CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 PROTECTED AREAS UNDER SIEGE

The objective of this chapter is to construct the background to the research problem, present the problem statement and suggest research objectives to be addressed in the investigation process. It also defines the global context in which protected areas are managed and specifically reflect on the type of problems born from a lack of an integrated tourism management plan in protected areas.

The theme of this study is the formulation of an integrated tourism management framework that will bring together the conservation and tourism objectives of the Kruger National Park (KNP) and achieve management effectiveness. Protected areas[2] worldwide are under enormous pressure because they lack integrated management plans that can be used to determine management effectiveness. Management effectiveness refers to the ability of a protected area to deliver environmental, social and economic benefits to a range of stakeholders (Hockings & Phillips, 2003). There is increasing concern that protected areas are not well managed (Dudley *et al.*, 2003) and governments, management agencies and international aid and conservation organizations have begun to devote attention to the question of how to assess management effectiveness of protected areas (Hockings & Phillips, 2003).

A single methodology for assessing management effectiveness is neither desirable nor possible and protected areas should consider developing management plans that will become a “tool box” of approaches from which appropriate methods can be selected to suit individual needs. The need for management plans that can manage, balance and harmonize conservation, tourism and financial resources and bring communities on board to participate in conservation and tourism activities, cannot be overemphasized (Hodgkins, 2001). Unfortunately, existing management plans tend to focus exclusively on conservation of biodiversity in relative exclusion of other collaborating elements like tourism, financial resources, human resource planning, corporate governance and general management that

[2] Protected area: an area of land and/or sea especially dedicated to the protection and maintenance of biological diversity, and of associated cultural and natural resources, and managed through legal or other effective means (IUCN, 1994).

constitute protected area management. Protected area managers and conservation agencies are not sufficiently qualified or experienced to manage tourism in a professional manner (Strasdas, 2002).

There is wide agreement that much more needs to be done to improve the effectiveness of protected area management (Hockings & Hobson, 2000). It is imperative that when tourism is an integral part of management activities, management frameworks and strategies are put in place to ensure that it supports and maintains the natural and associated socio-cultural values of protected areas (Eagles *et al.*, 2002). Maintaining this delicate balance is a challenge involving difficult judgements on the trade-offs that occur between tourism development and the objectives of natural resource protection for which protected areas are established, and the provision of benefits to the public (Mabunda & Fearnhead, 2003).

Within the broad category of protected areas are national parks, wilderness areas, nature reserves, marine parks and cultural landscapes or sites that are managed for different purposes (IUCN, 1994). A comprehensive classification of protected areas is attached as Annexure 1. Protected areas constitute a critical part of every nation's strategy for dealing with the conservation and sustainable use of biodiversity and landscapes. Although they vary considerably in their objectives and the effectiveness with which they are managed (see Table 1.1), they provide powerful evidence of a nation's commitment to conservation and sustainable development (Harrison, 2002).

TABLE 1.1: Categorization of protected areas

CATEGORIES	SUMMARIZED DESCRIPTION
Ia	**Strict Nature Reserve/Wilderness Protection Area:** Protected area managed mainly for science
Ib	**Wilderness Area:** Protected area managed mainly for wilderness protection
II	**National Park[3]:** Protected area managed mainly for ecosystem protection and recreation
III	**Natural Monument:** Protected area managed mainly for conservation of specific natural features
IV	**Habitat/Species Management Area:** Protected area managed mainly for conservation through management intervention
V	**Protected Landscape/Seascape:** Protected area managed mainly for landscape/seascape conservation and recreation
VI	**Managed Resource Protected Area:** Protected area managed mainly for the sustainable use of natural ecosystems

Adapted from IUCN, 1994

[3] Emphasised to highlight the theme of this research study.

The IUCN protected area classification system is based on the individual protected area's primary objective of management.

TABLE 1.2: Management objectives and IUCN protected area management objectives

Management Objective	Ia Strict Nature Reserve	Ib Wilderness Area	II National Park	III Natural Monu-ment	IV Habitat/ Species Man. Area	V Protected Landscape/ Seascape	VI Man. Resource Protected Area
Scientific research	1	3	2	2	2	2	3
Wilderness protection	2	1	2	3	3	-	2
Preservation of species and genetic diversity	1	2	1	1	1	2	1
Maintenance of environmental services	2	1	1	-	1	2	1
Protection of specific cultural/natural features	-	-	2	1	3	1	3
Tourism and recreation[4]	**-**	**2**	**1**	**1**	**3**	**1**	**3**
Education	-	-	2	2	2	2	3
Sustainable use of resources from natural ecosystems	-	3	3	-	2	2	1
Maintenance of cultural/traditional attributes	-	-	-	-	-	1	2
Key: 1 = primary objective; 2 = secondary objective; 3 = potentially applicable objective							

Adapted from IUCN, 1994.

Table 1.2 shows how an analysis of management objectives can be used to identify the most appropriate category. In terms of this classification some kind of recreation and tourism is likely to occur as a management objective in every category of protected areas except Category Ia (the strict nature reserve). It shows that biodiversity protection in protected areas, though a critically important function, is far from being the only purpose and is often not the exclusive purpose of a protected area. It is a fundamental requirement of the IUCN that any protected area should always have a special policy to protect and maintain biodiversity (IUCN, 1994). Such a policy is often expressed in a country's legislation governing conservation systems and an individual park's management plan, and should include all other elements that constitute the management of a protected area such as tourism management, financial

[4] Emphasised to highlight the theme of this research study.

management, corporate governance, human resources, training and development and other relevant management activities.

