourism in and around TFCAs are important within the context of the current state of southern Africa. As Mearns has argued, many communities on the boundaries of or in the confines of protected

⁴⁶⁴ H. Wells, 'Fighting over Fences: Organizational Cooperation and Reciprocal Exchange Between the Savé Valley Conservancy and Its Neighbouring Communities in Zimbabwe', (2003), PhD Thesis: Virje Universiteit, Amsterdam.

⁴⁶⁵ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas (TFCAs) in Southern Africa', in *Journal of Sustainable Forestry* 17(1-2), (2003), pp. 127-148.

⁴⁶⁶ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁶⁷ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87; S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

areas are often hampered by issues such as: high poverty rates; high levels of illiteracy; unemployment; and the ineffective usage of resources.⁴⁶⁸ The disadvantaged communities have often viewed conservation and tourism as an industry run by foreign visitors and the economic elite and the residents often feel excluded or alienated from the use of resources that their livelihoods depend on.⁴⁶⁹

The involvement of local residents in tourism ventures for the purposes of empowerment and development of a community is referred to as “community-based tourism” (CBT). According to M. Fitton:

Community tourism is about grassroots empowerment as it seeks to develop the industry in harmony with the needs and aspirations of host communities in a way that it is acceptable to them, sustains their economies rather than the economies of others, and it is not detrimental to their culture, traditions, or their day-to-day convenience.⁴⁷⁰

Timothy defines it as follows:

Community-based tourism is a more sustainable form of development than the conventional mass tourism because it allows host communities to break away from the grasps of tour operators and the wealthy elite at the national level.⁴⁷¹

Therefore CBT can be seen as a form of tourism development which prioritises the needs of the local community and is introduced to bring about numerous benefits for the local residents and contribute to the overall sustainable development of the host community. In addition to this, Timothy has identified a number of key principles of CBT, such

⁴⁶⁸ K. Mearns, *Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa*, in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁶⁹ D. Grossman and P. Holden, ‘Spreading the benefits of conservation: Indigenous communities, equities and parks’, in J. Ledger; J. Golding; H. Magome; Z. Patel and C. Vogel, *Walking with Nature: Protected Areas, People and Prosperity*, (2003), pp. 33-35.

⁴⁷⁰ M. Fitton, ‘Does our community want tourism?: Examples from South Wales’, in M.F. Price (ed.), *People and Tourism in Fragile Environments*, (1996), pp. 159–74, Chichester: Wiley.

⁴⁷¹ D. Timothy, ‘Tourism and Community Development Issues’, in R. Sharpley and D. Telfer, *Tourism and Development*, (2002), pp. 149-164, Toronto: Channel View Publications.

as the preservation of ecological systems; protection of biological diversity in natural areas; the protection of cultural traditions and integrity; holistic planning; and the integration of the local residents in the decision-making processes.⁴⁷²

There are several advantages of CBT, in terms of the upliftment and development of local communities. Firstly, the introduction of CBT, just as with any form of tourism development, has the potential of creating employment and revenue for the local residents. CBT may also increase the amount of foreign exchange for the national government as well as the long-term sustainability of the natural resource base.⁴⁷³ CBT also has the ability to empower local communities by giving them a sense of pride from the ownership of their natural resources and the control of their development.⁴⁷⁴ Thus mutually beneficial and peaceful relationships are formed between the local communities and the conservation areas through the establishment of CBT.⁴⁷⁵

Following a 2012 investigation of southern African, K. Mearns has identified approximately 323 community-based tourism ventures across the region.⁴⁷⁶ It is important to note that Mearns defines southern Africa as including the seven countries already identified earlier in this study, as well as Tanzania, Zambia and Malawi. The total number of CBT ventures in the region is redrawn in Table 5 below using what

⁴⁷² D. Timothy, 'Tourism and Community Development Issues', in R. Sharpley and D. Telfer, *Tourism and Development*, (2002), pp. 149-164, Toronto: Channel View Publications.

⁴⁷³ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87

⁴⁷⁴ R. Scheyvens, 'Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities', in *Tourism Management* 20, (1999), pp. 245-249

⁴⁷⁵ T. Jamal and A. Stronza, 'Collaboration theory and tourism practice in protected areas: stakeholders, structuring and sustainability', in *Journal of Sustainable Tourism* 17(2), (2009), pp. 169-189; R. Scheyvens, 'Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities', in *Tourism Management* 20, (1999), pp. 245-249

⁴⁷⁶ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87

was originally devised by Mearns. As is evident, South Africa is dominant, followed by Namibia, the Zimbabwe, then Botswana, Tanzania and finally Zambia. These countries are followed by Lesotho, Swaziland, Mozambique and Malawi, all with minimal CBT ventures.

Table 5: Number of CBT Ventures in Southern Africa

Country	Number of CBT Ventures	Percentage (%)
South Africa	138	42.72%
Namibia	45	13.93%
Zimbabwe	34	10.53%
Botswana	27	8.36%
Tanzania	27	8.36%
Zambia	17	5.23%
Lesotho	9	2.79%
Swaziland	9	2.79%
Mozambique	9	2.79%
Malawi	8	2.48%

Figures 6 and 7 below have been adapted from the findings of Mearns' original investigation in order to illustrate the number of CBT ventures per country. Figure 6 has been redrawn to show the total number of CBT ventures in each country of the region, in a descending order. Figure 7 has also been redrawn to show the relative comparison of CBT ventures in each country.

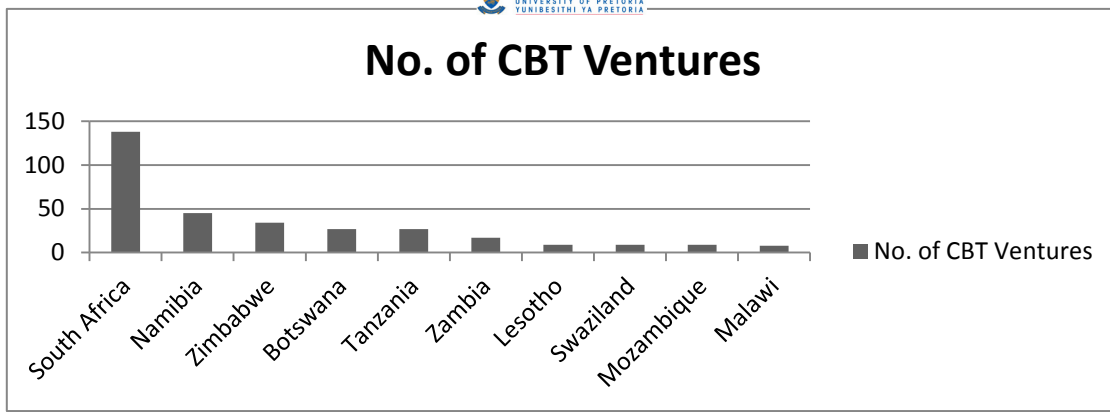


Figure 6: Number of CBT Ventures in Southern African Countries⁴⁷⁷

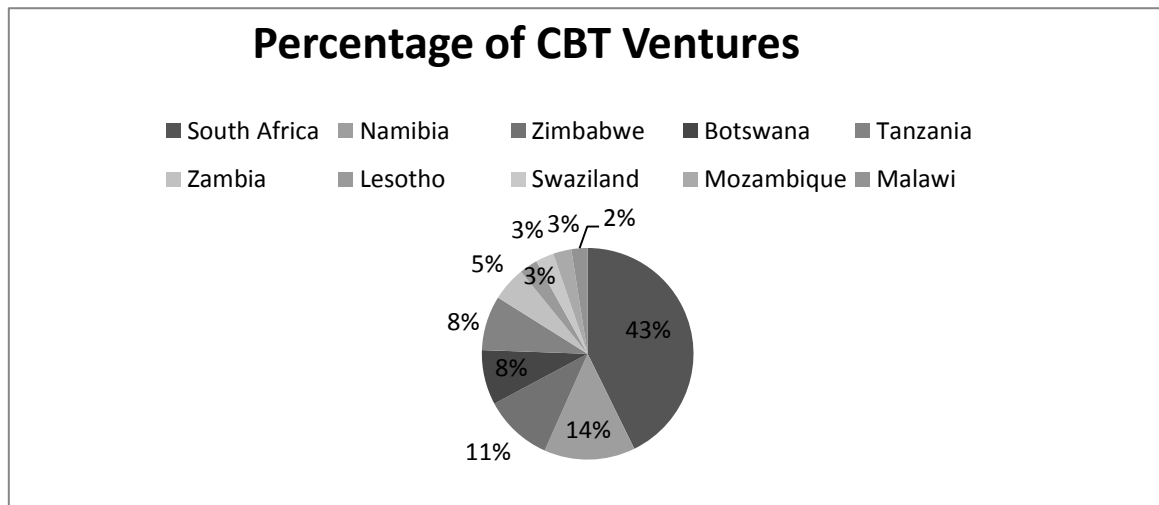


Figure 7: Percentage of CBT Ventures in Southern Africa⁴⁷⁸

The results of the afore mentioned investigation by Mearns, indicate that only four of the 13 proposed TFCAs in the region are significantly placed near existing CBT ventures.⁴⁷⁹ In addition to this, three of the four TFCAs are located on the borders of South Africa with neighbours Swaziland (Lubombo TFCA); Lesotho (Maloti-Drakensberg TFCA); and Mozambique and Zimbabwe (Great Limpopo TFCA).⁴⁸⁰ Further investigations have led to the discovery that 42.4% of all CBT

⁴⁷⁷ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁷⁸ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁷⁹ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁸⁰ B. de Villiers, *Peace Parks: The Way Ahead*, (1999), HSRC Press.

ventures in the region are located within conservation areas, while 15.2% are found close to these areas (between one and ten kilometers).⁴⁸¹ It was also noted by Mearns that 18.6% of all ventures are found more than 50 kilometers away from conservation areas.⁴⁸² Thus Mearns confirms that a total of 81.4% of CBT ventures in southern Africa are located within 50 kilometers of conservation areas. Evidently, the definition of a “local community”, as defined by the former Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), explains that it is one found within a 50 km radius from a tourist attraction.⁴⁸³ Therefore these natural areas can form an important draw card for tourists which could create tourism opportunities from which the local residents can benefit.⁴⁸⁴

Therefore TFCAs provide a potential opportunity for the development of CBT as well as conservation initiatives that can span over numerous boundaries.⁴⁸⁵ This opportunity has already been recognised and the Peace Parks Foundation (PPF) in southern Africa links the success of CBT projects with goals of biodiversity conservation.⁴⁸⁶ S. Metcalfe has emphasised the need for connecting ecological areas as many protected areas are considered too small to conserve a wide

⁴⁸¹ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁸² K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁸³ Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism, *National Responsible Tourism Development Guidelines for South Africa*, (2002), Pretoria: Department of Environment Affairs and Tourism.

⁴⁸⁴ R. Scheyvens, 'Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities', in *Tourism Management* 20, (1999), pp. 245-249.

⁴⁸⁵ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁸⁶ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

range of biodiversity.⁴⁸⁷ The authorities of protected areas have realised the need for collaboration with their neighbouring nations and many of them have begun to devolve the management of natural resources to the local communities.⁴⁸⁸

The success of tourism within any destination domain is dependent on whether or not the tourism products are attractive for tourists and if they can satisfy their needs.⁴⁸⁹ This calls for the collaboration between the various stakeholders within a destination domain, which includes: CBT ventures, TFCA agencies, government representatives; and any other key stakeholders.⁴⁹⁰ CBT may be regarded as an important catalyst that could potentially create benefits for the local communities in order to make a proposed TFCAs successful.⁴⁹¹ Therefore this leads to the formation of mutually beneficial relationships between community-based tourism ventures and TFCAs.

Another important aspect within the domain of community involvement in protected areas is the practice of Community-Based Natural Resource Management (CBNRM). A. Lyons has defined CBNRM as:

The management of natural resources under a broad rubric encompassing a wide range of resource management programmes that share a recognition of the participation of those people who live near, or interconnected with natural resources.⁴⁹²

⁴⁸⁷ S. Metcalfe, 'Impacts of transboundary protected areas on local communities in three Southern Africa Initiatives, in Paper prepared for the workshop on Transboundary Protected Areas in the Governance Stream of the 5th World Parks Congress, Durban, South Africa, 12-13 September, (2003) .

⁴⁸⁸ E. Ostrom, *Governing the commons*, (1990), Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

⁴⁸⁹ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁹⁰ J.A. Bennett and L. Strydom, 'What is Tourism?', in J.A. Bennett and L. Strydom (eds.), *Introduction to Travel and Tourism Marketing*, (2005), Juta and Company Ltd.

⁴⁹¹ K. Mearns, Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁴⁹² A. Lyons, 'An effective monitoring framework for community-based natural resource management: A case study of the ADMADÉ programme in Zambia, (2000), MSc Thesis: University of Florida, USA.

In addition to this, P. Blaikie states that:

Community-based natural resource management (CBNRM) is, in various forms, an established policy goal of rural development, especially in Africa. It is also a simple and attractive one that communities, defined by their tight spatial boundaries of jurisdiction and responsibilities, by their distinct and integrated social structure and common interests, can manage their natural resources in an efficient, equitable, and sustainable way.⁴⁹³

And finally, Metcalfe defines it as:

A broad spectrum of new management arrangements and benefits sharing partnerships for the involvement by people who are not agents of the state, but who, by virtue of collective location and activities are critically placed to enhance the present and future status of natural resources, and their own well-being.⁴⁹⁴

Therefore CBNRM is a community-based approach to the sustainable management of natural resources. The approach also assumes that the local community have the rights as well as institutions and incentives to take full responsibility for the management of their natural resources.⁴⁹⁵ Furthermore, CBNRM has been viewed as a modern attempt to revive the established and traditional local institutions which are responsible for the management and conservation of natural resources.⁴⁹⁶ This interest was particularly developed in environmental sectors such as agriculture, water management and forestry, and the main aim was to promote the participation of local residents in

⁴⁹³ P. Blaikie, 'Is Small Really Beautiful? Community-based Natural Resource Management in Malawi and Botswana', in *World Development* 34(11), (2006), pp.1942-1957.

⁴⁹⁴ S. Metcalfe, 'CAMPFIRE: Zimbabwe's Communal Areas Management Programme For Indigenous Resources in Natural Connections', in D. Western: M. Wright and S. Strum (eds.), *Perspectives in Community-based Conservation*, (1994), Island Press: Washington D.C.

⁴⁹⁵ S.M. Munthali, 'Transfrontier Conservation Areas': Integrating biodiversity and poverty alleviation in Southern Africa', in *Natural Resources Forum* 31, (2007), pp. 51-60.

⁴⁹⁶ S.R. Kellert; J.N. Mehta; S.A. Ebbin and L.L. Lichenfeld, 'Community Natural Resource Management: Promise, Rhetoric, and Reality', in *Society and Natural Resources* 13, (2000), pp. 705-715.

decision-making processes in order to enhance their power and authority.⁴⁹⁷

These approaches were further developed within the management of protected areas and national parks as authorities were concerned that the isolation of ecosystems combined with conflicts between local peoples could threaten the long-term sustainability of protected areas.⁴⁹⁸ During the past decade, CBNRM has become much more than an abstract idea and international financial institutions, such as the World Bank, have invested funds to promote CBNRM regimes.⁴⁹⁹

S.R. Kellert, J.N. Mehta, S.A. Ebbin and L.L. Lichenfeld have identified five key characteristics that all interpretations of CBNRM have in common.⁵⁰⁰ Firstly, there is a commitment from all stakeholders to involve the local residents and institutions in the management and conservation of natural resources. Secondly, there is a general interest in devolving the power and authority from central stakeholders or government to the local residents and indigenous institutions. Thirdly, there is a desire to link and re-establish the objectives of socioeconomic development with environmental conservation and protection of natural resources. Furthermore, there is often the tendency to defend and legitimize the resource and property rights of the local or indigenous people. And finally, there is a belief in the

⁴⁹⁷ S.R. Kellert; J.N. Mehta; S.A. Ebbin and L.L. Lichenfeld, 'Community Natural Resource Management: Promise, Rhetoric, and Reality', in *Society and Natural Resources* 13, (2000), pp. 705-715.

⁴⁹⁸ P.D. Little, 'The link between local participation and improved conservation: A review of issues and experiences, in D. Western and M. Wright (eds.), *Natural Connections: Perspectives in community-based conservation*, (1994), pp. 347-372, Island Press: Washington DC.

⁴⁹⁹ J.P. Brosius; A.L. Tsing and C. Zerner, 'Representing communities: Histories and politics of community-based natural resource management', in *Society and Natural Resources: An International Journal* 11(2), (1998), pp. 157-168.

⁵⁰⁰ S.R. Kellert; J.N. Mehta; S.A. Ebbin and L.L. Lichenfeld, 'Community Natural Resource Management: Promise, Rhetoric, and Reality', in *Society and Natural Resources* 13, (2000), pp. 705-715.

inclusion of traditional values and ecological knowledge in modern resource management.⁵⁰¹ Following this, this quote by R.W. Kimmerer who is a plant ecologist at the State University of New York, emphasises the growing need for the recognition of traditional knowledge systems:

As scientists and educators, we train our students to thoroughly examine all the available evidence and to consider alternative explanations for biological phenomena. In peer review, we critically assess whether the author has carefully cited the appropriate primary sources. And yet, in our biology curricula, we are perhaps unknowingly ignoring an entire body of knowledge that has potential significance to contemporary science and policy: traditional ecological knowledge (TEK).⁵⁰²

In addition to this, Scheyvens discusses the six objectives of CBNRM which cover economic, social, and environmental variables. The first objective covers the aspect of “equity” which focusses on the equal distribution and allocation of socioeconomic benefits and resources to all local residents and institutions. The next objective looks at “empowerment” which entails the distribution of power and authority to the local residents, which has been devolved from government or central institutions. This objective also encourages the participation of local residents in decision-making processes and the sharing of control and authority.⁵⁰³ Thirdly, “conflict resolution” involves the handling and resolving of situations of conflict and disputes over who is in control of resource management - this may involve stakeholders such as the

⁵⁰¹ S.R. Kellert; JN, Mehta; S.A. Ebbin and L.L. Lichenfeld, ‘Community Natural Resource Management: Promise, Rhetoric, and Reality’, in *Society and Natural Resources* 13, (2000), pp. 705-715.

⁵⁰² R.W. Kimmerer, ‘Weaving Traditional Ecological Knowledge into Biological Education: A Call to Action’, in *Bioscience* 52(5), (2002), pp. 432-438.

⁵⁰³ R. Scheyvens, ‘Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities’, in *Tourism Management* 20, (1999), pp. 245-249.

local residents; government departments; or conservation agencies.⁵⁰⁴ The consideration, incorporation, and production of “knowledge and awareness” is the next objective whereby traditional and modern ecological knowledge systems in the management of natural resources are combined. Another important objective is “biodiversity protection” which focusses on the conservation of the biological diversity and associated ecosystems. The final objective looks at “sustainable utilization” which is a way of monitoring how natural resources are utilized and certain methods may be introduced to ensure the long-term availability of these resources so that present and future generations may both be able to utilize an equal amount of resources.⁵⁰⁵

In southern Africa, there are a number of natural resource “pools” and some of these include: forests; open woodland; grasslands which are all used for activities such as livestock grazing, the supply of wood, medical reasons and famine foods.⁵⁰⁶ Farm lands are also considered to be a resource “pool” and they are used for gathering of livestock and for grazing areas after the harvesting of crops. Wildlife areas are used for providing habitable land for wildlife to generate income from safari (viewing) tourism and from game meat. And finally, fresh water lakes are used to provide a habitat for fish and their related ecosystems as well as for the supply of irrigation water for sectors

⁵⁰⁴ S.R. Kellert; J.N, Mehta; S.A. Ebbin and L.L. Lichenfeld, ‘Community Natural Resource Management: Promise, Rhetoric, and Reality’, in *Society and Natural Resources* 13, (2000), pp. 705-715.

