LOCAL RURAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN ECOTOURISM: THE CASE OF MADIKWE GAME PARK, NORTH-WEST PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA

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ABSTRACT

TITLE OF DISSERTATION : Local rural community participation in ecotourism: the case of Madikwe Game Park, North-West Province, South Africa

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Local rural community participation is a multifaceted concept with a number of complex and unclear issues. It has numerous meanings and connotations. Developed by the Greek philosophers, it is now rooted in countries that practise democracy. In South Africa, the idea, as far as it pertains to national parks, is relatively new, due to the country's past history of forced removals and the fact that parks and game reserves were proclaimed in areas owned by rural communities.

Community participation should not be seen as a panacea for all the socio-economic costs of ecotourism. But, by employing the principle of community participation, ecotourism can provide tangible benefits for disadvantaged communities, especially in rural areas.

This study aims to investigate ways in which local communities around Madikwe Game Park can benefit from ecotourism, and to formulate a congruent public policy which will be beneficial to all concerned and can be applied to similar developments. These aims were realized along the following way: determining the needs and problems of communities in the environs of the Game Park and ways of addressing them; formulating a model involving the communities in ecotourism; and

recommending ways in which local communities could be transformed into a host

community.

The data for the study were collected by means of a participatory approach, involving mainly qualitative consultation techniques to assess community sentiments. Interviews were open ended and were held with park officials, tribal councils, developers and community members living in the environs of the Park. In addition, data were collected through public forums, meetings, field studies and the study of relevant literature from February to October 1995.

The data revealed that local communities have not been and still are not effectively involved in decision-making in regard to the Park. The Parks Board used the benefit of employment opportunities as a driving force for the acceptance for the Park in the local communities. The Park, like many of its kind in the country, is perceived as an island of plenty in a sea of poverty. Automatic telephones, electricity, roads and other forms of infrastructure are available in the Park whereas surrounding communities lack these facilities. To date, few have benefited materially or otherwise from the development of the Park.

A model is proposed which aims to empower the community in the Park environs and to get rid of the Eurocentric view of conservation held by many Parks Board officials. By reconciling conservation objectives with the needs, problems and aspirations of the community in the Madikwe area, the ecotourism practised there will be accepted by all.

Future action must be guided by an ethos that links the struggle against abuse of the environment with the struggle against poverty and social injustice. Without local community participation, ecotourism at Madikwe Game Park will be of no use to the surrounding disadvantaged communities which means that the antagonism of the black rural community toward conservation will not be overcome.

SAMEVATTING

Gemeenskapsdeelname deur die plaaslike bevolking in landelike gebiede is 'n veelvlakkige begrip met talle betekenisse wat 'n aantal komplekse en ongedefinieerde kwessies omvat. Die gedagte is aanvanklik deur die Griekse filosowe ontwikkel maar staan tans gewortel in demokratiese lande. In soverre dit nasionale parke aangaan, is die konsep betreklik nuut in Suid-Afrika met sy geskiedenis van gedwonge verskuiwings en vanweë die feit dat nasionale parke en wildreservate geproklameer is in gebiede wat aan landelike gemeenskappe behoort het.

Gemeenskapsdeelname moet nie gesien word as 'n wonderkuur vir die sosio-ekonomiese probleme wat ekotoerisme kan meebring nie; deur egter die beginsel van gemeenskapsdeelname toe te pas, kan ekotoerisme tasbare voordele vir agtergeblewe gemeenskappe inhou, veral in die landelike gebiede.

Hierdie studie is daarop gerig om maniere te vind waarop plaaslike gemeenskappe rondom die Madikwe Wildreservaat by ekotoerisme kan baat, en om daarmee saam 'n openbare beleid te formuleer waardeur alle betrokkenes begunstig sal word en wat op soortgelyke situasies toegepas kan word. Hierdie doelstellings is soos volg bereik: deur die behoeftes en probleme van gemeenskappe in die omgewing van die Madikwe Wildreservaat te bepaal; vas te stel hoe aan die behoeftes voldoen en die probleme opgelos kan word; 'n model te formuleer waarvolgens gemeenskappe by ekotoerisme betrek kan word; en deur aan te beveel hoe plaaslike gemeenskappe in gasheergemeenskappe omskep kan word.

Data vir hierdie studie is deur die deelnemende benadering verkry waarvolgens hoofsaaklik kwalitatiewe konsultasietegnieke aangewend is om die gevoel van die gemeenskap oor relevante sake te bepaal. Hierbenewens is data tussen Februarie en Oktober 1995 ingesamel deur middel van openbare forums, vergaderings, veldwerk en 'n studie van toepaslike literatuur.

Uit die data is bevind dat die plaaslike gemeenskappe nie wesenlik by besluitneming oor die wildreservaat betrokke was nie. Die Parkeraad het die moontlikheid van

indiensneming gebruik om aanvaarding van die reservaat deur die plaaslike gemeenskappe te bewerkstellig. Soos elders die geval is, word die reservaat gesien as 'n eiland van oorvloed midde-in 'n see van armoede. Outomatiese telefone, elektrisiteit, paaie en dergelike infrastruktuur is in die reservaat beskikbaar maar die omliggende gemeenskappe beskik nie oor die geriewe nie. Tot op hede het net enkeles op materiële gebied of andersins by die ontwikkeling van die reservaat gebaat.

'n Model word voorgestel waarvolgens die gemeenskap in die omgewing van die reservaat bemagtig word en die Eurosentriese siening van natuurbewaring van talle Parkeraadamptenare mee weggedoen word. Deur die doelstellings van natuurbewaring met die behoeftes en aspirasies van die gemeenskap in die Madikwe-gebied te versoen, kan ekotoerisme in die omgewing deur almal aanvaar word.

As riglyn vir toekomstige optrede moet 'n balans gevind word tussen die stryd om die natuur te bewaar en die stryd teen armoede en ongeregtigheid. Sonder die deelname van die plaaslike gemeenskap sal ekotoerisme in die Madikwe Wildreservaat van geen nut vir die agtergeblewe gemeenskappe in die omgewing wees nie; gevolglik sal die swart landelike bevolking se antagonisme jeens natuurbewaring nie oorkom word nie.

1 THE IDEA OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

"Poor people are by definition asset-poor, and are therefore highly dependent on public or common resources" (Egger & Majeres, 1992:320)

1.1 MOTIVATION

Local rural community participation is a multifaceted concept with a number of complex and unclear issues. It has numerous meanings and connotations which depend on "*... the ideology, motivation and orientation of the users. A person's perception of it depends on their social status, responsibilities, whether they are in or out of power, their goals, whether they are part of a private group or public agency, etc.*" (Drake, 1991b:252). This concept of participation was developed by the early Greek philosophers and today has its roots in countries that practise democracy (Drake, 1991b). This entails that through their participation, communities show that they have a right to voice their concerns about an action taken by the government or any other group or individual.

The idea of community participation in ecotourism entails involving the people who will be affected by it in the planning and decision-making processes so that they can benefit from the project (Drake, 1991a; Drake, 1991b; Cowling & Oliver, 1992; Wilson, 1994). The local community's concerns over and influence on the project are important because "*...failure to emphasize participation dramatically increases the chance of rejection for proposed development efforts*" (Drake, 1991b:252). Furthermore, ecotourism practised in conserved areas cannot be "*... sustained without acceptance and support of the rural communities which surround them*" (Cowling & Oliver, 1992:224).

Community participation in ecotourism has been implemented in many Latin American and African countries. These countries lack "sun, sand and sea" and

have not benefited from either the Industrial Revolution or the Space Age. They left their flora and fauna intact, unlike the industrialised countries (Cater, 1993; Cater, 1994; Weaver, 1994). Most of the rich natural vegetation that is found in these countries occurs in privately owned areas or areas which are communally owned by rural communities. While some of these countries benefit from the ecological wave preserved in game parks and reserves (Lindeberg & Hawkins, 1993), the majority of the rural communities where those facilities are located are not deriving any benefit except earning a wage. Parks Boards are treating these communities as passive beneficiaries of project activities, which means that the communities are not involved in the process of change or their own development (Wells **et al.** 1992).

Nevertheless, there are exceptions, cases where the local rural communities are empowered and have the capacity to influence the outcome of projects. These communities are equal stakeholders and have succeeded in achieving their objectives with regard to ecotourism. Such projects include, among others, the Kafue Flats and Luangwa Integrated Rural Development Project in Zambia, the Nazinga Wildlife Utilization Project in Burkina Faso, the CAMPFIRE Project in Zimbabwe, the Talamanca and Boscosa National Parks in Costa Rica and Culebra Wildlife and Mindo Ecotourism in Ecuador (Drake, 1991a; Drake, 1991b; Olido, 1991; Wells **et al.** 1992).

In South Africa, the idea of local rural community participation is relatively new. The country has a history of forced removals and proclaiming game parks on areas communally owned by rural communities. As a result, most of the national parks, game reserves and nature reserves are fenced and border a settled rural African community (Coppen, 1990; Poulthey & Ngubane, 1990; Thompson, 1990; Els, 1994) and are a means of both protecting the fragile environment and providing a base for sustainable ecotourism (Sayer, 1981; Place, 1991).

Not only are rural communities not involved in decision-making with regard to the parks, but the parks themselves are "... *not created in a social and economic vacuum or unpopulated areas. Park creation frequently entails an abrupt change in local economies*" (Place, 1991:186), based on the exploitation of numerous natural

resources (Gorio, 1978; Sayer, 1981; Place, 1991; Sherman & Dixon, 1991; Whelan, 1991; Andersen, 1992; Els, 1994). Thus park development should be in such a way that "... *rural people are able to replace the direct exploitation of dwindling biological resources with adequate economic opportunities from tourism attracted by the continuing presence of these resources, park-based conservation programs may then be successful*" (Place, 1995:171).

The Natal Parks Board was the first among such institutions to initiate the participation of surrounding communities and help these communities to develop nature conservancies (**Financial Mail**, 1991; Cowling & Oliver, 1992). This move has been followed by other national parks boards, including the North-West Parks Board, which has jurisdiction over Madikwe Game Park. But the meaning of community participation, the level of participation and the participation itself vary greatly, and follow the ideas of Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation and Pine's (1984) participation ladder (discussed in 2.10.1).

On the other hand, local rural community participation should not be seen as a panacea for all the socio-economic costs of ecotourism projects (Drake, 1991a; Drake, 1991b). It, too, has its disadvantages, such as an increase in the number of managerial and administrative staff, benefits not always reaching intended target groups, furthermore value is confused with facts; it is time consuming, costly and stressful (Drake, 1991b).

However, community participation has numerous advantages. Among others, it is an early warning system for those in authority to avoid decisions that could result in animosity between themselves and local communities. In order to get the last-mentioned to listen, those in authority should enlist the confidence, trust and support of these communities. Furthermore, participation fosters better planning and decision-making which, in turn, legitimises the decision-making process.

The idea of participation is endorsed in the South African government's Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) which argues for "... *active involvement and growing empowerment...*" (ANC, 1994:5) as opposed to no participation and manipulation of rural communities.

"*People's participation is perceived today as an important dimension of an environmentally sustainable pattern of development*" (Egger & Majeres, 1992). By employing the principle of community participation, ecotourism can provide tangible benefits for disadvantaged communities, particularly in rural areas where these benefits are most needed (Drake, 1991b; Ryel & Grasse, 1991; Wells **et al.** 1992; **Weekly Mail**, 1994b). The local community and entrepreneurs should be involved as equal partners and ensure that both benefit from ecotourism. Management should be a continuous participative process and the cornerstone of effective involvement of all stakeholders, namely conservation, the local community and the tourist industry, throughout the life span of any ecotourism project (Poulthey & Ngubane, 1990; Thompson, 1990; Wells **et al.** 1992; Cater, 1993; Gurung & De Coursey, 1994; **Weekly Mail**, 1994a).

Boo (1990) comes to the conclusion that even though ecotourism is a tool which can be used for conservation and rural development, it can only work if it involves local communities who, in many instances, are not involved. She maintains that "*...nature tourism will not contribute to rural development unless rural people are brought into the planning and development of the industry*" (Boo, 1990:49). Thus ecotourism development should be on a small scale and for the benefit of locally owned activities (Ryel & Grasse, 1991; Weaver, 1991; Weaver, 1994). The latter include viable options for which funds are not available, and also those operations that have a much higher input of local products, material and labour (which has a multiple effect throughout the local economy as it reduces import leakages) (Jacobson & Robles, 1992; Singh, 1993; Hawkins, 1994; & Place, 1995).

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEM

Until now, conservation strategies in South Africa have followed a Eurocentric approach. This approach is characterised by "*... a paternalism, elitism and an attitude of supremacy*" (Fourie, 1994:124) of Parks Boards towards local communities. The Parks Boards (both national and provincial) were (and are still to a large extent) not catering for the uniqueness of Africa (Fourie, 1994). The entire conservation practice has no room for the ideas, opinions and involvement of rural people in decision-making (Fourie, 1994).

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Consequently, the ecotourism practised in Madikwe Game Reserve cannot provide tangible benefits for the disadvantaged surrounding rural areas, where it is most needed, without local community participation. Ways should be found to involve local communities and entrepreneurs as equal stakeholders in a continuous process. Through this process, the historical antagonism of black communities towards conservation that resulted from forced removals and apartheid-style policies, will be overcome (**Weekly Mail**, 1993).

1.3 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES

1.3.1   AIMS

The primary aims of the study are:

*   to investigate ways in which local communities around Madikwe Game Park can benefit from ecotourism; and

*   to formulate a congruent public policy that will benefit all stakeholders.

1.3.2   OBJECTIVES

To realise the above aims, the following objectives have been set:

*   to determine trends of community participation in ecotourism (arguments and models) worldwide and in South Africa (chapter 2);

*   to determine the needs, aspirations and problems of the communities surrounding Madikwe Game Park (chapter 3);

*   to determine how these needs and problems could be addressed by ecotourism in Madikwe (chapter 4);

*   to formulate a model of rural community participation in ecotourism (chapter 4); and

*   to suggest and recommend ways in which the local communities can be changed into host communities (chapter 5).

1.4 RESEARCH PROCEDURES

The majority of the people living around to Madikwe Game Park cannot read or write, and therefore the participatory approach[1] was used. This involves using qualitative consultation techniques to assess community sentiments. These techniques include: group open-ended interviews; focus groups (male, female, youth, illiterate, literate, etc); public forums; minutes of Community Development Organisations; Park Management, field studies, observations and literature on different aspects related to the research aims. For a detailed schedule of question asked and a list of interviews, see Appendices 1 and 2.

1.5 STUDY AREA

The area studied is situated in the North-West Province of South Africa. It comprises the Madikwe Game Park of 75 000 ha, which borders on the Republic of Botswana in the north (for 30 km), the Marico River in the east, the Gaborone-Zeerust road in the west and Dwarsberg in the south as indicated in Fig. 1.1. The community of Supingstad situated in the north-western corner and Molatedi in the south-eastern corner. The rest of the area consists of white-owned farms. Since these farms did not form part of Bophuthatswana when the park was proclaimed in 1992, they are not covered in this study.

1.6 TOWARDS A MEANING OF ECOTOURISM

There has been a shift in demand from "sun-lust" to "sun-plus" vacations and many tourists want to learn while travelling (Ayala, 1995). The number of visitors to natural areas has increased dramatically during the past decade. Ecotourism is the fastest growing subsector of tourism and one of the world's largest industry sectors, but still it remains poorly defined (Gilbert, 1993; Buckley, 1994; Russell, 1994; Ayala, 1995; Orams, 1995). Ecotourism has become a buzz word (Hall, 1993; Hall, 1994; Hattingh, 1994b; Holomisa, 1994; Wight, 1994), but few people actually understand its full meaning. It is associated with terms such as soft, green, sustained, responsible, farm, alternative, and agri-tourism (Boo, 1990;

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1.   *The participatory approach utilises public-based techniques, such as community participation, community development, consultation and advocacy planning. It involves mainly qualitative consultation techniques to assess community sentiments* (Wilson, 1994:55).

FIGURE 1.1: **ORIENTATION MAP: MADIKWE GAME PARK AND ENVIRONS**
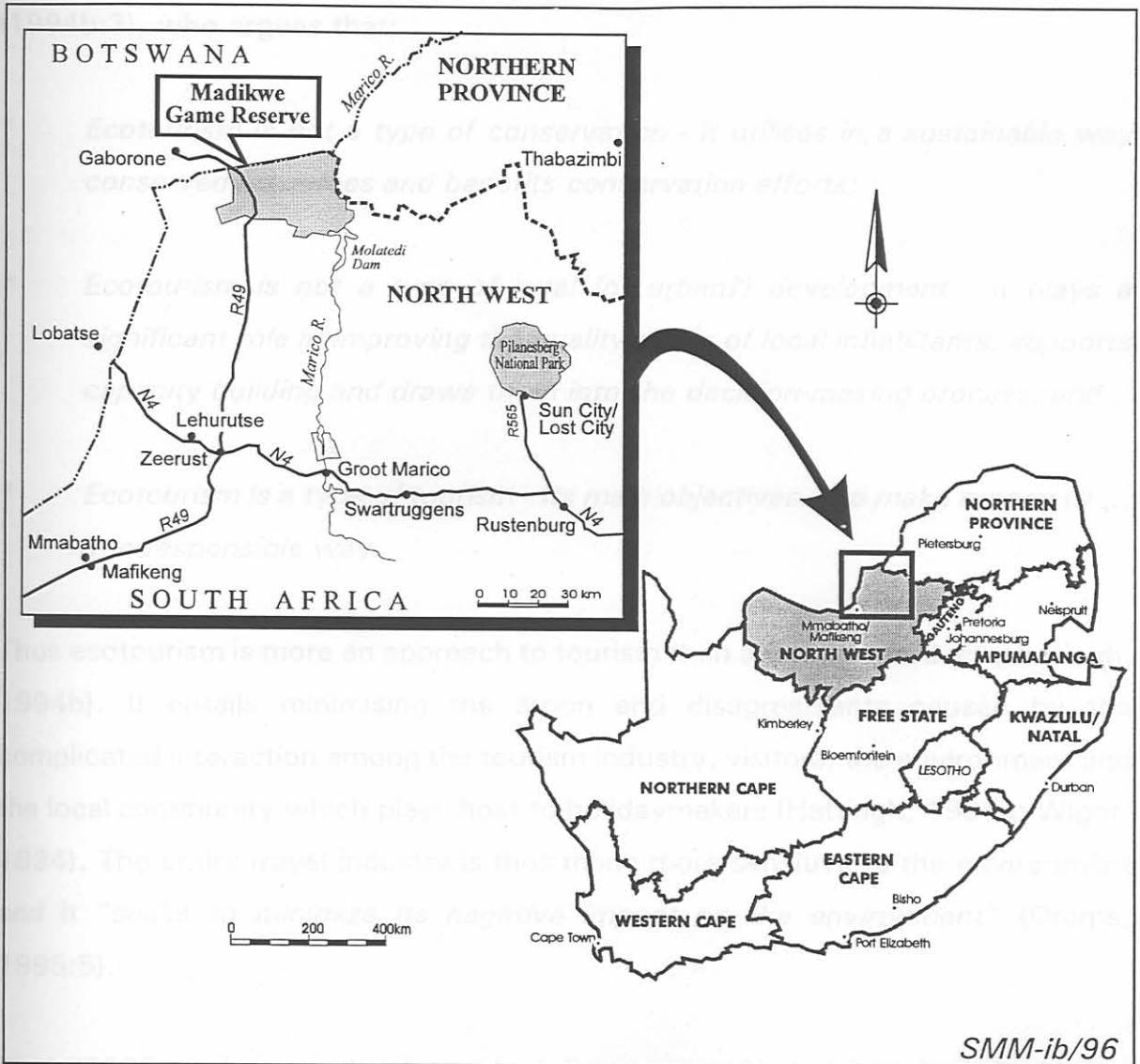
Weaver, 1991; Keane, 1992; Marajh & Meadows, 1992; Gilbert, 1993; Hall, 1993; Valentine, 1993; Weaver, 1993; Wight, 1993; Buckley, 1994; Cater, 1994; Gilbert, **et al.** 1994; Hall, 1994; Hall & Kinnaird, 1994; Hattingh, 1994b; Khan, 1994; Schlüter, 1994; Wight, 1994; Ayala, 1995; Orams, 1995).