In terms of the IUCN categorization of protected areas, Category II areas can use their resources for non-extractive recreation through tourism. According to this designation, a national park is land set aside to promote outstanding natural and scenic areas … "*for scientific, educational and recreational use"* (McNeely *et al.*, 1994:10). National Park areas are not to be materially altered by human activity and extractive resource usage. In other types of protected areas the balance shifts towards sustainable use such as the many Category V national parks found in Europe (Vaughan, 2000). It is in the area of the provision of recreational benefits by national parks that a hiatus exists between conservationists and tourism practitioners (Phillips, 2003a).

1.2 TOURISM MANAGEMENT IN PROTECTED AREAS

The Convention on Biological Diversity (CBD) of 1992 is the framework for national and international actions to build bridges between the needs of nature and mankind. Its objectives include the conservation of ecosystems and species as well as the sustainable use of these resources and the fair sharing of their benefits (Van der Zande, 2003). The challenge that protected areas face is how to conserve biodiversity while at the same time meeting legitimate demand for the socio-economic development of an ever-increasing world population.

Tourism in protected areas focuses on showcasing the best examples of a country's biological and cultural assets. It is no coincidence then, that one of the most urgent points of intersection between tourism and conservation occurs within protected areas, sites chosen because they are a nation's biological and cultural jewels (Boo, 1993). When tourism is a critical component of park management, it is important for a park to have staff members who are experts in the field to ensure that tourist experience is of the highest quality (Eagles *et al.*, 2002).

While protected areas may obviously benefit tourism, tourism can benefit protected areas through exposure of the public to the natural world, creating opportunities for improved environmental education and awareness, generating revenue for maintenance and management of protected areas, job creation in the region and the promotion of economic development of the local communities. Achieving these desirable outcomes is a challenge faced by protected areas today (Boo, 1993).

Tourism will always produce negative environmental impacts despite the best efforts of protected area managers to curb such consequences (Cole *et al.,* 1987; McNeely & Thorsell, 1989; Buckly & Pannell, 1990). Impacts occur at the site or system level. Because tourism in protected areas is drawn to environments that are inherently sensitive, it is vital that the impacts be assessed as accurately as possible to establish if they are acceptable to all role-players. It helps to balance the scales when assessing such impacts by considering what environmental impacts would have occurred if the park and its tourism industry were to be replaced with alternative land use such as agriculture, forestry, mining or urbanization (Dowling, 1993). Table 1.3 lists the negative impacts of human use on the environment. Managing tourism impacts in protected areas is proving to be difficult to accomplish without determining the necessary tourism thresholds of concern as a result of the historical neglect of tourism research by protected area managers (IUCN, 2001).

TABLE 1.3: Negative impacts of human use on the environment

Trail creation (and deterioration)	Habitat loss
Camp–sites (and deterioration)	Emissions and air pollution
Litter	Firewood collection
Overcrowding	Visual and noise impacts
Tracks and recreation vehicles	Overfishing, undersized fishing
Warehousing and packaging	Impacts on vegetation
Human waste problems	Damage to sand dunes/reefs
Wildlife disturbances, habitation or impact	Soil compaction or erosion
User conflicts	Increased fire risk
Water pollution (physical or biological)	Damage to archaeological sites
Over-development	Trampling (human or horse)
Weeds, fungi and exotic species	Changed water courses
Cultural vandalism	Taking souvenirs (fauna and flora)
Boats damaging dams or river banks	

Sources: Cole *et al.*, 1987; McNeely & Thorsell, 1989; Buckley & Pannell, 1990

Environmental and human use activities are undermining the capacity of ecosystems to assimilate impacts. Ecological functions and habitats are being destroyed at an unprecedented rate and the current level of species loss is greater than at any time in history. Poverty eradication, fuel, food security, provisioning of fresh water, soil conservation, human health, tourism and recreation**,** all depend directly upon maintaining and using the world's natural resources (Van der Zande, 2003).

Table 1.4 details examples of environmental risks associated with tourism activities[5]. It was because of such risks that the concept of ecotourism came into existence.

TABLE 1.4: Environmental risks from tourism

Elements	Examples of risk from tourism activities
Ecosystems	• The construction of accommodation, tourist centres, infrastructure and other services has a direct impact on the environment because of vegetation removal, animal disturbance, elimination of habitats, impacts on drainage and others • Disruption of wildlife grazing routes by tourist travel
Soils	• Soil compaction occurs in well-used areas • Soil removal and erosion occur and may continue after disturbance is gone
Vegetation	• Concentrated use around facilities has a negative effect on vegetation • Transport may have direct negative impacts on the environment (e.g. vegetation removal, weed transmission, animal disturbance and others) • Fire frequency may change due to tourist and park tourism management
Water	• Increased demands for fresh water • Disposal of sewage or litter in rivers, lakes or oceans • Release of oil and fuel from ships and smaller craft • Propeller-driven watercraft may affect certain aquatic plants and species
Air	• Motorized transportation may cause pollution from emissions
Wildlife	• Hunting and fishing may change population dynamics • Impacts occur on insects and small invertebrates, from effects of transportation, introduction of alien species and others • Disturbance by tourists can be experienced by all species including those that are not attracting tourists • Disturbance can be of several kinds; noise, visual or harassing behaviour • Impacts can last beyond the time of initial contact (e.g. before heart-rate returns normal, or before birds alight, or mammals resume breeding or eating) • Animals might be killed on the roads by cars or by boat impacts or propellers on water surfaces or the sea. • Habituation to humans can cause changed wildlife behaviour such as approaching people for food

Adapted from IUCN, 1994

The rise of ecotourism[6] and sustainable tourism was a direct response to the need to manage impacts of human activities on the environment. Sustainable tourism strategies are designed to manage park tourism to maximize positive benefits and minimize environmental impacts before they occur. This is best achieved through carefully designed management plans (Buckley & Pannell, 1990). A key issue is to be sensitive to cumulative impacts, practice adaptive management (viewing management actions as experiments) and to achieve consensus among stakeholders about how much impact is acceptable and where in the protected area (Cole *et al.*, 1987).