⁵⁰⁵ S.R. Kellert; J.N, Mehta; S.A. Ebbin and L.L. Lichenfeld, ‘Community Natural Resource Management: Promise, Rhetoric, and Reality’, in *Society and Natural Resources* 13, (2000), pp. 705-715.

⁵⁰⁶ P. Blaikie, ‘Is Small Really Beautiful? Community-based Natural Resource Management in Malawi and Botswana’, in *World Development* 34(11), (2006), pp.1942-1957.

such as agriculture.⁵⁰⁷ In terms of the legal and economic frameworks which were developed during the colonial period (from the early 1800s until about 1960) in southern Africa, many natural resource management programmes have tended to marginalize traditional knowledge systems and local institutions. However, in the post-colonial period and towards the new millennium, CBNRM began to reverse this process and the paradigm moved towards managing wildlife and other natural resources in and around community areas for the sole purpose of providing benefits for the local residents.⁵⁰⁸

A number of programmes have already been established in the region in countries such as Zambia, Zimbabwe, Botswana and South Africa. In Zambia the programme is referred to as Administrative Design for Game Management Areas (ADMAGE), and in Zimbabwe it is known as Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE).⁵⁰⁹ In Botswana and South Africa it is simply referred to as CBNRM and it generally agreed that the communities who live closest to the natural resources must receive the majority of the benefits.⁵¹⁰ The state is responsible for supplying proper tools, infrastructure and incentives in order for these communities to successfully manage and benefit from the conservation and use of natural resources.⁵¹¹ Therefore, with the presence of established programmes in the majority of the countries in the region it can be

⁵⁰⁷ P. Blaikie, 'Is Small Really Beautiful? Community-based Natural Resource Management in Malawi and Botswana', in *World Development* 34(11), (2006), pp.1942-1957.

⁵⁰⁸ T.C. Phuthego and R. Chanda, 'Traditional ecological knowledge and community-based natural resource management: Lessons from Botswana wildlife management area', in *Applied Geography* 24, (2004), pp. 57-76.

⁵⁰⁹ T.C. Phuthego and R. Chanda, 'Traditional ecological knowledge and community-based natural resource management: Lessons from Botswana wildlife management area', in *Applied Geography* 24, (2004), pp. 57-76.

⁵¹⁰ T.C. Phuthego and R. Chanda, 'Traditional ecological knowledge and community-based natural resource management: Lessons from Botswana wildlife management area', in *Applied Geography* 24, (2004), pp. 57-76.

⁵¹¹ Botswana Department of Wildlife and National Parks, *Natural Resource Management Project*, (2000), Gaborone: DWNP.

said that there is a need for increased cooperation in the management of natural resources and the development of Transboundary Natural Resource Management (TBNRM) needs to be explored further.⁵¹²

4.5. Conclusion

This chapter outlined the key components of Transfrontier Conservation Areas by considering their history, function and significance. It has also specifically considered TFCAs in the SADC region. This has provided evidence on why TFCAs are important for regional economic development and for the conservation of one of Africa's most prized assets, biodiversity. It has also analysed the institutional arrangements of a TFCA in order to determine the legal and political aspects of their establishment. This analysis also covered the numerous levels of stakeholders and their positions in the process of establishment. The final section of this chapter explored the involvement and the importance of local communities within the development of TFCAs. Authors, such as Mearns, stated that ventures such as Community-Based Tourism and Community-Based Natural Resource Management, are vital for the future of TFCAs in southern Africa. Both of these ventures were then discussed to determine their meaning and purpose within the TFCA framework and why they are considered as important aspects for the sustainable development of TFCAs.

⁵¹² W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary Conservation: The Politics of Ecological Integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

Chapter 5

History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area

5.1. Historical Development of the GLTFCA

The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (GLTP) was officially proclaimed as a Transfrontier Park (TFP) on the 9th December 2002 with the signing of an international treaty at Xai-Xai in Mozambique.⁵¹³

However, the development of the GLTFCA as a major conservation area was never a new idea and this phenomenon has deep historical roots.⁵¹⁴ In order to understand the development, it is also important to review the history of the three National Parks and their surrounding land zones. The challenges that faced the development of the parks ran along similar lines to the proposals for the TFCA.⁵¹⁵

Thus, using the model developed by Doppelfeld, which is a five part typology of cross-border partnership,⁵¹⁶ the next sections will consider the various stages that the GLTFCA underwent prior to and including its establishment. These include: alienation; co-existence; co-operation; collaboration and integration.

5.1.1. Alienation

Since as early as the 15th century, the countries of Mozambique, Zimbabwe and South Africa have been influenced by European settlers

⁵¹³ V. Moosa, 'Countries open transfrontier park', *Business Day*, 10 December 2002, p. 3.

⁵¹⁴ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

⁵¹⁵ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵¹⁶ See Chapter 3 and M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

who were attracted by the gold and ivory trading routes.⁵¹⁷ Some four centuries later, gold had been discovered in South Africa in and around Barberton and Pilgrims Rest⁵¹⁸ in the latter half of the 19th century.⁵¹⁹ The distribution of wildlife and the practice of game management in the area, during this time, were formed due to two factors. Firstly, between the 1850s-1860s there was an excessive amount of ivory, and other commercial hunting practices, which forced large populations of wildlife into less accessible land use zones.⁵²⁰ Secondly, between 1894 and 1897 a number of colonial borders were demarcated by political powers and in addition to this, the Rinderpest epidemic also had major impacts on the wildlife populations in the area.⁵²¹ A vast majority of this wildlife migrated from Rhodesia (now Zimbabwe), which was the main area of the outbreak, into the Portuguese territories of Mozambique. It took more than a decade for these animals to return to Rhodesia.⁵²²

This massive loss of game, along with the effects which were brought about by the “Rinderpest” epidemic⁵²³, led to the proclamation of the Sabi and Shingwitsi Game Reserves in 1898, in the “Zuid Afrikaansche

⁵¹⁷ J. Carruthers, *The Kruger National Park: A Social and Political History*, (1995), University of Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg, pp. 7.

⁵¹⁸ Barberton and Pilgrims Rest can be found in the Mpumalanga Province of South Africa.

⁵¹⁹ G. de Graaf, ‘The origin and development of nature conservation areas’, in J.S. Bergh (ed.), *Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika: Die vier noordelike provinsies*, Pretoria, (1998), pp. 1-15, (Translated).

⁵²⁰ E. Liebenberg, ‘The Physical Environment’, in J.S. Bergh (ed.), *Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika: Die vier noordelike provinsies*, Pretoria, (1998), pp. 159-160, (Translated).

⁵²¹ E. Liebenberg, ‘The Physical Environment’, in J.S. Bergh (ed.), *Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika: Die vier noordelike provinsies*, Pretoria, (1998), pp. 158-159, (Translated).

⁵²² D.G. McNeil Jr., “Rinderpest, Scourge of Cattle, Is Vanquished”, *The New York Times*, 27 June 2011, Internet: <http://www.nytimes.com>, Accessed: 6 October 2014.

⁵²³ Rinderpest (also known as the cattle plague or steppe murrain) was an infectious viral disease of cattle, domestic buffalo, and some other species of even-toed ungulates, including buffaloes, large antelope and deer, giraffes, wildebeests and warthogs – D.G. McNeil Jr., “Rinderpest, Scourge of Cattle, Is Vanquished”, *The New York Times*, 27 June 2011, Internet: <http://www.nytimes.com>, Accessed: 6 October 2014.

Republiek” or the ZAR (i.e. South African Republic).⁵²⁴ These reserves had been established to create a safe environment for game where they would be protected from “both “African” and “white” hunters”.⁵²⁵ In 1902, a number of officials from these reserves began to recollect some game from areas which bordered Mozambique and Rhodesia. The reason for this was because many of the local inhabitants, of the neighbouring countries, would kill any wild animals that they came across and the game warden of the KNP, Warden Stevenson-Hamilton, was concerned about the depletion of the wildlife populations.⁵²⁶ During the early 1920s, General Jan Christiaan Smuts had also introduced the notion of a ‘great fauna and tourist road through Africa’, which would essentially link the future KNP region and parts of Rhodesia.⁵²⁷

In line with the inception level of alienation prevailing at this time, there was no evidence of real partnerships between the two states involved. The Mozambique-Transvaal Convention of 1901 had only amounted to a reluctant agreement by the Transvaal authorities to cede Portuguese sovereignty over Delagoa Bay. The bilateral agreement to construct transport infrastructure was to the advantage of the Transvaal, as were the labour recruiting arrangements.⁵²⁸ This

⁵²⁴ J. Carruthers, ‘Creating a National Park, 1910-1926’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 15(2), (1989), pp. 188-216.

⁵²⁵ E. Liebenberg, ‘The Physical Environment’, in J.S. Bergh (ed.), *Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika: Die vier noordelike provinsies*, Pretoria, (1998), pp. 162-163, (Translated).

⁵²⁶ J. Stevenson-Hamilton, ‘Transvaal Government Game Reserves and Regulations’, *Journal of the Society for the Preservation of the Wild Fauna of the Empire*, (1909), pp. 63–5; C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵²⁷ W. Whande and H. Suich, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area’, in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

⁵²⁸ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), p. 725.

agreement terminated in 1923 and was not renewed before 1928 after the creation of the KNP.⁵²⁹

In 1926, the two reserves, Sabi and Shingwitsi, were then merged into the larger KNP and this development was characteristic of the principles associated with conservation at the time. These principles were governed by the idea that wildlife would still be used for human ends and is recognised as a profitable resource, yet these profits would only be yielded through recreational game viewing.⁵³⁰ The KNP was officially opened between 1927 and 1928 where 850 guests were reported to have entered the park.⁵³¹ The park's holding capacity was then increased in 1930 and a total of eight rest camps or 78 huts were built throughout the park.⁵³² During this transitional period, whereby hunting reserves were transformed into conservation areas, many local farmers began to feel aggrieved by these hunting bans. The reason for this is because the majority of the farmers in the region relied on game meat for their livelihoods and during periods of drought they would have to resort to poaching out of desperation.⁵³³ The KNP, and all game reserves that preceded it, were considered as

⁵²⁹ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), p. 725.

⁵³⁰ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵³¹ M. Chitura, 'International Tourism and Changes in the South African Tourism Product in the 1990s: Accommodation and Tourist Amenities in the Kruger National Park', MA Thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, (2005), pp. 1 and 15.

⁵³² M. Chitura, 'International Tourism and Changes in the South African Tourism Product in the 1990s: Accommodation and Tourist Amenities in the Kruger National Park', MA Thesis, University of the Witwatersrand, Johannesburg, (2005), pp. 1 and 15.

⁵³³ J. Carruthers, 'Creating a National Park, 1910 to 1926', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 15(2), (1989), p. 190.

an inspiration to all those who considered tourism as a potentially significant business.⁵³⁴

5.1.2. Co-existence

In 1914, the legendary ivory poacher, Cecil Barnard suggested to the Native Commissioner of the Chibi District, Peter Forestall, that the Gonarezhou area in south eastern Rhodesia (now known as Zimbabwe) should be linked with the game areas in South Africa for the purpose of tourism.⁵³⁵ This proposal was immediately rejected by Forestall as he did not agree with what he described as a “poacher’s idea”.⁵³⁶

It was not until 1924, ten years after Barnard’s original proposal that the Rhodesian Department of Commerce began to consider the establishment of a game reserve in the area.⁵³⁷ The Department was further backed by individual hoteliers, safari operators and the Wildlife Protection Society of Southern Rhodesia.⁵³⁸ In 1928, an Entomologist recommended that this reserve should be expanded into a bigger sanctuary as the land area was “not good for anything else”.⁵³⁹ This proposal meant that the boundaries would be a lot bigger than the Gonarezhou National Park which exists today. This was however rejected by the Rhodesian Department of Agriculture and Native Affairs

⁵³⁴ E. Liebenberg, ‘The Physical Environment’, in J.S. Bergh (ed.), *Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika: Die vier noordelike provinsies*, Pretoria, (1998), pp. 159-160, (Translated).

⁵³⁵ W. Wolmer, ‘Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

⁵³⁶ T. V. Bulpin, *The Ivory Trail*, Cape Town, T.V. Bulpin, (1954), p. 97; C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵³⁷ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵³⁸ W. Wolmer, ‘Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe’s Southeast Lowveld’, *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264.

⁵³⁹ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

as the boundaries would intrude onto the lands used by the “white” cattle farmers as well as the grazing lands of local communities.⁵⁴⁰

In 1933, the newly established Rhodesian government had to review the borders of the proposed game reserve so that it would only lie alongside the “European” lands in the south and south eastern areas of the country. The “Nuenetsi” area, in the south, was not included in the plans for the reserve, for an unknown reason, and this essentially broke the link between the Gonarezhou area and the KNP.⁵⁴¹ In 1934, the Government allowed the boundaries of the Gonarezhou area to revert back to its original coordinates as established in 1928. Therefore, the area once again extended to the Limpopo region near the border with Mozambique and re-established the link with the KNP. The Gona-re-zhou Game Reserve, meaning “the home of the elephant”, was officially proclaimed in 1934, and was then later upgraded in 1975 as the Gonarezhou National Park (GNP). The Minister of Commerce and Transport of Rhodesia at the time, Mr R.P. Gilchrist, was believed to have supported the idea of the proposed ‘mega-park’ and he believed that could potentially encourage the growth of tourism in the region.⁵⁴²

At the time of its proclamation in 1934-1975, approximately 7,000 people and 3,000 heads of cattle were living in the area with the vast

⁵⁴⁰ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁴¹ W. Wolmer, ‘Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe’s Southeast Lowveld’, *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264.

⁵⁴² W. Wolmer, ‘Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

majority present alongside the border with Mozambique.⁵⁴³ After much debate, between the Native Commissioner and the local Chiefs, a consideration had been made whereby the communities living along the border could possibly be moved into the Portuguese territory of Mozambique.⁵⁴⁴ W, Wolmer notes that these evictions and displacements of the local residents left them to feel aggrieved and this has continued to fuel the hostilities of the people towards conservation and the establishment of game reserves in the region.⁵⁴⁵

However, many of the supporters for the game reserve in Rhodesia were found in the emerging tourism sector at the time. Hoteliers and tour operators, such as R.M. Nairn & Co. had applied for government contracts to provide carriage, lodges, tents and catering facilities for hunting parties.⁵⁴⁶ Towards the end of the year the hoteliers, known as C. Ashley-Belbin and A.G. Hay, proposed the development of two trading stores, a petrol pump and rest huts. The Rhodesian Ministry of Commerce was in full support for these developments as they saw tourism as a viable land-use option for the area. However, they faced competition from the Rhodesian Ministry of Agriculture as they considered game reserves as more important contributors to the country's economy and they feared these reserves would act as a

⁵⁴³ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁴⁴ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁴⁵ W. Wolmer, 'Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe's Southeast Lowveld', *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264.

⁵⁴⁶ W. Beinhardt, 'Empire, Hunting and Ecological Change in Southern and Central Africa, *Past & Present* 128, (1990), p. 264.

“reservoir” for harmful diseases.⁵⁴⁷ The struggles that the GNP faced at this time were also responsible for the struggle involved in developing transfrontier co-operation in wildlife conservation in this region.⁵⁴⁸

5.1.3. Co-operation

In 1908, Stevenson-Hamilton had expressed his concern regarding the wildlife, which left the KNP for the Portuguese territory. He feared that the wildlife would never return to their original habitats, this however ultimately proved to be wrong. For example, during the dry season, large populations of elephants that had left South African territory would cross the border back into South Africa in search for water, many of which wandered into areas where hunting was not controlled, thus raising further concerns for wildlife officials. In 1927, James Hertzog, the minister of the Union of South Africa at the time, had written to the Portuguese High Commissioner in Mozambique to inform him of the newly established KNP.⁵⁴⁹ In this communication, Hertzog proposed a similar type of development which could adjoin the KNP from the Crocodile River in the south to the convergence of the Pafuri and Limpopo Rivers in the north, thus creating an area of “fifty miles wide”.⁵⁵⁰

⁵⁴⁷ W. Wolmer, ‘Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe’s Southeast Lowveld’, *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264; C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁴⁸ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁴⁹ J. Carruthers, *The Kruger National Park: A Social and Political History*, (1995), University of Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg, p. 62.

⁵⁵⁰ J. Carruthers, *The Kruger National Park: A Social and Political History*, (1995), University of Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg, p. 62; C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

This proposal was however rejected by the Portuguese as they felt that the area was too vast and it covered most of the southern parts of the country which included many farms with livestock populations of over 200,000.⁵⁵¹ However, the Portuguese Commissioner did suggest that game protection was being considered and one game reserve had been planned for the border with Kruger, which would stretch between the Limpopo and Olifants River as well as from the mouth of the Sabi River and its convergence with the Nkomati River.⁵⁵² These reserves were officially referred to as “coutadas” or hunting areas and the “coutada” which would be established on the border was known as “Coutada 16”.⁵⁵³ During 1927, The Portuguese Chief of Cabinet requested the Portuguese Director of Local Civil Administration if the “coutadas” could be transformed into official game reserves. However the Director made it clear that the Portuguese were against the plans of the Union of South Africa to establish a reserve on the border as it covered an area with a large bovine population and the game reserve could potentially introduce a tsetse fly epidemic.⁵⁵⁴ The reason for this “hostility” is because the Portuguese still had a hold on Mozambique and thus their relationships with the British and the South Africans were rather strained.⁵⁵⁵ The Portuguese most probably interpreted the

⁵⁵¹ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁵² C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁵³ B. Soto, ‘Protected Areas in Mozambique’, in B. Child; H. Suich and A. Spenceley (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, London: Routledge, (2012), pp. 85-103.

⁵⁵⁴ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁵⁵ M. Newitt, *A History of Mozambique*, London: Hurst, (1995), pp. 356–61.

Union's attempt to establish the game reserve on the border as a way of gaining control over the Portuguese colony.⁵⁵⁶

In 1928, the Union of South Africa and the Portuguese of Mozambique signed a new Mozambique-Transvaal Convention after the previous one (1901-1923) had expired.⁵⁵⁷ This convention was originally established to grant Mozambique sovereignty of their territories and to restrict any control by South Africa.⁵⁵⁸ In 1933, the need for the protection of game in the Portuguese territory was once again raised by the Union. At the Convention for the Preservation of Wild Animals, Birds and Fish in Africa, held in London in 1933, the High Commissioner of the Union of South Africa requested the Portuguese representatives to establish a means of decreasing the amount of elephants which moved from Kruger into Mozambique.⁵⁵⁹ There was no response from the Portuguese but South Africa had soon discovered that, one year earlier in 1932, the Portuguese had indeed given into the pressure from their neighbours and decided to embark on protecting wildlife species in their territories.⁵⁶⁰

In 1934, the Portuguese finally established a game reserve for the protection of wildlife species. A report was released which provided

⁵⁵⁶ M. Newitt, *A History of Mozambique*, London: Hurst, (1995), pp. 356–61; B. Soto, 'Protected Areas in Mozambique', in B. Child; H.Suich and A. Spenceley (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, London: Routledge, (2012), pp. 85-103.

⁵⁵⁷ M. Newitt, *A History of Mozambique*, London: Hurst, (1995), pp. 356–61.

⁵⁵⁸ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁵⁹ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735; B. Soto, 'Protected Areas in Mozambique', in B. Child; H.Suich and A. Spenceley (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, London: Routledge, (2012), pp. 85-103.