Ecotourism is a combination of interests driven by environmental, economic and social concerns which incorporate both a strong commitment to nature and a sense of social responsibility (Western, 1993; Wieman, 1995). Thus, Ceballos-Lascuràin (1993:12) defines ecotourism as *"... tourism that involves travelling to relatively undisturbed or uncontaminated natural areas with the specific object of studying, admiring or enjoying the scenery and its wild plants and animals, as well as any existing aspects (both past and present) found in these areas"*. This definition

places nature tourism at the fore front (Orams, 1995), a view rejected by Hattingh (1994b:3), who argues that:

*   *Ecotourism is not a type of conservation - it utilises in a sustainable way conserved resources and benefits conservation efforts;*

*   *Ecotourism is not a type of rural (or urban?) development - it plays a significant role in improving the quality of life of local inhabitants, supports capacity building and draws them into the decision-making process; and*

*   *Ecotourism is a type of tourism - its main objectives is to make money (!) ... in a responsible way.*

Thus ecotourism is more an approach to tourism than a tourism product (Hattingh, 1994b). It entails minimising the strain and disagreements caused by the complicated interaction among the tourism industry, visitors, the environment and the local community which plays host to holidaymakers (Hattingh, 1994a; Wight, 1994). The entire travel industry is thus made more sensitive to the environment and it *"seeks to minimize its negative impact on the environment"* (Orams, 1995:5).

Koch (1993:1) clearly and elaborately defines ecotourism as *"... purposeful travel to natural areas to understand the culture and natural history of the environment, taking care not to alter the integrity of the ecosystem, producing economic opportunities that make the conservation of natural resources beneficial to the local people"*. Thus, unlike conventional mass tourism (CTM), ecotourism should aim at achieving the following three goals:

*   to meet the needs of the host community in terms of improving living standards in both the short and the long term;

*   to satisfy the demands of a growing number of tourists and continue to attract them in order to meet the above mentioned aim; and

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* to safeguard the natural environment in order to achieve the first two goals (Cater, 1992).

All of the above mentioned aims should be given equal importance. For example, environmental degradation could result from encouraging an influx of tourists to a certain area. This will destroy the main attraction and lead to a decline in the number of visitors to that locality.

The following definition seems to encompass several accepted norms of eco-tourism as indicated by Cater (1992); Koch (1993); Valentine (1993); Chalker, 1994; Hattingh (1994a); Hattingh (1994c); Orams, 1995; and Wieman (1995): "*... an enlightening, participatory travel experience to environments, both natural and cultural, that ensures the sustainability of these environments and, whilst respecting the integrity of the host communities, produces economic opportunities that make the conservation of the resource base beneficial to them*" (Hattingh, 1994b:4).

In the end, ecotourism should be able to fulfil the needs of the present without jeopardising the ability of the future generation to meet their own needs (Wight, 1993; Valentine, 1993; Hawkins, 1994). D'Amore (1992;258) views ecotourism as a process of change in which the "*... exploitation of resources, the direction of investments, the orientation of technological development, and institutional changes are made consistent with future as well as present needs*". It should therefore concentrate on the natural environment and the indigenous culture, creating a sense of place and cognitive experience accompanied by a broadening of perceptions and awareness (Mulder, 1993).

Based on the above discussion, ecotourism could be defined as an enhanced travel experience to historical, cultural and natural environments, with the aim of enjoying and learning, and in so doing **promoting the financial development of the local host communities**, whilst sustaining the natural and cultural environment and developing the tourist industry.

Although tourism to a destination such as a game park might be classified as

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ecotourism, it need not of necessity be such. If the tourist destination does not benefit the local community it fails to meet one of the critical elements of ecotourism. The essence of this study thus emerges: is the Madikwe Game Park indeed an ecodestination?

1.7 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY

The study will be presented in the following chapters:

CHAPTER 1: This is an introductory chapter which explains the needs and meaning of ecotourism, the research problem, the study's objectives and aims, the research procedures used, the study area and the structure of the study.

CHAPTER 2: This chapter looks at different trends in community participation, the constraints of community tourism planning and local and global models of community participation.

CHAPTER 3: The needs and problems of communities surrounding Madikwe Game Park are examined in this chapter. Furthermore, the available background information on the park and its infrastructure are dealt with.

CHAPTER 4: The chapter examines ways in which the needs and problems of the communities surrounding Madikwe Game Park could be addressed. It also proposes a model of community participation in ecotourism.

CHAPTER 5: In this chapter, recommendations are made with a view of changing local communities into host communities.

2 COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN ECOTOURISM: THEORETICAL OVERVIEW

"Healthy, thriving communities are the touchstone for a successful tourism industry" (Haywood, 1988:105)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Gunn (1988) argues that decision-making in planning tourism and development is most important at the local level, and yet the majority of local communities are not involved and do not have any experience in tourism. He suggests five reasons why communities should be involved in tourism planning:

*   it can provide better understanding of the interdependence between the attraction and the service business;

*   it promises greater community harmony by avoiding problems;

*   it reduces business failures by assuring sound growth;

*   it fosters community acceptance of tourism; and

*   it assists in obtaining necessary human and financial resources.

It is further suggested that if one wants to discourage negative attitudes among the local communities, it is important for tourism planning to consider community priorities and goals (Gorio, 1978; Paul, 1987; Gunn, 1988; Jamal & Getz, 1995). The communities involved will then endorse tourism attractions because they will be assured that the integrity of their local community traditions and life styles will respected (Gorio, 1978; Gunn, 1988; Jamal & Getz, 1995). In the end, broad-based community participation should be attempted.

During the 1982 World Congress on National Parks and the 1992 World Parks Congress in Venezuela, conservationists and park managers promoted the policy of providing more support for communities adjacent to parks by offering "*... education, revenue sharing, participation in decision making, and, where compatible with the protected area's objective, access to resources*" (Brandon, 1993:134). This was agreed upon after it was acknowledged that very few benefits of ecotourism activities initiated actually went to local communities. It is therefore important for any ecotourism project to be consistent with the local social, ecological, and economic objectives of its the area where it is situated (Sayer, 1981; Fowkes, 1992; Brandon, 1993; Cater, 1994; Fowkes, 1995; Jamal & Getz, 1995).

Through community participation, ecotourism can benefit the disadvantaged, particularly in poor, rural areas (**Weekly Mail,** 1994a). Ecotourism should involve the local community and entrepreneurs in an equal partnership because that will ensure that both partners benefit from the venture.

Ecotourism projects entail motivating people to manage wildlands and wildlife in a sustainable way, since the benefits reaped by the community depend on wise management (Brandon, 1993). Research has shown that projects which aim at generating economic benefit without effectively influencing local participation in the identification, design, implementation, or evaluation of development activities are less likely to provide widespread community benefits (D'Amore, 1983; Bodlender **et al.** 1991; Brandon, 1993; Dubley, 1993; Jamal & Getz, 1995).

This chapter addresses the first objective (1.3.2) which investigate different trends in community participation. It also indicates that the Eurocentric view which has been dominating conservation, and prevented local community involvement. Finally different models of community participation are reviewed.

2.2 CRITICAL ISSUES IN COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Brandon (1993) suggests the following ten critical issues in eliciting community

participation in ecotourism:

* role of local participation;
* empowerment as an objective;
* participation in the project cycle;
* creating stakeholders;
* linking benefits to conservation;
* distributing benefits;
* involving community leaders;
* using change agents;
* understanding site-specific conditions; and
* monitoring and evaluating progress.

Residents who benefit from tourism start supporting it, whereas those who do not benefit from it tend to regard its impacts in a negative light (Wells **et al.** 1992; King **et al.** 1993). That is why remarks such as the following are sometimes made: "*In my opinion, tourism is a necessary evil for the local economy. It is an important source of many peoples' income and livelihood. Therefore, I will tolerate the hassles that come along with it*" (Ap & Crompton, 1993:49).

2.3   THE MEANING OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Paul (1987) suggests that there are various opinions about the meaning of community participation. He maintains that some people think that it means involvement in political decision-making; others, like the development economists, see it in terms of sharing of the benefits; others regard it as an end in itself; still others see it as a means to achieve other goals, while some regard it as an instrument to enhance the efficiency of projects (Paul, 1987).

Local participation could also be described as giving people more opportunity to participate effectively in development activities (Brandon, 1993) or enhancing their ability to influence the outcome of development projects (Drake, 1991a; Wells **et al.** 1992). Santhanan **et al.** (1984), Vivian (1992), Brandon (1993) and Horwich

et al. (1993) describe community development as a process whereby local people are empowered to control and manage valuable resources in ways that not only sustain the resources but also meet the social, cultural and economic needs of the same community. Thus Cemea (1991, as cited in Brandon, 1993:139) argues that local participation means "*... empowering people to mobilize their own capacity, be social actors rather than passive subjects, manage the resources, make decisions, and control the activity that affect their lives*".

A participative approach involves people in the process of their own development. Local community participation includes, but goes well beyond, simply sharing social and economic benefits (Santhanan et al. 1984; Wells et al. 1992; Vivian, 1992; Brandon, 1993). Thus, providing employment opportunities is an important local benefit, but it does not involve the community in decision-making. Conferring with people and getting their opinion or simply providing them with benefits are both elements of a participative approach, but neither empowers people. In terms of the participative approach, the local community is consulted and has a say in decision-making (Arnstein, 1969; Vivian, 1992; Reilly, 1992; Wells et al. 1992; Brandon, 1993).

Most ecotourism projects emphasise a beneficiary approach in which people receive benefits but are not empowered (Drake, 1991b; Wells et al. 1992). Decisions concerning projects are made far from the site. Thus, "*... ecotourism planning need to view local people as their counterparts and use both the planning process and ecotourism activities as tools that empower local people to exercise greater control over their lives*" (Brandon, 1993:139).

Furthermore, Paul (1987) argues that people (beneficiaries) are the object of development and that their involvement is of outmost importance in the execution of the project. He states that the joint or collaborative involvement of beneficiaries in groups is a hallmark of community participation. Community participation can be said to occur only when people act in concert to advise, decide or act on issues which can best be solved through such joint action (Paul, 1987; Drake, 1991b; Financial Mail, 1994a).

For the sake of this study, community participation is defined as the active involvement of the local community in influencing the direction and management

of a project with a view to enhancing itself in terms of income, personal growth, self-reliance and other values.

2.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

The basic aim of community participation should be to provide citizens with adequate information. This will guarantee active exchange of information and opinion among all members of the community (Keogh, 1990; ANC, 1994), because "... *if full information is not available on issues under consideration, opportunities or even rights to participate become meaningless*" (Lucas, 1978:51 cited in Keogh, 1990:450). As a result, a major part of the Reconstruction and Development Programme (RDP) will be doomed to failure (ANC, 1994). Therefore, it is important during the planning stage to make information available to those involved because a lack of "... *familiarity with development proposals among residents might have an overall adverse effect on general attitudes towards tourism projects*" (Keogh, 1990:450).

The major goal of tourism development in rural areas should be to obtain a balance between economic diversification and preservation of the quality of life sought by many rural residents (Drake, 1991a; Morris & Morris, 1995). It is furthermore important to enhance quality of life through the economic, social, cultural, recreational and other benefits of tourism (Place, 1991; McCool & Martin, 1994). The major goal in any tourism venture should be to raise the standard of living of communities through economic benefits (McCool & Martin, 1994). However, such changes have both positive and negative consequences, which disrupt the sense of belonging or attachment to one's community (Lankford, 1994; McCool & Martin, 1994). In fact, McCool & Martin (1994:29) stress that "... *since tourism is a community development tool, the development process should not destroy the values people seek in community*".

In turn, community participation should strive to achieve the following: to be an instrument of empowerment which will enable local communities to initiate actions on their own; to allow communities to share in the management of the project; to increase project effectiveness; and to get the community to share the costs of the project in terms of labour, money or maintenance (Paul, 1987).

The community planning process recognises the importance of external linkages and makes sure that these linkages are related to the internal arrangements of the community. Since community tourism planning does not focus simply on the formulation of a strategy as a problem-solving process, but also on the problems of implementation and control, it should be part and parcel of a tourism management process (Haywood, 1988).

According to Haywood (1988) the goals of community-based tourism are threefold:

*   to identify the possibility and choices for the future of tourism within the community;

*   to examine each possibility carefully in terms of its probable impact; and

*   to include in the planning process the real preferences of the people in the community, whose lives and home environment are influenced by the decisions made.

It is important to adjust the objectives of the tourism business according to the community's objectives for tourism. Unless this is achieved, the behaviour of individual decision makers within each business might not correspond with the desired community view (Haywood, 1988). Because of this, a participative approach to tourism planning at community level is very important. By involving all decision makers and stakeholders in discussion, and by persuading everyone to listen to each other's deepest concerns, scenarios can be written which reflect the community's desires, potential and probabilities (Haywood, 1988).

The aims of tourism should be consolidated into a single community objective because they depict one of the several activities within many economies. Getz (1987, as cited in Simmons, 1994:99) gives the following requirements for this integration to take place:

*   goal orientated - with clear recognition of the role to be played by tourism in achieving broad social goals;

* democratic - with full and meaningful citizen input from community level up;

* integrative - placing tourism planning issues into the mainstream of planning for parks, heritage, conservation, land use and the economy; and

* systematic - drawing on research to provide conceptual and predictive support for planners, and drawing on the evaluation of planning to develop theory.

2.5 DECISION MAKERS WITHIN A COMMUNITY

There is a problem of authority, which in a democratic sense derives from the community, but it has through the historic processes of representative democracy established its own characteristic technique which contributes to the distancing of citizens from the real exercise of power (Pine, 1984).

Although congruency of public opinion and public policy is not without its critics, the formulation of a tourism policy at community level needs some degree of consensus among all stakeholders (Boo, 1991; Haywood, 1988; Lankford, 1994). Planners must be thoroughly informed about the views of the host community and must identify, evaluate and present the elected decision-making bodies with all information they possess (Paul, 1987; Lankford, 1994).

Allen and Gibson (1987:100, as cited in Lankford, 1994) conclude that "... *the responses of community leaders are not generally congruent with the desires of the public regarding specific community issues and concerns*". If decision makers cannot efficiently reflect public needs, the democratic process will gradually disintegrate. Thus, information concerning the opinions of residents should be collected by means of meetings, surveys or other forms of public involvement.

In most instances, small groups are preferred for logistic and cost reasons and for

administrative convenience, but where there is a need for adequate representation, large groups are necessary. While it is acceptable to choose individuals by virtue of their knowledge, reasonable standard, it must be emphasised that the community should be allowed to choose its own representatives. In this way the risk that the community will regard its representatives merely as a token body, and participation as a hollow exercise, will be avoided (Haywood, 1988). In turn, representatives are expected to report back to their constituencies as a sign of their commitment.

Participants must also have access to all available information on the tourism industry. They need a variety of tools, such as conciliation, mediation, arbitration and the establishment of superordinate goals (Haywood, 1988).

2.6 LOCAL ENTREPRENEURS: WHY THEY SHOULD PARTICIPATE

Because of rapid growth of the industry, most of the members of local communities and entrepreneurs are barred from becoming involved in the tourism industry, other than working as menial wage earners. Those who are involved, get stiff competition from foreign investors who aim at maximizing profits at the expense of the local population.

Most of the lodges are owned by foreigners and this means that, except for tips or salaries earned by local employees, income mainly flows out to large cities (Sherman & Dixon, 1991; Whelan, 1991; Cater, 1994; Chalker, 1994). The lodges, besides providing low-paying part-time (in some instances) employment to locals, are not a significant source of capital for local development (Place, 1991). Because of this scenario, it is important for ecotourism to focus on expanding, improving and promoting village-based tourism. This type of tourism could help establish local entrepreneurs who will help minimise leakages of profits, unlike upmarket foreign-owned enterprises (Place, 1991; Sherman & Dixon, 1991; Whelan, 1991; Cater, 1994). This in turn will encourage production in local agriculture and other services associated with the tourism industry.

2.7 A HOLISTIC APPROACH TO COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION IN ECOTOURISM

The community outreach programmes which are designed to educate people about ecotourism and its economic potential must be utilised because many rural communities do not understand the parks missions, and how these could contribute to the economic development of their area (**Sunday Nation,** 1994). This community education based on consciousness raising should be used to "... *facilitate local people's transition from an economy based on resource extraction to one based on the preservation of the ecosystem around them*" (Place, 1991:199).

Parks serve an important ecological function by protecting water resources and soil, together with a diversity of animal and bird species. But, on the other hand, they represent a loss of vital resources to the local community. If parks are to succeed, the local community must be able to replace the exploitation of natural resources with the benefits from ecotourism (De Viliers, 1995). National parks have the ability to act as the cornerstone of regional advancement in some parts of the Third World (Place, 1991; De Viliers, 1995). It will be a disaster if there is a happy paradise, but a seething, unhappy mass of people eyeing it from across the river (**Sunday Tribune,** 1994; **The Argus,** 1994; **The Star,** 1994).

Steady development and planning of tourism is necessary at community level if a region or country wishes to deliver an exciting and a novel tourist experience (Haywood, 1988) of a high quality. Thus, like in any other business, strategic planning is insignificant unless it is sanctioned and executed at the operational level. Hence there is a "... *need for partnership - the wholesome participation of, and gain sharing with, all people concerned with the tourism product*" (Haywood, 1988:106).

The challenge facing us is to provide opportunities for local communities to participate in the economic benefits of ecotourism. If ecotourism is to produce a positive social cost-benefit ratio, a large fraction of the local population must benefit from the inflow of tourists, rather than merely bear the burden of the cost,

such as cultural erosion (Place, 1991).

Public participation in tourism is a process of trial and error; it is incremental, experimental, managed, shared and based on recent information (Place, 1991). By learning to plan and planning to learn, a community tourism planning process can be set up to achieve public participation (Boo, 1991; Place, 1991). The process should move at the group's pace, and deal with the issues the group chooses to consider.

2.8 CONSTRAINTS IN COMMUNITY TOURISM PLANNING

A great deal of time, energy and keen organisational ability is necessary in implementing local participation processes. There is always the risk that the preferences of the local population may differ from one community to another, or even differ radically within the same community (Brandon, 1993). These risks need to be addressed and incorporated into the project design if the objectives of ecotourism are to be realised.

According to Haywood (1988:107), any project which involves many stakeholders, especially a whole community, faces a number of constraints:

*	the process of participation often tends to become institutionalised, and consequently represents only the socio-economic and environmental elite;

*	community participation may be regarded as unnecessary, unwieldy, time consuming and idealistic dream;

*	there are several burdens such as a dilution of power, a lack of time to interact with citizens, a lack of patience to educate others, and a lack of negotiating skills;

*	there may be a lack of money, corporation, attendance and interest; and

*   there may be extensive bureaucratic control.

In addition to the above, there might be deficiencies within the community, such as:

*   a lack of knowledge; and

*   a lack of willpower and initiative.