[5] Scales or indexes of extent of degradation or impact cannot be generalized and would have to be measured at each protected area level.

[6] This study is not about ecotourism; however, it argues for the integration of ecotourism principles in achieving sustainable tourism practice in protected areas to promote management effectiveness.

Tourism stands to lose more if protected areas were to be environmentally degraded and this is likely if it continues to be performed on an *ad hoc*-basis. Protected areas in their traditional definition are “islands” to their communities (Matawonyika, 1989) and the non-involvement of local people in such activities is becoming controversial and threatening their survival in many developing countries (Strasdas, 2002). However, the issue of community involvement should be approached very carefully with sound management strategies to avoid a situation where communities interfere in the professional daily management of the park or the prospects of benefits fuel suspicions and conflict between and within communities (Jaireth & Smyth, 2003). It is good business practice to involve communities in a social investment context without raising unrealistic expectations of entitlement. Tourism in protected areas has evolved in a reactive manner within a weak conceptual and policy framework to embrace social responsibilities and environmental integrity (Carruthers, 1995; Van Sickle & Eagles, 1998).

1.3 LACK OF PRODUCT QUALITY

Another problem associated with the lack of integrated tourism management plans in protected areas is that their tourism businesses lack emphasis on product quality. In the past two decades the tourism industry has experienced a dramatic rise in consumer awareness of the concept of product quality (Eagles, 1995a). The private sector in particular has learnt that consumers demand high quality products and that such products are an important component of market advantage (Eagles & Wind, 1994). Unfortunately, the public sector and organs of state (parastatals) have seriously lagged behind in this area. Most park managers give very little, if any, attention to tourist use quality, the prevailing attitude being that consumers take or leave what is provided. This unfortunate attitude to product quality is faltering as sophisticated tourists with high personal values and tastes frequently pursue those destinations providing higher levels of product quality (Eagles & Wind, 1994; Eagles, 1995a). Poor quality of products can cost a protected area its market share.

1.4 REVENUE GENERATING PROBLEMS

Many protected areas suffer from chronic financial problems that inhibit them from carrying out their conservation mandate adequately due to lack of integrated management plans that compel them to manage parks on business principles without forsaking their environmental management obligation (James, 1999). Protected areas did not see the need that all revenue-earning activities had to generate surplus based on real costs of building, maintaining and operating the facilities (Hughes, 2003). The result has been an over-dependency on state

subsidies without much attention being paid to creating alternative options of revenue generation. It is believed that many conservation agencies of the world are cash-strapped or survive on a shoestring budget (Van Sickle & Eagles, 1998; Eagles *et al.*, 2001).

In the 1980s it appeared that virtually every state in Africa was slashing conservation budgets and thus the funding problem became a risk that had to be considered in future planning processes (Hughes, 2003). The IUCN has noted with concern the continuing under-funding of conservation agencies by governments to such an extent that there are insufficient funds to carry out conservation programmes (James, 1999; Eagles *et al.*, 2002). Reynolds (1995) points out that the National Park Service (NPS) of the United States, the largest government park tourism provider in the world, faced large budget cuts in 1996. Figgis (1993) and Wescott (1995) reported that the Australian park agencies were severely starved for funding. In Queensland, for example, the National Parks Agency complained that the recent expansion in the number of national parks was not matched by an increase in funds for management (Dickie, 1995).

The results of this under-funding are manifesting themselves in infrastructure being in a state of poor repair, some facilities closed during peak holiday periods due to safety risks, inefficient information systems, low levels of tourist services and "paper parks"[7]. Park budgets have not kept pace with tourist use increases (Eagles, 1997). Until the funding noose started tightening, conservation agencies worldwide did not see the need to engage in business/commercial practices such as profit making and marketing. The state provided them with the financial allocations they required to run their operations.

Because of the history of dependence on government funding it is least surprising that commercial and marketing professionals and other non-conservation but relevant practitioners were not previously employed by conservation agencies (Van Sickle & Eagles, 1998). Many existing park tourism systems have been developed from conservation, geography and town-planning frameworks and not from a tourism or commercial business perspective, hence their rigidity in embracing commercial business principles in managing tourism.

According to Lindberg & Enriquez (1994), protected areas have many options to generate revenue besides their traditional funding source, state subsidies, tourist user fees and donor funding. They can raise funds by:

[7] Paper parks are parks that exist on paper only due to resource constraints and the inability of governments to mobilize sufficient resources to manage such protected areas effectively.