⁵⁶⁰ B. Soto, 'Protected Areas in Mozambique', in B. Child; H.Suich and A. Spenceley (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, London: Routledge, (2012), pp. 85-103.

detailed descriptions on two reserves which had been established. Firstly, a reserve was developed in the Lourenço Marques District (Maputo) as a temporary measure in order to accommodate game from South Africa and it would also offer tourists easier access due to the good road networks near the capital. The second reserve, “Coutada 16”, bordered the Transvaal region of South Africa and it was slowly being transformed into a conservation area as hunting was then monitored through a permit system.⁵⁶¹ In 1939, hunting was not permitted to non-nationals and these caused increased border controls between Mozambique and South Africa.⁵⁶² Later that year, in Mozambique, the Banhine National Park and Zinave National Park, originally proclaimed as hunting areas in 1969, were both upgraded to National Parks in 1972. “Coutada 16” was later proclaimed as The Limpopo National Park (LNP) in 2001.

Going back to the early 1930s, the Great Limpopo region now consisted of a number of established conservation areas and a number of initiatives were being put into place to form a larger conservation area which would essentially span across national and regional boundaries.

In 1933, the Rhodesian government had also approached the colonial government of Mozambique with ideas of co-operating in conservation across the border area.⁵⁶³ The requests made by Rhodesia differed

⁵⁶¹ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁶² B. Soto, ‘Protected Areas in Mozambique’, in B. Child; H. Suich and A. Spenceley (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, London: Routledge, (2012), pp. 85-103.

⁵⁶³ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

significantly from those made by South Africa as it focussed more on transboundary tourism rather than transboundary conservation.⁵⁶⁴ The Rhodesian Minister of Commerce, R.D. Gilchrist, was the key figure in these discussions as he wanted to improve the infrastructure in the Gonzarezhou reserve and expand this development across borders.⁵⁶⁵ At the end of 1933, the authorities in Mozambique were also investing in tourism and proposals were established to create a “tourist zone” in the capital.⁵⁶⁶ In 1934, Rhodesia and Mozambique had drawn up a treaty which offered citizens of both countries “advantageous train tariffs” thus allowing the Portuguese to spend their holidays in Rhodesia and vice versa.⁵⁶⁷ During these discussions, Gilchrist also introduced the idea of a game reserve which would be “partly in Rhodesia and partly in Mozambique” and both countries would share the tourism facilities.⁵⁶⁸

5.1.4. Collaboration

The history of collaboration for the GLTFCA can be traced back to almost the same period as above. In 1931, the Union of South Africa had formally criticised the hunting practices which were taking place

⁵⁶⁴ W. Wolmer, ‘Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe’s Southeast Lowveld’, *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264.

⁵⁶⁵ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁶⁶ KNP, “‘Tourist Zone’ for Lourenço Marques: Seeking New Means of Attracting Visitors’, *AW*, 2 December 1933, p. 266; C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁶⁷ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁶⁸ KNP, ‘Agreement with Mozambique: Facilities for Tourist Traffic and Cattle Export’, *AW*, 23 June 1934, p. 377; C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

on the Rhodesian side of the Limpopo River. This incident thus sparked some of the first bilateral talks between the Union and Rhodesia. These talks resulted in a hunting ban along the Limpopo River.⁵⁶⁹ At the same time, the KNP had increased its size to 12,800km² and a rest camp of 100 cottages, each with a 4-bed capacity, was developed.⁵⁷⁰ In mid-1933, the “Pafuri Reserve” was established at the Limpopo-Pafuri River junction and this, with all disregard for the Makulele people (see section 5.4.1. below), brought the KNP’s northern borders to the Rhodesian border.⁵⁷¹ In December 1933, Gilchrist had initiated negotiations between the Rhodesian government and the Government of Mozambique with a view of co-operation and collaboration. During February 1934, Gilchrist had become optimistic about establishing the proposed Gonarezhou reserve within an area of approximately 2-million acres.⁵⁷² Meanwhile, discussions were also well underway between the Union of South Africa and Mozambique despite the tense relationship between the two countries.

During this phase of early collaboration, Gilchrist had also informed the Union of a certain on-going feasibility study which showed maps of road networks and how they were being opened to allow for transboundary travel.⁵⁷³ On the 25th November 1933, he then

⁵⁶⁹ J. Smith, ‘A fight that’s never to be forgotten’, *The Star*, 06 December 2012, p. 19.

⁵⁷⁰ J. Carruthers, *The Kruger National Park: A Social and Political History*, (1995), University of Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg, pp. 7.

⁵⁷¹ J. Carruthers, ‘Creating a National Park, 1910-1926’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 15(2), (1989), pp. 188-216.

⁵⁷² KNP, ‘National Game Reserve: The Government’s Proposals’, *AW*, 3 March 1934, p. 264; C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁷³ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

announced the original plans that would transform the KNP, Gonarezhou and “Coutada 16” into “the greatest game sanctuary in the world, which would attract far greater numbers of tourists to the region than in the past”.⁵⁷⁴ At this point, Gilchrist also added that in order to create this “famed” pathway from Rhodesia through the KNP there should be collective transborder co-operation as this project was “too big to be tackled single-handedly”.⁵⁷⁵

In September 1934, Deneys Reitz, who was a South African legal practitioner and a former politician at the time, travelled to Rhodesia on behalf of the government to meet Gilchrist in order to discuss the linking of Gonarezhou and Kruger at the Pafuri-Limpopo River Junction.⁵⁷⁶ Upon leaving, Reitz promised Gilchrist that he would approach the government in Pretoria with the idea of creating this large, transboundary game park.⁵⁷⁷ During the end of 1934 The Society for the Preservation of Wild Fauna of the Empire had noted that Gonarezhou was established in such a way that it could essentially link up with the northern borders of the KNP. This also meant that during times of drought in the Limpopo River, the larger animals from

⁵⁷⁴ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁷⁵ W. Wolmer, ‘Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe’s Southeast Lowveld’, *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264; C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁷⁶ W. Wolmer, ‘Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe’s Southeast Lowveld’, *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264.

⁵⁷⁷ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

the KNP would migrate across the borders and stock the proposed transfrontier area.⁵⁷⁸

During 1936-1937, more discussions were held concerning the proposed transfrontier area. In 1937, at the South African Publicity Conference, delegates from the South African Wildlife Protection Society once again expressed the need for further development of parks in both Rhodesia and Mozambique in order to link them with the KNP.⁵⁷⁹

The introduction of veterinary fences⁵⁸⁰ has had an important role to play in the overall history of the area. During the 1920s-1930s, the tsetse fly became a major problem for all countries involved and it was seen as a major stumbling block for transfrontier development.⁵⁸¹ In 1931-1932, there were also a number of Foot and Mouth Disease (FMD) outbreaks which meant that the development of a game reserve was virtually unthinkable.⁵⁸² Furthermore an entomologist had also warned that that the proposed Gonarezhou Reserve was too near to the border to restrict any advances of the tsetse fly. It was believed that a permanent game reserve would be very “short-lived” as thousands of cattle grazed in areas where game would potentially

⁵⁷⁸ W. Wolmer, ‘Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe’s Southeast Lowveld’, *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264.

⁵⁷⁹ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, ‘Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁸⁰ A veterinary corridor is a means of managing the disease crossing points between domestic animals and wildlife, as well as humans within national parks. – Siyabonga Africa, (2014), ‘Botswana Wildlife Conservation: Vet Fences in Botswana’, Internet: <http://www.botswana.co.za>, Accessed: 11 November 2014.

⁵⁸¹ W. Wolmer, ‘Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe’s Southeast Lowveld’, *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264.

⁵⁸² E. Liebenberg, ‘The Physical Environment’, in J.S. Bergh (ed.), *Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika: Die vier noordelike provinsies*, Pretoria, (1998), pp. 156-157, (Translated).

roam.⁵⁸³ By the end of 1934, a large majority of cattle had been relocated away from all three border regions to avoid any further spread of diseases.

The general veterinary crisis (1934-1936) was a major stumbling block which hindered any development of the transboundary area as many of the cattle ranches were adamant about not sharing their borders with a game reserve. In March 1935, Rhodesia's Chief Veterinary Officer had proposed the construction of a veterinary border fence in order to monitor the cross-border movements of cattle.⁵⁸⁴ This fence would essentially control the grazing patterns of livestock populations and thus it became a physical barrier, in more ways than one, to the development of game corridors between the three National Parks.⁵⁸⁵

By February 1939, veterinarians from South Africa had suggested that they were satisfied with the idea that game played little or no role on the spreading of veterinary diseases. This was done in an attempt to decrease the culling of game in the KNP and their plea also included a statement that antelope were not the source of diseases.⁵⁸⁶ By 1951, permanent stations had been established to detect any infestations and a mass culling exercise had also begun to eradicate any game or vegetation that may have been carrying the disease.⁵⁸⁷ Unfortunately,

⁵⁸³ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁸⁴ W. Wolmer, 'Wilderness Gained, Wilderness Lost: Wildlife Management and Land Occupation in Zimbabwe's Southeast Lowveld', *Journal of Historical Geography* 31, (2005), p. 264.

⁵⁸⁵ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

⁵⁸⁶ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

⁵⁸⁷ C. Mavhunga and M. Spierenburg, 'Transfrontier Talk, Cordon Politics: The Early History of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa, 1925-1940', *Journal of Southern African Studies* 35(3), (2009), pp. 715-735.

by this time the ideas of a “mega-park” had been disregarded and would only be revived in the 1970s-1990s.⁵⁸⁸

5.1.5. Integration

As mentioned above, the initial plans of the “mega-park” were never viable and only re-emerged around the 1970s when an expatriate conservation biologist (name unknown), who was based in Mozambique, wrote a report which explored a potential conservation area that would span across the South Africa-Mozambique border.⁵⁸⁹ The South African National Parks Board was found to be very interested in the details of this report but it was not until the 1990s that a feasibility study was commissioned by the Government of Mozambique.⁵⁹⁰

At the time the concepts outlined in the report were very appealing to the South African Parks Boards for a number of reasons. Firstly, following the ‘politically alienated, apartheid era’ in South Africa (1930s-1993), the Parks Board, as well as other stakeholders in the wildlife industry, were looking to empower the previously impoverished communities and thus the TFCA would provide a means of doing so.⁵⁹¹ Secondly, at the end of the Civil war in Mozambique (1977-1992), conservationists in the KNP were concerned that the population, who were displaced during the war, would start to move into areas that

⁵⁸⁸ W. Wolmer, ‘Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

⁵⁸⁹ W. Wolmer, ‘Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

⁵⁹⁰ K.L. Tinley and W.F van Riet, ‘Conceptual Proposals for Kruger/Bahine: A Transfrontier Natural Resource Area’, in an Unpublished Paper, (1991), South African National Parks.

⁵⁹¹ J. Carruthers, ‘Creating a National Park, 1910-1926’, *Journal of Southern African Studies* 15(2), (1989), pp. 188-216.

bordered the park in Mozambique.⁵⁹² Therefore there was a need to create “buffer zones” before these populations became too large to control. And thirdly, the envisaged TFCA would be an appropriate solution to the unnecessary culling of wildlife, such as elephants, as the removal of fences would facilitate the free movement of wildlife and in doing so the environmental impacts would be reduced along with the need for culling.⁵⁹³

Over the past eight decades, the establishment of the GLTFCA has been administered by various public and private sector stakeholders from South Africa with most of the efforts coming from the Peace Parks Foundation (PPF).⁵⁹⁴ The PPF was originally launched in 1997 by a wealthy tobacco magnate in South Africa, Anton Rupert, who established the foundation with a mandate to facilitate TFCA development.⁵⁹⁵ His experience as the former president of the World Wide Fund for Nature (WWF) in South Africa, as well as his success in multiple tourism business ventures (such as the Rembrandt Group Ltd.) created a foundation for further TFCA establishment in Africa.⁵⁹⁶ Rupert has been one of the major players in the development of the GLTFCA for a number of reasons. For example, Rupert was responsible for the initiation of talks with President Joaquim Chissano

⁵⁹² G. Huggins, E. Barendse, A. Fischer and J. Sitei, ‘Limpopo National Park: Resettlement Policy Framework’, (2003), in B. Büscher (ed.), *Transforming the Frontier: Peace Parks and the Politics of Neoliberal Conservation in Southern Africa*, (2013), Duke University Press.

⁵⁹³ W. Wolmer, ‘Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

⁵⁹⁴ W. Whande and H. Suich, ‘Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area’, in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

⁵⁹⁵ W. Wolmer, ‘Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

⁵⁹⁶ M. Doppelfeld, ‘Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa’, in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

of Mozambique in 1990 and he was also solely responsible for securing funding and capital investment from the World Bank during the late 1990s.⁵⁹⁷

5.2. The Establishment of the GLFCA

The heads of state of South Africa, Zimbabwe and Mozambique met in the early 1990s to establish a TFCA which included the Kruger National Park; Gonarezhou National Park and Limpopo National Park.⁵⁹⁸

A number of other land use zones, such as protected areas and communal lands, were also included in the area. These included the Manjinji Pan Sanctuary and the Malipati Safari Area in Zimbabwe; as well as two areas found between South Africa and Zimbabwe - the Sengwe Communal Land in Zimbabwe and the Mukuleke region in South Africa.⁵⁹⁹ The Sengwe Communal Land or the Sengwe Corridor is considered an important link between KNP and the Gonarezhou National Park.⁶⁰⁰ The area encompasses approximately 35,000 square kilometres which is only a third of the original plan and the area could potentially expand to over 100,000 square kilometres.⁶⁰¹

The expansion of Phase 1 (i.e. the expansion of the GLTP) includes the Banhine and Zinave National Parks, the Massingir and Courumana

⁵⁹⁷ SANParks, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet:
http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/transfrontier/great_limpopo.php, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁵⁹⁸ Peace Parks Foundation, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet:
<http://www.peaceparks.org/tfca.php?pid=19&mid=1005>, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁵⁹⁹ SANParks, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet:
http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/transfrontier/great_limpopo.php, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶⁰⁰ W. Whande and H. Suich, 'Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area', in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd; M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

⁶⁰¹ SANParks, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet:
http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/transfrontier/great_limpopo.php, Accessed: 22 April 2014

areas and interlinking regions; as well as other adjacent private and state-owned conservation areas in South Africa and Zimbabwe.⁶⁰² The final demarcation of the GLTFCA will be decided by a number of cooperative planning processes between stakeholders from each of the three states, many of which are still in progress.⁶⁰³

The inclusion of communal land areas may cause a debate on the difference between a Transfrontier Park (TFP) and a Transfrontier Conservation Area (TFCA). A TFCA is known as a phase which follows immediately after the establishment of a transfrontier park.⁶⁰⁴ It effectively refers to the extension of an agreement to include communal and privately owned lands. J. Darnell clarifies this issue by stating that the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (GLTP) and the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area (GLTFCA) are two different, but related entities.⁶⁰⁵ She adds to this by saying that the GLTP is a 35,000km² park which is formed by the Limpopo National Park (Mozambique); Kruger National Park and Makulele Reserve (South Africa); and the Gonarezhou National Park (Zimbabwe). The GLTP is a park within the larger GLTFCA.⁶⁰⁶ The GLTFCA ultimately links the national parks, hunting areas and communal lands in Mozambique,

⁶⁰² Peace Parks Foundation, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.org/tfca.php?pid=19&mid=1005>, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶⁰³ SANParks, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/transfrontier/great_limpopo.php, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶⁰⁴ D.M. Mello, 'Intergovernmental Relations in the Management of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', PhD Thesis: Public Administration, University of Pretoria, (2007), Pretoria.

⁶⁰⁵ J.E. Darnell, *Are Peace Parks Effective Peacebuilding Tools? Evaluating the Impact of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as a Regional Stabilizing Agent*, (2008), ProQuest: The American University.

⁶⁰⁶ J.E. Darnell, *Are Peace Parks Effective Peacebuilding Tools? Evaluating the Impact of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as a Regional Stabilizing Agent*, (2008), ProQuest: The American University.

South Africa and Zimbabwe to form a 100,000km² conservation reserve, with the GLTP only being one phase of this process (see Figure 8).⁶⁰⁷

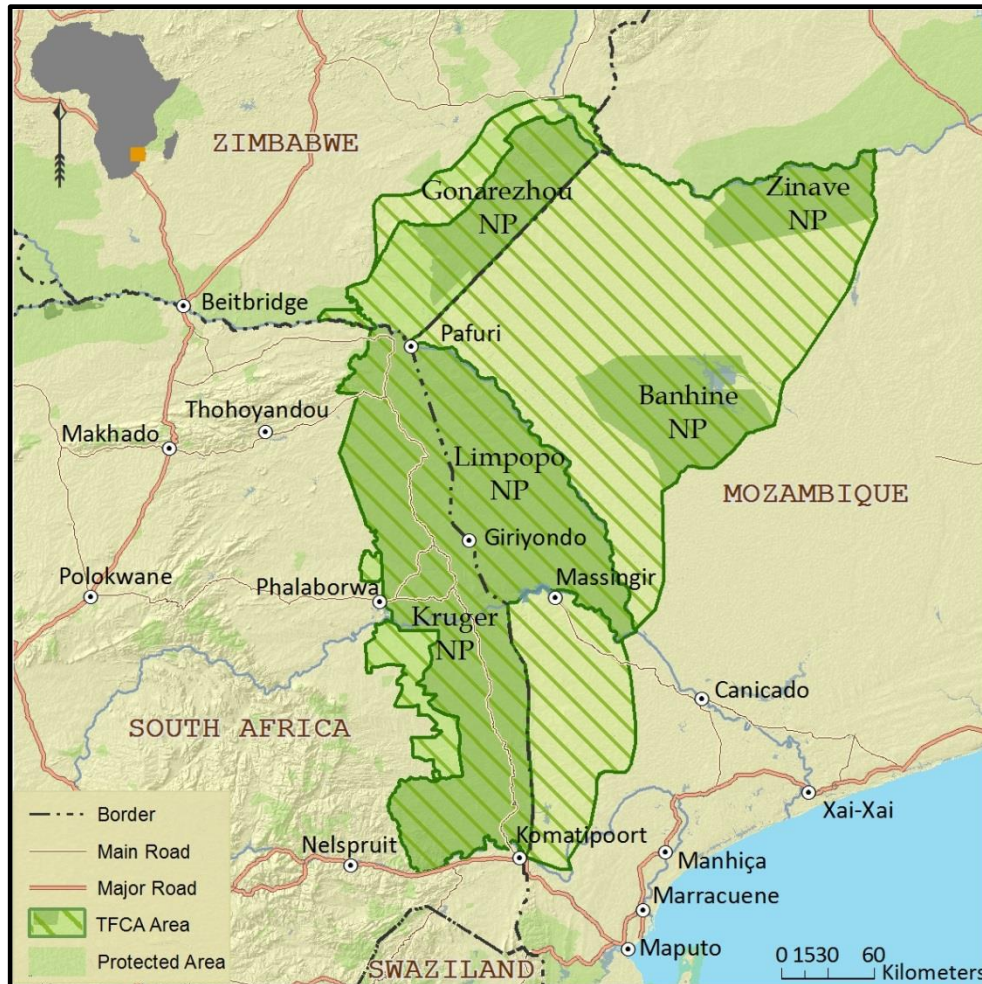


Figure 8: The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area⁶⁰⁸

Therefore for the purpose of this dissertation, the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (GLTP) will be referred to as the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area (GLTFCA) due to the inclusion of communal lands such as the Makulele region in South Africa.

⁶⁰⁷ J.E. Darnell, *Are Peace Parks Effective Peacebuilding Tools? Evaluating the Impact of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park as a Regional Stabilizing Agent*, (2008), ProQuest: The American University.