It is important to note that these constraints to community participation are not insurmountable. Stakeholders could, through consultation, work on a new set of policies and recommendations, which could make local community participation a reality.

2.9   WHY INVOLVE THE COMMUNITIES IN ECOTOURISM?

According to Haywood (1988), the following is necessary if locals are to participate in ecotourism:

*   an opportunity to improve the management of the community's tourism life cycle;

*   an improved understanding of those elements in the community that have an impact on tourism;

*   better anticipation of the internal and external challenges of tourism;

*   a chance to ameliorate detrimental impacts, such as congestion; and

*   an improved opportunity to accommodate all sectors of the public that may be affected by tourism.

On the other hand, Jones (1993:147) argues for the involvement and participation

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of the local community for the following reasons:

*   the longer-term viability or sustainability of tourism in rural areas might depend on support from the local community;

*   the community, is more likely to become an active partner in tourism development if it has a say in the development process;

*   the community can often provide its own environmental checks and balances; and

*   carefully developed tourism can provide economic, environmental and cultural benefits for the community.

The quality of community life can be enhanced and tourism can be integrated into the community by orientating tourism planning towards the "... *probable, the desirable and the achievable*" (Haywood, 1988:108). In the end, consultation and collaboration is a complex undertaking and the forging of partnerships through public participation can be fraught with difficulty (Pine, 1984; Jamal & Getz, 1995).

2.10   MODELS OF COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

The democratic world has accepted community participation in principle, but as Simmons (1994) argues, the very countries and organisations involved in tourism and ecotourism and the promotion there of, employ a variety of strategies. The most common strategies are manipulation, therapy, consultation and placation, all of which retain political or bureaucratic control and deflect public involvement. As a result, the local community often has a high degree of enthusiasm at the start of a project, but this changes to disillusionment as the project progresses (Butler, 1980).

This section will review three theoretical models or methods of community participation and two practical models (case studies) to see how this problem has been addressed elsewhere. Thereafter, key issues or basic steps for the formulation of a model will be outlined. These will be based on the two sets of models.

2.10.1 THEORETICAL MODELS

2.10.1.1 Participation ladder model

Haywood's (1988) participation ladder model (Table 2.3) was adapted from Pine's (1984) participation ladder (Table 2.1) which, in turn, had its origin in Arnsteins's (1969) eight rungs on a ladder of citizen participation (Table 2.2).

Pine's (1984) model (Table 2.1) evolved from a perspective of the authority towards the community (as illustrated at stage 1). This eight stage participation process is adapted from that of Arnstein (1969) and relates more closely to the process of participation in a recognizable system. At the end of the process, the community and the authorities reach joint agreement on the policies to be followed.

TABLE 2.1: PARTICIPATION LADDER RELATED TO THE PROCESS OF PARTICIPATION

1. Information	Introduction of policy to citizens by the authority.
2. Animation	Stimulation of perception among citizens and authority.
3. Participation	(First stage) Opening of dialogue between citizens and authority.
4. Participation	(Second stage) Initiation of planning on a basis of partnership.
5. Participation	(Third stage) Joint research: identification of facilities and resources.
6. Strategies	Implementation of strategy by administrators.
7. Participation	(Fourth stage) Joint decision making regarding allocation, management and development.
8. Participation	(Fifth stage and also first stage) Review of policy and achievements.
Source: Pine, 1984	

TABLE 2.2: LADDER OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

8.	CITIZEN CONTROL	Degrees
7.	DELEGATED POWER	of
6.	PARTNERSHIP	citizen power
5.	PLACATION	Degrees
4.	CONSULTATION	of
3.	INFORMING	tokenism
2.	THERAPY	Non-participation
1.	MANIPULATION	
Source:	Arnstein, 1969	

Arnstein's (1969) participation ladder (Table 2.2) is based on levels of involvement of the authorities with citizens or from well established institutions to those developing. It depicts a 'top down' approach of authority towards citizens. Three main levels are identified: non-participation, tokenism and citizen power. With non-participation (manipulation and therapy), citizens are not involved, their opinions are not considered and they have no power. In tokenism (informing, consultation and placation), people are listened to and receive information, but their decisions and opinions are not heeded by the authorities. Finally, citizen power (consisting of partnership, delegated power and citizen control), the process of participation and empowerment, starts to unfold.

Haywood's (1988) participation ladder was therefore adapted to suit conditions in tourism reflected in general citizen participation models.

Haywood's (1988) participation model (Table 2.3) is simply an attempt to recognise that tourism is a community affair, and that a variety of delegates from interested community, business and government bodies should convene to determine an ideal approach to managing tourism within the community as a whole. Community tourism should therefore not focus only on the formulation of

TABLE 2.3: PARTICIPATION LADDER MODEL

1. Information	Introduction of existing tourism policy to citizens
2. Animation	Stimulation of perception among citizens
3. Participation (stage 1)	Opening of dialogue between citizens and authorities
4. Participation (stage 2)	Initiation of tourism planning on a basis of partnership
5. Participation (stage 3)	Identification of strengths and weaknesses
6. Participation (stage 4)	Determining tourism objectives and strategies
7. Participation (stage 5)	Joint decision-making regarding resource allocation, development and management
8. Operational	Implementation of tourism strategy by administrators
9. Participation (stages 6 & 1)	Review of tourism policy and achievements

Source: Haywood, 1988

a strategy as a problem-solving process, but also on the problems of implementation and control (Pine, 1984; Haywood, 1988; Jamal & Getz, 1995).

The model indicates that for the participative planning process to be successful, no one institution should be allowed to believe that its input and policies are more important than the community participation process.

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2.10.1.2   *Schedule of methods model*

The Schedule of methods model was introduced in order to develop and evaluate initial community participation in tourism planning (Simmons, 1994). This model integrates the field and the survey methods, which increases understanding of research problems and the validity of the data. The three participation methods (Fig. 2.1) (steps I, II & III) and the analysis of resultant data (step IV) have made it possible to sequentially refine the focus.

FIGURE 2.1: SCHEDULE METHOD

METHOD	· STEP	· OBJECTIVES
Informal interviews	I	> Checklist issues > Search for variable > Familiarization with study area
ANALYSIS Postal survey analysis	II	> Testing of issues raised in the literature > Quantitative data
FOCUS GROUP Focus group	III	> Data interpretation > Development options
ANALYSIS SYNTHESIS	IV	> THE COMMUNITY TOURISM PRODUCT

Source: Adapted from Simmons, 1994   *SMM-ib/96*

The method recommends that exploratory and informal interviews be held with a range of opinion leaders who might be distinguished for their well-articulated views, both in favour of and against tourism development. The goal is to establish the relevance of general issues expressed in the literature on the perception and

status of tourism development in the area under study.

Thereafter, a postal survey is conducted to establish the quantitative foundation of the research. This is followed by a focus group, which convening small groups of residents who have completed the previous survey and indicated interest in further involvement in the study, to work on the data gathered earlier. In the end, one must come up with an accepted response, which then constitutes the community tourism product.

2.10.1.3 Project setup

Deloitte & Touche (1994) formulated the project setup as a management plan for Trans-Gariep. The aim of this plan was to encourage conservation, tourism and community upliftment while integrating economic and social initiatives. The plan had "*... to ensure sustainable and economically viable utilisation of the area's resources for the benefit of all stakeholders*" (Deloitte & Touche, 1994:11).

The planning structure is a detailed, three-phase approach which addresses the needs and requirements of all the relevant stakeholders. An initial phase (situation analysis Fig. 2.2), is conducted on the region's economy, environment, society, tourism sector and institutional structures.

Then the process whereby alternative strategies are formulated and evaluated is planned. After this, the management framework for selected projects drawn up. Once the management framework elements for each initiative have been planned, the projects can be implemented.

2.10.2 PRACTICAL MODELS (case studies)

2.10.2.1 Richtersveld National Park

The Richtersveld National Park, was the first national park to have been proclaimed

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FIGURE 2.2:   PROJECT SETUP

Source: Adapted from Deloitte & Touche, 1994   SMM-ib/96
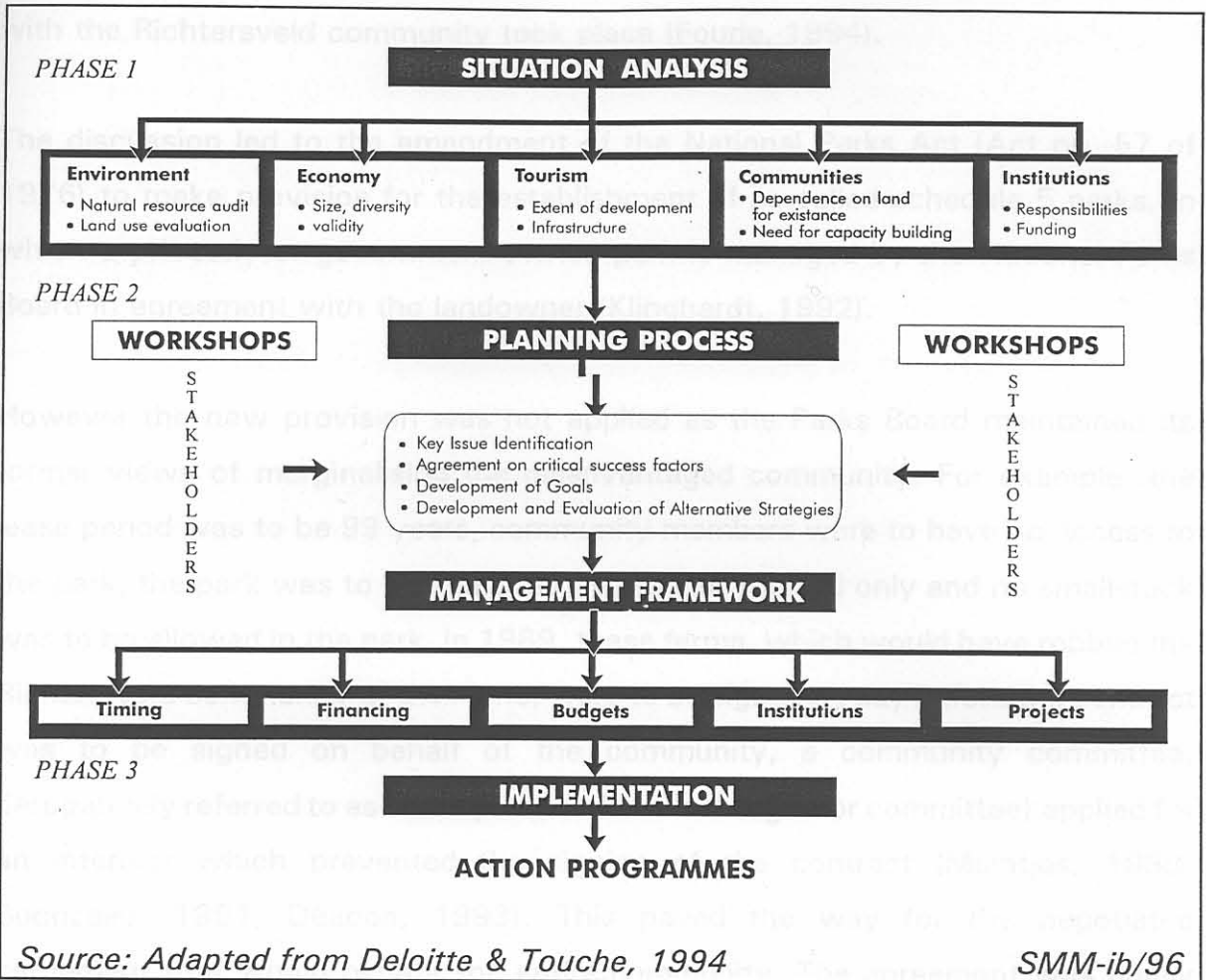
in South Africa with the participation of the local rural community (**Financial Mail**, 1994b). The planning process took 18 years (Deacon, 1993; **Financial Mail**, 1994b; Fourie, 1994) for ten years of which local residents were less aware that the future of their area was being negotiated (Boonzaier, 1991). The outside world and environmentalists were kept informed about developments through journals and magazines (Boonzaier, 1991; Fourie, 1994). Negotiations were mainly conducted with the unpopular and unrepresentative House of Representatives, which ignored the opinions and sentiments of the people who would be affected (Fourie, 1994).

The recommendation for the proclamation of the area came from the International Biological Programme in 1973 and was accepted in principle by the Park in 1975

(Steffens, 1990; Klinghardt, 1992). It was only in 1986 that minuted discussions with the Richtersveld community took place (Fourie, 1994).

The discussion led to the amendment of the National Parks Act (Act no. 57 of 1976) to make provision for the establishment of so-called schedule 5 parks, in which a privately or government-owned park is managed by the National Parks Board in agreement with the landowner (Klinghardt, 1992).

However the new provision was not applied as the Parks Board maintained its former views of marginalising the disadvantaged community. For example, the lease period was to be 99 years, community members were to have no access to the park, the park was to be managed by the Parks Board only and no smallstock was to be allowed in the park. In 1989, these terms, which would have robbed the Richtersveld community of their land, were to be signed. A day before the contract was to be signed on behalf of the community, a community committee, derogatively referred to as the "opstokerskomitee" (agitator committee) applied for an interdict which prevented the signing of the contract (Meintjes, 1989; Boonzaier, 1991; Deacon, 1993). This paved the way for the negotiated settlement that would benefit the entire community. The agreement was finally signed in 1991.

These are the terms of agreement as adapted from Meintjes (1989), Boonzaier (1991), Klinghardt (1992) and **Financial Mail** (1994b):

*   162 455 hectares were put aside for conservation for a 30-year lease period;

*   the community was given the right to cancel the lease;

*   the management committee was to comprise of four board officials and five local community members;

*   access to the Park and rights, such as to collect wood and gather honey were guaranteed;

* the Park would pay R80 000 (50 cents per hectare) to the community trust fund for the right to use the land as a Park and a portion of the income generated, would furthermore be paid into the trust fund;

* the local community would receive preferential treatment with regard to employment opportunities;

* existing mining and prospecting operations could be continued;

* a total of 6 600 heads of smallstock would be allowed to graze in the Park (subject to prevention of environmental damage); and

* additional state-owned land (not specified) would be made available to the community.

This lengthy process could have been considerably shortened, had the correct procedures been followed from the start (Fourie, 1994). Nevertheless, the settlement that was reached, benefited the local community together with the environment.

2.10.2.2   Zimbabwe's "CAMPFIRE"

The competition for land between people and wildlife represented the greatest threat to conservation in Zimbabwe for a long time. The local community regarded and saw wildlife as a danger and a pest, a threat to life and livelihood and a source of income through poaching (Pinchin, 1993). Wildlife was owned by the state and no interference tolerated. This created conflict which resulted in an increase poaching and was detrimental to wildlife.

Shortly after independence, in 1982, the Park and Wildlife Act of 1975, was amended. The 1975 Act prohibited people who were living in communal areas (former homelands during colonial rule) from exploiting wildlife in the areas for their benefits, whereas those who were living on private-owned lands (landholders), could do so. The amended act made provision for district councils (who are elected

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by the government) to become landholders. This resulted in the Communal Areas Management Programme for Indigenous Resources (CAMPFIRE) (Pinchin, 1993; Chalker, 1994). People then became part of the solution rather than being part of the problem.

CAMPFIRE is a type of conservation strategy or initiative "*... which is socially, economically and environmentally sustainable ... It has shown that rural people can improve their quality of life without degrading the natural ecosystem on which survival ultimately depends*" (Pinchin, 1993:29). It also helps rural communities to develop their capacity to manage wildlife and natural resources on a sustainable basis in order to benefit the entire community (Chalker, 1994).

CAMPFIRE aimed at providing proprietary rights over local natural resources to the local community; encouraging the sustainable use of resources; putting revenue obtained to use for community needs; and increasing employment and economic self-reliance (Chalker, 1994).

The CAMPFIRE project is supported by the Zimbabwe Trust, which receives support from the Overseas Development Administration (ODA) and other NGOs, for example the Wildlife Management Trust and the World Wildlife Fund (Zimbabwe, 1989; Zimbabwe Trust, 1990; Pinchin, 1993; Chalker, 1994).

The CAMPFIRE concept was first launched in the Nyaminyami district - a total area of 3 000 km² supporting 30 000 people - and in the Guruve district, in January 1989, as part of the ODA five-year programme (Pinchin, 1993). In these districts, the land is rich in biodiversity and animal life, while the soil is barren and people struggle to make ends meet (Pinchin, 1993; Chalker, 1994). To date, ten more districts have joined the CAMPFIRE programme.

From 1989 to 1992, there was an increase in earnings from sustainable activities, from 300 000 to 1,4 million Zimbabwe dollars, and from 335 000 to 1 million Zimbabwe dollars, in the Nyaminyami and Guvure districts respectively (Pinchin, 1993). Much of the revenue was retained by the Zimbabwe Wildlife Trust and district councils for reinvestment in wildlife management (Chalker, 1994). In 1992

the Nyaminyami district received an allocation of Zim $ 500 000, which was invested in community projects, such as the provision of clean water. The Guvure district was allocated Zim $ 603 000, which was also invested in projects like schools, health facilities and income-generating projects and households were also given cash payments. In addition, both districts received some of the meat derived from culling.

It is important to note that the CAMPFIRE project is not as representative or as participative as it is perceived to be. Production and management of wildlife resources are undertaken by local communities, "*... yet the statutory authority to do so is given to the District Councils*" (Pinchin, 1993:33). District councils are granted the appropriate authority over wildlife only when a they indicate a willingness to assume such responsibility. The district council will, in turn devolve the responsibility, to smaller units such as wards and villagers. Therefore, the approach followed is from the top downwards.

In conclusion, the banning on the ivory trade in the international market will in the long term have an impact on these communities unless they are uplifted. The CAMPFIRE programme, unlike the Richtersveld case study, can rather be described as an anti-poaching or conservation project since it lacks commitment to the empowerment and participation of the local communities.

2.10.3   IDEAL PARTICIPATION SEQUENCE

The preceding models, methods and case studies depict and address various facets of community participation. A common element in regard to the initiation of discussion, is that the idea of conservation always comes from the authorities and is then passed to the local community. Table 2.4 gives an explanation of these models, method and the case studies. It depicts various issues which should be considered when formulating a model for community participation. These key issues form the base for the rural community participation model discussed in 4.6.3.

The key issues identified here, have a similar format as those identified by Haywood (1988), but the procedures and interpretation of the sequence of procedures differ. The idea still originates with the authorities and is then

communicated to local communities, who, together with the Parks Board, form a joint committee for participative involvement.

TABLE 2.4: KEY ISSUES IN A PARTICIPATION MODEL

1. Information	Idea communicated to the community.
2. Involvement	Community encouraged to participate.
3. Participation Strategy	Leaders of community and government form a task group.
4. Advice	Expertise called in to give the task group advice on the project.
5. Information gathering	Collection of detailed information from the community through postal surveys, interviews and open-ended meetings.
6. Analysis	Sifting of information from the community by the task group.
7. Synthesis	Joint decision-making by both the community and the authority.
8. Implementation	Decisions taken are implemented.
9. Review	The entire process is reviewed to close any gaps that might exist.

Thus, the authority and local community are equal partners in negotiation and any decision taken, is a joint agreement between the community and the government.

2.11   CONCLUSION

The community participation process is a lengthy one which, in some instances, is also tiring and expensive. But it is a necessary process which facilitates unity among all involved. Furthermore, community participation involves more than just ensuring benefits for the local people; it entails empowering communities in the decision-making process and in the implementation of a project, as equal partners.

Since not all people can be involved at all times, community representatives must always report back to their constituencies so that any decisions taken will reflect the community's preferences, possibilities and probabilities.