- selling tailor-made specialized park merchandise such as clothing, equipment and publications;
- encouraging major crafting industries around parks where the park agency can facilitate contact between craftsmen and tourists involving communities living within or around the areas, bringing jobs and income to the communities involved;
- selling "intellectual property" associated with their names and images as part of their brand marketing strategies;
- adopting public-private sector partnerships in commercialization programmes where certain non-core businesses are awarded to the private sector with a strong community empowerment component and charge concession fees; and
- collaborating with governments to introduce corporate tax incentives for investment in protected areas.

The problem of finances in protected areas is both complex and sophisticated. Clearly protected area agencies require staff members that are specially trained in financial management, accounting, marketing, fundraising and tourism management to achieve the desired financial objectives. The future of protected areas depends on competent financial management and sound marketing in collaboration with biodiversity management functions (IUCN, 2000).

1.5 LOSS OF BIODIVERSITY DUE TO TOURISM DEVELOPMENT

There exist a group of environmentalists or "green" fanatics that blame tourism for the loss of biodiversity. Biodiversity refers to *"variability among living organisms from all sources, including terrestrial, marine and other aquatic ecosystems and the ecological complexes of which they are part"* (UNEP, 2002:122). This definition includes diversity within species (genetic diversity), between species and of ecosystems. Biodiversity is a term from ecology rather than from tourism. Biodiversity also provides genetic resources for food and agriculture and therefore constitutes the biological basis for world food security and support for human livelihoods (UNEP, 2002). Protected areas are home to most of the world's biological diversity and the perception that tourism threatens the future survival of the system of protected areas (refer to Tables 1.3 and 1.4 in paragraph 1.2) has resulted in ongoing conflicts between conservationists and tourism practitioners (Bishop *et al.*, 1995).

Some components of biodiversity are significant tourist attractions (Buckley, 1994). For mainstream tourism the best-known biological attractions are large charismatic mammal species such as the Big Five in Africa, bears in Alaska, or whales in the world's coastal areas.

In many parts of the world tourists travel to see forests, wildflowers, birds, fish, coral and many other species of biological life forms (UNEP, 2002).

In reefs and rainforests, for example, it is the diversity of species rather than any single species that attracts tourists (Boo, 1993). Tour guides worldwide, as part of their marketing strategy, emphasize the range of smaller species in selling the total experience in addition to tigers, wolves, polar bears, gorillas or the big mammals of Africa. Even diversity at the genetic level can contribute to tourism as an attraction. Biodiversity therefore provides a primary attraction and critical underpinning for a distinct sub-sector of the tourism industry, namely ecotourism[8] (Buckley, 1994).

Protected areas were created to reduce the loss of biodiversity. However, it is becoming increasingly evident that parks alone cannot adequately solve the problem of misuse of land and habitat destruction. The "green movement" fears that uncontrollable tourism development is a potential threat to conservation of the ever-diminishing biological diversity (Buckley, 1994). Although hailed as a saviour of biodiversity over the years, the system of protected areas has drawn huge criticism from stakeholders who have expressed concerns against the protected area concept as it currently stands (UNEP, 2002). The concerns include, *inter alia:*

- the tendency to treat protected areas as "islands" set apart from the surrounding areas;
- the tendency to see protected areas as an alternative to, rather than one element of a national strategy for the protection of biodiversity;
- failure to integrate the requirements of protected areas into policies of sectors (e.g. agriculture, tourism, transport) which affect them;
- inadequate recognition of the needs and interests of local people upon whose support the long-term survival of protected areas depend; and
- limited public and institutional support for protected areas (Bishop *et al.,* 1995; UNEP, 2002; Phillips, 2003a).

Although all hopes are pinned on tourism to generate sufficient revenue to save struggling protected areas, without integrated management plans tourism might never be a panacea for protected area funding problems because of its dependence on unpredictable variables. For example, if a country experiences political instability, tourism will decline. It can never replace

[8] Ecotourism is defined by the Ecotourism Society as "responsible travel to natural areas which conserves the environment and improves the wellbeing of the local people" (Lindberg *et al.,* 1998:8). Sensitive environmental destinations like national parks are encouraged by the Ecotourism Society to incorporate ecotourism principles in their tourism business to make it sustainable. Chapter 2 briefly deals with this aspect in a management context to achieve sustainable tourism.

the need for public financing of the conservation mandate (Vaughan, 2000; Harte, 2001). There are signs indicating a new thinking or paradigm shift in the manner in which protected areas are being managed because of the criticisms reflected above.

While no one would seriously argue for doing away with protected areas altogether, many people believe that it is time to look across the board at the way in which protected area policy is developed, implemented and managed, and that this should be done in a multidisciplinary manner rather than viewing each function on an *ad hoc*-basis or in isolation (Hodgkins, 2001). If protected areas are to survive the unpredictable challenges of the complex and dynamic world, they need adaptive management plans that will make them continue to reinvent themselves with time and changing societies.

The Kruger National Park (KNP) is the study unit of this research project and manifests many of the problems associated with a lack of a tourism management plan to guide tourism activities and ensure that the ecological integrity of the park is not eroded.

1.6 MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

1.6.1 Conflict between tourism and conservation

The last 100 years of conservation success in the KNP focused on the development of the conservation ethic while tourism happened by default. Conservation and tourism were managed as separate water-tight compartments with conflicting objectives. The approach to tourism management was that tourism should not be allowed to dictate policy to the conservationist as tourism was perceived to be a threat to wildlife and that there was an urgent need to curb park usage by tourists. The management philosophy was not open to the notion of the integration of socio-economic issues into biophysical management. According to Biggs (2003), the level of fragmentation was not only evident between departments but could also be discerned from the tradition in biophysical management of conducting uni-disciplinary and single-species studies by natural scientists.