⁶⁰⁸ Research Platform: Production and Conservation in Partnership, (2012), 'Study Sites', Internet: <http://www.rp-pcp.org/study-sites/>, Accessed: 25 July 2014.

The GLTFCA was established with the purpose of combining some of the best and most established wildlife areas in southern Africa, along with the expansion of Africa's first conservation area, the KNP.⁶⁰⁹ The GLTFCA Treaty was introduced to enforce the re-establishment of traditional wildlife migratory routes and other functions of the ecosystems which have been disrupted in the past.⁶¹⁰ In addition to this, the TFCA aims to generate jobs and revenues for the poverty-stricken local communities.⁶¹¹ The treaty also sets out that the area should be managed as an integrated unit which involves multiple stakeholders from each of the three states.⁶¹²

The official establishment of the GLTFCA began in 1990 with the above mentioned meeting between the president of Mozambique, Joaquim Chissano, and the president of the WWF, Anton Rupert.⁶¹³ In 1991, the Mozambican government was granted funds by the Global Environment Facility (GEF) and these were utilized for feasibility studies which formed part of the pilot project for the GLTFCA.⁶¹⁴ During 1992-1994, two major political processes were considered as the driving forces behind the transformation of the GLTFCA from an idea into a reality. Firstly, Mozambique had signed the Peace Accord

⁶⁰⁹ J. Carruthers, 'Africa: Histories, Ecologies and Societies, in *Environment and History* 14(2), (2009), pp. 221-252; Peace Parks Foundation, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.org/tfca.php?pid=19&mid=1005>, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶¹⁰ The Government of the Republic of South Africa, The Government of the Republic of Mozambique and The Government of the Republic of Zimbabwe, *GLTFCA Treaty*, (2002).

⁶¹¹ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

⁶¹² M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

⁶¹³ SANParks, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/transfrontier/great_limpopo.php, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶¹⁴ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

in 1992 which ended an era of civil war conflict and secondly, South Africa held its first democratic election in 1994, which saw the end of the Apartheid era.⁶¹⁵ In 1996, the 1991 feasibility studies then gained momentum and the GEF granted additional funds so that these studies were then included in the pilot project.⁶¹⁶

This then led to the signing of a tri-lateral agreement at Skukuza in South Africa on the 10th November 2000, between Ministries from each of the three countries involved.⁶¹⁷ The agreement was signed by the following government officials: Minister Helder Muteia - the Minister of Agriculture and Rural Development in Mozambique; Minister Valli Moosa - the Minister of Environmental Affairs and Tourism in South Africa; and Minister Francisco Nhema - the Minister of Environment and Tourism in Zimbabwe.⁶¹⁸ The Skukuza Agreement of 2000 (i.e. GLTFCA Treaty) revealed the intention of the three nations to establish and develop a transfrontier park as well as a larger conservation area for the benefit of the populations of the three nations. At the time of the signing, the park was named the Gaza-Kruger-Gonarezhou Park (GKG).⁶¹⁹

⁶¹⁵ R.J. Reid, *Warfare in African History*, (2012), Cambridge University Press.

⁶¹⁶ SANParks, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/transfrontier/great_limpopo.php, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶¹⁷ SANParks, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/transfrontier/great_limpopo.php, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶¹⁸ W. Whande and H. Suich, 'Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area', in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

⁶¹⁹ SANParks, 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/transfrontier/great_limpopo.php, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

The GLTFCA treaty includes a vision statement which states:

To achieve inter-state collaboration in the conservation of trans-boundary ecosystems and their associated biodiversity, promoting sustainable use of natural resources to improve the quality of life of the people of Mozambique, South Africa and Zimbabwe.⁶²⁰

Furthermore, the GLTFCA aims to re-establish any historical wildlife migratory routes and other aspects of ecosystems which have been disrupted by the establishment of boundaries. Another major aim is to generate jobs and revenue for the impoverished local communities who reside within or adjacent to the conservation area.⁶²¹

The main objective of the 2002 GLTFCA treaty is to increase transnational collaboration among the three nations in order to facilitate effective ecosystem management within the entire conservation area.⁶²² Additional objectives were to: encourage social, economic and other partnerships within the private sector; establish cooperation between the local communities and NGOs to manage biodiversity; create harmonisation between all environmental management practices across the borders; and to remove all fences and artificial boundaries to encourage the movement of wildlife.⁶²³

The conservation area also aims to establish and maintain a sustainable economic base for the region through the development of

⁶²⁰ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

⁶²¹ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

⁶²² W. Whande and H. Suich, 'Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area', in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

⁶²³ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

collaborative strategies, work plans and frameworks.⁶²⁴ The facilitation of cross-border tourism is also an objective as it is believed that it may foster increased regional socio-economic development as well as the development of a culture of peace, hence its recognition as a Peace Park.⁶²⁵

The GLTFCA has yet to be signed as an officially established TFCA and this lack of formalisation means that the objectives have not been publicly defined or put into practice.⁶²⁶ In other words, while cooperation and collaboration as well as the physical plans for integration have been achieved the final formalisation remains outstanding.

5.3. Conclusion

This chapter has discussed the historical background to the development of the GLTFCA and has applied the concepts of alienation; co-existence; co-operation; collaboration and integration as devised by Doppelfeld. The development of the area was then followed by a discussion on the pending establishment of the GLTFCA.

The next chapter will consider the GLTFCA's potential for tourism development as well as the involvement of local communities in the area.

⁶²⁴ W. Whande and H. Suich, 'Transfrontier Conservation Initiatives in Southern Africa: Observations from the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area', in H. Suich and B. Child (eds.), *Evolution and Innovation in Wildlife Conservation: Parks and Game Ranches to Transfrontier Conservation Areas*, (2009), Earthscan Ltd.

⁶²⁵ P. Hawthorne, 'Game Without Frontiers', *Time Magazine*, 14 May 2001, Cape Town, p. 32; F. Macleod, 'The Promise of Peace Parks', *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 10 November 2005, p. 14.

⁶²⁶ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: the politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', in *Journal of Southern African Studies* 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-278.

Chapter 6

The Importance and Potential of the GLTFCA

6.1. The GLTFCA Region

The GLTFCA has been recognised, by scholars such as W. Wholmer, as the single largest conservation area in southern Africa and it has also been established with the aim of becoming an important tourism destination for the region.⁶²⁷ Not only does the area contain a number of important ecosystems and natural resources, but it also has various aspects which possess certain heritage and cultural value. The convergence of a variety of natural resources and diverse populations of cultural groups has created an area with a rich tourism potential that has yet to be utilized for the benefit of local communities, as well as the national governments of South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe.

The proposed transfrontier region has the potential of creating one of the most impressive conservation and development regions in the world, with an area of approximately 95,700km².⁶²⁸ The region is considered to include a diversity of vertebrate species, as well as other unique mammals, fish and bird species. The flora is also considered to be important and there are a number of tropical and sub-tropical species with more temperate species being found at higher altitudes.⁶²⁹ The KNP represents a large area of the GLTFCA

⁶²⁷ M. Doppelfeld, 'Collaborative Stakeholder Planning in Cross-Border Regions: The Case of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park in Southern Africa', in H. Wachowiak (ed.), *Tourism and Borders: Contemporary Issues, Policies and International Research*, (2006), Hampshire, England: Ashgate Publishing.

⁶²⁸ S. Metcalfe, 'Transboundary Protected Areas Impacts on Communities: Case Study of Three Southern African Transboundary Conservation Initiatives', in AWF Working Papers, (2005), African Wildlife Foundation.

⁶²⁹ S. Metcalfe, 'Transboundary Protected Areas Impacts on Communities: Case Study of Three Southern African Transboundary Conservation Initiatives', in AWF Working Papers, (2005), African Wildlife Foundation.

and it is stocked with a high number of wildlife species, especially the African Elephant, and these are subject to high visitation numbers and commercial exploitation (i.e. tourism).⁶³⁰

However, on the other side of the border, in southeast Zimbabwe and Mozambique, the opposite currently prevails as the populations of wildlife, as well as the potential visitors, are both of a short supply. Both of these countries have large areas of land which are available with relatively low population densities yet there is a lack of willingness to transform these areas into a larger conservation area.⁶³¹ It has been suggested that by “dropping the fences”, as well as other barriers, an opportunity arises to not only reduce some of the environmental pressures on the KNP, but also to create new values and opportunities for potential development for Zimbabwe and Mozambique.⁶³²

This scenario also has the potential of re-establishing important migratory routes for wildlife⁶³³ as well as establishing a sustainable ecotourism infrastructure which would potentially lead to the upliftment of the regional economies⁶³⁴ as well as providing improved livelihoods of the local communities in each of the three countries.⁶³⁵

⁶³⁰ SANParks, (2012) ‘Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/>, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶³¹ S. Metcalfe, ‘Transboundary Protected Areas Impacts on Communities: Case Study of Three Southern African Transboundary Conservation Initiatives’, in AWF Working Papers, (2005), African Wildlife Foundation.

⁶³² G. de Graaf, ‘The origin and development of nature conservation areas’, in J.S. Bergh (ed.), *Geskiedenisatlas van Suid-Afrika: Die vier noordelike provinsies*, Pretoria, (1998), pp. 1-15, (Translated).

⁶³³ There were a number of migratory routes which existed in this region for the Elephant and Buffalo populations and the establishment of political boundaries had a negative effect on many of these. Therefore, the re-establishment of these migratory routes could play a crucial role for biodiversity conservation and for ecotourism.

⁶³⁴ The economies of South Africa, Zimbabwe and Mozambique.

⁶³⁵ S. Metcalfe, ‘Transboundary Protected Areas Impacts on Communities: Case Study of Three Southern African Transboundary Conservation Initiatives’, in AWF Working Papers, (2005), African Wildlife Foundation.

Since the early 2000s, a number of steps have been taken to develop a framework for the management of the transfrontier landscape. It has been noted, by both S. Metcalfe and A. Spenceley, that the progress has been entirely inter-governmental and there have been little or no provisions made for the inclusion of the local communities or civil society as a whole.⁶³⁶ The management framework for the TFCA is said to address a number of opportunities. Firstly, the region has the potential of controlling a large amount of land area for the purpose of biodiversity conservation. Secondly, the possibility of bringing a more focussed approach to biodiversity conservation will mean that it will be a more visible process which will be spearheaded by numerous economic and political considerations. And thirdly, there is an opportunity to test and demonstrate how one large park can be used to restore and replenish the larger surrounding areas.⁶³⁷

In addition to the biodiversity, the transfrontier landscape also has evidence of a cultural history which dates back to both the Stone and Iron Ages⁶³⁸ of southern Africa.⁶³⁹ Archaeologists have discovered a number of Stone Age artefacts as well as more recent Iron Age implements at various sites across the GLFTCA. In addition to this, there is also evidence of the Stone Age San hunter-gathers in the

⁶³⁶ S. Metcalfe, 'Transboundary Protected Areas Impacts on Communities: Case Study of Three Southern African Transboundary Conservation Initiatives', in AWF Working Papers, (2005), African Wildlife Foundation; A. Spenceley, 'Workshop Proceedings' from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN; A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.; A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶³⁷ S. Metcalfe, 'Transboundary Protected Areas Impacts on Communities: Case Study of Three Southern African Transboundary Conservation Initiatives', in AWF Working Papers, (2005), African Wildlife Foundation.

⁶³⁸ The Stone Age period in southern Africa occurred over 10,000 years ago. The Iron Age period in southern Africa began as early as 250AD – W.D. Hammond-Tooke, "'Ethnicity' and 'ethnic group' in Iron Age southern Africa", *South African Journal of Science* 96, pp. 421-422.

⁶³⁹ SANParks, (2012) 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/>, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

form of rock-paintings in cave shelters and other sites in the area.⁶⁴⁰ Approximately 800 years ago, the Bantu-speaking people displaced the San and their existence was characterised by a 'low-density' inhabitancy with most of their traces being confined to the permanent river courses.⁶⁴¹ The evidence from some sites, such as Pafuri region in the KNP, show that many of these populations existed in harmony with the wildlife with no major impacts of humans on the wildlife or vice versa.⁶⁴² It was noted by J. Carruthers that due to the arid nature of the region, along with an abundance of predators and diseases, such as malaria it was merely impossible for human populations to grow to a fairly large size. Yet a number of sophisticated cultures, such as the Tsonga culture, still managed to exist in areas such as Thulamela and Pafuri.⁶⁴³

6.2. Tourism Development in the GLTFCA

A. Spenceley has noted that TFCAs not only have the potential to conserve biodiversity within larger geographical areas and promote cooperative wildlife management, they may also increase the opportunities for tourism development.⁶⁴⁴ In addition to this, J. Singh feels that visitors are able to travel across greater areas to view a wider variety of attractions, and thus increase their overall

⁶⁴⁰ J. Carruthers, *The Kruger National Park: A Social and Political History*, (1995), University of Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg.

⁶⁴¹ SANParks, (2012) 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/>, Accessed: 22 April 2014; D. Hammond-Tooke, *The Roots of Black South Africa*, (1993), Jonathan Ball Publishers: Johannesburg.

⁶⁴² J. Carruthers, *The Kruger National Park: A Social and Political History*, (1995), University of Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg.

⁶⁴³ J. Carruthers, *The Kruger National Park: A Social and Political History*, (1995), University of Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg.

⁶⁴⁴ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

experience.⁶⁴⁵ The WWF suggests that TFCAs have the capacity to develop sustainable tourism, in a strategic manner, in order to support the costs of conservation management, while simultaneously providing employment and entrepreneurial opportunities for the poverty-stricken populations in less developed countries.⁶⁴⁶ The GLTFCA is one example of this and it has generated a large amount of interest from conservationists due to its potential of becoming one of the largest conservation areas in the world.⁶⁴⁷ J. Hanks has noted that the area has the potential of conserving the largest variety of wildlife on Earth, along with areas of historical and cultural wealth, thus making it an area of global conservation significance.⁶⁴⁸

The GLTFCA is governed under the jurisdiction of the SADC's Wildlife Policy⁶⁴⁹ which aims to establish the TFCA as a means for international cooperation in management and the sustainable use of ecosystems which straddle international borders.⁶⁵⁰ In addition to this, the SADC *Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Management* (see Section 3.3 of Chapter 3) further promotes regional cooperation in the conservation of natural resources and the enforcement of laws for

⁶⁴⁵ J. Singh, *Study on the development of Transboundary natural resource management areas in southern Africa*, Global Review: Lessons Learned, Biodiversity Support Program No. 59, (1999), Washington DC: World Wildlife Fund.

⁶⁴⁶ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁴⁷ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁴⁸ J. Hanks, 'Transfrontier conservation areas in Zimbabwe: An opportunity for job-creation, regional co-operation and biodiversity conservation', Bob Rutherford Trust: Annual Memorial Lecture, (1998), Somerset West: South Africa.

⁶⁴⁹ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

⁶⁵⁰ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

these resources.⁶⁵¹ These two legal documents are responsible for creating a framework for the GLTFCA in terms of the development and management of tourism within the Transfrontier network.⁶⁵²

The institutional structure of the TFCA includes a hierarchy of stakeholders which incorporates a Trilateral Ministerial Committee (TMC), a Joint Management Board (JMB), a coordinating party and four management committees. The JMB was responsible for the establishment of the GLTFCA *Joint Management Plan* (JMP)⁶⁵³ which aims to encourage the park's authorities to work closely with the tourism industry, thus keeping with the objectives of sustainable tourism.⁶⁵⁴ The JMP was established as a market-related strategic plan which aims to harmonise tourism-related regulations (i.e. entry fees, speed limits) as well as border access for certain activities (i.e. guided walking trails, horse and balloon safaris and game drives).⁶⁵⁵ The JMP also specified that these activities should be outsourced to the private sector and it is vital that preferences be made to small-scale enterprises within the local communities.⁶⁵⁶ Furthermore, the plan also suggests that the members of the local communities should not only be seen as potential employees, but they should also be given a stake in the tourism businesses and be allowed access to all business

⁶⁵¹ The Southern African Development Community, 'The Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement', (2014), Internet: <http://www.sadc.int/documents-publications/show/>, (1999), Accessed: 13 April 2013.

⁶⁵² A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁵³ K. Zunckel, *Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park Joint Management Plan: Executive Summary and Synthesis of Recommendations*, (2007), Development Alternatives Inc.: Nelspruit, South Africa.

⁶⁵⁴ Joint Management Board (JMB), *Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park: Joint Management Plan*, Report No. 02-007-PTR-007, Gaza–Kruger–Gonarezhou Transboundary Natural Resource Management Initiative, 2002, Development Alternatives Inc.: Nelspruit.

⁶⁵⁵ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁵⁶ K. Zunckel, *Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park Joint Management Plan: Executive Summary and Synthesis of Recommendations*, (2007), Development Alternatives Inc.: Nelspruit, South Africa.

opportunities and tenders.⁶⁵⁷ The plan also stipulates that cultural tourism should be developed and promoted within the local communities.⁶⁵⁸

6.2.1. Nature-Based Tourism and Cultural Tourism in the GLTFCA

The primary form of tourism development in the GLTFCA is nature-based tourism, with cultural tourism and ecotourism being closely related to this. Spenceley has noted that during 2000, nature-based tourism was responsible for generating an average of \$US3.6 billion in revenue from Africans and international tourists combined.⁶⁵⁹ Furthermore, in 1999, it contributed approximately nine-per cent of the total GDP for the SADC region.⁶⁶⁰ In terms of tourist arrivals, the nature-based tourism sector was responsible for approximately 2.8 million visitors from international markets and 6.1 million from African markets.⁶⁶¹ Nature-based tourism has proven to be popular in the region of South Africa, Zimbabwe and Mozambique yet the strong demand is only evident in two of the three countries. Of all tourism arrivals in South Africa, 78.9 per cent participate in nature-based activities, while this figure is said to be 76 per cent in Zimbabwe⁶⁶² In terms of the total revenue of nature-based tourism, it is estimated

⁶⁵⁷ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁵⁸ K. Zunckel, *Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park Joint Management Plan: Executive Summary and Synthesis of Recommendations*, (2007), Development Alternatives Inc.: Nelspruit, South Africa

⁶⁵⁹ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁶⁰ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁶¹ R.J. Scholes and R. Biggs, *Ecosystem services in Southern Africa: A regional assessment*, (2004), CSIR – Council for Scientific and Industrial Research: Pretoria, South Africa.

⁶⁶² A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

\$US2.45 billion has been generated on an annual basis.⁶⁶³ Therefore, given this level of revenue it is understandable why the conservation of biodiversity is one of the major objectives of TFCAs.

(a) South Africa

The South African section of the GLTP consists of the KNP with other conservation areas, such as the Makulele Community, making up the larger GLTFCA.⁶⁶⁴ The KNP has the oldest and arguably the most developed tourism infrastructure. In 2004 there were a total of 25 rest camps providing 4056 beds as well as 405 camping and caravan sites.⁶⁶⁵ The overall standard of the accommodation is not regarded highly in terms of international standards but the KNP still manages to boast approximately 1.4 million visitors per year and generates an annual income of \$US40 million (measured in 2005).⁶⁶⁶

Up until 2000, all tourism infrastructures inside the park were developed, owned and operated by SANParks. SANParks then decided to transfer the management of tourism operations to commercial organizations that were considered as more qualified and equipped to manage the facilities.⁶⁶⁷ The main objectives of this transferral included: the promotion of economic empowerment for the Historically Disadvantaged Individuals (HDIs); the promotion of business

⁶⁶³ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667; These stats were measured in 2005.

⁶⁶⁴ J. Carruthers, *The Kruger National Park: A Social and Political History*, (1995), University of Natal Press: Pietermaritzburg.

⁶⁶⁵ United Nations Environment Program and World Conservation Monitoring Centre, (2004), 'Parks for Peace. Protected Areas and World Heritage Program', Internet: www.unepwcmc.org/protected_areas/, Accessed February 2014.