The model of community participation discussed above (Table 2.4), will be used as a basis for the formulation of a model (4.6) for the empowerment of the rural community. This is discussed in detail in chapter 4. Furthermore, it is tested against the situation in Madikwe Game Park and its environs in chapter 3.

3 NEEDS AND PROBLEMS OF THE PEOPLE LIVING IN MADIKWE GAME PARK AND ENVIRONS

I participate; you participate;

he participates; we participate;

you participate ... They profit

(Arnstein, 1969)

3.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter addresses the second objective (1.3.2), namely to determine the needs and problems of communities living in and around Madikwe Game Park against the key issues of community participation. In this chapter, background information on the Game Park and the Parks Board will first be examined.

Madikwe Game Park (henceforth referred to as "the Park") was the last and largest game park proclaimed by the former Bophuthatswana Government, on 12 March 1992 (a year after the establishment of the Richtersveld National Park). It is South Africa's fourth largest game reserve and it covers an area of 75 000 ha, of which 32 km borders on Botswana in the north. The Park borders on the Marico River in the east, on the Zeerust-Gaborone road in the west, and on the Dwarsberg Mountains in the south (Fig. 3.1). These quartzite mountains run from east to west. To the north lies a broken plateau of bushveld which drops at Tweedepoort Escarpment to a low-lying flat plain covered in savanna grassland.

Unlike its predecessors (Pilanesberg, Botsalano, Borakalalo and Maria Moroka), which were created mainly for purposes of conservation, the Park was proclaimed as an ecotourism destination (Davies & Trieloff, 1992). It was intended to be a more efficient form of land utilisation which had to be both ecologically sustainable and socially acceptable (Davies & Trieloff, 1992). This was to be achieved with the Bophuthatswana Parks Board (henceforth referred to as the "Parks Board")

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managing conservation and private enterprise running lodges in line with Parks Board criteria and policies.[2]

Consideration was to be given to job creation, to maximising land yield, economic and social benefits to local and peripheral communities, and to attracting of private sector funding, management expertise and foreign currency through regional and international tourism (Davies & Trieloff, 1992). This was meant to improve the quality of life of rural communities and provide a stable local economy, thereby reducing the degenerative impact on the environment that often accompanies and results from poverty.

FIGURE 3.1:   MADIKWE GAME PARK
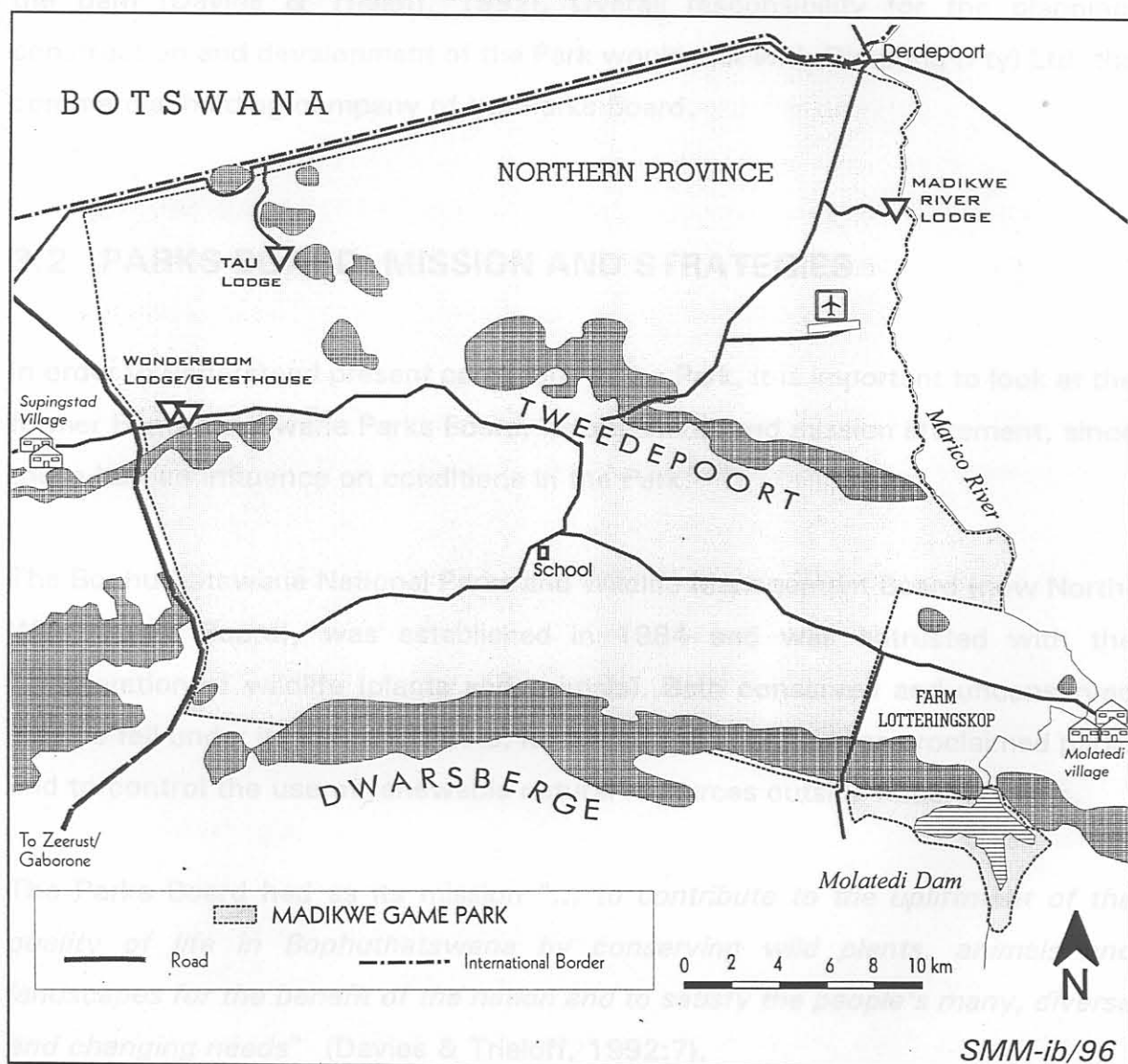
2.   Davies, R.J., Regional Manager, North-West Park Board, personal interview, 20/2/95, at Tlhabane .

The Park was therefore to operate differently from other parks in that it would offer specialist services to the exclusive end of the market. The private sector was given the opportunity to be involved in the establishment of safari camps and lodges while the Parks Board would manage the land and game.

The Park would be divided into two main areas: the area north of Molatedi Dam would be fenced and stocked with most of the historically indigenous wild animals including the "Big Five" (elephant, rhino, leopard, lion and buffalo). The dam area would be fenced separately and stocked with smaller non-threatening animals which would allow tourists to move around freely and also maximum utilisation of the dam (Davies & Trieloff, 1992). Overall responsibility for the planning, construction and development of the Park would rest with Dirapeng (Pty) Ltd, the commercial holding company of the Parks Board.

3.2 PARKS BOARD: MISSION AND STRATEGIES

In order to understand present conditions in the Park, it is important to look at the former Bophuthatswana Parks Board, its objectives and mission statement, since these had an influence on conditions in the Park.

The Bophuthatswana National Parks and Wildlife Management Board (now North-West Parks Board), was established in 1984 and was entrusted with the conservation of wildlife (plants and animals). Both conserved and unconserved wildlife fell under its control, that is, its purpose was to manage proclaimed parks and to control the use of renewable natural resources outside national parks.

The Parks Board had as its mission "*... to contribute to the upliftment of the quality of life in Bophuthatswana by conserving wild plants, animals and landscapes for the benefit of the nation and to satisfy the people's many, diverse and changing needs*" (Davies & Trieloff, 1992:7).

This mission was to be accomplished by means of the following six strategies:

* obtaining the support, appreciation and commitment of the nation for the conservation of wildlife resources and for the role and activities of the Parks Board;

* facilitating the development of tourism, hunting and other wildlife-related industries, for the social and economic benefit of the people;

* participating pro-actively in the planning, monitoring and controlling of land and wildlife utilisation and where appropriate, establishing and managing protected areas, for the benefit of the nation;

* initiating, developing and maintaining legislation appropriate to the status and potential of the natural resources, needs, culture and traditions of the people of Bophuthatswana and the strategies of the Board;

* procuring and generating financial and land resources and utilising these in line with the Board's strategies and priorities in the most sustainable, cost-effective and beneficial way; and

* recruiting, managing and developing human resources, for the mutual benefit of the Board and its staff and also for the sake of wildlife conservation.

Thus the Parks Board's philosophy integrated conservation practices with the community development process.

Although the name of the Parks Board has changed to North-West Conservation, the principles and mission statement given above, still stand. The Park therefore operates accordingly.

3.2.1 THE PARKS BOARD'S COMMERCIAL STRUCTURE

The Parks Board distinguishes between commercial issues, such as operational responsibility, functions and activities, and conservation. The reason offered is the lack of business and entrepreneurial skills of the Parks Board and the maximisation

of commercial opportunities. Dirapeng (Pty) Ltd, an investment holding company, is responsible for the commercial aspects. It has the following subsidiaries:

Kgama Wildlife Operation (Pty) Ltd

This is a commercial trophy hunting, culling and capturing operation owned by the Parks Board.

Pilanesberg Resorts (Pty) Ltd

This is the holding company for Kwa-Maritane and Bakubung Lodge, with a partnership with Stocks and Stock Building Construction.

Gametrackers (Pty) Ltd

Its managing director has a minority shareholding, trading as Pilanesberg Safaris. Gametrackers operate photographic safaris in the Pilanesberg and Maria Moroka Parks.

Golden Leopard Resorts (Pty) Ltd

This company manages and markets all tourist activities in the parks.

Therefore, all development in North-West parks (mainly those of the former Bophuthatswana) is managed and developed by Dirapeng.

3.2.2 HUNTING ON COMMUNITY LANDS

Each region of the North-West Province, has a nature conservation station which monitors wildlife in the region. The game scouts at the station guard the tribal areas against poaching, with the cooperation of the tribal police.[3] Furthermore, the game scouts help to keep a count of the wildlife in each tribal camp. This helps the Parks Board to allocate hunting quotas to each tribal office.

Prospective hunters obtain hunting licences and pay for the animals they wish to hunt at Pilanesberg Game Reserve (only fishing licences can be obtained at the

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3.   Personal interview with Mr J. Mokowe, Senior Game Scout, Madikwe Regional Office, 30/8/95.

regional office). The hunting licence is then taken to the regional office where a hunting permit is issued and the licence endorsed in the register. The hunter is given four days to hunt and kill the animals he paid for. In case of a mistaken kill, the hunter will pay for the species killed according to stipulated prices (Appendix 3).

In addition to the price of the animal, the hunter has to pay R50,00 per day as subsistence allowance to those who accompany him usually a game scout and tribal police, on night hunts. It must be pointed out that due to staff shortages (the Madikwe Regional Office has only four members of staff and the tribal office has only two tribal policemen) some hunters are left to hunt on their own, especially those who are regulars and thought to be trustworthy.

Table 3.1 indicates the allocation of the money paid to hunt a kudu (valued at R1 200).

TABLE: 3.1 ALLOCATION OF FUNDS DERIVED FROM THE KILLING OF A KUDU

Allocation to tribe	Allocation to Parks Board	VAT	Price	Subsistence allowance	Total amount
R688	R344	R168	R1 200	R50	R1250

This table shows that value-added tax is first deducted, then the Parks Board retains a third of the amount while the tribe receives two-thirds.

It would seem that this allocation of funds has not been communicated to the communities, as no one (including chiefs, tribal clerks and CDO's) could explain how the funds they had received from the Parks Board had been calculated.

3.3 THE PARKS BOARD AND THE COMMUNITY

According to Davies & Trieloff (1992), the community represents the third corner of the Park's triangle (to be discussed in 3.4.2) and it needs the most input from the Parks Board. The role of the Park entails identifying the needs of the

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community and trying to develop them so that the private sector can address them in a way that is beneficial to all involved.

Thus, the ultimate objective is to assist in community empowerment through the sustained maximisation of economic benefits from all natural resources so that long-term community development programmes can be initiated and implemented by the community.

The Conservation Division, contains a section concerned with community development. It has the following purposes:

*   to link the various conservation areas and to generate of sustainable benefits for the people living adjacent to them;

*   to assist communities in identifying and prioritising their most pressing socio-economic needs; and

*   to help communities to meet those needs.

These objectives were to be met by the creation of representative and sustainable community-based structures known as Community Development Organisations (CDO's)
which are designed to empower the community so that they can ultimately manage the process themselves.[4]

These are the structures, policy framework and objectives of the Parks Boards aimed at community upliftment. The question arises whether this goal is realised in reality. This will be examined in the next section (3.4).

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4.   Personal interview with R.J. Davies, Project Manager, on 4\4\95, and B. Marobe, Community Liaison Officer (with whom I had numerous interviews and consultations during the course of this study).

3.4 MADIKWE GAME PARK

3.4.1 HISTORICAL INFORMATION

The area where the Park is situated has both a farming and educational history. It originally comprised 23 white-owned cattle farms. These farms were transferred to the former Republic of Bophuthatswana by the Republic of South Africa as an ongoing land repatriation scheme. The farms were made available for leasing to interested farmers. Lease-holders had to be full time farmers and underwent extensive interviews and selection.[5] Most of these farmers had loans with the Agriculture Development Corporation (Agricor), which enabled them to buy livestock and pay their leases.

On one of these farms there was a missionary boarding school which had been in existence since 1884. Over the years it repeatedly changed hands until in 1968 it was bought, by the Congregation of the Most Holy Redeemer, its last owners. The school offered boarding facilities and day schooling to the surrounding villages and farms. It was however closed with the proclamation of the Park in 1992 and was not relocated.

3.4.2 MANAGEMENT OF THE PARK

Based on the above discussion on the Park, the following triangle depicted in Figure 3.2 illustrates the management of the Park.

The contractual relationship between the Parks Board and private developers was not established since the original contract, offered by the Parks Board had been reviewed because it contained loopholes that allowed private developers to exappropriate funds. The basis of the contract allowed the ownership of the land to be retained by the government and all movable and fixed assets to be owned on a fifty-fifty basis by the Parks Board and private developers. This was applicable

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5.   Personal interview with Mr B.R. York, Lease-owner of Lotteringskop farm, the only farmer left when the Park was proclaimed; and with Mr. F. Bogatsu, a teacher at a local secondary school and one of the farmers who had been evicted during the construction of the Park.

FIGURE 3.2: **TRIANGULAR STRUCTURE OF MANAGEMENT**

Dirapeng
(Dealing with private sector)

Community
(Communication with community over their needs and developments)

Park
(Co-ordinating development, conservation and ecological management)

SMM-ib/96
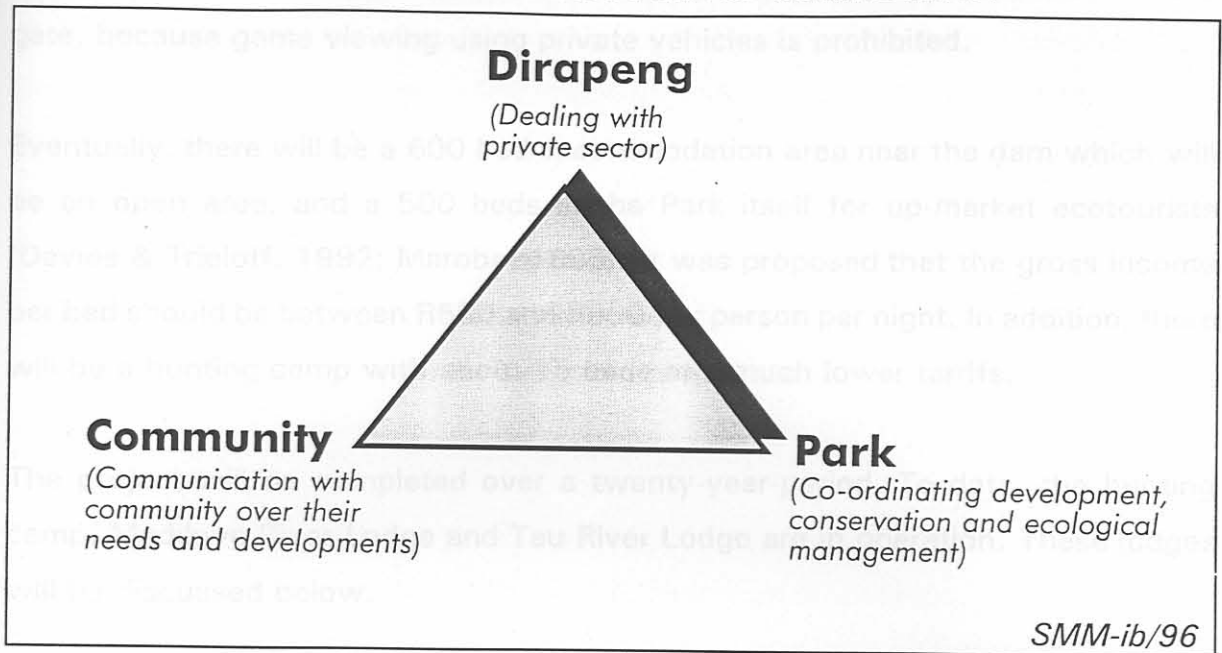
only to Madikwe River Lodge, the first of the lodges builded). The entire layout of the infrastructure was borne by the Parks Board.

There are three land use zones in the park:

* exclusive zones, where lodges are situated fall under the rules and regulations of that particular developer;

* communal zones, which are open to all stakeholders and where none of the developers besides the Parks Board have any authority; and

* the management zone, where the following activities are conducted: culling, capturing and hunting of animals.

3.4.3 PRIVATE DEVELOPERS: LODGES

The lodges are located so as to be subjected to an environmental impact assessment. Large lodges are builded nearer the edge of the Park, for financial and logistic reasons as some staff members will be commuting daily and transporting them over long distances will diminish their profits. Furthermore, situating large

lodges close to the edge of the Park will minimise the distance travelled from the gate, because game viewing using private vehicles is prohibited.

Eventually, there will be a 600 bed accommodation area near the dam which will be an open area, and a 500 beds in the Park itself for up-market ecotourists (Davies & Trieloff, 1992; Marobe, 1995). It was proposed that the gross income per bed should be between R550 and R900 per person per night. In addition, there will be a hunting camp with about 15 beds at a much lower tariffs.

The project will be completed over a twenty-year-period. To date, the hunting camp, Madikwe River Lodge and Tau River Lodge are in operation. These lodges will be discussed below.

3.4.3.1   *Wonderboom Guest House*

Originally a farmhouse, the facilities were first converted into an overnight accommodation and meeting area for Parks Board staff during the construction of the Park. It is situated nearer to the Gaborone-Zeerust road. In June 1994 it was converted into a hunting camp and guest house. Although other guests are accommodated, preference is given to hunters. It costs R250 per person per night (Bed and breakfast inclusive).

3.4.3.2   *Madikwe River Lodge*

This is the first of the luxury lodges to be built and run in the Park. It is situated in the north-east of the Park (Fig. 3.1), and entrance is gained through Derdepoort Gate. It was built using a labour-intensive method, with the local population given preference. It opened its doors to the public in October 1994. The area comprises 16 luxury lodges which can accommodate 32 guests.[6] In accordance with Law (1993) who said that people in the tourism industry are unwilling to disclose information on statistics on the grounds of commercial confidentiality, the management at Madikwe River Lodge, were unwilling to disclose statistical

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6.   Personal interview with Mr J. van Veteren and Ms R. van Zyl, Managing Director and Manager respectively, of Madikwe River Lodge. The information in 3.4.3.2 is based on this interview.

information. The only information that they were willing to disclose was that 40 % of their guests came from Botswana, the balance coming from Gauteng and a limited number from abroad. The lodge is always full over weekends and its occupation rate has been about 40 % since it first opened.