Incumbents drawn from the pool of rangers and scientists always occupied the position of Park Warden and senior management positions in the KNP. Their approach to tourism management exacerbated the historical restrictive management style. Conservationists disliked the idea that they owed their existence to tourism because the latter was the “goose that was laying the golden egg” (Joubert, 1986a). This animosity would surface when decisions concerning the introduction or expansion of tourism products and facilities were to

be made. Whilst it would have been in the interest of the KNP to provide more products and facilities to maximize income from tourist fees, conservationists would veto such vital revenue-earning initiatives. Tourism in general was treated as a secondary activity and one that did not deserve centre stage attention.

1.6.2 Lack of social research

The KNP database reflects records of documented research studies that have occurred over the last 105 years. The overwhelming majority of research studies are on biological diversity and the remainder is shared between social ecology and tourism (Braack, 1997b). None of the studies conducted to date have attempted to provide the KNP with a management plan that bridges the gap between conservation, tourism, financial management, corporate governance and community involvement imperatives. As a result of this anomaly the few tourism studies that have taken place have tended to be fragmented by addressing single aspects of the tourism product in relative isolation from the tourism industry, needs of tourists, conservation sensitivities, community aspirations, financial considerations and the changing socio-political and economic landscape (Pollard *et al.*, 2003).

The KNP is held in high esteem in biodiversity research management and boasts some of the best-qualified internal and external scientists available in the country. Unfortunately there has been no comparable research of equivalent scope and quality in the field of tourism management despite the dependency of the KNP on revenue earned from this line of its business. The reasons for the dearth of social and tourism research in the KNP are related mainly to historical and capacity reasons.

“Scientific research” in the KNP was always strictly mandated to conduct natural science research and scientists were expected to treat this directive as dogma. In the 1990s a new breed of scientists attempted to engage in social and cultural research but were “discouraged” because this was seen to be the domain of another department. Tourism research was also understood to be the responsibility of the division of tourist management services who then had to conduct such research themselves or contract skilled service providers. This is the reason why the scientific research section performed scientific research and only employed natural scientists. It was only when national legislation in the mid-1990s compelled SANParks to conduct Environmental Impact Assessments (EIAs) for all new developments and renovations that scientists (because there was no one else it could be passed on to) were obliged to take on human-related studies to comply with the new legislation. The lack of focus

on tourism research reflects an institutional shortfall at high level and not a narrow-minded view of the KNP scientists[9].

1.6.3 Qualifications of tourism managers

Many tourism managers and staff in the KNP and other national parks do not hold appropriate tertiary qualifications to meet the need for tourism management, research or to improve service levels (see Table 1.5). A human resource development study commissioned by SANParks in 1999 found that the majority of managers and key staff in the tourism department had no relevant tertiary qualifications in tourism and this deficiency affected their capabilities to develop integrated management plans to improve service quality (SANParks, 1999). The dearth of management and research skills is not experienced only in the tourism department but in social ecology as well, because of the already mentioned historical reasons. There is an urgent need for the development of a management plan that would address research needs and capacity building for tourism and social research.

From Table 1.5 it is clear that many hospitality managers (administrative heads of rest camps) are not trained in tourism or hospitality management, thus resulting in a low skills base for tourism. It is imperative to devise a good human resource development plan to equip staff with the necessary skills to deliver a high quality product.

1.6.4 Previous attempts at formulating management plans

The researcher has uncovered many reports, memoranda and agenda items submitted to the Board of Trustees with regard to the control of tourist behaviour and provisioning of infrastructure in the early days of the KNP. Notable among such reports and memoranda are those pioneered by park wardens Col. Sandenbergh and Louis Steyn in 1947 and 1956 respectively. Sandenbergh was concerned about the future development of tourist facilities and to keep human interference to a minimum (Sandenbergh, 1947). Louis Steyn's report to the Board was specifically focused on curbing uncontrolled and unplanned growth of tourist numbers to the park that in turn forced the Board to provide for more facilities with the risk of debasing the wilderness qualities of the park. Steyn wanted the Board to restrict tourist growth to no more than 80 000 tourists per annum (Steyn, 1956). Those early reports cannot be regarded as tourism management plans. Most of these were simply reacting to tourist-related problems rather than devising proactive policy statements and management guidelines.

[9] Interview with Dr L.E.O. Braack (a KNP researcher for 25 years and former Head of Scientific Services) on 14 April 2003,

TABLE 1.5: Qualifications of senior tourism managers in 2003

JOB TITLE	CAMP	QUALIFICATIONS
General Manager: Tourism	Skukuza Corporate Office	B Comm Cert in Dev Management (CPMD)
Manager: Hospitality Standards	Skukuza Corporate Office	Dipl in Hotel Management & MBA Tourism
Hospitality Manager ……..	Bataleur ……..	Matric
Hospitality Manager ……..	Berg-en-Dal ……..	Std 8 + Dipl in Hotel Management
Hospitality Manager ……..	Biyamiti ……..	Matric
Hospitality Manager ……..	Crocodile Bridge ……..	GCE 'O' + Dipl in Agricultural Engineering
Hospitality Manager ……..	Letaba ……..	Matric
Hospitality Manager ……..	Lower Sabie ……..	Std 8
Hospitality Manager ……..	Olifants ……..	Matric + CPMD
Hospitality Manager ……..	Orpen ……..	BA + HED
Hospitality Manager ……..	Talamati ……..	B. Tech in Tourism Management + Nat Dip in Travel
Hospitality Manager ……..	Pretoriuskop ……..	Matric
Hospitality Manager ……..	Punda Maria ……..	Matric + Cert in Management
Hospitality Manager ……..	Satara ……..	Matric + Dipl in Hospitality Management
Hospitality Manager ……..	Shimuwini ……..	Matric + Dipl in Public Admin
Hospitality Manager ……..	Shingwedzi ……..	B. Admin
Hospitality Manager ……..	Sirheni ……..	Matric + Primary Teachers' Diploma
Hospitality Manager ……..	Skukuza ……..	Matric + Cert in IR, Cert in Management Training
Hospitality Manager ……..	Mopani ……..	Matric + CPMD