⁶⁶⁶ J. Stevens, 'Position on revenue sharing in GLTP', in A. Spenceley (ed.), *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Relating strategic visions to local activities that promote sustainable tourism development*, (2005), Workshop Proceedings, 14–16 April, Wits Rural Facility, South Africa, Internet: www.wits.ac.za, Accessed: March 2014.

⁶⁶⁷ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

opportunities to emerging entrepreneurs (especially those living in communities in or adjacent to the national park); and the application of a SANParks environmental and global parameter to all concessions.⁶⁶⁸ However, from 2000-2003 the process did not perform as well as originally anticipated and this was due to the fact that the commercial stakeholders had over paid for many of the sites and facilities and the average occupancy rate was just under 22 per cent.⁶⁶⁹

Between 2002 and 2004, the Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT)⁶⁷⁰ provided financial support to the KNP for its development within the greater capacity of the GLTFCA.⁶⁷¹ The DEAT was able to fund a number of development projects through the use of their Poverty Relief Fund and two of these included: the upgrading of staff accommodation (R10 million) and the partial upgrade of the foot and mouth fencing on the western boundary of the park (R2.5 million).⁶⁷²

This financial support included an agreement with a number of socio-economic conditions which need to be adhered to.⁶⁷³ Firstly, between two and four per cent of the project's budget had to be used for the training of human resources and for capacity building. It was also

⁶⁶⁸ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁶⁹ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁷⁰ Note: This department has since been divided into two separate departments, namely the National Department of Environmental Affairs (<http://www.environment.gov.za>) and the National Department of Tourism (<http://www.tourism.gov.za>).

⁶⁷¹ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁷² A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁷³ Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), *Business Plan: 01 April 2004-31 March 2005*, (2005, National Government of the Republic of South Africa).

agreed that all of the training had to be legally accredited. This would then equip an individual with the skills that were needed to manage the project as well as skills that may give them an advantage for future employment.⁶⁷⁴ Secondly, the projects had to promote and encourage the creation of small-and-medium enterprises (SMEs) and they should also favour previously disadvantaged individuals (PDIs)⁶⁷⁵ Finally, 99 per cent of all temporary jobs had to be purely for the local communities and in addition to this, 60 per cent of these must be reserved for women, 20 per cent for the youth and two per cent for disabled individuals.⁶⁷⁶ During the end of 2002, the DEAT also used R40million, which was granted to them by the National Treasury, to invest in the development and maintenance of tourism infrastructure in the KNP.⁶⁷⁷ It was reported by E. Swanepoel and P. Theron in 2004 that the following infrastructural developments were made with these funds: improvement of the quality of roads; construction of a new border post; development of research and interpretation facilities; building of picnic sites; construction and maintenance of new bridges; and the removal of a section of a fence between the KNP and the Limpopo National Park (LNP).⁶⁷⁸

⁶⁷⁴ Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), *Business Plan: 01 April 2004-31 March 2005*, (2005, National Government of the Republic of South Africa).

⁶⁷⁵ Department of Environmental Affairs and Tourism (DEAT), *Business Plan: 01 April 2004-31 March 2005*, (2005, National Government of the Republic of South Africa).

⁶⁷⁶ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁷⁷ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁷⁸ E. Swanepoel, 'TFCA and PDF spending 2002–2004', Report to South African National Parks, (2004), Pretoria: South African National Parks; P. Theron, 'Progress Report – Project Management Meeting', National Treasury Tourism Infrastructure Investment Programme: Proposed Projects for Funding within the Kruger National Park relating to the development of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park, (2004), Pretoria: South African National Parks.

As a result of these general developments, in 2014, the KNP not only achieved the status of being the fifth most popular attraction for tourists in South Africa,⁶⁷⁹ but it is also a prime example of how a conservation area can be used as a viable and legitimate form of land use.⁶⁸⁰ This status shows how far the park has come since the financial limitations which were present during 2000-2003. The KNP attracts over one-million tourists per annum and with this, generating revenue of millions of Rands, which has now allowed it to sustain itself without the support of the Government.⁶⁸¹ This example of conservation, as a successful business enterprise, shows that substantial profits can be generated from serving as a prime nature destination to both domestic and international visitors.⁶⁸² The KNP has the ability to do this due to the presence of the “Big Five” along with an abundance of other species of mammals, fish, birds and reptiles. The overall scenic beauty and diversity of flora is another major draw-card for tourists.⁶⁸³

In addition to this, the KNP also serves as a prime destination for heritage and cultural tourism. The park has a unique cultural and historical landscape with well over 255 recorded archaeological sites ranging from early Stone Age to various Iron Age settlements and other recent historical buildings and sites. Many of these sites hold cultural and spiritual importance, while others reveal a unique and

⁶⁷⁹ South African Tourism, (2014), ‘Popular South African Attractions’, Internet: <http://www.southafrica.net/>, Access: 21 August 2014.

⁶⁸⁰ SANParks, (2012), ‘Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/>, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶⁸¹ SANParks, (2012) ‘Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/>, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶⁸² SANParks, (2012) ‘Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/>, Accessed: 22 April 2014.

⁶⁸³ SANParks, (2014), ‘The Kruger National Park’, Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/parks/kruger/conservation/ff/default.php?p=Kruger>, Accessed: 03 October 2014.

interesting history of the area. There are also three archaeological sites which are open to the public: Albasini Ruins; Masorini Heritage Site; and Thulamela Hill.⁶⁸⁴

The Albasini Ruins are the remains of a 19th century trading post of the famous Portuguese trader, Joao Albasini, and they can be found at the Phabeni Gate, which is approximately 10 km from the town of Hazyview.⁶⁸⁵ Albasini was born in Lisbon in May 1813 and in 1830, at the age of 18 years, he arrived on the East Coast of Africa (Delagoa Bay). He was responsible for the establishment of this port as a trading post for the ZAR and was the first Portuguese individual to trade with the Boers (Afrikaners) in Ohrigstad, a small town north of Lydenburg in the Mpumalanga Province.⁶⁸⁶

The Masorini Heritage Site is a late Iron Age site which can be found upon a prominent hillside 12 km from the Phalaborwa gate on a tar road en route to the Letaba rest camp. During the 1800s, the site was originally inhabited by a Sotho speaking group known as 'BaPhalaborwa'. They had developed one of the most advanced and refined mining industries and smelting iron ores which resulted in a trade of these iron products.⁶⁸⁷ In 1973, archaeologists were brought in to excavate the site as SANParks wished to restore the village for the purpose of tourism.⁶⁸⁸ At this time, the village was nothing but stone

⁶⁸⁴ SANParks, (2014), 'Cultural Heritage in Kruger National Park', Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/parks/kruger/people/heritage/>, Accessed: 03 October 2014.

⁶⁸⁵ SANParks, (2014), 'Albasini Ruins', Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/parks/kruger/people/heritage/albasini.php>, Accessed: 03 October 2014.

⁶⁸⁶ T.D. Madzhuta, 'Cultural Heritage Sites in the Kruger National Park', Honours Dissertation, Department of Historical and Heritage Studies, University of Pretoria, (2008), p. 32; SANParks, (2014), 'Albasini Ruins', Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/parks/kruger/people/heritage/albasini.php>, Accessed: 03 October 2014.

⁶⁸⁷ Kruger National Park, 'Cultural Heritage Sites in Kruger National Park', Internet: <http://www.krugerpark.co.za/>, Accessed: 21 October 2014.

⁶⁸⁸ SANParks, (2014), 'Cultural Heritage in Kruger National Park', Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/parks/kruger/people/heritage/>, Accessed: 03 October 2014.

walls and there was evidence of grinding stones, potsherds and some artefacts which have been dated back to the Stone Age.⁶⁸⁹ When excavations had begun, it revealed hut floors and other remains that provided vital clues on how the inhabitants lived. It also revealed aspects such as: the types of huts that were built, the foundries in which iron was worked, the nature of their trading as well as other socio-economic activities.⁶⁹⁰ This site is an example of a specialized economy and a well-developed technology that existed long before the arrival of the “white” man in South Africa. It also offers tourists an interesting view into the livelihood of the hunter-gatherer society of the Stone Age and how they lived and made use of whatever nature offered them.⁶⁹¹

Finally, Thulamela Hill is a stone walled site and is found in the far northern regions of the park and dates back to the late Iron Age.⁶⁹² The site forms part of what is called the ‘Zimbabwe culture’ which is believed to have started at Mapungubwe (1200 and 1270 AD), and is located in the Limpopo Province on the South Africa-Botswana border. In 1990, a team of archaeologists conducted preliminary excavations and documented the stone ruins at Thulamela Hill in an attempt to find out more about the settlement. On the basis of these preliminary discoveries, it became clear that further excavations were necessary. In 1993, the Gold Fields Foundation funded what was known as ‘The Thulamela Project’. This project was established with the purpose of

⁶⁸⁹ L. Mesckell, ‘The Nature of Culture in the Kruger National Park’, *The Nature of Heritage: The New South Africa*, (2012), p. 104.

⁶⁹⁰ L. Mesckell, ‘The Nature of Culture in the Kruger National Park’, *The Nature of Heritage: The New South Africa*, (2012), p. 104.

⁶⁹¹ Kruger National Park, ‘Cultural Heritage Sites in Kruger National Park’, Internet: <http://www.krugerpark.co.za/>, Accessed: 21 October 2014.

⁶⁹² L. Mesckell, ‘The Nature of Culture in the Kruger National Park’, *The Nature of Heritage: The New South Africa*, (2012), p. 104.

restoring the site and transforming it into a museum. Then in 1996, the reconstructed stone-walled settlement was officially proclaimed as cultural heritage site museum on Heritage Day, the 24th of September.

In terms of other heritage and cultural tourist attractions, visitors can also experience the following: the Jock of the Bushveld Trail; numerous Arts and Crafts stalls selling products crafted by the local communities; the Skukuza Hut Museum; the Stevenson-Hamilton Memorial Library; the Paul Kruger Statue; Little Heroes Acre (dog's graveyard); Kruger National Park Museum; Francois du Cuiper site; and memorials associated with the Great Trek.⁶⁹³

(b) Zimbabwe

In Zimbabwe, the Gonarezhou National Park (GNP) forms part of the GLTP along with communal lands, such as the Sengwe Communal Area.⁶⁹⁴ In 2002, the GNP had only one rest camp, known as Mwenezi, with a capacity of 16 beds. Furthermore, the transport infrastructure in and around the park is in a state of disrepair due to the lack of funding along with a pure neglect of maintenance and management.⁶⁹⁵ Almost all of the roads in the park are untarred and are only accessible through the use of a 4x4 vehicle.⁶⁹⁶ J. Stevens notes that during 1996-1998 there were approximately 6,000 annual visitors to

⁶⁹³ Kruger National Park, 'Cultural Heritage Sites in Kruger National Park', Internet: <http://www.krugerpark.co.za/>, Accessed: 21 October 2014; L. Meskell, 'The Nature of Culture in the Kruger National Park', *The Nature of Heritage: The New South Africa*, (2012), p. 104; T.D. Madzhuta, 'Cultural Heritage Sites in the Kruger National Park', Honours Dissertation, Department of Historical and Heritage Studies, University of Pretoria, (2008).

⁶⁹⁴ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁶⁹⁵ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁶⁹⁶ A. Spenceley, 'Workshop Proceedings' from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN.

the Park, of which 20 per cent were international tourists.⁶⁹⁷ By 2004, this figure had rapidly decreased⁶⁹⁸ and visitors to the Park, as well as in other regions of the country, were recorded to be just over 2,600 per annum - of which 7.7 per cent were international tourists.⁶⁹⁹

During 1998-2004, the GNP Management Plan was introduced and proposed the construction of 13 “undeveloped” campsites, 15 developed camps and 20 day-visitor picnic sites, in addition to new hides and view-points.⁷⁰⁰ The Zimbabwean Tourism Authority (ZTA) reported, in 2004, that the Ministry of Finance had allocated \$Z17.9 billion (R26 million) for upgrading international airports, which also included the Buffalo Airport that is used for travelling to the GNP.⁷⁰¹ The Zimbabwean Government also granted \$Z2.2 billion (R3.2 million) to the GNP for upgrading existing tourism facilities, with the three main areas being: road development; electrification; and communications.⁷⁰² These developments were aimed at creating increased accessibility for investors to add to further development of

⁶⁹⁷ J. Stevens, ‘Position on revenue sharing in GLTP’, in A. Spenceley (ed.), *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Relating strategic visions to local activities that promote sustainable tourism development*, (2005), Workshop Proceedings, 14–16 April, Wits Rural Facility, South Africa, Internet: www.wits.ac.za, Accessed: March 2014.

⁶⁹⁸ The main reason for such an intense decline in tourism numbers was due to the political turmoil that Zimbabwe experienced with the consequences of the Land Requisition Act during 2000.

⁶⁹⁹ J. Stevens, ‘Position on revenue sharing in GLTP’, in A. Spenceley (ed.), *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Relating strategic visions to local activities that promote sustainable tourism development*, (2005), Workshop Proceedings, 14–16 April, Wits Rural Facility, South Africa, Internet: www.wits.ac.za, Accessed: March 2014.

⁷⁰⁰ KPMG, ‘Integrated Tourism Development Plan’, *Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park Technical Committee Report*, (2002), KPMG (Peat Marwick International & Klynveld Main Goerdeler).

⁷⁰¹ A. Spenceley, ‘Workshop Proceedings’ from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN.

⁷⁰² A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

the camps.⁷⁰³ Unfortunately, there has been no evidence of further investment in the GNP since 2004.⁷⁰⁴

In terms of the GNP's natural diversity, visitors are spoilt for choice. There are three major rivers which flow through the park, the Save; Rundel and Mwenezi Rivers, each of which form natural pools and oases which attract huge varieties of birds, wildlife and fish. As its name suggests ("place of the Elephant"), Gonarezhou is home to large populations of elephants along with other wildlife species.⁷⁰⁵ The reserve is also home to a number of unique aquatic species such as the Zambezi Shark and Black Bream, which can be found in the park's rivers and pools. One of the most striking natural features is the Chilojo Cliffs and these red sandstone cliffs are recognised as a unique picturesque setting for visitors.⁷⁰⁶

Unlike the KNP, the GNP does not have an established heritage and cultural tourism infrastructure and they rely heavily on their natural attractions for tourism.

(c) Mozambique

As mentioned above, the Limpopo National Park (LNP) is the Mozambican section of the GLTFCA and it formerly existed as a hunting reserve known as "Coutada-16" until November 2001, when it

⁷⁰³ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷⁰⁴ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷⁰⁵ SANParks, *Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park: Experience Without Boundaries*, Published Brochure, Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/assets/docs/e-brochures/great-limpopo-transfrontier>, Accessed: 21 October 2014.

⁷⁰⁶ SANParks, *Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park: Experience Without Boundaries*, Published Brochure, Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/assets/docs/e-brochures/great-limpopo-transfrontier>, Accessed: 21 October 2014.

was officially declared as a National Park.⁷⁰⁷ Due to the Park's history, there is hardly any tourism infrastructure available apart from a few tented camps which were constructed by Gaza Safaris, who were the previous hunting concessionaire.⁷⁰⁸ In the early years of its official proclamation as a National Park, the LNP was not open to tourists due to the lack of facilities to accommodate them.⁷⁰⁹

However, during 2001 the tourism in the Park entered into its planning stages and The Peace Parks Foundation (PPF) began to establish a tourism master plan, zonal planning and an infrastructure development plan.⁷¹⁰ The tourism master plan initially identified five types of tourism which could be developed in the LNP: recreational; adventure; consumptive; cultural-historical (heritage and cultural); and ecotourism.⁷¹¹ In 2004, the PPF secured financial support from the KfW ("Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau" or the Reconstruction Credit Institute). The KfW, formerly KfW Bankengruppe, is a German government-owned development bank, based in Frankfurt. Its name originally comes from Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau, meaning Reconstruction Credit Institute. This organization assisted in financing a number of infrastructural developments, such as: a safer road network; the establishment of private tented camps and lodges; fences

⁷⁰⁷ G. Huggins, E. Barendse, A. Fischer and J. Sitei, 'Limpopo National Park: Resettlement Policy Framework', (2003), in B. Büscher (ed.), *Transforming the Frontier: Peace Parks and the Politics of Neoliberal Conservation in Southern Africa*, (2013), Duke University Press.

⁷⁰⁸ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁷⁰⁹ J. Stevens, 'Position on revenue sharing in GLTP', in A. Spenceley (ed.), *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Relating strategic visions to local activities that promote sustainable tourism development*, (2005), Workshop Proceedings, 14–16 April, Wits Rural Facility, South Africa, Internet: www.wits.ac.za, Accessed: March 2014.

⁷¹⁰ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷¹¹ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

to protect villages from roaming wildlife; and the construction of amenities such as clinics and schools for the communities adjacent to the park.⁷¹² In addition to the funding from Kfw, the PPF also formed strategic financial partnerships with the “Agence Française de Développement”⁷¹³ (AFD), the “Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit”⁷¹⁴ (GIZ) and the World Bank.⁷¹⁵

In 2005, the PPF summarised their development progress of the LNP. Firstly, an anti-poaching drive was established with a unit that works closely with the officials in the KNP. Secondly, a de-mining contractor was brought into the area which removed over 70 per cent of all mines in the Park and the adjacent land zones. Thirdly, a total of 1,987 animals were relocated into the LNP as part of the first phase of the restocking of the LNP. Finally, a total of 73 field rangers were trained and deployed into the Park and a number of meetings and workshops were held between the local communities and the rangers in order to enhance collaboration and cooperation.⁷¹⁶

In addition to these developments, the LNP *Tourism Development Plan* also established provisions for upgrading administrative facilities, the training of game rangers and environmental education. The development plan also proposed the establishment of four entrance gates to the Park, with two of them being border posts - namely the

⁷¹² Kfw, *2003 Annual report on cooperation with developing countries*, (2004), Germany: Kreditanstalt für Wiederaufbau; A. Spenceley, ‘Workshop Proceedings’ from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN; A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁷¹³ Translated – French Development Agency.

⁷¹⁴ Translated - German Federal Enterprise for International Cooperation.

⁷¹⁵ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), ‘Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014.

⁷¹⁶ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), ‘Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014; A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

Giriyondo Border Post and Pafuri Border Post.⁷¹⁷ In terms of new roads, the plan proposed a road to be built from Massingir⁷¹⁸ to Giriyondo⁷¹⁹ which would essentially increase the accessibility from the KNP into the LNP.⁷²⁰ It was predicted that the Park would be able to reach a potential capacity of 2,184 over-night visitors and 160 day-visitors, with an average of a two night stay. This prediction meant that the LNP would essentially have the capacity for approximately 486,180 visitors per annum.⁷²¹

Since 2001, the PPF have noted that there have been major developments and the KNP has experienced much progress since its days as a hunting reserve - these will be discussed below.

The boundary for the buffer zone has been realigned to ensure that the communities living along the Limpopo River would have adequate space for their resource needs and a number of park headquarters, staff housing and accommodation facilities have since been built.⁷²² A variety of wilderness experiences have also been established and these include: game walks, hiking trails, backpacking and fishing, canoeing and a 4x4 trail. In 2012, 4 new 4x4 camps were opened, namely Mahinga Pan in the southern sandveld, Mamboreni Pan in the

⁷¹⁷ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷¹⁸ Massingir is found in southern Mozambique on the border with South Africa.

⁷¹⁹ Giriyondo is a border post that separates the KNP and Mozambique.

⁷²⁰ A. Spenceley, 'Workshop Proceedings' from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN.