In order to attract possible investors to unknown areas, the Parks Board has agreed with the present owner of the lodge on a fifty-fifty percent ownership of the movable and unmovable assets. The investor has been given a period of a year or two to operate the lodge without sharing profits with the Park management.

The daily tariff is R695 per person per night (fully catered), for game drives or guided hiking trails, it costs R250 for a minimum of five visitors per game drive. The limited accommodation at this lodge supports the concept of "*small is beautiful*", as individual guests receive personal attention, in accordance with the high-value low-impact principle.

There is a total of 20 employees, which includes cleaners, drivers, waiters and bar attendants, the latter being the highest occupational level that people from the local communities can occupy. Senior staff and management come from outside the local community. The average salary for the members of local community employed by the lodge is R600 per month. Negotiations on salary increase for employees from the local community have been unsuccessful as they are not allowed to join a trade union.

3.4.3.3   The Tau Lodge

Tau (Setswana for "Lion") Lodge was the second lodge built in the Park, using a labour-intensive method with the local community being given preference according to an agreement with the Parks Board. It is situated towards the north west corner of the Park along the Botswana border. The lodge opened in October 1995.

Tau lodge was developed by Mopono Holdings after contractual agreement with the Parks Board to lease the area for the construction of the corporate lodges and the Tau Lodge. The corporate lodges were to be sold to prospective ecotourists,

but until now nothing has been done to that effect since they have not been built.[7]

Mopono Holdings had contracted Southern Sun for 15 years to manage Tau Lodge because of Southern Sun's expertise in the marketing and running of such facilities. Mopono Holdings' is restricted to development of such facilities.[8]

The lodge could accommodate a maximum of 60 people at a time in 22 luxury thatched chalets and two suites that are spread out in U-shaped formation around a huge waterhole. The chalets were designed to show up the natural surroundings and were built using local natural material wherever possible.

A total of 55 people will be employed once the lodge is in full operation. An initial staff of 42 (35 of which are from local villages), have been employed. All 35 from the local community were sent to Bongani Mountain Lodge, one of the Sun lodges in Mpumalanga Province used for training employees in running a lodge. The remaining seven staff members will be transferred from other lodges to Tau Lodge.

In keeping with the principles of high-value low-impact, and catering for top bracket of ecotourists, the daily tariff is R750,00 per person per night (fully catered).

Southern Sun is prepared to support any community project and tries to invest in the local economy to the greatest possible extent.

3.5 THE PARK AND THE COMMUNITY

Although much has been said about the participation of the community in the Park, local communities were only involved from around 1993, several months after the

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7.　Personal interview with Mervyn van Standen, Director, Mopono Holding Ltd, 27/9/95, Albury Park.

8.　Personal interview with Mr Michel Girardin, General Manager, Sun Game Lodges (Sector of Southern Sun), Sandton City, 6/9/95.

Park had been proclaimed (this contradiction with stage one of the Key issues in participation model given in Table 2.4). Involvement only came when farmers who leased farms in the Park were told to give way for the construction of the Park. At the same time, labour was needed to remove the fences among the different farms and to erect an electric fence round the Park.

The chiefs living around the Park were informed about the Park and how it would minimise unemployment in the area. The villages involved were Molatedi and Supingstad. Employment creation was thus used by the Parks Board to exploit the communities living adjacent to the Park for Parks Board's own benefits.

During September 1994, Community Development Organisations (CDO) were established by the Parks Board community liaison officer in Molatedi, Supingstad, Lekgopung and Sesobe villagers.

The CDO consisted of the following members:

*   ten members elected by the community; and

*   one member elected by the tribal council.

Members had to elect their own executive committee and had to meet once or twice a month. Furthermore, they were given the following tasks:

*   to organise labour, that is, draw up a list of all unemployed people and tasks they could perform. The list was to be kept by the secretary and the community liaison officer could then, after consulting with developers or contractors, draw labourers from the list, in equal numbers from each village; and

*   to contact the tribal council and the community on the problems, needs and projects which the community experienced or envisaged. In this respect, the community was to receive support from the Parks Board.

These functions of the CDOs, too, contradict the stages of participation and tasks

of the community representative (Table 2.4). (The last-mentioned had to be an equal partner the conveyor of Parks Board decisions to the local communities.)

As it will be indicated later, in some communities, people who were elected to the CDO, put themselves at the top of the employment list while others were hoping to receive a salary. When this did not happen, the CDO disintegrated.

Furthermore, it must be noted that the means of communication between the Park and the community was and still is through the community liaison officer.

3.5.1 EMPLOYMENT

This was to have been the major aspect of community participation. An agreement was reached between the Parks Board and private developers and contractors, which stipulated that only those skilled workers who could not be drawn from any nearby village, could be drawn from companies' labour forces. All unskilled employees had to be drawn from the surrounding communities, thus making the project labour intensive.

The various parties further agreed on a flat remuneration rate for all employees. The wage was to be R20 per day, and the working day would start at 06:00 and end at 18:00. Overtime was to be negotiated between employees and the employers. This resulted in problems as overtime was not paid in most cases and those who complained were dismissed since there was a whole pool of available labour from which to draw.[9] People started complaining about poor wages. The employers agreed to be an increase of R2,00 but demanded an additional hour's work per day.

Workers from the communities were employed in all kinds of labour, including, brick-making, building, and fence-making. The only employees who received better benefits were the builders who were sub-contracted to the main contractors. They

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9.   Personal interview with Mrs Tshepe, a victim of this situation whose case was with both the CDO and the community liaison officer. Employees who were still working at the building site, expressed similar sentiments.

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too, had to employ local people and pay them the flat remuneration rate.

The majority of employees are mainly casual workers (as was the case with the main building contractor in the Park); at Tau Lodge building site, only five from seventy employed people have been offered permanent positions by the company.[10]

The Park itself has 48 casual employees who do various tasks around the park. Sixteen are permanent staff, of whom eight are wardens and eight are game scouts who were transferred from Pilanesberg Park. It is envisaged that casual workers will be absorbed into the permanent staff and trained to do various tasks.

3.5.2 PROJECTS

Several community upliftment projects were proposed by the Parks Board to the communities, such as the building of clinics and schools. The community had to initiate the project and could then come to the Park for assistance. Aspects of such projects, especially in Molatedi, will be discussed in 3.7. CDOs have not received funds from the Park to help in the proposed projects off the ground.

During the reintroduction of various species of animal into the Park (referred to as Operation Phoenix - the largest of its kind in South Africa), the CDOs and councillors were invited as guests, perhaps to indicate community participation to the world media, as Arnstein (1969) indicated in his citizen participation ladder.

3.6 SUPINGSTAD VILLAGE

Supingstad Village is situated to the north west of the Zeerust-Gaborone road and borders on Botswana in the north. It is nearer to Gaborone, Botswana, which is 30 km away, than to its service town of Zeerust, which is 120 km from the away.

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10. Personal interview with Mr Selegi, a foreman who came with the main contractor, on 30/8/95 at Tau Lodge site.

The population of the village is 3 873 and constitutes 594 households.[11]

TABLE 3.2: POPULATION DEMOGRAPHY: SUPINGSTAD

YEARS	MALE	FEMALE
UNDER 1	27	28
1-5	185	176
6-14	348	403
15-44	941	1 047
45 AND OVER	295	423
TOTAL	1 796	2 077

3.6.1 EMPLOYMENT FACILITIES

Employment facilities in the village are few with only 613 people employed, that is 15,8% of the whole population or 22,65% of those older than 15 years (based on data in Table 3.2). Unemployment is therefore very high. It is attributed to the area's proximity to the urban centres. Recent retrenchments by the mines and industry have increased the number of unemployed.

Table 3.3 indicates that the leading employer, is the government, especially the Education Department. The majority of those who are employed are based in the following towns: Zeerust, Rustenburg mines and throughout the Gauteng Province.

The number of people employed as casual workers in the Park could not be established since no records were kept.

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11.   The statistics on the demographics of Supingstad, are based on the census conducted by the Department of Wealth and Social Welfare, at Lehurutshe Hospital from 11/11/93 to 3/5/93.

TABLE 3.3: EMPLOYMENT AT SUPINGSTAD

EMPLOYER	NUMBER
Pre-school	3
Primary school	16
Secondary school	17
Clinic	7
Other government departments	5
Local shop & other businesses	10

3.6.2 THE NEEDS OF THE SUPINGSTAD COMMUNITY

Through the community participative approach (interviews were held with members of the RDP forum, local branches of political parties, teachers, nurses, the business community, pensioners, youth groups and the tribal council, and all meetings concerned with the Park were attended between February and October 1995), the following needs were identified by the community: employment, education facilities, health facilities, road and transport, water and fuel.

3.6.2.1 *Employment*

As indicated in 3.6.1 above, a large section of the population is unemployed and those interviewed, whether employed or unemployed, voiced the same major concern, namely unemployment. Unemployment has a multiplier effect on the other sectors of society and affects development in the village. For example, most pupils were and are unable to pay school fees, which means that more classrooms cannot be built.

The introduction of CDO's raised the hope of employment for those who were elected since they were either school dropouts or had passed matric, but could not proceed with their studies due to financial problems. When they were refused

preferential treatment by the community liaison officer, they resigned from the CDO, thereby causing its eventual collapse in their village.

On the other hand, those who were retrenched in mines and had worked for higher wages, complain of poor remuneration in the Park. One such person said, "*I cannot work for R100*", meaning R20 per day for five days a week.

3.6.2.2   *Education*

The present education system in the village caters for pupils from pre-school to matric (before 1991, schooling was up to standard eight only). The classroom-pupil ratio at the secondary school is 1:67 (534 pupils in eight classrooms). The teacher-pupil ratio of 1:31 lies within the government parameters, but the fact that pupils from standard five to standard ten, attend the same school, teachers complained of many subjects they had to teach.

The villages stretch out for about seven kilometres, with both the primary and the pre-school situated in one part of the village. This means that children from the other part have to walk about 12 km to and from school every day. This has an effect on attendance and effective learning.

The lack of employment among the local population not only causes a delay in the payment of school fees, but young children are left alone or in the care of grandparents, while their parents stay and work in the cities.[12] This has a detrimental effect on children's performance at school as no one monitors their progress, and contributes to juvenile delinquency.

The closing-down of the mission school, which provided cheap, reliable boarding facilities for pupils before, increased the problem.

Literacy is very low, especially among the older section of the community this was

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12.   Personal interview with Messrs M. Motang, S.Z. Suping and V.S. Ratsikane, the principal and deputy-principal at Matthew Mangope Secondary School and the principal at Suping Primary School respectively, between February and August 1995.

evident when the majority of pensioners could not sign upon receipt of their pensions.

3.6.2.3   Transport and roads

The type of roads and their condition influence the mode of transport in an area. The main road entering the village is in a poor condition. Public transport to the area is very poor, with one bus to town in the morning which returns in the evening, which is used mainly for shopping (there are no daily commuters to work due to the village's distance from nearby towns). Furthermore, there is a weekly bus on Fridays to the referral hospital at Derdepoort. The clinic does not have an ambulance and in cases of emergency, an ambulance is called from the hospital (if it is available and the telephones are in working condition). Otherwise the patient has to hire transport to the hospital at an average cost of R300 to the hospital (the hospital is 60 km away on a gravel road).

3.6.2.4   Electricity

Electricity is being brought to the village and it is hoped that each household in the village will have electricity in the not distance future. However, some residents were impatient with the pace at which work was progressing.

3.6.2.5   Water

One of the problems that was raised by all residents was the shortage of water. A couple of boreholes have to supply water to the entire village and, furthermore, diesel for the engine pumps is hard to come by. Some residents have organised themselves in small groups and pay for their own diesel. This works adequately.

The water problem will be aggravated because the government of North-West Province is no longer prepared to supply communities with fuel. Communities will have to start buying fuel for themselves towards the middle of 1996. In view of the socio-economic condition and the legacy of dependency in this community, this is going to cause more problems.

The present price of water from the water vendors is five rand (R5) for 200 litres (a drum) and fifty cents (R0,50) for a 20-litre container.

3.6.2.6   Wood

To monitor and minimise the destruction of vegetation, the community has agreed on basic charges for natural resources such as wood and sand. Those who had a means of transport were conducting business without paying anything. Table 3.4 indicates the prices of wood and sand charged for different modes of transport and the levy paid at the tribal office.

TABLE 3.4: LEVY AND PRICE OF WOOD AT SUPINGSTAD

Mode of transport	Tribal levy	Selling price
Wheelbarrow/head	nil	varies between R2-R5
Two-wheel donkey cart	R3	R40
Four-wheel donkey cart	R10	R80
Tractor and trailer	R20	R120-R150

The rules stipulate that only dry wood may be gathered, those who transgress the rules can be punished by the tribal court (kgotla). Although there are some transgressors, the rules are still maintained as there are entries in the tribal register of funds collected for the gathering of wood and sand. Everybody acts as everybody's police in this respect and the tribal police demand a permit from anyone they meet carrying a load of such wood or sand.

3.6.2.7   Hunting

All wildlife falls under the custody of the Parks Board, who controls all hunting. Hunting on the tribal land takes place in winter. Park officials issue permits to hunters who are accompanied by tribal police on their hunting expeditions. Controlled hunting has benefited the tribe: the funds accrued from hunting

permits amounted to R15 000 in 1993 and R25 000 in 1994. Poaching is minimal as the community sees the value and benefits of conserving wildlife (Marobe, 1995).

3.6.2.8   *Health facilities*

Primary health care in the area has made good progress with the community heeding basic tenets such as family planning. However, the major problems are basic facilities and medicines. The clinic refers its patients to Derdepoort Hospital, which is not easily assessible because of lack of regular transport.

According to the local nursing staff[13], the birth rate is normal. The majority of women go to the clinic for family planning and to give birth. The statistics in Table 3.5 indicate the birth rate per month recorded at the clinic in 1994 and 1995. (Babies born at Derdepoort Hospital after referrals are excluded.)

TABLE 3.5: NUMBER OF BIRTHS IN 1994 AND 1995: SUPINGSTAD

Month	J	F	M	A	M	J	J	A	S	O	N	D	TOTAL
No. of births, 1994	5	5	3	3	2	4	1	1	5	3	1	7	40
No. of births, 1995	8	3	5	7	5	5	7	9	4	2	2	3	60

3.6.3 SUPINGSTAD COMMUNITY AND THE PARK

Communities in the village were only informed about the Park after it had been proclaimed. They were not involved in its planning or development[14]. Many only saw the reality of its existence with the removal of those who had leased farms

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13.   Personal interview and discussion forum with the nursing staff at Supingstad clinic on the 19/6/95.

14.   This view was expressed by the community during interviews and the monthly RDP forums between February and August. It was confirmed by tribal clerks and the secretary of the RDP forum, who happens to be the Chief's younger brother.

and the taking down of fences in the area. Thus, the majority of the residents are unfamiliar with the mission, aims and objectives of the Park; all they know is that the Park might provide them with employment.

A CDO was elected at Supingstad. The majority of those elected were young people who had hoped to benefit from their election. The CDO was chaired by Mr J.M. Tlhowe, a local businessman and a member of the tribal council. He subsequently remained as the only member of the CDO after all the others members had left, when they were told to put the interests of the tribe first. They viewed the Park merely as a source of employment and nothing else. When the Park could not "deliver", they left.

The community has since lost touch with developments in the Park. Whenever the Park requires people to employ, the liaison officer contacts teachers or nurses in the community, which means that those who have ties with teachers and nurses are favoured. This has alienated the liaison officer from the community. In the case of celebrations (functions) in the Park, the liaison officer rounded up teachers and nurses as they were easily reached at their places of employment. In this way the quota required by the Park for its publicity drive during Operation Phoenix could be met.

Since the RDP forum has now taken over the task of the CDO,[15] the situation may as well change.

3.6.4 SUPINGSTAD COMMUNITIES' PERCEPTION OF THE PARK

The majority of the communities of Supingstad perceive the Park as a source of employment. Even those who are not prepared to do manual labour are waiting for the completion of lodges and better employment. Teachers, students and other professionals see it as a source of environmental education, preservation of the flora and fauna, and provision of much needed recreational facilities in the area.

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15.   This occurred during the RDP forum meeting held on 26/7/95 and attended by Mr B. Marobe, community liaison officer. It was recommended that the RDP forum constitute a subcommittee to deal with the Park, the motion was accepted.

Others see it as a source of funds for the tribe. The hunting fees paid to the tribe at present, have fired people's imagination and they hope that the grant will increase once the Park is in full operation.

3.7 MOLATEDI VILLAGE

The village is situated next to the south eastern part of the Park, 127 km from Sun City. A dam supplies the village with water for both domestic use and irrigation.

TABLE 3.6: POPULATION DEMOGRAPHY: MOLATEDI VILLAGE

AGE	MALE	FEMALE
65 and above	66	74
45-64	84	132
30-44	105	111
15-29	128	155
0-14	195	197
TOTAL	578	669

Table 3.6 is based on the national census of 1991. The population numbered 1 247 in total and, as in the case of Supingstad, unemployment is rife. This was evident from the number of active people who attended tribal meetings during weekdays and interviews with the local chief.

3.7.1 THE COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT ORGANISATION (CDO)

Unlike other villages, the CDO of this village is vibrant and people participate actively. The reason for this is probably that it is constituted by mature, employed, professional people who are dedicated to the upliftment of the community and the development of the village.

The first committee was elected on the 2 March 1994 and it comprised teachers,

nurses, clerks and businessmen and -women.[16] It consisted of the following members:

*   ten members elected at the general tribal meeting. At the first meeting of the CDO, these members elected an executive committee comprising five members; and

*   additional members (seven at present) representing different social and political organisations.

The committee meet every month and an executive meeting is held prior to this monthly meeting, and also anytime whenever the need arises. The CDO report to the tribal council and to the whole tribe every quarter or as need arises, depending on the urgency of the issue.

3.7.1.1   Aims and objectives of the CDO

Since its inception, the CDO has been the link between the tribe and the Park. Furthermore, it has the following tasks:

*   to determine the needs and problems of the tribe;

*   to prioritise development needs of the tribe;

*   to be involved in the construction of schools and clinics, and other projects;

*   to raise funds for such projects;

*   to help manage hunting revenue; and

*   to help with environmental education.

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16.   These and subsequent data, are based on a personal interview and collaboration with Mr Letshwiti, chairman of the CDO and Principal of the primary school, Mrs R.B. Dinake, secretary of the CDO, a teacher and chairperson of Zone 4 Lengau Conservation Club, the tribal council and other members of the CDO, between 5/6/95 and 21/6/95.

3.7.2 THE ROLE OF THE PARK

The role of the Park has only been to act as a facilitator in whatever projects the community initiate. For example, the CDO was engaged in all fund-raising for completion of the school. The Park offered transport and helped schedule appointments.

The Park has suggested projects that could benefit the tribe, such as the provision of toilets, advice to the tribe on hunting, and recommended and transported the tribe to NGOs who could help with fund-raising.

3.7.3 THE NEEDS OF THE COMMUNITY

3.7.3.1 Employment opportunities

Unemployment is rife and retrenchments from industries and mines have increased the level of poverty in the village. The majority of people are employed in Rustenburg and by the surrounding mines, while the rest are working in Gauteng Province. Locally, the government is the major employer, as indicated in Table 3.7.