In 1951 a one-man commission of inquiry, the Hoek Commission, was appointed to conduct an investigation into the affairs and administration of the Board. In its report it recommended, among others, the establishment of a Department of Park Development and Tourism in the KNP. This department was tasked with the development of infrastructure that was to dominate the park's agenda for the next 30 years (Hoek Commission, 1952). Although the Hoek Commission helped to establish a formal tourism management structure in the KNP, conservationists largely dominated the Park's decision-making process with very little opportunity provided for participation by tourism staff. The establishment of a tourism department did not yield many benefits, as its approach was to react rather than to be proactive, with capabilities of forecasting and strategic planning. There were no qualified managers in tourism or hospitality to drive the department towards a stated vision. The Hoek Commission's findings were used rather to "transform the administration of the NPB into an all Afrikaner one" (Carruthers, 1995).

In 1981 Dr Tol Pienaar, then KNP Park Warden, submitted a 10 year development plan specifically aimed at development of tourism accommodation and roads (Pienaar, 1981). In this plan there were proposals for the Mopani and Berg-en-Dal rest camps, among others. Due to insufficient funds not all the proposed camps came to fruition. Mopani was a complete miscalculation in terms of size and location. The camp struggles to fill its capacity and is a huge financial drain on the Park's revenue. Subsequently, Dr Salomon Joubert, Pienaar's successor, submitted a revised 10-year plan to the Board mainly for the improvement of tourist facilities (Joubert, 1987). However, there is no evidence that those development plans were linked to integrated tourism management plans or financial resources. Many of them were motivated by public demands for better conveniences and facilities. The general expectation was that government would fund such initiatives.

The current KNP management plan acknowledges its shortcomings in providing for a tourism policy and management plan due to a number of prevailing constraints at the time resulting into superficial attention being paid to tourism. The positions of major potential contributors to such a policy, viz. the Chief Executive, General Manager: Tourism (KNP), Director: KNP and the Director: Tourism and Commercial Development, were vacant and about to be filled. Nevertheless, broad guidelines attesting to tourism being an essential adjunct to the concept of wildlife conservation were adopted. The principles of the Recreational Opportunity Zoning (ROZ Plan[10]) and roads carrying capacities were retained as guidelines for tourism development (Braack & Marais, 1997). The ROZ Plan on its own does not constitute a tourism management plan but is but one of the monitoring tools in a park manager's "tool box" (the ROZ Plan is explained in detail in 3.14.4.)

1.6.5 Lack of strategic direction

Since the introduction of tourism in its parks SANParks never had a tourism department at corporate level (Head Office) until the position of Director of Commercial Development and Tourism was created in 1996 (NPB, 1996). This decision was resisted at Directorate level and was one of the reasons that led to tensions between the then Chief Executive, Dr G A Robinson, and the Board, in protest against what he perceived as watering down the conservation mandate of SANParks. The Board stuck to its intentions and in 1998 Mr Richard Willys was appointed as the first ever Director of Commercial Development and Tourism to

[10] The Recreation Opportunity Zoning plan (ROZ Plan) describes the different use zones within Kruger, as well as its proposed uses and Limits of Sophistication applicable to the different zones. The zones are (with approximate sizes): Pristine Wilderness (26 %), Primitive Wilderness (33 %), Semi-primitive motorized (32 %), Concession Areas (5 %) and Highly Developed (4 %).

give a strategic direction to tourism and the newly adopted commercialization policy (SANParks, 1998). Unfortunately, the newly created department has not yet succeeded in providing a strategic tourism management plan to give the organization a strategic tourism direction. Many of the recent tourism products such as the concession areas (green fields) and the new Wild Card pricing policy have been added on *ad hoc* basis as a result of pressing needs for financial viability to fund the ever costly conservation needs.

1.6.5 Aspects of tourism already researched in the KNP

There have been a handful of studies on tourism management in the KNP to date. One that is often quoted is by Ferreira & Harmse (1999) on spatial analysis of the social carrying capacity of the roads in the KNP. It identified early warning signals of tourist congestion on roads during peak holiday periods and suggested a sustainable scale for tourism development in the park by using the concept of carrying capacity as a management tool. The study's findings concluded that it would be impossible to determine the "magic number" of tourists for the KNP due to a changing socio-economic and political landscape. Such factors exert pressure on the KNP to make it more available to a broader segment of the population. The study suggests various tourist impact management methods to relieve traffic congestion during peak season and public holidays; however, it does not constitute a holistic tourism management plan.