⁷²¹ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁷²² Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), 'Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014.

northern sandveld, Giriyyondo in the Lebombo Mountains and Mbona Kaya next to the Shingwedzi River.⁷²³

The introduction of the Project Implementation Unit, who are responsible for overseeing the development of the park, have also been key to the LNP's progress and they focus on six major programmes that deal with issues such as: community support; voluntary resettlement; tourism development; and administration. To date, the park has received grants which add up to \$US30.6 million from KfW and \$US15.1 million from AFD and these were used for the further development. The park's management plan also sets out provisions for the participation of local communities in the development and management of the park and it ensures that they are granted equitable benefits. In 2010, the funding from GIZ added to the development of the "buffer zone" along the Limpopo River and a number of agricultural projects have been developed. These projects include 18 community irrigation schemes, which have allowed over 3,000 community members to benefit both economically and socially.⁷²⁴

In April 2013, the local communities were granted an annual cheque which included a 20% share of the revenues of the LNP from the 2012 financial year. The sharing of conservation revenues with the local communities was in accordance with Mozambique's Act 10/99 on Forestry and Wildlife, which states that the benefits of conservation must reach the communities in order to stimulate cooperative support for successful development of the Park. The revenues were handed to

⁷²³ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), 'Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014.

⁷²⁴ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), 'Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014.

the community management committee, who then distributed the funds equally to each of the three districts in the park. This committee was then responsible for ensuring that the funds were used to the benefit of the communities and for the park's overall conservation objectives.⁷²⁵

During the end of 2012, a ranger base at the Mapai Gate was completed with the help of funding from all three of the international donors mentioned above. The base primarily served as a headquarters for the protection operations in the northern region and the anti-poaching operations in the park's central and northern regions. The base also functions as a training venue, which is facilitated by the Southern African Wildlife College, and it offers a variety of training and refresher courses for the park's rangers.⁷²⁶

In June 2013, the new south-eastern boundary was erected and it forms a total distance of 56 kilometres from the Massingir Gate, which constitutes the south-western corner, to the Limpopo River. The fence was established as a boundary between the park's core zone and the south-eastern "buffer zone" and it is also used as a primary barrier against human/wildlife conflict. The other major infrastructure project involves the upgrading of the 350 kilometre community road and it was reported, in 2013, to be 75% complete. This project also includes road improvements and the construction of a bridge to improve access into the centre of the park for the purpose of tourism. It was intended to

⁷²⁵ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), 'Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014.

⁷²⁶ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), 'Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014.

be completed early in 2014⁷²⁷, yet there is no evidence to suggest this.

Like the GNP, the LNP does not have an established heritage and cultural tourism infrastructure and also relies heavily on its vast landscapes and natural beauty for tourism.

6.3. Local Community Involvement in the GLTFCA

The involvement of local communities in the planning and development of tourism within the GLTFCA has been rather irregular. The planning phase of the TFCA, which is still very much an on-going process, is still heavily intergovernmental and there appears to be hardly any recognition of the local communities.⁷²⁸ There are very few tangible examples of community-based tourism (CBT) ventures and partnerships within the private sector and as Mearns indicates,⁷²⁹ South Africa has a total of 138 CBT projects, while Zimbabwe has 34 and Mozambique has 9 - of which 81.4% of all of these are found within a 50km radius of conservation areas.⁷³⁰ The following sections will consider these country's projects that have emerged in the various regions.

6.3.1. South Africa

In South Africa, the main region which has seen the involvement of local communities in the development of natural resource management

⁷²⁷ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), 'Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014.

⁷²⁸ S. Metcalfe, 'Transboundary Protected Areas Impacts on Communities: Case Study of Three Southern African Transboundary Conservation Initiatives', in AWF Working Papers, (2005), African Wildlife Foundation.; A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷²⁹ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

⁷³⁰ K. Mearns, 'Community-based tourism and peace parks benefit local communities through conservation in southern Africa', in *Acta Academica* 44(2), (2012), pp. 70-87.

is the Pafuri Triangle in the northern sections of the KNP. Figure 9 below indicates the geographical position of this area.



Figure 9: The Pafuri Triangle/Makulele Region⁷³¹

In 1969, the Makulele people were forcibly removed by the South African government⁷³² from an area of 24,000 hectares.⁷³³ The Makulele people were a clan of Shangaan speaking individuals, who had occupied the Pafuri region in the KNP for generations. They were forcibly moved from the area in the interests of consolidating KNP.⁷³⁴ It was only in 1998 that they were reimbursed for their relocation by the government as part of the land restitution project⁷³⁵ and a

⁷³¹ Prestige Safaris and Destinations, (2014), 'Pafuri Camp', Internet: <http://www.prestigeconsulting.co.za/>, Accessed: 7 October 2014.

⁷³² It is important to note that the Apartheid Government was controlling South African at the time.

⁷³³ S. Elliffe, 'Guidelines for the release/development of dormant state or community assets for ecotourism development in the context of community involvement, land issues and environmental requirements', Unpublished paper presented at the Community Public Private Partnerships Conference, (1999), Johannesburg.

⁷³⁴ Kruger National Park, (2014), 'Makulele Wilderness Region', Internet: <http://www.krugerpark.co.za/>, Accessed: 3 October 2014.

⁷³⁵ In addition to the note above, the Apartheid era was officially over in 1994 when South African experienced its first democratic election.

contractual park in the Pafuri Triangle was established.⁷³⁶ In South Africa, a Contractual National Park is established on land owned either by the state or by a group of private individuals. The park is then managed by SANParks according to the terms of a joint management agreement drawn up by a joint management committee consisting of representatives from SANParks and various landowners.⁷³⁷ SANParks, and the local Makulele people, then signed a 25-year agreement which declared that the ownership and the title of the land would then be handed over to the community. It restricted the use of the land to be for conservation purposes only.⁷³⁸ The contract also governed the incorporation of the Makulele land into the KNP which essentially created a platform for the communities to practice the sustainable use of natural resources.⁷³⁹ In addition to this, the community were also granted an option of constructing six small rest camps with a cumulative capacity of 224 beds.⁷⁴⁰

During 2000-2003, the Makulele people turned to the trophy hunting industry⁷⁴¹ to increase their revenues while the tourist lodges and camps were being built.⁷⁴² The communities used this lucrative, yet

⁷³⁶ H. Reid, 'Contractual National Parks and the Makulele Community', *Human Ecology* 29(2), (2001), pp. 135-155.

⁷³⁷ H. Reid, 'Contractual National Parks and the Makulele Community', *Human Ecology* 29(2), (2001), pp. 135-155.

⁷³⁸ C. Steenkamp, 'The Makulele Land Claim signing ceremony: Harnessing social justice and conservation', *African Wildlife*, 52(4). Internet: http://wildnetafrica.co.za/wildlifearticles/africanwildlife/1998/julaugust_makulele.html, Accessed 8 April 2014.

⁷³⁹ K. Liebenberg, 'Kruger Park will gain: Tribe to get back lost border land', *The Citizen*, 14 December 1998, pp. 12.

⁷⁴⁰ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷⁴¹ The trophy hunting industry has always been a lucrative business for many communities within wildlife areas yet it is a highly controversial sector and many countries, such as Botswana, have banned it completely. However this ban can have serious implications for local communities, but this is a discussion for another study – Africa Geographic Editorial, 'Botswana Hunting Ban Takes Effect', (2014), Internet: <http://africageographic.com/blog/botswana-hunting-ban-takes-effect/>, Accessed: 25 August 2014

⁷⁴² A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

controversial, industry as a means of generating both revenue and venison (meat) for themselves and they managed to generate approximately \$US230,000 over the three years.⁷⁴³ Yet, during 2004-2005 the Communal Property Association (CPA) issued a call for the hunting to be phased out as the lodges and camps were then starting to attract tourists and thus generating revenue for the communities.⁷⁴⁴

During this period, and more specifically in 2002, the Makulele community formed a partnership with a private sector organization known as Matswani Safaris who funded the building of a 24-bed luxury lodge. The development of the lodge cost approximately R15 million and it was designed to be an upmarket tourism accommodation facility with low environmental impacts.⁷⁴⁵ During the development phase, the community signed an agreement with Matswani Safaris for the following financial obligations: eight per cent of all earnings are transferred to the CPA and a negotiable percentage of all game drive revenues as well as two per cent of gross earning are placed in a social development fund which is set aside for the development of youth education facilities.⁷⁴⁶ It was estimated, by A. Spenceley, that when the lodge is at a 60% occupancy rate, it should generate approximately \$US75,000 for the community and a total of \$US150,000 should be paid as wages to 30 local community employees.⁷⁴⁷

⁷⁴³ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷⁴⁴ H. Zeppel, *Indigenous Ecotourism: Sustainable Development and Management*, CABI, (2006), pp. 193-194.

⁷⁴⁵ A. Spenceley, 'Workshop Proceedings' from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN.

⁷⁴⁶ H. Zeppel, *Indigenous Ecotourism: Sustainable Development and Management*, CABI, (2006), pp. 193-194.

⁷⁴⁷ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.; H. Zeppel, *Indigenous Ecotourism: Sustainable Development and Management*, CABI, (2006), pp. 193-194.

Furthermore, in 2003 the CPA formed a concessionary agreement⁷⁴⁸ with another private sector partner, known as Wilderness Safaris (WS) to build three luxury, low-impact tented lodges.⁷⁴⁹ Wilderness Safaris invested approximately R20-30 million into building these facilities and have since established 20 tented rooms with en-suite bathrooms which look over the Luvuvhu River.⁷⁵⁰ Included in the 45 year lease, the private sector and the Makulele community agreed on certain financial obligations: the community will receive a percentage of all revenue on a monthly basis; local residents will be trained and more than 200 jobs will be created with the intention of increasing this number annually.⁷⁵¹ Also included in this agreement, is the restriction of hunting by the local community in the contractual park as it was officially established as a conservation area, thus making hunting illegal.⁷⁵²

Both of these community-private sector partnerships are based on the arrangement of “build-operate-transfer”. In other words the private sector will build and operate the lodge for a specific number of years and only once it has been properly established, they will transfer the ownership to the local community and the CPA.⁷⁵³ Following this, the community can then decide if they want to run the lodge independently

⁷⁴⁸ A concessionary agreement is defined as: a negotiated contract between a company and a government that gives the company the right to operate a specific business within the government's jurisdiction, subject to certain conditions.

⁷⁴⁹ R.L. Turner, ‘Communities, conservation, and tourism-based development: Can community-based nature tourism live up to its promise?’ Paper presented at Breslauer Symposium on Natural Resource Issues in Africa, University of California, (2004), Internet: <http://repositories.cdlib.org>, Accessed: 25 August 2014.

⁷⁵⁰ H. Zeppel, *Indigenous Ecotourism: Sustainable Development and Management*, CABI, (2006), pp. 193-194.

⁷⁵¹ A. Spenceley, ‘Scoping Report’ on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷⁵² H. Zeppel, *Indigenous Ecotourism: Sustainable Development and Management*, CABI, (2006), pp. 193-194.

⁷⁵³ H. Reid, ‘Contractual National Parks and the Makulele Community’, *Human Ecology* 29(2), (2001), pp. 135-155.

or if they want to invite partners to operate the lodge based on their own terms.⁷⁵⁴

6.3.2. Zimbabwe

The following section will look at the involvement of the local communities in the Gonarezhou National Park and more specifically, in the Sengwe Communal Land.

During Zimbabwe's pre-election period (between 1980 and 2000), the government had stepped up a previously low-level campaign which involved the occupation of commercial farms and some state-owned land.⁷⁵⁵ In 2000, the national government then drafted a new Constitution which was then followed by a general election across the country - it was these two processes which had a major influence on Zimbabwe's political environment.⁷⁵⁶ The country experienced many changes and the consequences were often very traumatic. The country began to gain a poor international image and there were various "knock-down" effects for the entire economy, especially the tourism industry.⁷⁵⁷ The occupations of "white-owned" farms and the Land Reform process picked up a steady pace during these elections due to the emphasis on small-scale rural agriculture systems in favour of the 'white' commercial farms as well as the wildlife industry.⁷⁵⁸

⁷⁵⁴ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷⁵⁵ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: The politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 29(1), (2003), pp. 261–78.

⁷⁵⁶ P. Zvomuya, 'Zimbabwe's Land Myths Exposed', *The Mail and Guardian*, 25 April 2012, pp. 9.

⁷⁵⁷ D. de la Harpe, *The Malilangwe Trust: Development through Conservation*, Annual Report, (2001), Zimbabwe: The Malilangwe Trust.

⁷⁵⁸ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: The politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 29(1), (2003), pp. 261–78.

(i) Resettlement in Gonarezhou National Park

When the GNP was officially declared as a National Park in 1975, the local inhabitants were forcibly removed and relocated outside the boundaries of the park.⁷⁵⁹ The reoccupation of the lands, in the GNP, only began in 2000 when the Chitsa people “invaded” the commercial “white-owned” farms for historical land claims as there was a need for increased access to land for grazing and hunting.⁷⁶⁰ During the end of 2000, a number of areas in the GNP were cleared and burned for the re-occupation process by the communities living adjacent to the park.⁷⁶¹ A number of public and private sector organizations, such as Agritex and Rural Extension Department, were responsible for planning ten new villages in the park along with arable land zones for the development of communal grazing areas.⁷⁶² Furthermore, provisions were made for the settlement of 750 people on a total of 520 plots which covered a total area of 11,000 hectares.⁷⁶³ However, during 2001-2002 there were massive droughts in the area and a number of encounters with the elephant populations caused many of these people to return to their communal lands outside of the park.⁷⁶⁴

⁷⁵⁹ S. Ferreira, ‘Problems associated with tourism development in southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, *GeoJournal*, 60(3), (2004), pp. 301–10.

⁷⁶⁰ J. Chaumba, I. Scoones and W. Wolmer, ‘New politics, new livelihoods: Changes in the Zimbabwean Lowveld since the farm occupations of 2000’, *Sustainable Livelihoods in Southern Africa*, Research Paper 3, (2003), Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

⁷⁶¹ J. Sharman, ‘Invasions threaten peace park’, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 01 November 2001, pp. 17.

⁷⁶² J. Chaumba, I. Scoones and W. Wolmer, ‘New politics, new livelihoods: Changes in the Zimbabwean Lowveld since the farm occupations of 2000’, *Sustainable Livelihoods in Southern Africa*, Research Paper 3, (2003), Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

⁷⁶³ A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁷⁶⁴ J. Chaumba, I. Scoones and W. Wolmer, ‘New politics, new livelihoods: Changes in the Zimbabwean Lowveld since the farm occupations of 2000’, *Sustainable Livelihoods in Southern Africa*, Research Paper 3, (2003), Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

In 2002, the Governor of the Masvingo Province⁷⁶⁵ had reportedly encouraged the members of the local community, who had been evicted, to occupy the land within the national park to the north and south of the Runde River.⁷⁶⁶ Many of the communities then began to break down the cattle fences and herds were then found grazing in the park.⁷⁶⁷ At the time of the infiltrations, the overall development of the GLTP was severely affected and other issues such as the poaching in the GNP and the decline in tourist numbers in Zimbabwe also had a major effect on the TFCA's development.⁷⁶⁸

W. Wolmer notes that the residents were not only attempting to use agriculture and cattle farming for community development, but local entrepreneurs were also establishing themselves in a former veterinary corridor in the area, with the idea of developing commercial wildlife tourism.⁷⁶⁹ Apparently, the local community members established themselves on small plots of approximately 50 hectares which would allow a capacity of 56 land-owners, who were said to be of an upper class.⁷⁷⁰ However, these groups never established themselves on a permanent basis but the proposal still exists and it includes the operation of mini conservancies which would generate revenues from

⁷⁶⁵ The Masvingo Province is found in the south eastern region and it includes the GNP.

⁷⁶⁶ Anonymous, 'Veterans Invade Orphanages', *The Citizen*, 13 May 2001, pp. 2.

⁷⁶⁷ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁷⁶⁸ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', *GeoJournal*, 60(3), (2004), pp. 301-10.

⁷⁶⁹ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: The politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-78; J. Chaumba, I. Scoones and W. Wolmer, 'New politics, new livelihoods: Changes in the Zimbabwean Lowveld since the farm occupations of 2000', *Sustainable Livelihoods in Southern Africa*, Research Paper 3, (2003), Brighton, UK: Institute of Development Studies.

⁷⁷⁰ W. Wolmer, 'Transboundary conservation: The politics of ecological integrity in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Journal of Southern African Studies*, 29(1), (2003), pp. 261-78.

wildlife and safari concessions. The revenues would then be shared among these 56 land-owners.⁷⁷¹

Finally in 2004, the government relocated and removed all illegal occupants of the land inside the park, and in its “buffer zones”, to other areas due to the proposed TFCA. There have been no recent reports on the present situation of any resettlements or reoccupations of the park. This is an opportunity for further research.

(ii) Sengwe Communal Land

The Sengwe Communal Land (SCL) is found in the southern part of the Chiredzi District near to the South Africa-Zimbabwean border.⁷⁷² Therefore, if there is one area that has the potential of linking the KNP and GNP in the GLTFCA, it is the SCL or sometimes referred to as the ‘Sengwe Corridor’.⁷⁷³ This strategic location has the potential of forming a direct link between South Africa and Zimbabwe in the wider context of the GLTFCA development.

The demarcation of a wildlife corridor between the KNP and Gonarezhou was proposed in 2002 and at the time there were no settlements or cultivation activities present in this area. This was considered to be a positive because any relocation of households would therefore not be required.⁷⁷⁴ After a consultation process in 2002, which involved the local communities, the TFCA committee and the Rural District Councils (RDCs), all stakeholders then agreed to set aside a strip of land parallel to the Limpopo River for wildlife and it

⁷⁷¹ A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁷⁷² Z. Sithole, ‘Park to unite three countries’, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 28 July 2005, pp. 10.

⁷⁷³ S. Ferreira, ‘Problems associated with tourism development in southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas’, *GeoJournal*, 60(3), (2004), pp. 301–10.

⁷⁷⁴ Z. Sithole, ‘Park to unite three countries’, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 28 July 2005, pp. 10.

would not be used for human settlement, cultivation or livestock farming.⁷⁷⁵ The average width of the corridor varies between 0.6 and 2.3km and it has an area of approximately 20 square kilometres. If a border crossing is established between the northern end of the KNP and the Limpopo strip, this would essentially allow tourists from the KNP to access the Sengwe area on their way to GNP.⁷⁷⁶ There have been a number of economic activities proposed for the Sengwe corridor and these include: safari hunting; wildlife and landscape-based tourism,⁷⁷⁷ cultural tourism;⁷⁷⁸ craft and veld products,⁷⁷⁹ and agricultural produce.⁷⁸⁰

It has been anticipated that the TFCA will increase the development of the corridor as additional wildlife resources could then be exploited by the community in order to generate revenue from commercial wildlife tourism and even trophy hunting.⁷⁸¹ In addition to this, tourists could also be attracted to the area due to the diversity of wildlife species and they may also spend money within the local communities on products such as crafts.⁷⁸² However, the Sengwe people have indicated that their previous experiences with CAMPFIRE (see Chapter 3) and

⁷⁷⁵ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷⁷⁶ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', *GeoJournal*, 60(3), (2004), pp. 301–10.

⁷⁷⁷ I.e. photographic tourism, with small high quality wilderness-style lodges (e.g. 24 beds) with joint venture agreements between the private sector and communities. Three potential lodge sites have been identified by communities.

⁷⁷⁸ Based on the traditional lifestyles of the Hlengwe communities in Sengwe and Chipise.

⁷⁷⁹ Sengwe area already has a craft association facilitated by the NGO SAFIRE. Products may include Marula and Zyziphus jams, and cosmetics made from *Kigelia* (Sausage Tree) pods.