3.7.3.2 Experimental farm

This experimental farm, a government project, started to operate in 1987, after completion of the dam.[17] Numerous vegetable and citrus trees are planted and sold weekly at Mmabatho, 170 km away. The casual staff members are paid R13 per day. The project does not compete with that of the community (discussed in 3.7.3.3), but gives local farmers practical information on issues such as markets and which seeds to grow.

Furthermore, local farmers can hire farming equipment, such as tractors, from the farm to use on their own vegetable plots.

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17.   The data is based on a personal interview with Messrs Ramokgadi and Motlhabane, extension officers and managers of the project, on 22/6/95, at the farm.

TABLE 3.7: EMPLOYMENT IN MOLATEDI

PLACE OF EMPLOYMENT	PERMANENT STAFF	CASUAL STAFF
Primary school	10	0
Secondary school	11	0
Clinic	10	0
Experimental farm	15	9
Vegetable plots	10	0
Park	8	65
Shops and others	8	4
Dam	8	0
Total	80	78

3.7.3.3   Vegetable garden

This project was also started in 1987. The government cleared an area of twelve hectares and converted it into 104 plots of 63 x 14 m² each. The gardens are situated next to the experimental farm. Water was provided from the dam and volunteers from the village were invited to take part. Forty-two locals volunteered and started farming. Production was very high until 1990, but there was no market for the produce. Since most of the farmers did not have transport, they could only sell their produce locally. That which could not be sold, was left to rot. Additional problems were posed by monkeys and a lack of security during the night. These factors demotivated many farmers.

Today, only ten farmers are left and they do not co-operate with one another. The government provided material to fence in the fields, but only one farmer has obliged. The farmers have been advised to cultivate cash crops and 2,4 ha plots have since been allocated for that purpose. However, some of the original

volunteers are still refusing to give up their plots even though they are not being used[18]. The local chief will probably respond with forceful removal[19]. Those farmers still involved with the project all cultivate the same vegetables (for example, if one plants carrots and cabbage, the rest do the same). This saturates their market.

3.7.3.4   Education facilities

The village has education facilities that could provide education from pre-school up to standard eight, but the buildings are dilapidated (especially the primary school). A block of five classrooms which has been under construction for six years but no funds are available to complete it. It has now become a priority of the CDO to raise funds for its completion. The number of children attending school and the dangerous state of the old buildings have forced the principal to use the new block although it has not been completed.

The fact that the secondary school only caters for pupils up to standard eight forces those who need further schooling to commute ± 90 km to another high school or attend boarding schools. The majority of parents cannot afford the transport and school fees, which includes a building fee. Therefore many pupils drop out of school at an early stage, which increases the already high rate of illiteracy and unemployment. Education up to standard eight was only introduced at the beginning of 1995 in order to minimise the plight of many parents.

Through the efforts of the CDO, PMR Mines in Kroondal near Rustenburg have committed themselves to the completion of the primary school classrooms. The mines have since paid a tribal debt of R32 970 for the building material of these classrooms.

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18.   Personal interview with Mr Mosiane, extension officer, Molatedi Village, on 25/7/95.

19.   Personal interview with Chief Matlapeng and, later on, with him and his tribal council on the issue of the vegetable garden, on 30/8/95.

3.7.3.5 Transport and roads

The main road that passes the village into the Park is a gravel road and it is in poor condition. On rainy days it is a "nightmare" to reach the village. The community is disadvantaged because the road is now closed as it became part of the Park. The bypass road has almost doubled the distance to the other side of the Park.

There is only one bus that travels early in the morning to Rustenburg, the local town. It also transports commuting students and those who need to shop in town. It returns to Molatedi in the evening.

The community had hoped that with the Park on its doorstep a road would be built right next to the village. In fact, they were promised that this would happen, but things have since changed. The road will be passing several villages and will join the Zeerust-Gaborone Road as the Trans-Kalahari Highway.

3.7.3.6 Communication

The village has a single party telephone-line, which it shares with a number of villages. On the other hand, the Park has automatic lines. The entire communication system (which includes radio, television and mail) is inadequate.

3.7.3.7 Electricity

Electricity is available only to a few residents who "clubbed in" and paid a sum of R2 400[20] each several years ago. Those who need electricity, have to pay those who originally paid to obtain it a connection fee. Thus the majority of people in the community need an "RDP" type of electricity (one in which the entire village will be connected free of charge or at a nominal fee of R40,00, as has been the case in other villages).

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20. Personal interview with Mrs Matlapeng regional secretary of the ANC, member of the CDO and the tribal council and one of those who brought electricity; and with Mr Mekgwe, a member of the team which paid for the installation of electricity.

3.7.3.8   Water

People in the village mention water as a problem. They complain that there is a dam, but that water is not brought to each household. Water was installed in the village after consultation with the community, during which the community had decided on five points for the placement of taps, as part of the first phase of bringing water to the village. Now the community members complain of overcrowding at the taps and about the distance of the taps from their homes. When asked about their former sources of water, they said the boreholes have salty water, whereas those who had been drawing water from the river, it is now dammed and water is not regularly available.

Although the community sees water as a problem, they receive purified water free of charge.

3.7.3.9   Grazing

All those who were evicted from farms when the Park was proclaimed, and the majority of the elderly people name lack of grazing as a problem. Their livestock are said to be congested on communal farms were there is overcrowding. Most people see Lotteringskop Farm (discussed in 3.7.5) as a possible solution to their problem.

3.7.3.10   Health facilities

The present clinic is very small and has only two rooms. Like the one at Supingstad, it refers patients to Derdepoort Hospital when necessary and experiences similar problems.

3.7.3.11   Hunting

Hunting in the area is controlled by the Parks Board. The Board indicates how many animals of each species should be killed during the winter hunting season. At the end of 1993, R5 348 was received from the Park as a hunting grant; R3 000 was received in 1994. There has been a drop in the number of killed animals because

hunting is not properly controlled. Signs of poaching still exist with animal traps found in camps, and livestock are also caught in traps from time to time. The fact that some hunters are not accompanied on their trips by local tribal police or game scouts causes concern as they might be shooting more than their due.

3.7.3.12   Wood gathering

Table 3.8 indicates the amount that should be paid to the tribal office for wood gathering. It also indicates the price at which wood is sold to the village. Those involved in the business refuse to pay the tribal fee and even chop down living trees. When asked about this, they responded; "*We used to pay a levy during the past, oppressive Bop government. Now that we are independent, we cannot pay for our resources.*" Asked to comment on this, Mr Mpele[21] reported that since 10 May 1994 people have destroyed natural resources at will. The problem, he said, lay with the local chief who is too compassionate.

TABLE 3.8   TRIBAL LEVY AND WOOD PRICE

MODE OF TRANSPORT	TRIBAL LEVY	SELLING PRICE
Wheelbarrow	nil	R3-R5
Two-wheel cart	R2	R30-R40
Four-wheel cart	R4	R60-R80
Tractor and trailer	R6	R120

3.7.4 MOLATEDI DAM

The dam was completed in 1986 and provides water for irrigation and household purposes. The dam has become a source of income for the local CDO. On its banks, there is a picnic spot that is maintained by the Department of Water Affairs. The CDO has since started to charge visitors over long weekends and the festive

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21.   Mr Mpele is an executive member of the ANC in the village and is its representative in the tribal council.

season. "*Why should they charge people, when they do not plough anything in return?*" asked Mr Maletswe.[22] After the festive season and long weekends the area is left littered and some facilities have broken down. It is envisaged that the CDO will only come again during the next festive season. The toilet, braai stands and lawn have been destroyed and the benches used as fire wood.

The CDO has collected a sum of more than R3 000 in the area, but have not ploughed anything back into the area. It is anticipated that the number of visitors will diminish in future if conditions do not improve.

3.7.5 LOTTERINGSKOP FARM[23]

This is the only farm left which does not form part of the Park. It borders on both the Park and Molatedi Village and part of the dam is on the farm. It covers an area of 4 000 ha. The road to the dam and into the Park passes through it, thus dividing it into three parts.

The farm houses about 200 heads of cattle and game. Some of the wild animals were originally there, others were reintroduced in the area by the farmer[24]. The area operates York Safaris, which has chalets that could accommodate twelve people; these are mainly used for hunting. Twenty-four people are employed and there are craftsmen who use dead wood for their craftwork.

The farmer objects to leaving the area for the extension of the Park, as he maintains that he was conserving the environment even before the Park was established.

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22.   Personal interview with Mr Maletswe, manager of Molatedi Dam and water reticulation in the area, on 22/2/95 and 22/6/95, at the dam.

23.   The farm is a topic of dispute among the Park, Molatedi Community and the owner-leaser, Mr B.R. York. The farmer leased it in 1986 according to same procedures as the other 23 farmers. In 1992 he was given the option of buying it, which he did. He was since refused a deed of grant. He fought with the Bophuthatswana Government (Parks Board) and the tussle is continuing with the North-West Government.

24.   Personal interview with Mr B.R. York, on farm on the 25/7/95. He kindly showed me all correspondence between the government and himself, all permits and certificates for the number of species he introduced to the farm.

3.8 CONCLUSION

The discussion in this chapter substantiates the well-intended policy framework of the Parks Board, its mission statement, aims and objectives which, if followed and realized, could embody true community participation. But the present structure of communication shows that even if the community is said to be participating, they benefit little and are less empowered than those who do profit. The main benefit from the Park is employment, but salaries are poor. The community still depends largely on the exploitation of natural resources.

The key issues for a participation model as explained and proposed in the previous chapter, are not applicable in the case of the Madikwe Game Park and its environs. The next chapter will focus on the empowerment and participation of local communities.

4   EMPOWERING LOCAL COMMUNITIES

"Ecotourism must remain a grassroots
effort firmly based in local economies. It
cannot become purely a vehicle for profit.
It must be a source of local pride and
involvement"

(Cater, 993:88)

4.1   INTRODUCTION

The preceding discussion indicated to a large extent that the communities surrounding Madikwe Game Park have a limited say and influence, if any, in directing the outcome of development in the Park. In accordance with Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation, the communities were manipulated during the planning stage of the Park. They were promised employment opportunities, a tantalising prospect for any community situated far from the main urban centres.

In order to keep up with new developments in conservation as practised by institutions such as the Natal Parks Board and the Richtersveld National Park, the Parks Board initiated consultations (stage four of Arnstein (1969) and stage five of Haywood (1988)). It invited surrounding communities' opinions on its developments, which is a legitimate step towards full participation. "*But if consulting them is not combined with other modes of participation, this rung of the ladder is still a sham since it offers no assurance that citizen concerns and ideas will be taken into account*" (Arnstein, 1969:219).

The CDOs always have their meetings with the community liaison officers who, in turn, relate their concerns to the Park management, which refers the matter to the Parks Board for decision-making. In all higher tiers, the community is not represented. This is what Place (1991) argued against, namely that the tier system

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contains the possibility to impede public participation through its hierarchial structure.

The community remains the beggar and the Parks Board the provider, with regard to advice, service and finance. The whole idea of participation remains an unworthy effort and the local community remains a statistical abstraction whose participation is measured by the number of people attending the tribal "kgotla" (meeting) or taking brochures home. What did the community achieve? Arnstein (1969) says the community has participated in participation while the Parks Board, in this instance, has managed to take its time and adhere to required motions of involving "those people". Arnstein (1969) shares this view with Pine (1984) and regards it as tokenism and the entire process of participation as "top-down".

This chapter will therefore address objectives three and four (1.3.2) which examine ways in which the needs and problems of people surrounding Madikwe Game Reserve could be addressed. Furthermore, a model of community participation in ecotourism will be proposed.

4.2 THE ROLE OF THE PARKS BOARD

The Park, as explained in the previous chapter, is the sole custodian of fauna and flora and has been given the authority to suggest to the government the proclamation of nature and game parks. The Madikwe Game Reserve was built as the sole area in the province where the "big five" (lion, elephant, rhino, buffalo and leopard) could be viewed. But the Pilanesberg Resort has since introduced lions (Stuart-Hill & Grossman, 1994). Thus, the argument that the "big five" were adapted only to the Madikwe Game Park area does not hold.

The Park was proclaimed as an ecotourism destination - this means that the tourist industry, conservation and the local community, should benefit from it. In the case of Madikwe, conservation and the tourist industry have benefited, but local communities are not benefiting to the same extent. Employment opportunities for these marginal communities are a necessity, but it is not the only benefit they can

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reap from ecotourism.

Casual employment is not sufficient, especially at the low wages being paid and the menial nature of the work. Even those who are permanently employed have stipulated wages which can only be negotiated at certain intervals and levels, decided on by the Parks Board and private developers.

Besides employment, the surrounding communities do not even benefit from the infrastructure in and around the Park. The road which was intended to pass Molatedi Village has since been changed in another direction, while roads that the community was using have been closed by the Park. This has led to an increase in the community's travelling expenses. The telephones in the villages are party-lines while the Park has automatic telephones. These differences are so conspicuous that the difference between "the haves and the have nots" is no longer a theoretical debate, but a tangible reality.

Commercial poaching (poaching with the motive to sell) is a major problem for nature and game reserves in many African countries, but not at Madikwe. The Park and the community work hand in hand as the community has realised the importance of preserving wildlife. As a result, the community helps with conservation. There is, however, minimal poaching (trapping and shooting) for consumption. Some take advantage of the ongoing developments in the park and poach animals near construction sites.

4.2.1 ACCOMMODATION

The Park focus on a high-income ecotourists. As a result, additional income might be generated and staff remuneration might improve. The present high prices must be retained in order to raise funds for conservation. Conservation must benefit from ecotourism. The revenue generated will contribute towards the improvement of the Park.

In the same vein, lower- and middle-income earners will not be able to afford a visit to the Park. Boo (1990), faced with similar problems in overseas countries that benefited from both the industrial and space-age technology, and are now

exploiting fragile environments, suggested a dual entrance fee: a high fee for foreigners and a lower fee for locals. Because the majority of Third World ecodestinations are economically undervalued (entrance fees are very low), many are unable to generate enough capital to become economically independent (Boo, 1990). On the other hand, high entrance fees for local communities will create an unfriendly atmosphere, especially where the land on which the Park was built, was forcefully taken from the local community. The truth is that not all those who visit ecodestinations are ecotourists, and that not all ecotourists are environmentally friendly, nor do they all practise what they preach. In the same way in which they benefit and exploit our rich ecological heritage, we should reap the fruit of their level of development.

4.2.2 THE COMMERCIAL STRUCTURE

The Dirapeng commercial structure of the Parks Board is based in Johannesburg. As it was the case during the existence of Bophuthatswana, the profits and taxes accumulated in North-West Province, are spent and utilised elsewhere. Very little of the funds accrued by this commercial structure are spend locally. Its multiplier effect circulates around urban areas, far away from the Park.

4.2.3 HUNTING ON COMMUNITY LANDS

The Parks Board monitors the hunting process on all community lands as explained in chapter 3. This is good practice as it promotes the conservation of various species outside the Park. The issuing of quotas of animals to be hunted during a hunting season is in keeping with the principle of sustainable utilisation. Communities are taught to sustain and benefit from their wildlife. Controlled hunting and the benefits that the tribes receive in terms of funds, have helped to reduce poaching on tribal lands. Every member of the community realises and sees the benefits of wildlife conservation.

Nevertheless, controlled hunting has its shortcomings. Firstly, the issuing of permits is controlled by the Parks Board, whereas it could be done locally, at the tribal office. This would mean that the tribe would receive the entire price of game

unlike the two-thirds they receive at present. Secondly, the price of game on community lands is much lower than in parks. This robs the community of extra cash as hunting in and outside parks should be complementary. Lastly, the fact that Madikwe regional hunting office is understaffed and that, in some cases, "regular hunters" are allowed to hunt on their own and only have to report their killings to the office afterwards, could encourage "official poaching", i.e. hunters could kill more than they pay for. This may be the reason why the hunting grant to Molatedi Village has been reduced (as indicated in 3.7.3.12).

4.2.4 THE PARKS BOARD AND THE COMMUNITY

The ultimate aims, objectives and mission statement of the Parks Board aim at empowering communities surrounding the Park. But this is not communicated to those communities, and although they are documented, the aims, objectives and mission are not implemented. This has been demonstrated by the community near Pilanesberg Game Reserve, which has been alienated from the Park and needs more say in the management of the Park, rather than only receiving hunting grants (Pilanesberg and Madikwe Game Park are run by the same Parks Board).

The Parks Board needs to change its attitude towards local communities: instead of regarding them as passive beneficiaries, these communities should be empowered, as stipulated in the aims and objectives of the Parks Board.

4.2.5 EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

There are some pessimists among the local communities with regard to employment in the Park. The first issue is the low wages which they regard as exploitation. The second issue concerns the fact that the Parks Board promised eighteen times more employment opportunities in tourism than in livestock and agriculture. The community cannot comprehend not even a hundred people have obtained full-time employment to date, while the casual workers' employment will come to an end with the completion of Tau Lodge. That which makes them think along these lines could be a comparison with the 24 employees at Lotteringskop Farm (discussed earlier), which covers 4 000 ha. Thus, they (local community) proportionally, expect a 75 000 ha Park to employ 450 people.

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This is the problem with raising people's expectations and not explaining your plans to them. The communities surrounding the Park do not know of the twenty-year development plan for the Park. The fact that the Parks Board has planned to build accommodation units for 600 people in the Park, means that lodges will be continuously built, using a labour-intensive method. They have planned to add between 50 and 60 beds per year, which means that for the next six to seven years there will be construction work in the Park, and therefore employment opportunities. In addition, employees will be trained in the skills used in building, plumbing and other fields. This means that when the last lodge has been built, they will be sufficiently skilled to find employment as builders or plumbers. Furthermore, more will be absorbed in the permanent job market where they will be able to become economically active.

4.3 CONTRACTS

Although not much information was revealed about the contracts, the available information indicates that NGOs are involved are the main beneficiaries. As Polit (1991) states, the NGOs are arrays of professionals from, and living in, urban centres. They adhere to the urban culture, always exploiting any situation for their own benefit.

No local entrepreneur could afford to compete with the private developers who are given contracts to build lodges of high a standard at a high cost, nor would any major bank be prepared to finance any local entrepreneur (2.6). Even where such opportunities could be granted to local entrepreneurs, for example Wonderboom Guest House, contracts were given to urban entrepreneurs. The multiplier effect which could have benefited the local economy, therefore benefits urban areas instead. This creates leakages within the local economy which is urban bias.

4.4 CONVERTING FARMS INTO A GAME PARK

The idea of establishing a game reserve in an area where livestock farming was

previously practised, is noble and commendable. Not only will the environment and wildlife be conserved, but the entire area will be able to employ many more people than it used to. Once it is in full operation, the Park will be able to employ eighteen times more people than if the area were used for livestock or agricultural production (Boo, 1990).

But, as Place (1995) states, people who have been exploiting natural resources, must be given alternative opportunities. Cowling and Oliver (1992) argue that we should not unduly disrupt traditional land use without direct benefits or alternatives. Those farmers who had leased farms in the area should have been provided with alternative arrangements. Instead, some have alienated themselves from the Park and its development, making comments such as, "*We will have no beef any more but only wild animals, an expensive luxury.*" If the community had participated fully, alternative land could have been made available to such people for grazing their livestock (as was done at Richtersveld). An environmental audit of the present grazing camps of the community, might show the degree to which the pasture and vegetation have been degraded. It is feared that unless the problem is addressed, once the land has been depleted, people will start envying that which is across the fence (the Park) and conflicts might erupt, as happened at Kosi Bay in Maputaland (KwaZulu-Natal).