Novellie *et al.*, (1999) discussed the principle of peripheral development and its relevance to parks under the jurisdiction of SANParks. One of the views suggested in this publication is that peripheral development should be applied as a general rule, and that in future all major developments of infrastructure should be on the periphery rather than in the interior of a park. The consensus was that, although there could be merit in adopting the principle in terms of tourism development for parks in general, there are circumstances in which developments on the periphery of a park could be deleterious. Unfortunately it would not be possible to relocate existing infrastructure to the periphery, as costs would be prohibitive. Novellie *et al.*, (1999) recommended that the principle does not merit the status of a rule but should be one of the options to be considered when supported by the findings of a feasibility study. The discussion paper of Novellie *et al.*, (1999) cannot be regarded as a tourism management plan. It deals with but one aspect.

Van Riet (1987), in an unpublished PhD thesis, developed a computer-based theoretical planning tool for infrastructure development using the KNP as a case study. The study proved that it is possible to reduce the impact of tourism infrastructure development in a national park

through careful planning that blends with the environment in order not to debase the aesthetic qualities of the ecology. The model uses the principles of zoning (ROZ Plan) and the evaluation of existing natural features and landscape facets. By marrying the general practice of landscape architecture with the zoning principles the model was used as a pilot to develop the Berg-en-Dal rest camp in the KNP in 1983. Unfortunately Van Riet's (1987) study does not address the need for a comprehensive tourism management plan.

1.6.6 An "implicit" management plan

In a series of interviews with previous KNP tourism managers, scientists and park wardens it has been confirmed that the Park never had a comprehensive tourism study or management plan to balance the imperatives of conservation, financial viability, tourism, community relations and the business community**.** A similar problem is also experienced by other national parks under the jurisdiction of SANParks. The current tourism service delivery system evolved from passion, dedication and intuition. It has indeed evolved in a *trial and error* fashion[11]

In the researcher's view the development of tourism in the KNP is largely demand-driven. The management approach has been primarily focused on defining the requisite development and necessary resources to operate the Park to the capacity demanded of it rather than relying on prior surveys and impact assessments to define in advance a sustainable tourism policy statement and management plan. Tourist controls were based on subjective evaluation rather than researched ecological evidence, hence the difficulties to monitor and evaluate them against an established criteria.

The proposal for this study was approved by the SANParks Board on the expectations that it will become a template to assist the KNP and other national parks under its jurisdiction to formulate and concretize their integrated tourism management plans. The envisaged template may also be used with adjustments to suit local or regional variations by other reserves and national parks in Africa. This expression of need by the SANParks Board (with motivations from the researcher, scientific services and the tourism department) makes it imperative and compulsive to have a study that can fill this gap that has been growing for the last 75 years since the introduction of tourism in the KNP.

[11] Interview with Mr Chris Marais (former KNP Tourism Manager) and Mr Joep Stevens (General Manager of Tourism in the KNP), 15 May 2003.

1.7 PROBLEM STATEMENT

The overall problem of the KNP is a lack of an integrated tourism policy statement (management plan) constructed on scientific data to guide and balance delivery of tourism services with conservation objectives. The lack of a tourism management plan and policy leads to different definitions of park tourism, reactive planning to satisfy demands, conflicting objectives of line function departments, poor understanding of tourists' needs, inconsistent standards of service-delivery, poor product quality, financial under-performance, inadequate maintenance of infrastructure, lack of community participation and absence of indicators to measure the impact of tourism services on the environment and tourists. The void of a tourism management plan risks practising unsustainable tourism that could damage the environment, erode the Parks' attractiveness to tourists and greatly curtail the KNP's market advantage in the nature-based tourism sector.

1.8 RESEARCH AIM AND OBJECTIVES

1.8.1 Research aim

The main aim of this study is to formulate an integrated tourism management framework with broad guidelines to identify tourism and recreational values that underpin tourism service delivery in the KNP. The envisaged tourism management framework could be used as a template by the rest of national parks under SANParks and other protected areas in Africa and the world with adjustments to suit their local conditions.

1.8.2 Research objectives

In order to achieve the overall aim of the study the following objectives are proposed:

- to construct and contextualize background information to the research problem, to define the global context in which protected areas are managed and reflect on the type of problems caused by the lack of an integrated tourism management plan (Chapter 1);
- to define sustainable tourism using principles of ecotourism and draw an international comparative analysis on protected area management systems from which the KNP can draw lessons and benchmarks towards a theoretical integrated tourism management framework (Chapter 2);

- to trace the historical overview of tourism development in the KNP and highlight both successes and failures to guide the formulation of the proposed tourism management framework (Chapter 3);
- to conduct surveys to measure tourist demographics; tourists' satisfaction levels; product quality; measure the effect of commercialization and determine tourism and recreational values that influence tourist choice of the KNP as a tourism destination (Chapter 4);
- to measure and analyse community perceptions and attitudes towards nature conservation and the KNP in particular and also to suggest mechanisms to involve communities in managing the KNP (Chapter 5);
- to suggest an integrated tourism management framework with implementation, monitoring and evaluation strategies for the KNP (Chapter 6); and
- to present findings, recommendations and shortcomings of the study and highlight areas for future research (Chapter 7).