⁷⁸⁰ Farm produce, including vegetables, fruit and poultry, would be sold to the lodges. This would require small-scale irrigation projects and rehabilitation of transport infrastructure.

⁷⁸¹ SANParks, (2012) 'Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.sanparks.co.za/conservation/>, Accessed: 22 April 2014; A. Spenceley, 'Workshop Proceedings' from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN.

⁷⁸² V. Dzingirai, *Disenfranchisement at large: Transfrontier zones, conservation and local livelihoods*, (2004) Harare, Zimbabwe: IUCN ROSA (World Conservation Union, Regional Office for Southern Africa).

other community-based ventures is that the government and the RDCs are not interested in sharing the revenues and benefits and they would rather retain as much of the revenue as possible for themselves.⁷⁸³

There are few institutional structures in the area that can claim these revenues or even engage with the state.⁷⁸⁴ For example, SAFIRE⁷⁸⁵ promotes the development of small businesses by local people, including the ownership of tourism enterprises.⁷⁸⁶ The local people are also concerned that the existing ability to cross over the border to South Africa will be restricted by the need for passports and visas. Since Zimbabwean travel documents are fairly difficult to obtain, the locals see these requirements as a major hindrance to their intended cross-border movements.⁷⁸⁷ They are also concerned about the potential fees which may be placed on importing goods and there is also the chance that these goods could be impounded by the custom officials.⁷⁸⁸ Importing goods has been a strategy used by the poor to

⁷⁸³ J. Murombedzi, 'Decentralization or recentralization? Implementing CAMPFIRE in the Omay Communal Lands of the Nyaminyami District', (1992), in V. Dzingirai, *Disenfranchisement at Large: Transfrontier zones, conservation and local livelihoods*, (2004), Harare, Zimbabwe: IUCN ROSA (World Conservation Union Regional Office for Southern Africa).

⁷⁸⁴ V. Dzingirai, *Disenfranchisement at large: Transfrontier zones, conservation and local livelihoods*, (2004) Harare, Zimbabwe: IUCN ROSA (World Conservation Union, Regional Office for Southern Africa).

⁷⁸⁵ SAFIRE is a regional non-governmental organisation, working with more than 20,000 households in poor and marginalised communities in Africa. Their focus is inclined towards the promotion of rural development through the sustainable utilisation, commercialisation and management of natural resources – SAFIRE, (2014), Internet: <http://www.safireweb.org/>, Accessed: 1st September 2014.

⁷⁸⁶ V. Dzingirai, *Disenfranchisement at large: Transfrontier zones, conservation and local livelihoods*, (2004) Harare, Zimbabwe: IUCN ROSA (World Conservation Union, Regional Office for Southern Africa).

⁷⁸⁷ S. Ferreira, 'Problems associated with tourism development in southern Africa: The case of Transfrontier Conservation Areas', *GeoJournal*, 60(3), (2004), pp. 301–10; A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁷⁸⁸ V. Dzingirai, *Disenfranchisement at large: Transfrontier zones, conservation and local livelihoods*, (2004) Harare, Zimbabwe: IUCN ROSA (World Conservation Union, Regional Office for Southern Africa).

survive in a marginal environment, and therefore their livelihoods may indeed be threatened by the development of the TFCA.⁷⁸⁹

Therefore, the Sengwe Corridor and Communal Land is considered to be a small, yet vital, element within the broader development of the GLTFCA.⁷⁹⁰ The corridor runs across two communal land areas and it is seen as an opportunity to involve the local communities, of the area, in natural resource management processes which are at both regional and national levels.⁷⁹¹

6.3.3. Mozambique

The following section will look at the development of local community involvement in and around the Limpopo National Park, using the Covane Community Lodge as an example of CBT.

(i) Covane Community Lodge

During 2002-2004, a Swiss NGO known as Helvetas facilitated a community-based tourism enterprise near the Massingir Dam in southern Mozambique. The NGO developed the Covane Community Lodge about 7 kilometres from the Massingir Township.⁷⁹² It was equipped with two five-bed chalets, three three-bed tents and additional space for people to bring their own tents, which essentially

⁷⁸⁹ A. Spenceley, 'Workshop Proceedings' from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN.

⁷⁹⁰ G. Dacanto, *Sustainable Development and Natural Resource Management in Southern Zimbabwe*, Proceedings of the seminar on the development of collaborative management for the Sengwe Corridor, 20-21 March, (2003), CESVI, pp. 9.

⁷⁹¹ G. Dacanto, *Sustainable Development and Natural Resource Management in Southern Zimbabwe*, Proceedings of the seminar on the development of collaborative management for the Sengwe Corridor, 20-21 March, (2003), CESVI, pp. 9.

⁷⁹² B. Soto, (2013) 'Covane Community Lodge', 29 January 2013, *Peace Parks Foundation*, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/news/>, Accessed: 3 October 2014.

meant that it included more than 19 beds.⁷⁹³ Apart from the accommodation facilities, the lodge also offered traditional dances, traditional food, hiking trails, visits to the local villages, boat rides and the opportunity to purchase local crafts.⁷⁹⁴ The lodge also included a number of self-catering facilities, a restaurant, ablution blocks and a seating area which overlooks the Massingir Dam. During the second half of 2004, the lodge was visited by approximately 95 domestic and foreign visitors.⁷⁹⁵

The building of the lodge was jointly financed by Helvetas (\$US20 000) and by USAID (\$US50 000) but the ownership was eventually transferred to the Canhane community.⁷⁹⁶ Helvetas were responsible for presenting the idea of the lodge to various public sector organizations such as: the Mozambican Provincial Ministries of Tourism and Agriculture; district-level administration departments and the Mozambican Departments of Agriculture and Tourism.⁷⁹⁷ The NGO then proposed the concept to the Canhane and Kubo communities but the local residents had very little awareness of tourism at the time. However, Helvetas briefed them about CBT, the potential locations for a lodge, the land law and various types of land allocations.⁷⁹⁸ Once the community had identified a suitable location for the lodge they

⁷⁹³ B. Soto, (2013) 'Covane Community Lodge', 29 January 2013, *Peace Parks Foundation*, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/news/>, Accessed: 3 October 2014.

⁷⁹⁴ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁷⁹⁵ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), 'Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014.

⁷⁹⁶ B. Soto, (2013) 'Covane Community Lodge', 29 January 2013, *Peace Parks Foundation*, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/news/>, Accessed: 3 October 2014.

⁷⁹⁷ A. Spenceley, 'Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park', *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁷⁹⁸ B. Soto, (2013) 'Covane Community Lodge', 29 January 2013, *Peace Parks Foundation*, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/news/>, Accessed: 3 October 2014.

established a steering committee of ten local volunteers during a community meeting. Helvetas were then responsible for allocating 7,024 hectares for the community-owned lodge to be built on.⁷⁹⁹ The community then chose 20 local members to construct the lodge between February-November 2003, and they did this without assistance from the private sector. The NGO established a constitution for the association which was responsible for all financial matters of the Canhane community.⁸⁰⁰

In 2004, it was reported that nine members of the community were employed at Covane Lodge and a further 40 were employed indirectly (i.e. selling of crafts to tourists).⁸⁰¹ Helvetas were responsible for growing the public capacity of the local community and they also suggested the type of qualifications the local residents would need and they in turn were able to search for these qualifications within the community.⁸⁰² The NGO then sent these local members on tourism and hospitality training courses, and the managers were enrolled in hotel management courses.⁸⁰³ They also arranged for the local community members to visit other CBT projects in order to learn from these

⁷⁹⁹ A. Spenceley, 'Scoping Report' on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI.

⁸⁰⁰ B. Soto, (2013) 'Covane Community Lodge', 29 January 2013, *Peace Parks Foundation*, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/news/>, Accessed: 3 October 2014.

⁸⁰¹ G. Palalane, 'Covane Community Lodge: Experiences of the Canhane Community, Gaza Province, Mozambique', In A. Spenceley (ed.), *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Relating strategic visions to local activities that promote sustainable tourism development*, Workshop Proceedings, 14–16 April, Wits Rural Facility, South Africa, (2005), Internet: www.wits.ac.za/tbpdigitalhistory, Accessed: June 2014.

⁸⁰² A. Spenceley, 'Workshop Proceedings' from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN.

⁸⁰³ B. Soto, (2013) 'Covane Community Lodge', 29 January 2013, *Peace Parks Foundation*, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/news/>, Accessed: 3 October 2014.

ventures. For example, they were sent to community-based tourism enterprises in Swaziland and at Xai-Xai in southern Mozambique.⁸⁰⁴

Between May-October in 2004, the lodge accumulated a total of eight-million Metacais (R260,000) from accommodation facilities and auxiliary services which were sold to tourists. After these funds had been accumulated, the community then met to discuss how the revenue would be used. An agreement was formed and it stipulated that 50% of all revenue should be used for the development of infrastructure and the remaining 50% should be invested back into the camp.⁸⁰⁵ To date, two wells have been rehabilitated and a classroom has been constructed.⁸⁰⁶ The proportion of revenue for the camp investment has the potential of eventually being used for salaries once Helvetas completes its involvement in the project.⁸⁰⁷

(ii) Limpopo National Park

When the Government of Mozambique officially proclaimed the former “Coutada 16” as the Limpopo National Park (LNP) in November 2001, it did so regardless of the vast populations residing in the park. With regards to this, the World Bank reported that:

. . . despite their efforts to resolve the fate of the communities living in Coutada 16, and the assurances given by GoM that the issue would be

⁸⁰⁴ B. Soto, (2013) ‘Covane Community Lodge’, 29 January 2013, *Peace Parks Foundation*, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za/news/>, Accessed: 3 October 2014.

⁸⁰⁵ A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁸⁰⁶ G. Palalane, ‘Covane Community Lodge: Experiences of the Canhane Community, Gaza Province, Mozambique’, In A. Spenceley (ed.), *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area: Relating strategic visions to local activities that promote sustainable tourism development*, Workshop Proceedings, 14–16 April, Wits Rural Facility, South Africa, (2005), Internet: www.wits.ac.za/tbpdigitalhistory, Accessed: June 2014.

⁸⁰⁷ A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

adequately resolved prior to any action, in 2001, the LNP was gazetted as a national park and some animals were allowed to enter the park area. This created a lot of media attention and controversy around the project.⁸⁰⁸

It was estimated that there were 6,500 people living along the Shingwedzi River and close to Massingir Dam, with an additional 20,000 living along the Limpopo River.⁸⁰⁹ The people living along the Shingwedzi River basin inhabited an area of approximately 3,700 square kilometers and were clustered in nine villages, with the biggest one including approximately 2,000 people and the smallest having less than 150.⁸¹⁰ Each of these homesteads was estimated to cultivate an average of about three hectares of land and owned more than 5,000 cattle.⁸¹¹ The communities living along the Limpopo River, and the Olifants River in the south-east of the park, included approximately 20,000 people and they are settled in the “support zone” in about 40 villages.⁸¹²

A resettlement process was then conducted in order to determine whether the inhabitants would remain there or whether they would be relocated to areas outside the park and thus be compensated.⁸¹³ The LNP aligned the resettlement policy with the World Bank’s safeguard policy on involuntary resettlement (Operational Policy 4.12). The first

⁸⁰⁸ P. Olivier, ‘Peace Parks or Killing Fields’, *The Citizen*, 10 October 2001, p. 10; H. Hagen, ‘Wildlife Boost for ‘Super Park’’, *The Citizen*, 13 August 2002, p. 10; R. Molefe, ‘Giant game park one step closer’, *The Sowetan*, 21 December 2001, p. 11; F. Macleod, ‘Relocation saves Kruger’s elephants’, *Weekly Mail and Guardian*, 10 May 2001, p. 14.

⁸⁰⁹ G. Huggins, E. Barendse, A. Fischer and J. Sitei, ‘Limpopo National Park: Resettlement Policy Framework’, (2003), in B. Büscher (ed.), *Transforming the Frontier: Peace Parks and the Politics of Neoliberal Conservation in Southern Africa*, (2013), Duke University Press.

⁸¹⁰ P. Olivier, ‘Peace Parks or Killing Fields’, *The Citizen*, 10 October 2001, pp. 10.

⁸¹¹ R. Molefe, ‘Giant game park one step closer’, *The Sowetan*, 21 December 2001, pp. 11; A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁸¹² A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁸¹³ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), ‘Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014.

principle of this policy stated that “resettlement must be avoided or minimised”⁸¹⁴ and therefore a Resettlement Working Group (RWG) was appointed. The RWG was made up of district administrators, provincial government officials, local leaders and representatives from the community⁸¹⁵ and were also responsible for drawing up Resettlement Action Plans.

The resettlement policy also considered that “no resettlement’ should lead to the creation of fenced enclaves within the park or they should remain unfenced”. Huggins et al. have suggested that the enclave scenario would create available land for farming and grazing. However, this land would have to be limited and the local community members would not be able to leave the enclave on foot and would thus be dependent on transport.⁸¹⁶ The authors of the policy framework also suggested that if the homesteads were to remain unfenced, there will be increased competition between people, their livestock and the wild animals over natural resources.⁸¹⁷ This would also increase the chance of spreading diseases between the domestic and wild animals, as well as running the risk of the local residents contracting life threatening diseases.⁸¹⁸ Even though the homesteads would be free to move, they

⁸¹⁴ G. Huggins, E. Barendse, A. Fischer and J. Sitoi, ‘Limpopo National Park: Resettlement Policy Framework’, (2003), in B. Büscher (ed.), *Transforming the Frontier: Peace Parks and the Politics of Neoliberal Conservation in Southern Africa*, (2013), Duke University Press.

⁸¹⁵ A. Spenceley, ‘Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, *Development Southern Africa*, 23(5), (2006), pp. 649-667.

⁸¹⁶ G. Huggins, E. Barendse, A. Fischer and J. Sitoi, ‘Limpopo National Park: Resettlement Policy Framework’, (2003), in B. Büscher (ed.), *Transforming the Frontier: Peace Parks and the Politics of Neoliberal Conservation in Southern Africa*, (2013), Duke University Press.

⁸¹⁷ G. Huggins, E. Barendse, A. Fischer and J. Sitoi, ‘Limpopo National Park: Resettlement Policy Framework’, (2003), in B. Büscher (ed.), *Transforming the Frontier: Peace Parks and the Politics of Neoliberal Conservation in Southern Africa*, (2013), Duke University Press.

⁸¹⁸ Peace Parks Foundation, (2014), ‘Limpopo National Park in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park’, Internet: <http://www.peaceparks.co.za>, Accessed: 21 August 2014; G. Huggins, E. Barendse, A. Fischer and J. Sitoi, ‘Limpopo National Park: Resettlement Policy Framework’, (2003), in B. Büscher (ed.), *Transforming the*

would still live in a dangerous environment. However, the LNP tourism development plan proposes that tourism development would have positive impacts on local communities through job creation and other indirect opportunities for social and economic growth.⁸¹⁹

6.4. Conclusion

This chapter has considered the GLTFCA as a prime example of a TFCA within the context of southern Africa. The GLTFCA was firstly introduced as an important form of development for both the conservation fauna and flora as well as for the socio-economic development of South Africa, Zimbabwe and Mozambique. Furthermore, a discussion on the establishment process of the TFCA shows how important collaboration and cooperation is and how it must involve all stakeholders from government level all the way to the local communities. This is a crucial component and one that often times can become an obstacle. The sections on tourism development and the involvement of local communities showed that GLTFCA is heading in the right direction in terms of the three initial intentions of a “Peace Park” - increasing tourism in the region; modernization of conservation policies (i.e. biodiversity conservation); and the development of rural economies. The final chapter will therefore analyse the major findings of this dissertation.

Frontier: Peace Parks and the Politics of Neoliberal Conservation in Southern Africa, (2013), Duke University Press.

⁸¹⁹ A. Spenceley, ‘Scoping Report’ on *Tourism Investment in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand & TPARI; A. Spenceley, ‘Workshop Proceedings’ from *Tourism in the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area*, (2005), University of Witwatersrand, TPARI & IUCN.

Chapter 7

Conclusion

This dissertation has understood that the tourism industry, and in particular the planning and management of tourism destinations, is very complex as there are often multiple stakeholders involved. This has been revealed in the works of scholars, such as M. Doppelfeld, where she has pointed out that the presence of multiple stakeholders in the tourism industry is the cause of its complex nature. Furthermore, it has been revealed that this complexity is often increased within the cross-border context whereby multiple stakeholders from multiple nations are involved. Yet the degree of complexity can however be reduced. E. Inskeep noted that this is possible through the establishment of continuous and integrated planning measures. Furthermore, this dissertation has concluded that the lack of coordination and cohesion within this complex tourism industry is a common problem and the majority of tourism planners and developers have thus turned towards stakeholder collaboration.

The importance of collaboration was further emphasised by a number of scholars in this dissertation. For example, B. Bramwell and B. Lane have claimed that the interaction of stakeholders has the potential of leading to dialogue, negotiations and mutually accepted proposals which can lead to improved sustainable tourism development. It was also noted that collaboration can assist stakeholders to gain a competitive advantage as they can combine a number of key aspects such as knowledge, expertise and capital investment.

The concept of collaboration in tourism has been analysed in the context of transfrontier conservation areas (TFCAs) in southern African and in particular the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Conservation Area (GLTFCA). The GLTFCA has acted as an example of how the tools of the collaboration theory have been applied in practice. TFCAs were simply defined as “areas which straddle two or more international borders where natural and cultural resources are collaboratively managed by the governments and authorities involved”. It is thus clear from this definition that these areas can only be successful if they are managed collaboratively by stakeholders in the government to members of the local community.

Chapter 3 revealed some key collaboration tools which can be applied to the development of transfrontier conservation areas not only in southern Africa, but also on a global scale. Firstly M. Doppelfeld’s Tourism Stakeholder Map is a vital method of identifying the key stakeholders in a transfrontier conservation area. These stakeholders include: tourism planners; local businesses; employees; national business chains; residents; government; activist groups; competitors; and tourists. A number of these stakeholders were evident in the development of the GLTFCA in both Chapters 5 and 6. For example, in the early stages of its development the stakeholders included employees (such as Warden Stevenson Hamilton of the KNP) and the governments of the ZAR and Rhodesia. As the development of the area grew, more stakeholder groups became involved and these included residents (such as the Makulele community) and activist groups such as the Peace Parks Foundation (PPF).

The second collaboration tool that was identified was a Three-Phase Collaboration Process which was developed by B. Gray. The first stage was identified as “problem-setting” and it is here where the key stakeholders, as well as the main issue regarding the domain, are identified. In the case of the GLTFCA, this stage actually dates back to around 1914 when Cecil Barnard proposed a link between the KNP in the ZAR and the GNP in Rhodesia. The second stage was identified as “direction-setting” and it is here where the identification and sharing of future collaborative interpretations occur and where all stakeholders aim to achieve a common purpose. For the GLTFCA, this stage began during the late 1920s when the ZAR, Rhodesia and the Portuguese government of Mozambique began to cooperate along the lines of developing a “mega-park” in the region. The third and final stage is where the implementation of all ideas and objectives occurs and includes the implementation of all shared decisions as the domain develops. Therefore, for the GLTFCA, this stage began around 2000 when the MoU and the Treaty for the TFCA were signed.

The third tool used was identified by D. Timothy in his work on partnerships in tourism. This tool is important as partnerships are a key factor for the proper utilisation of collaboration in tourism. The four levels of partnerships include: private and public sector partnerships; partnerships between government agencies; partnerships between administrative levels; and partnerships between same-level polities. Therefore in the case of the GLTFCA, the most common partnerships are those between the public and private sector and between the government agencies. For example, many partnerships

have been formed between conservation agencies, such as SANParks, and government agencies (or parastatals) such as RETOSA.