The same could be said about the closing of the Holy Redeemer School. This institution had been alleviating illiteracy and providing boarding facilities for the surrounding communities, and it could have been relocated somewhere within reach. Its buildings could have been used to house an environmental education or nature conservation school. It could be an ideal school within the nature conservation environment.

4.5 THE CDO STRUCTURE

The idea of CDO's as initiated by the Parks Board has been received differently by the two communities. For the Supingstad community, the CDO has been a token body which has since collapsed. For the Molatedi community, it has been a

development structure, and its existence has started to bear fruit.

Nevertheless, the mode of communication between the CDO and the Park needs to be re-channelled from that of begging for assistance to that of contributing to development. Although the communities are at different stages of readiness for engaging in economic initiatives (Keane, 1992), the CDO structure needs to be empowered to be a truly representative of the community and a partner of the Parks Board on matters of ecotourism and conservation.

4.5.1 THE NEEDS OF THE COMMUNITY

Not all the needs of the community around Madikwe Game Park can be addressed by ecotourism; some will have to be directed elsewhere. Although ecotourism is not a type of rural development strategy, it does have a significant role in improving the quality of life of local communities, and encouraging capacity building and participation (Hattingh, 1994b).

On the one hand, Chalker (1994) maintains that tourism can improve the basic infrastructure and services such as water, roads, and electricity, and yield other social and environmental benefits. Thus, it is expected that the basic infrastructural needs of roads and communication - which are very poor - could be provided or linked to those of the Park. This could be a step forward for the State's RDP in that several development burdens can be alleviated through one initiative.

4.5.2 NATURAL RESOURCES IN COMMUNITY LANDS

There is general laxness with regard to the conservation and preservation of natural resources in communities surrounding the Park. Unless the tribal authorities and the Park management become involved in environmental education, much of the flora in these communities will be destroyed. Eventually, people will start to envying that which is across the fence in the Park.

There are signs of overgrazing and bush encroachment in the grazing pastures of communities surrounding the Park. Unless these problems are addressed, the entire

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land will be eroded to the point where it will no longer be of any benefit.

## 4.6 PROPOSED MODEL FOR RURAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

4.6.1 INTRODUCTION

The data on Madikwe Game Park and its environs indicate that the Park plays an active role in conservation and in deciding on who should be the developer. However, the local communities remain passive beneficiaries who are not even familiar with the mission of the Park or its intentions with regard to its environs.

The office of the community liaison officer has an active role and is the live wire of all the "participation" that is taking place. It is the communication link between the community and the Parks Board. The data also indicate that whatever the community needs, they relate to this office, which, in turn, relates it to the Park management. The Park management then relays it to the Parks Board, which will respond in the same way indicated in Figure 4.1.

The figure outlines the mode of communication as it occurs between the Parks Board and the local communities, and it thus originates from the discussion in chapter 3. It further indicates that decisions concerning the communities surrounding the Park are decided by the top tier in which the communities are not represented. Some of the communities' needs and requests may therefore be disposed of by the liaison officer or the Park management. This lack of representation at the different tiers forms the basic argument for the rural community participation model.

The CDO's are the channel through which the community can communicate with the liaison officer. They were elected democratically and in the case of the Molatedi CDO, some experts were elected on the basis of their knowledge of and experience in conservation.

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FIGURE 4.1: THE PRESENT MODE OF COMMUNICATION
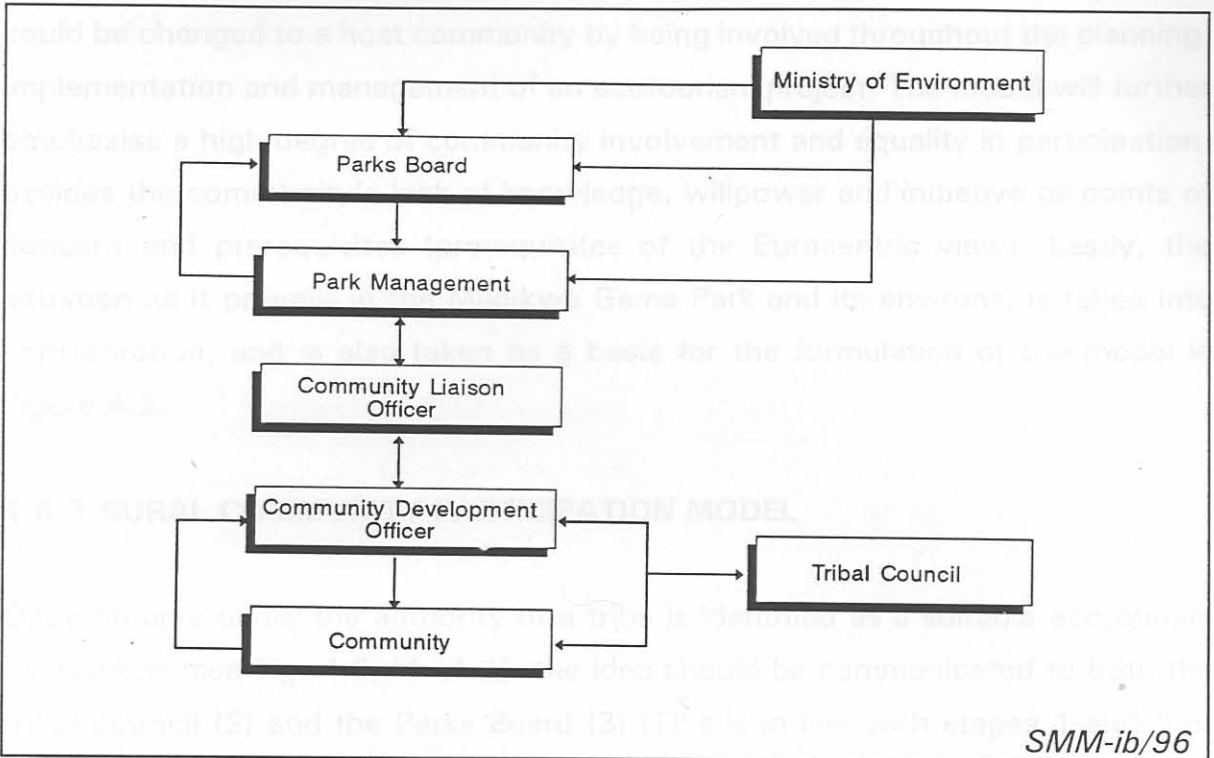
4.6.2 FOUNDATION OF THE MODEL

The model, as discussed in 4.6.3 and illustrated in Figure 4.2, is based on the outcome of models discussed in chapter 2 of this study. Arnstein's (1969) ladder of citizen participation differentiates between non-participation, tokenism and true participation. Pine (1984) adapted Arnstein's (1969) idea in developing his models, which he applied to communities in Finland, England and Ireland involved in community development projects. Haywood (1988) formulated his model on the basis of Arnstein's model and adapted Pine's model in his responsive and responsible tourism planning model.

These models, together with that of Simmons (1994), Deloitte & Touche (1994) and the case studies of the Richtersveld National Park and CAMPFIRE, do not indicate clearly the empowering and involvement of communities in ecotourism. Table 2.4 provides an ideal sequence to be followed in the formulation of a participation model, and its steps will be related to the discussion in 4.6.3.

Thus the objective underlying the model is to indicate how the local community could be changed to a host community by being involved throughout the planning, implementation and management of an ecotourism project. The model will further emphasise a high degree of community involvement and equality in participation, besides the community's lack of knowledge, willpower and initiative as points of concern and prerequisites (prerequisites of the Eurocentric view). Lastly, the situation as it prevails in the Madikwe Game Park and its environs, is taken into consideration, and is also taken as a basis for the formulation of the model in Figure 4.2.

4.6.3 RURAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION MODEL

Once an area under the authority of a tribe is identified as a suitable ecotourism destination (see Fig. 4.2, block 1), the idea should be communicated to both the tribal council (2) and the Parks Board (3) (This is in line with stages 1 and 2 of Table 2.4.). These two parties are simultaneously involved because of the following reasons:

*   the Parks Board is the custodian of the entire North-West country's flora and fauna. The Parks Board thus has an obligation to monitor wildlife, both inside and outside parks and game reserves; and

*   the tribal council is the custodian of tribal land and must be involved, in terms of the democratic principle, in whatever discussions involving their territory. Unlike the case in undemocratic circumstances, the tribal council, has the right to refuse or accept any opinion, on behalf of the tribe and in consultation with the tribe.

Neither the tribal council nor the Parks Board is the sole authority. They have to involve the entire community (4), and the Ministry of Environment (Board of Governors) (5) - in the case of the Parks Board. The procedure remains the same on both sides. The community at this stage does not have to decide on the issue as there will be many unanswered questions. The community will elect a task group (6) (in line with stage 3 of Table 2.4) as its mouthpiece to investigate issues on its behalf (this also applies to Parks Board (7)). It should be stressed to those elected that they must be committed and dedicated and they should be elected by

the community itself without the help of any third party, in order to avoid the risk of being seen by participants as a token body involved in a hollow exercise.

FIGURE 4.2: RURAL COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION MODEL

SMM-ib/96
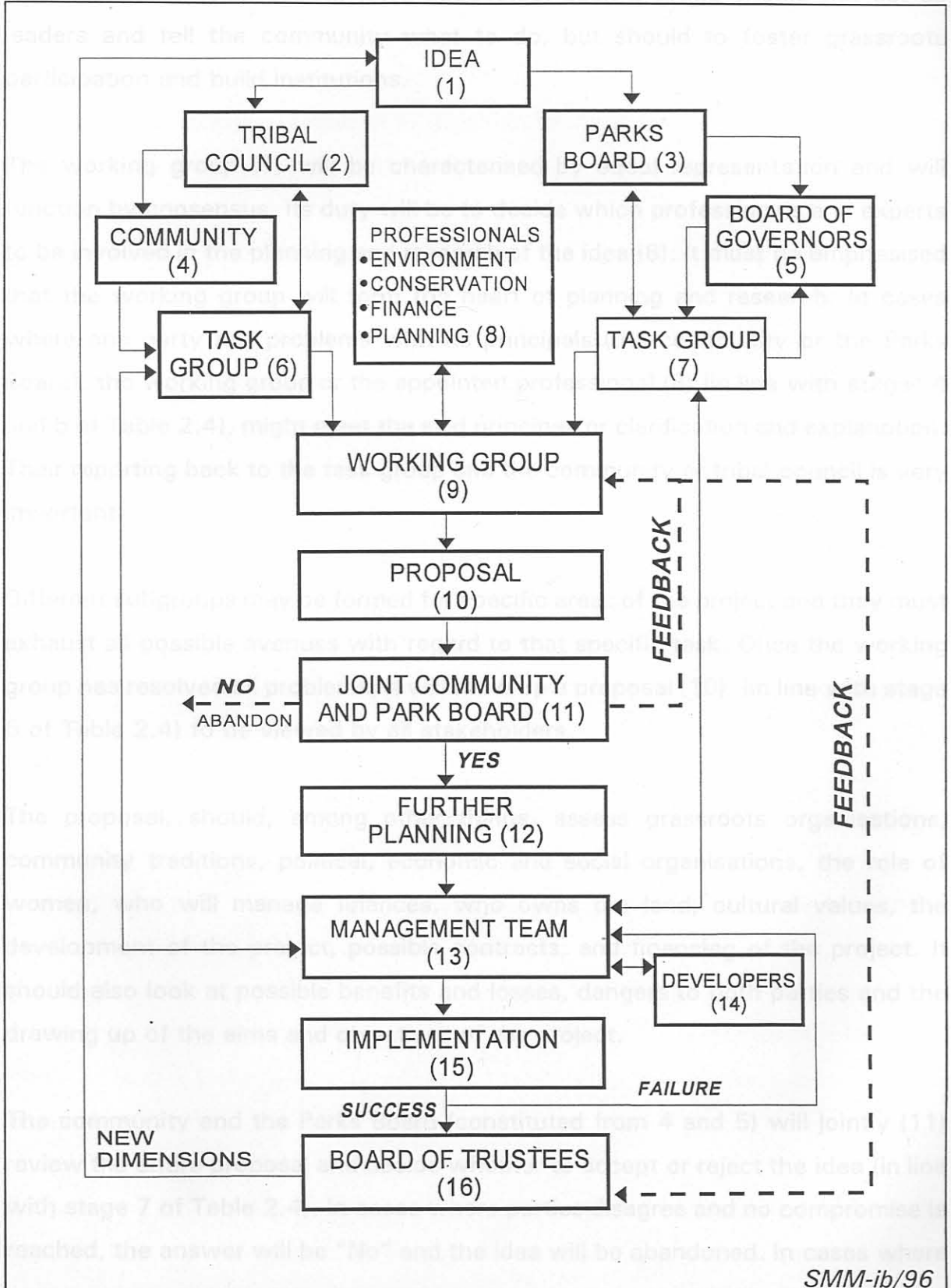
The duty of the task groups should be to form a combined working committee (9) with equal representation from both parties; to liaise with both the Parks Board and the tribal council; not to take or sign any binding agreements; and to inform and with consult the tribal council and the community about the development of the idea. As Wells **et al.** (1992) have suggested, such a group should not act as leaders and tell the community what to do, but should to foster grassroots participation and build institutions.

The working group (9) will be characterised by equal representation and will function by consensus. Its duty will be to decide which professionals and experts to be involved in the planning and research of the idea (8). It must be emphasised that the working group will form the heart of planning and research. In cases where one party has problems with its principals (the community or the Parks Board), the working group or the appointed professional (8) (in line with stages 4 and 5 of Table 2.4), might meet the said principal for clarification and explanation. Their reporting back to the task group and the community or tribal council is very important.

Different subgroups may be formed for specific areas of the project and they must exhaust all possible avenues with regard to that specific task. Once the working group has resolved all problems, it will draw up a proposal (10) (in line with stage 6 of Table 2.4) to be viewed by all stakeholders.

The proposal, should, among other things, assess grassroots organisations, community traditions, political, economic and social organisations, the role of women, who will manage finances, who owns the land, cultural values, the development of the project, possible contracts, and financing of the project. It should also look at possible benefits and losses, dangers to both parties and the drawing up of the aims and objectives of the project.

The community and the Parks Board (constituted from 4 and 5) will jointly (11) review the entire proposal and decide whether to accept or reject the idea (in line with stage 7 of Table 2.4). In cases where parties disagree and no compromise is reached, the answer will be "No" and the idea will be abandoned. In cases where

amendment is needed before final acceptance is reached, the idea may be referred back to the working group for restructuring and amendment. In this case, the same process as outlined above, will be followed. A revised proposal will be formulated and brought to the joint attention of all stakeholders.

In cases where the proposal is accepted, that is a "Yes" result, the idea will be carried on to further planning (12). Some of the suggestions put forward during the discussion will then be looked at in depth and formulated so as to suit the joint sentiments of the community and the Parks Board.

It is important to note that planning ecotourism with the participation of the community is a process of trial and error. "...*It is incremental, experimental, managed, shared and based on recent information. By 'learning to plan and planning to learn'*" (Haywood, 1988:112), the community will come to terms with the idea of planning and being empowered to be involved in projects that affect their lives.

The idea, after further planning, is transferred to the management team (13). This team consists of community and Parks Board representatives and developers (14). The developers are elected by virtue of their experience and expertise in this sector. The individual representatives will report back to their task groups on developments during this phase.

The developers come into the picture as people who invest in terms of properties in the area. They have to operate within the planned structure of involving the community. They must be committed to involve local labour and material intensively, if at all possible and available. They must be able, through development, to teach locals skills that will make them self-sufficient and sustainable. This does not entail sharing their profits with the local community and the Parks Board, but in generating capital, the developers must demonstrate social responsibility.

As Haywood (1988) argues, the product that is implemented must be community bound. It must stimulate local purchases, benefits, profits and employment. It must

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be environmentally clean and reflect the interests and aspirations of the participating community where it is located. Thus such a product can be implemented with pride. It will provide financial benefits, but must remain a project of pride and involvement for the community. To attain this, all decisions must "grow out of" the community itself.

Once everything has been done, the idea can be implemented (stage 8 of Table 2.4). If, during implementation (15), failures are encountered, they will have to be referred back to the management team for reviewing (stage 9 of Table 2.4).

All benefits accrued will be put into a trust fund controlled by a board of trustees which will be representative of all the stakeholders. The board of trustees' (16) task will be to aid progress by implementing projects which will benefit the community; to see to it that profits are utilised correctly and loans are paid off; and to ensure that the natural environment also benefits.

The board of trustees will do this by continually advising stakeholders, even on future developments that could be undertaken. Such new innovations and ideas will be returned to the structure where they will undergo the same procedures. Once the idea reaches the working group stage, it might be addressed directly to the board of trustees.

The entire structure and procedure will be used in order to manage the project in a continuous pattern.

In conclusion, the model can be applied to a new ecotourism project and any project that involves the community and other stakeholders. Furthermore, the model can be used with more than two stakeholders as the idea will be spread equally among them. In addition, it can be used with the existing projects in order to empower the communities involved.

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5 TRANSFORMING A LOCAL COMMUNITY INTO A HOST COMMUNITY

"It is believed now that wildlife conservation in these areas cannot be sustained without acceptance and support of the rural communities which surround them"

(Cowling & Oliver, 1992:224)

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter portrayed an ideal situation in which local communities were to be empowered and made equal partners in decision-making by participating from the outset of a project. This chapter considers and provides recommendations by means of which local communities could become host communities.

The concept is expanded in two ways. First, local communities are seen as practical consultants throughout the entire project. They should remain a permanent part of the decision-making process. They should, in fact, be empowered to alter or terminate the direction of a project, should it not develop satisfactorily. Second, local communities need to be transformed into host communities and see the tourists as their guests. This means that they should not be seen as outside "on-lookers". They must be involved as small, micro and medium entrepreneurs (SMME's) and not only have menial jobs - but become partners in order to be motivated for the task (Hugo & Bewsher, 1995) of promoting ecotourism.

Ecotourism differs from traditional tourism and can, to a certain degree be regarded as the latter's antithesis, which is capital intensive, has a high profile and a high impact on the environment (Hugo & Bewsher, 1995). However, local communities cannot become hosts in the true sense of the word unless their skills and base

knowledge are appropriate. They need the capacity to develop their own ecotourism establishment at their own level.

The long-term benefits of the communities surrounding the Madikwe Game Park could be guaranteed, given the fact that the Park is still in its development phase. This is possible by reconciling conservation objectives with the needs, problems and aspirations of the communities of Supingstad and Molatedi as outlined in chapter 3.

It is apparent, as Keane (1992) argues, that different communities are at different stages of preparedness to engage in economic initiative. However, it is also apparent that the "... *principle guiding future action must be that the struggle against abuse of the environment and struggle against poverty and social injustice are inextricably linked. The need to conserve natural resources, will grow with empowerment of ordinary people*" (Ramphele, 1991:201). Thus it must be made clear that sustainability in game parks cannot be achieved without the participation of the surrounding communities.

The Londolosi and Makasa communities as well as the Natal Parks Board have begun moving in this direction with success (**Sunday Times**, 1993), and so have the Richtersveld community and the National Parks Board. The overriding motive in such projects should be community improvement rather than profit-making and high returns on investment. Methods to recycle income locally at Madikwe should be sought to expand economic development and its multiplier effects in the region.

5.2 RECOMMENDATIONS

The following recommendations support the ideas of Keane (1992) that the development of ecotourism is a potent vehicle for local development, economic recovery, social progress and conservation of the rural heritage. Any development that affect people and their land must be well planned, organised, marketed and managed in accordance with the characteristics, needs, limitations and potential of the participating community.