The final tool, which is a combination of two models, is possibly the most vital in terms of understanding the process of collaboration in the GLTFCA and in TFCAs overall. O. Martinez developed the “Four-Type Typology of Cross-Border Interaction” in 1994 he identified a process of interactions between stakeholders which include: Alienated Borderlands; Coexistent Borderlands; Interdependent Borderlands; and Integrated Borderlands. Since then, this typology has been appropriated and extended by M. Doppelfeld and D. Timothy in their individual works. The new typology now includes five steps: Alienation; Co-existence; Co-operation; Collaboration; Integration. This tool has proven both applicable and vital in understanding the background to and establishment of the GLTFCA.

Another important finding of this dissertation is that the SADC has prioritised the development of regional tourism and the protection of both its natural and cultural heritage in the signing of two protocols. These include: the *Protocol on the Development of Tourism* (1998) and the *Protocol on Wildlife Conservation and Law Enforcement* (1999). It was evident throughout the first Protocol that the SADC had outlined the importance of collaboration and cooperation between all member states in terms of achieving regional economic integration and development from tourism. A number of key aspects were apparent in the second Protocol and these became relevant upon devising the GLTFCA. For example, two of the most important objectives included the promotion of wildlife conservation by each member state through

the establishment of TFCAs and also to facilitate community-based practices for the management of wildlife resources.

Finally, the issue of collaboration at the local community level has also revealed important aspects that are critical for achieving collaboration in tourism within TFCAs. It was found that in areas where there are both cultural and natural resources, the situation can often become quite complex. Many cultural groups will inhabit biophysical environments yet their relationships with the wildlife species can often differ. This was especially the case in the GLTFCA as each country had different cultural groups which utilised the natural resources in different ways. Therefore it was concluded that the theory of collaboration in protected areas should take cognisance of integrating the relationship between the private and public sectors, the biophysical dimensions and the cultural aspects. The process of collaboration at a community level is indeed an important area for the scope of collaborative efforts.

The key results above have shown that the use of collaboration as a tool can make an important contribution to the development of tourism within the delineated region of southern Africa. The findings from the international analysis applied to the practical example of the GLTFCA show that collaboration is not something that can be achieved overnight and to get the buy-in from all necessary stakeholders is never an easy task. This is indeed a limitation and possible shortcoming of the application in southern Africa. Furthermore, the GLTFCA has shown the potential that southern African has in terms of its biodiversity and how wildlife tourism and cultural tourism can bring numerous benefits across all borders of the region. The final

formalisation of the GLTFCA has to be confirmed, the stakeholders need to be convinced of the benefits while other obstacles in terms of collaboration and cooperation need to be overcome. These challenging aspects offer opportunities for further research and resolution. This study has however encapsulated the potential of cross-border tourism development in TFCAs and it has found that collaboration and cooperation has the prospect of bringing numerous benefits to all of the nations and stakeholders who are involved, thus bringing “benefits beyond boundaries”.

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Annexure 1:

V. Kollosov Table

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TABLE 1 The Development of Border Studies, Stages 1-4

Stage/period	Dominant approaches and methods	The content of a stage	The main concept and achievements	Leading authors	Practical applications
1. Since the late nineteenth century	Historical-geographical approach	Accumulation of empirical data, detailed mapping of economic and social structures in border regions, numerous case studies	Representations on the evolution of borders and border areas in space and time; explanation of borders' features and morphology by the balance of power between neighbouring states; rise and decline of theory of natural borders	J. Ancel (France); I. Bowman (USA), R. Hartshorn (USA), E. Banse (Germany)	Allocation, delimitation and demarcation of post-war state borders in Europe; delimitation of colonial possessions in Africa and Asia
	Borders' typology	Numerous typologies and classifications of state borders; study of relations between the barrier and the contact function of a border	Concepts of border and frontier; theories explaining their evolution and morphology	Lord Curson, T. Holdich; C. Fawcett (all – Great Britain), S. Boggs (USA)	Geopolitical strategies, partition of the world into areas of major powers' influence; overall application of the European concept of the border as a strictly fixed line
2. Since the early 1950s	Functional approach	Studies of transboundary flows of people, goods, information, etc., and of mutual influence of borders and of different elements of the natural and the social landscapes	Models of transboundary interactions at different spatial levels and typologies of transboundary flows; understanding of borders as a multi-dimensional and highly dynamic social phenomenon; concepts of the border landscape and of the stages of border areas' evolution	J.R.V. Prescott; (Australia), J.W. House (Great Britain), J. Minghi (USA), M. Foucher (France), G. Blake (Great Britain), O. Martinez (USA)	Border negotiations, practice of border cooperation and management of social processes in border areas; delimitation and demarcation of new political borders (including sea borders)

3. Since the 1970s
- Political science approaches
- Studies of state borders' role in international conflicts
- Relation between borders' features and their role in the beginning, the evolution and the resolution of border conflicts; borders are most often considered as a given reality
- G. Goertz and P. Diehl, T. Gurr, H. Starr, A. Kirby (all -USA) and others.
- Resolution of international and border conflicts, peace-making and peace-keeping
4. Since the 1980s
- A. World systems and territorial identities
- Border studies at different inter-related levels depending on the evolution of territorial identities and the role of a border in the hierarchy of political borders as a whole
- A. Prasi (Finland); D. Newman (Israel); J. O'Loughlin (USA); P. Taylor (Great Britain); T. Lunden (Sweden); G. Waterbury and J. Ackleson (Great Britain) and others
- Use of border problems and conflicts in nation- and state-building; principles of border policy and cooperation; creation and strengthening of euroregions and of other transboundary regions
- B. Geopolitical approaches
- B1. Impact of globalization and integration on political borders
- Representations about processes of 'de-territorialisation' and 're-territorialisation' (redistribution of functions between borders of different levels and types) and about the evolution of the system of political and administrative borders
- B2. Borders from the perspective of military, political etc. security
- Role of borders in securitisation of countries and regions; separation of traditional and post-modern representations about this role; studies of the influence of geopolitical culture on functions of borders in the field of security

TABLE 1 (continued)

Stage/period	Dominant approaches and methods	The content of a stage	The main concept and achievements	Leading authors	Practical applications
C.	Borders as social representations	Borders as social constructs and a mirror of social relations in past and present; borders' role as a social symbol and importance in political discourse	Approaches to the study of borders as an important element of ethnic, national and other territorial identities		
D.	The 'practice-policy-perception approach	Relations between the policy determining the transparency of a border, its perception by people and the practice of activities related with this border	Influence of border policy; practice and perceptions on the management of border regions and border cooperation		
H. van Houtum and O. Kramsch (The Netherlands); J. Scott (Germany)		Management of border regions and border cooperation; regulation of international migrations and of other trans-boundary flows; regional policy			
E.	Ecopolitical	Relationships between natural and political borders	Functions of natural and political borders as a integrated system and management of trans-boundary socio-environmental systems	O. Young, G. White (both USA); N. Kliot (Israel); S. Dalby (Canada), S. Gorshkov and L. Korytny (Russia) and many others	State of global and regional environmental problems; management of international river basins, etc.

Annexure 2:
M. Doppelfeld, B. Bramwell
and B. Lane Table

B. Bramwell and B. Lane, 'Collaboration and Partnerships in Tourism Planning', in *Tourism Collaboration and Partnerships: Politics, Practice and Sustainability*, (2000), Clevedon: Channel View Publications, pp. 1-19.

Further, the definition allows for variations between different partnerships in their duration or time-scale, although collaborative processes usually need to be based on stakeholders interacting on several occasions. These structures are normally temporary arrangements that are dissolved once it is considered that the collaboration has achieved its goals. However, it might be argued that they could have a more permanent structure, although subsequently these too may change in their character or simply collapse (Dyzma, 1986). The degree of more formalised organisation will also vary from example to example, although the parties need to retain their independent decision-making powers. Selin and Chavez (1995:845) suggest that tourism collaborations 'may be highly structured, characterized by legally binding agreements, or may be quite unstructured verbal agreements between participating organizations'. The intended outcomes of collaborative arrangements can also differ, with the objective sometimes being to develop a strategic vision or a plan for a destination, and in other cases it is to implement some practical measures. However, it might be suggested that dialogues among organisations aimed solely at exchanging information do not meet Wood and Gray's requirement that there is an intention 'to act or decide on issues'.

The form of a collaborative process can vary according to many dimensions, and for analytical purposes it is helpful to conceptualise each dimension as a continuum, along which specific examples can be located. In this context, some authors place the ideas of collaboration between stakeholders within a broader conceptual framework of the network of stakeholders relevant to an issue and of the diverse relations between these parties (Amin and Thrift, 1995; Healey, 1997; Thompson, 1991). There are often complex relational webs between stakeholders that are structured around diverse economic, political and cultural forces, with some linkages in these networks being relatively more structured than others. Along a continuum from more to less formalised relations within these webs or networks, the definition of collaborative arrangements developed by Wood and Gray relates to relatively formal institutional or policy networks and their associated stakeholder relations.

Potential Benefits from Collaboration and Partnerships

There are many potential benefits when diverse stakeholders affected by tourism attempt to collaborate and to agree policies and plans about how they should proceed. For instance, it is frequently suggested that collaboration can help to avoid the long-term costs of adversarial conflicts between interest groups. Adversarial conflicts can be wasteful as stakeholders entrench their mutual suspicions, improve their confrontation skills and play out similar conflicts around each subsequent issue. Interest in collaboration between stakeholders affected by particular issues has also been encouraged by a reputedly poor record of traditional representative democratic arrangements as a means of ensuring people are involved in debates and decisions that affect their lives. These arrangements generally involve the election of local councils that oversee the working of professionals in the operation of planning and the delivery of services. This model has been challenged in recent years because its record of responsiveness and involvement has not always been impressive, and because 'it

implies a standardised approach to an increasingly diversified set of issues and populations' (Pile, 1999: 329).

Some potential benefits of collaboration in tourism planning are summarised in Table 1. These benefits might result in fewer adverse tourism impacts, increased operational efficiency and enhanced equity. In a broader sense, too, both organisations and destinations may develop some form of 'collaborative advantage' from the benefits of executing a successful partnership approach (Gray, 1996; Huxham, 1996).

Table 1 Potential benefits of collaboration and partnerships in tourism planning

- There may be involvement by a range of stakeholders, all of whom are affected by the multiple issues of tourism development and may be well placed to introduce change and improvement.
- Decision-making power and control may diffuse to the multiple stakeholders that are affected by the issues, which is favourable for democracy.
- The involvement of several stakeholders may increase the social acceptance of policies, so that implementation and enforcement may be easier to effect.
- More constructive and less adversarial attitudes might result in consequence of working together.
- The parties who are directly affected by the issues may bring their knowledge, attitudes and other capacities to the policy-making process.
- A creative synergy may result from working together, perhaps leading to greater innovation and effectiveness.
- Partnerships can promote learning about the work, skills and potential of the other partners, and also develop the group interaction and negotiating skills that help to make partnerships successful.
- Parties involved in policy-making may have a greater commitment to putting the resulting policies into practice.
- There may be improved coordination of the policies and related actions of the multiple stakeholders.
- There may be greater consideration of the diverse economic, environmental and social issues that affect the sustainable development of resources.
- There may be greater recognition of the importance of non-economic issues and interests if they are included in the collaborative framework, and this may strengthen the range of tourism products available.
- There may be a pooling of the resources of stakeholders, which might lead to their more effective use.
- When multiple stakeholders are engaged in decision-making the resulting policies may be more flexible and also more sensitive to local circumstances and to changing conditions.
- Non-tourism activities may be encouraged, leading to a broadening of the economic, employment and societal base of a given community or region.

Potential Problems which can Arise from Collaboration and Partnerships

An obvious question to ask is: why is there a discrepancy between the many endorsements listed above and the limited adoption of collaborative tourism planning, despite the strong arguments for it and its intuitive appeal? In fact as indicated in Table 2 below there are significant problems with collaborative approaches to tourism planning, both in principle and in practice. These limit the number of partnerships and also mean that those that have formed have not always achieved their potential. One potential difficulty is the perceptions and misperceptions that prospective partners hold about one another. Overcoming mistrust is difficult, particularly when there are complex environmental problems related to tourism. With environmental issues, the prospective partners – non-profit sector, government and business – are different in so many ways: ‘They have different core missions, employ different types of people, use different languages, and operate on different timetables’ (Long and Arnold, 1995:43). Partnerships may also have difficulties as they challenge the vested interests and power of otherwise dominant organisations and businesses (Healey, 1997 and 1998; Timothy, 1999). Additionally, it must be remembered that central control in a hierarchical system has the advantage of being more predictable than is the case in more complex and fragmented systems. Hence it should not be assumed that each of the various stakeholders would automatically believe it is in their best interest to participate in a partnership.

It is suggested that we need to appreciate ‘the extent to which barriers to participative systems are embedded in social, economic, and political principles deeply valued in their own right’ (McCaffrey, Faerman and Hart, 1995:604). There are considerable pressures in society to maintain the status quo in inter-organisational relations. Hence the study of collaboration in tourism will benefit from close attention to how social, economic, and political structures constrain or facilitate such processes (Reed, 1997).

Importantly, collaborative arrangements may also be criticised because some social groups and individuals may find it difficult or impossible to gain access to these arrangements. Power relations are likely to influence which people join these groups and who has most influence in decisions. For example, only well organised and state-licensed interest groups may play a prominent role in policy formation by groups or agencies that exist in some policy arenas (Hall and Jenkins, 1995; Reed, 1997). A network of collaborative arrangements is also more complex and dispersed, and hence tends to be less clearly accountable than is the case with the more centralised, hierarchical systems of elected local government (Bramwell and Rawding, 1994). In addition, while government may have democratic legitimacy, its involvement in consensus building in partnerships may entail it having to compromise in its role in protecting the ‘public interest’, such as in conserving environmental resources for future generations. One response to these issues might be to strengthen the role of elected local government as an organisation able to facilitate, orchestrate and arbitrate in the work of partnerships, and also to mobilise debate, opinion and support where necessary (Donnison, 1998; Kickert, Klijn and Koppenjan, 1997). A government role might be to encourage research and training in the complex art of partnership creation and management.

Table 2 Potential problems of collaboration and partnerships in tourism planning

- In some places and for some issues there may be only a limited tradition of stakeholders participating in policy-making.
- A partnership may be set up simply as 'window dressing' to avoid tackling real problems head on with all interests.
- Healthy conflict may be stifled.
- Collaborative efforts may be under-resourced in relation to requirements for additional staff time, leadership and administrative resources.
- Actors may not be disposed to reduce their own power or to work together with unfamiliar partners or previous adversaries.
- Those stakeholders with less power may be excluded from the process of collaborative working or may have less influence on the process.
- Power within collaborative arrangements could pass to groups or individuals with more effective political skills.
- Some key parties may be uninterested or inactive in working with others, sometimes because they decide to rely on others to produce the benefits resulting from a partnership.
- Some partners might coerce others by threatening to leave the partnership in order to press their own case.
- The involvement of democratically elected government in collaborative working and consensus building may compromise its ability to protect the 'public interest'.
- Accountability to various constituencies may become blurred as the greater institutional complexity of collaboration can obscure who is accountable to whom and for what.
- Collaboration may increase uncertainty about the future as the policies developed by multiple stakeholders are more difficult to predict than those developed by a central authority.
- The vested interests and established practices of the multiple stakeholders involved in collaborative working may block innovation.
- The need to develop consensus, and the need to disclose new ideas in advance of their introduction, might discourage entrepreneurial development.
- Involving a range of stakeholders in policy-making may be costly and time-consuming.
- The complexity of engaging diverse stakeholders in policy-making makes it difficult to involve them all equally.
- There may be fragmentation in decision-making and reduced control over implementation.
- The power of some partnerships may be too great, leading to the creation of cartels.
- Some collaborative arrangements may outlive their usefulness, with their bureaucracies seeking to extend their lives unreasonably.

Frameworks to Understand Collaboration

Rather than simply provide yet another rationale of why partnerships may, or may not be valuable, there is a need to develop analytical frameworks that assist us to understand the processes of collaboration in tourism planning. Such frameworks can also provide practitioners in tourism with an enhanced appreciation of how partnerships might be made more effective in particular contexts.

Table 1 Potential benefits of collaboration and partnerships in tourism planning

- There may be involvement by a range of stakeholders, all of whom are affected by the multiple issues of tourism development and may be well placed to introduce change and improvement.
- Decision-making power and control may diffuse to the multiple stakeholders that are affected by the issues, which is favourable for democracy.
- The involvement of several stakeholders may increase the social acceptance of policies, so that implementation and enforcement may be easier to effect.
- More constructive and less adversarial attitudes might result in consequence of working together.
- The parties who are directly affected by the issues may bring their knowledge, attitudes and other capacities to the policy-making process.
- A creative synergy may result from working together, perhaps leading to greater innovation and effectiveness.
- Partnerships can promote learning about the work, skills and potential of the other partners, and also develop the group interaction and negotiating skills that help to make partnerships successful.
- Parties involved in policy-making may have a greater commitment to putting the resulting policies into practice.
- There may be improved coordination of the policies and related actions of the multiple stakeholders.
- There may be greater consideration of the diverse economic, environmental and social issues that affect the sustainable development of resources.
- There may be greater recognition of the importance of non-economic issues and interests if they are included in the collaborative framework, and this may strengthen the range of tourism products available.
- There may be a pooling of the resources of stakeholders, which might lead to their more effective use.
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- Non-tourism activities may be encouraged, leading to a broadening of the economic, employment and societal base of a given community or region.

Table 2 Potential problems of collaboration and partnerships in tourism planning

- In some places and for some issues there may be only a limited tradition of stakeholders participating in policy-making.
- A partnership may be set up simply as 'window dressing' to avoid tackling real problems head on with all interests.
- Healthy conflict may be stifled.
- Collaborative efforts may be under-resourced in relation to requirements for additional staff time, leadership and administrative resources.
- Actors may not be disposed to reduce their own power or to work together with unfamiliar partners or previous adversaries.
- Those stakeholders with less power may be excluded from the process of collaborative working or may have less influence on the process.
- Power within collaborative arrangements could pass to groups or individuals with more effective political skills.
- Some key parties may be uninterested or inactive in working with others, sometimes because they decide to rely on others to produce the benefits resulting from a partnership.
- Some partners might coerce others by threatening to leave the partnership in order to press their own case.
- The involvement of democratically elected government in collaborative working and consensus building may compromise its ability to protect the 'public interest'.
- Accountability to various constituencies may become blurred as the greater institutional complexity of collaboration can obscure who is accountable to whom and for what.
- Collaboration may increase uncertainty about the future as the policies developed by multiple stakeholders are more difficult to predict than those developed by a central authority.
- The vested interests and established practices of the multiple stakeholders involved in collaborative working may block innovation.
- The need to develop consensus, and the need to disclose new ideas in advance of their introduction, might discourage entrepreneurial development.
- Involving a range of stakeholders in policy-making may be costly and time-consuming.
- The complexity of engaging diverse stakeholders in policy-making makes it difficult to involve them all equally.
- There may be fragmentation in decision-making and reduced control over implementation.
- The power of some partnerships may be too great, leading to the creation of cartels.
- Some collaborative arrangements may outlive their usefulness, with their bureaucracies seeking to extend their lives unreasonably.

Annexure 3:

SADC Protocol on the Development of Tourism

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 region-wide;

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 co-operation 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

Annexure 4:

**SADC Protocol on Wildlife
Conservation and Law Enforcement**

SOUTHERN AFRICAN DEVELOPMENT COMMUNITY PROTOCOL ON WILDLIFE CONSERVATION AND LAW ENFORCEMENT

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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

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