5.2.1 MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE

In order to avoid future conflicts between the Park management and the community, and to assist in the acceptance of the Park and its policies by the community, there is a need for a management forum. This forum will empower the community by restructuring the entire management and making it possible for the local community to be represented at all tiers of the North-West Parks Board as proposed in section 4.6. This will make the Parks Board a dedicated partner in power sharing with local communities.

5.2.2 TRUST FUND

As is the case with many game reserves (for example Pilanesberg), Madikwe is still subjected to a traditional approach of conserving biodiversity through protected area management, rather than through sustainable utilisation aimed at providing as many benefits as possible from the game reserve to the surrounding communities. There is therefore a need for a trust fund to be established and maintained by a board of trustees elected by the community and the Parks Board, to control the benefits accrued from the Park. The trustees must ensure that benefits from the Park are directed to the local communities and that these funds are well utilised. On the other hand, needs and problems of local communities should be presented to the trustees and, wherever possible, those needs should be addressed. Care should be taken to ensure that one community is not favoured at the expense of others.

Projects should be screened to ensure financial feasibility; to ensure that they will empower local communities; and to ensure that the local people are equipped to run and manage the projects. In the end, the project should have the support of the community. The trust fund should not be used for development of an individual entrepreneur within the community, but only for community projects. Individual entrepreneurs could be advised as to where they should direct their applications.

The following activities should be catered for by the trust fund:

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* the repayment of outstanding debts for development of the Park;

* the maintenance of the assets of the Park;

* the funding of community projects; and

* the conservation of the Park's natural resources.

5.2.3 ENTRANCE FEES

As indicated earlier (Boo, 1990), dual entrance fees are recommended for the Madikwe Game Park to enable local communities to share in the pleasure of the Park at a minimal cost. On the other hand, higher prices for other visitors should be maintained. This must be done with care to avoid crowds' reaching levels that threaten the "nature experience" sought by many who travel to Madikwe. Rather, the Park must be zoned as indicated in section 3.1 to suit different interest groups.

5.2.4 STOPPING LEAKAGES OF PROFITS

Boo (1990:13) argues that the "*large-scale international tourism development has been found to be far less economically beneficial than generally has been claimed, although good statistics are lacking*". This may be the case with NGO's that are based in urban areas. In the case of Madikwe, NGO's are the main beneficiaries of ecotourism which leads to a movement of funds to large cities. It is therefore necessary to develop local entrepreneurs to help minimise the loss of profits to urban areas.

The Wonderboom Guest House is a project which could be given to local entrepreneurs to develop and operate. There is a notion that experience is a prerequisite for embarking on such a venture. However, local communities who have been disadvantaged, have no means of gaining experience if they are marginalised. Their involvement and participation in the Park will have a multiplier effect in the local economy. Preference should thus be given to local entrepreneurs in businesses such as laundries, safari drives and the maintenance of fences.

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5.2.5 HUNTING LICENCES

The issuing of hunting licences should be the responsibility of the community through its tribal office, in consultation with the Parks Board. This will enable the Parks Board to monitor wildlife on community lands and prevent local communities from over hunting their stock. Also, the prices of wildlife inside and outside parks should be the same.

5.2.6 THE CDO

The present CDO structure, as explained in 3.7.1, needs to be revised, so that it changes from a receiver of gifts to an equal partner. As indicated in the model, the structure should be representative and have a major role in decision-making with regard to Park.

5.2.7 THE CULTURAL VILLAGE

It is recommended that the development of a cultural village should be one of the initial community projects. It must be close to the main entrance of the Park to enable visitors on game drives to reach it with ease.

A cultural village should be constructed using local building materials so that it becomes a living museum of the Tswana culture. Curios and crafts could be made and sold there. Traditional Tswana cuisine should be sold at the village as part of the package to park visitors, while traditional music and environmental dramas (the presentation of various stories about environment and conservation) could form part of the entertainment provided. Furthermore, the village could co-ordinate with different lodges to provide entertainment using people from the local villages.

5.2.8 ENVIRONMENTAL EDUCATION SCHOOL

The closure of the mission school inside the Park has left some buildings vacant. These facilities should be used for an environmental education school. Such a school will provide environmental education within a protected environment and

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could be an ideal place for training future park wardens and providing ecologists with first-hand, practical knowledge and experience of the Park.

Many NGOs and conservation bodies will support such a venture. However, the upgrading of boarding facilities and classrooms is required. The local community could be involved in this respect.

5.2.9 VEGETABLE GARDEN

Game lodges in the Madikwe Game Park do not buy their vegetable and fruit from the experimental farm or Molatedi village plot. Marketing of produce is still a problem. The Park management needs to liaise with the lodges to utilise the efforts of the community of Molatedi. Suggestions to plot owners on the types of vegetables to be grown for their supply and at what rate are required.

5.2.10   RECREATION FACILITIES IN THE DAM AREA

The lack of recreational facilities in many rural communities in the area make Molatedi Dam an ideal recreational area. As indicated in 3.7.4, the area attracts many people over long weekends and the festive seasons. The CDO has managed to raise funds in the area, but has done nothing in return. There is a need for a symbiotic relationship from which the community and the natural environment stand to benefit equally. The following recommendations are made:

*   the provision of additional toilets ("Enviro loo" - the non-flush, dry sanitation system). Once these toilets are full, the night soil can be converted into nutrients which could be sold to the experimental farm and the vegetable plots;

*   the lawn and the entire picnic area need to be maintained and kept attractive in order to attract people on a continuous basis;

*   damaged facilities have to be repaired by the CDO;

*   wood and charcoal must be provided at a reasonable price to avoid people using wooden furniture and equipment for firewood;

*   organised game drives should be operated from this area for the local communities in conjunction with the Park management. This is the long-term plan for initiating local people to the Safari business; and

*   for future development, accommodation facilities should be planned.

The dam area, if well maintained and utilised, could generate revenue for the Molatedi community.

5.2.11   PROVISION OF WOOD

Wood as a source of fuel is a major concern to the communities in the vicinity of Madikwe Park. The provision of wood should be one of the benefits to the community, but at a reasonable price.

Furthermore, a charcoal manufacturing operation can to be undertaken in partnership with the surrounding communities. Wood from alien plants can be obtained during bush clearing operations. The charcoal can then be sold to lodges, to local individuals and in nearby towns.

5.2.13   FISHING IN MOLATEDI DAM

Community members are not aware that they could supplement their diet with fish from the dam. An annual licence fee of R20,00 could be paid or they could fish for commercial purposes. At present, the main beneficiary of fishing in the dam is the owner of Lotteringskop farm.

5.3 CONCLUSION

There is a need to integrate ecotourism planning with the development of a

country. Ecotourism involves many government departments, such as Environmental Affairs and Tourism, Education, and Water Affairs and Forestry which highlights the need for co-ordination among these departments.

For sustainable ecotourism development to be achieved, there must be an increase in local community participation. Refusing or delaying community participation, not only entails denying involvement, but also the direct benefits associated with such action. Besides the moral obligation to involve people in projects that affect their lifestyle, it is important for them to participate in a way that respects their traditions or lifestyle.

There is a need for a dialogic relationship (a relationship of listening unbiasedly to other parties' opinion and interpretation and also subject your own opinion to the same processes) (Fourie, 1994). This is possible only when the parties involved participate on the same level and terms and as equal partners.

Local participation must be extended "*... beyond economic survival, environmental conservation and socio-cultural integrity, to allow appreciation by the community of their own natural resources*" (Cater, 1994:85). The dual entrance fee recommended above (5.2.3) will facilitate such a move.

Gunn (1988) argued that decision-making on tourism planning and development is most important at the local level. However, the communities around Madikwe Game Park are not participating in decision-making. Involving these communities will help to achieve improved social and environmental conditions.

Furthermore, in order to discourage negative attitudes among the local communities, it is important for ecotourism planning to consider community priorities and goals (Gorio, 1978; Paul, 1987; Gunn, 1988; Jamal & Getz, 1995). These communities will then endorse tourist attractions because they are assured that the integrity of their traditions and lifestyle are respected.

The World Parks Congress promoted the policy of providing support for the

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community surrounding parks after they realized how little benefit these communities are currently deriving from Parks. The Park management should work towards empowering, sharing their expertise and educating their neighbours. These neighbours are in a position to manage and control their resources in a sustainable manner. This will enable them to be social actors instead of passive subjects. The result is that they will enhance themselves economically and in terms of other values they cherish.

The provision of information and its dissemination among the local community is important, for without it, no meaningful participation will take place.

It is important that the Parks Board should adopt a new way of thinking and an open approach to rural communities. This entails changing "... *conservation paradigm, to reshape structures so that they may lie comfortably in the lap of Africa. It needs a redefinition of rural communities as partners in conservation, and not as a problem for conservation*" (Fourie, 1994:135).

The former white farmers who were removed from their land when it was ceded to the former Bophuthatswana government, feel badly treated and demand further compensation (**Sunday Times**, 1995). The antagonism that people have developed because of the apartheid policy will only be resolved by empowering and involving these communities in decision-making on ecotourism at Madikwe Game Park.

The model proposed in 4.6.3 outlines how these communities could be empowered and become active beneficiaries. The negative attitude of rural communities towards the Park will then disappear, giving way to a defensive and supportive attitude to conservation.

The Parks Board has outstanding principles with regard to communities near its parks. If these principle could be developed, and if the Parks Board were to adopt an open approach to rural communities, the communities of Molatedi and Supingstad will develop a congruent understanding of the Park and all concerned with wildlife in the area. On the other hand, the commercial structure of the Parks

Board, which is urban based and biased, needs to be reconsidered and revised for the benefit of the local communities.

Local rural participation in ecotourism is a prerogative for meaningful conservation which will benefit both nature and people. Furthermore, it will guarantee the safety and continued existence of our wildlife and the development and empowerment of marginalised communities as equal partners in conservation, and as an integral part of the environment. Without local community participation, the ecotourism practices in Madikwe Game Park will be of no use to the disadvantaged rural communities in its environs where it is much needed. In the end the historical antagonism of black rural communities towards conservation will not be overcome.

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APPENDIX 1: SCHEDULE OF QUESTIONS

The following questions led the discussion and interviews. They varied from group to group and individual to individual.

1. Hunting on tribal land

1.1   Who determines the quota of wildlife to be hunted per season?

1.2   How does that person determines the quota?

1.3   How much does the community receive from each wild animal hunted in their area?

2. Community involvement

2.1   Was the community involved in the initial planning of the game reserve?

2.2   How were they involved?

2.3   Why should the tribe be involved?

2.4   How are they presently involved?

2.5   Where there is community participation, who are their representative and how were they elected?

2.6   What benefits have the community reaped from the Park since its proclamation?

2.7   What problems were/re encountered in involving the community?

2.8   What are the problems and needs of the community?

3. Employment

3.1   How many people from the local community are employed in Madikwe Game Park and lodges?

3.2   Why were they employed instead of other people?

3.3   What procedure was followed in employing them?

4. **General**

4.1 What are the problems and needs of the community?

4.2 Who will benefit from ecotourism attracted to Madikwe Game Park?

4.3 How can an opportunity be provided for local community participation in the economic benefits of ecotourism, rather than being mere wage earners?

4.4 Is the local community aware of the aims and objective of Madikwe Game Park and how it can contribute to economic development of local villages?

4.5 Are there any community outreach programmes based on local community education about ecotourism, its economic potential and how it can contribute to sustainable growth?

4.6 Can the local community become an equal partner?

4.7 Why was Madikwe Game Park proclaimed?

It is important to realise that these leading questions served only as the basis for often elaborate and in-depth discussions which helped to reveal the root of the problem and possible solutions.

APPENDIX 2:   LIST OF INTERVIEWS

The following is a list of individual interviews, meetings and open-ended group interviews which were conducted with the Parks Board, the developers and the communities of Molatedi and Supingstad during a period between February and November 1995.

The duration of the interviews varied considerably from one individual to the next and from one group to the next.

Most of the employees of lodges and Parks Board staff who were interviewed, chose to remain anonymous.

1.   Parks Board

Interviews were held with individuals from the North-West Parks Board who are directly involved with the Madikwe Game Park . They are stationed at head office (Mmabatho), the regional office (Tlhabane) and at the Park itself. The liaison officer of the Park played a major role in this respect. Interviews were conducted with the following people:

*   Carl Trieloff, Parks Board Project Manager, Mmabatho
*   Rich Davies, Regional Manager and Project Coordinator, Tlhabane Regional Office
*   Mathebula Norman, Madikwe Game Park Manager
*   Bernard Marobe, Madikwe Game Park Community Liaison Officer
*   P.G. Nobela, Park Warden
*   T.K. Montshosi, Park Warden
*   Dr. Y. Dladla and Cathy K. Senatle, National Parks Board
*   J. Mokowe, Senior Game Scout
*   eight game scouts who also serve as guards at the main entrance and who wished to remain anonymous.

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2. Developers

Interviews were held with the following managers, managing directors, foremen and employees of companies that has lodges in the Park, and also with construction companies who were building lodges:

* Michel Girardin, General Manager Southern Sun Lodges
* Mal Oti, Manager: Tau Lodge
* Marieta White, Crafford & Crafford Architects
* Mark Caonwe and H van Stranden, Mopono Holdings
* Ms R. van Zyl and Jan van Veteren of Madikwe River Lodge
* Gerrie of Wonderboom Guest House
* Mr Selegi, Foreman: Group Five Construction Company
* Mr I. Sekati, Foreman Wonderboom Guest House
* seven employees at Madikwe River Lodge and Tau Lodge, who wished to remain anonymous.

3. Community

Interviews were held with the chief of each of the two villages, tribal councils, the community development organisation (CDO), RDP Forums, political and social groups, and individual members of the community.

TABLE 1:   SCHEDULE OF INTERVIEWS

Group	Individuals	Number. of telephone calls	Open-ended group discussions	Meetings attended
Park	30	25	10	0
Developers	18	15	3	0
Chiefs	8	1	5	0
Tribal council	15	0	6	6
CDO	20	0	12	8
Political & social groups	12	0	15	5
Individuals	185	0	22	0

LIST OF COMMUNITY MEMBERS INTERVIEWED

3.1 Members of professional groups

S. Matabane	-	teacher
J. Thipe	-	teacher
E. Boikanyo	-	teacher
R.K. Matlapeng	-	teacher
E. Segoe	-	teacher
M.R. Letsholo	-	teacher
R.K. Ditlhong	-	teacher
E. Motsepe	-	teacher
P. Malatlhela	-	teacher
I. Mogobye	-	teacher
O. Titimale	-	teacher
M. Motang	-	teacher
S.P. Moholo	-	teacher
S.Z. Suping	-	teacher
M. Sefanyetso	-	tribal clerk
N.R. Mapogo	-	post office clerk
O. Ramokgadi	-	manager: experimental farm
M. Motlhabane	-	general manager: experimental farm
D. Mosiane	-	extension officer
N.R. Letshwiti	-	teacher
R.B. Dinake	-	teacher
V.S. Ratsikane	-	teacher
F. Bogatsu	-	teacher
F. Maletswe	-	manager: Molatedi Dam
D. Khutsoane	-	nurse
M. Bogatsu	-	nurse
O. Motang	-	nurse
S. Monageng	-	nurse
K. Mpele	-	nurse
R. Manyane	-	nurse

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J.M. Letlole	-	nurse
S. Mokopakgosi	-	nurse
M. Letlole	-	nurse

3.2   Tribal councils

Chief L.K.J. Matlapeng	-	Molatedi
M. Mpele	-	councillor
P.J. Matlapeng	-	councillor
S. Matlapeng	-	councillor
R.J. Radikeledi	-	councillor
B. Matlapeng	-	councillor
S.E. Matlapeng	-	councillor
P.R. Matlapeng	-	councillor
S. Bogatsu	-	councillor
J.K. Bogatsu	-	councillor
T.B. Masimong	-	councillor
S. Mogatusi	-	councillor
B.K. Letswiti	-	councillor
Chief V.S. Suping	-	Supingstad
M. Suping	-	councillor
J.M. Tlhowe	-	councillor
M. Rantao	-	councillor
P. Menoe	-	councillor
B. Tlhowe	-	councillor

3.3 Community members

Barry York
F. Bogatsu
M. Tshepe
P.P. Matlapeng
T. Mpele
C. Maletswe

O. Tlhowe

F. Bogatsu

W. Bogatsu

F.M. Khutsoane

P. Maleho

Jacqueline Modibedi

Anna Montshosi

Lilian More

Hellen Tladi

Suzan Matlapeng

Tshepiso Mogatusi

Johanna Bogatsi

Aubrey Teme

Grace Ramontso

R.F. Cholo

Q. Modungwa

G.M. Suping

Frank Maswe

Daniel Seeme

Regina Matlapeng

Kleinboy Rantao

Peter Motlhabane

Jacob Marobe

Kagiso Moholo

Philippine Kobo

Yvonne Taukobong

Patricia Sephai

A.K. Suping

M.M. Sefara

B. Tsebe

J.K. Modikwane

M.E. Mofokeng

P.G. Matlhoko

T.E. Thupane

S. Kanye

B. Keitumetse

M. Mangope

C.M. Letlole

M. Malape

P. Modisakeng

G. Mereyotlhe

O. Modibola

A.E. Seemise

J. Mogatusi

P.P. Baanelwa

F. Mogorosi

O.M. Rantao

P. Lefifi

M.M. Moholo

J. Taukobong

S. Senosi

T. Mosemegi

N. Moseki

F. Nontshosi

J. Sedumedi

A.M. Segoe

P.P. Matlapeng

D. Bogatsu

T.J. Mokwena

O. Masimong

T. Moraka

S. Morwesi

M.N. Ditlhong

C.M. Maphupe

M. Motsepe

T.R. Kgoleng

D. Sekgobela

M.J. Motaung

S.F. Ratsikane

A. Morapedi

V. Bafiti

D.G. Mongwaketsi

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O.N. Modimosana

S.P. Motaung

O.B. Makete

M. Sebolao

S.S. Naane

B.C. Kenosi

S. Lefifi

F.G. Letselebe

N.M. Kelebone

P. Teme

R.M. Letswiti

B. Dinake

L. Bafshoe

3.4 Organisations\Forums

RDP Forum-Molatedi

RDP forum-Supingstad

African National Congress Branch

United Christian Democratic Party Branch

Tribal councils

Nursing groups

Teachers' Union (Sadtu)

Teachers' Union (Nowetu)

Bosele Farmers' Union

Pensioners at paypoints

Teachers' Group (living in the area)

Teachers Group (only working in the area)

Church groups

Youth groups

APPENDIX 3: PRICE LIST FOR REGIONAL HUNTING IN NORTH-WEST PROVINCE (1995)

SPECIES	PRICE (Rands)	PRICE (Rands)
	MALE	FEMALE
KUDU	1 200.00	800.00
HARTEBEEST	900.00	900.00
MOUNTAIN REEDBUCK	180.00	180.00
WARTHOG & BUSHPIG	140.00	140.00
DUIKER	80.00	80.00
STEENBOK	80.00	80.00
IMPALA	250.00	250.00
SPRINGBOK	140.00	140.00
OSTRICH	800.00	800.00
COMMON REEDBUCK	460.00	460.00
BLESBOK	250.00	250.00
CARACAL	60.00	60.00
KLIPSPRINGER	400.00	400.00
LEOPARD	3 000.00	3 000.00
VERVET MONKEY	10.00	10.00
BABOON	40.00	40.00
SPRINGHARE	10.00	10.00
CAPE SCRUB HARE	20.00	20.00
DASSIE	20.00	20.00
CATTLE	3 000.00	3 000.00
SHEEP	400.00	400.00
BUSHBUCK	250.00	250.00

Source: North West Park Board