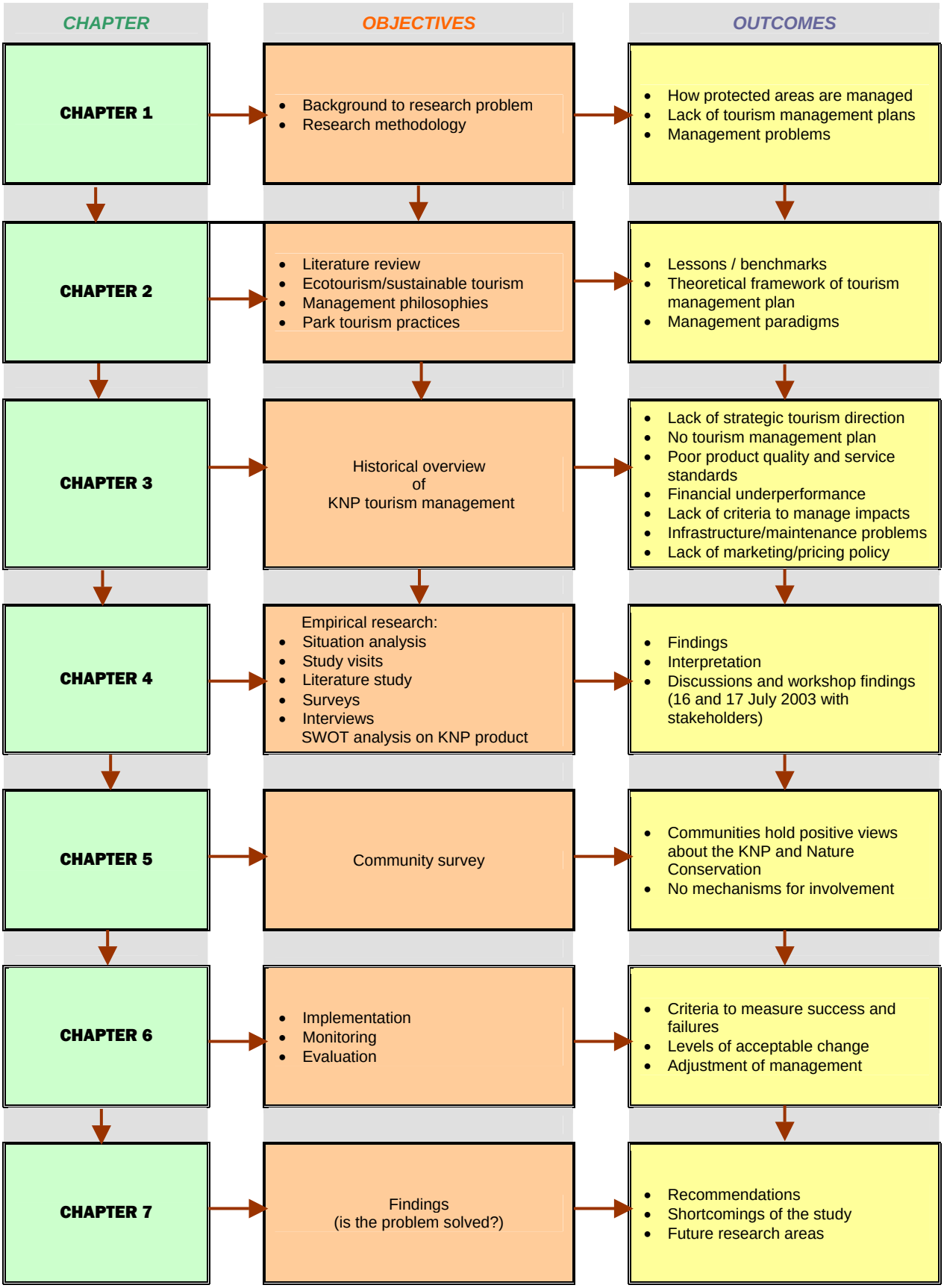
Addressing these objectives will lead to an integrated tourism management framework that can be responsive to internal and external challenges and the specific needs of consumers and neighbouring communities. The aim is to design a local and regionally sound tourism management framework that can be user-friendly and serve as a platform to develop guidelines that will be generically valid as scientific standards. Such scientific standards would be areas of future ongoing research outside the scope of this study because modelling of scientific standards, according to the researcher, takes years to produce.

The research design process followed during the study is presented in Figure 1.1.

1.9 DELIMITATION

This study is about tourism management and administration in the KNP. It should not be misconstrued for a natural science research or wildlife sciences project, as this is what many people associate with research in the KNP. When studying protected area tourism it is impossible to exclude conservation issues, infrastructure, administrative matters, socio-economic issues and the neighbouring as well as resident communities. This study is about bridging the gap between tourism and conservation in protected areas to raise sufficient tangible deliverables for conservation and communities.

FIGURE 1.1: Research design and presentation



1.10 DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AREA

The KNP of today had its origins in the 1898 proclamation of the Sabie Game Reserve, a slice of land between the Crocodile and Sabie Rivers. In 1903 the Singwitsi (Shingwedzi) Game Reserve was proclaimed and with subsequent additions and border refinements this entire area was proclaimed as the KNP in 1926. Although there were wildlife reserves proclaimed much earlier in the Transvaal, Cape and Natal, the KNP is the oldest national park in Africa (Mabunda *et al.*, 2003).

The KNP is renowned for its unparalleled wildlife management in the African continent, its diversity of animal species and its variety of vegetation zones. It covers an area of 1 948 528 hectares (19 455 km^2) and lies between 22° 25' and 25° 32' latitude South and between 30° 50' and 32° 2' longitude East. Close on half of the KNP falls within the Limpopo Province and the remaining half in Mpumalanga, the western boundary of the park being a rather arbitrary line across the two provinces (see Figure 1.2). The Lebombo Mountains form the eastern border between the KNP and Mozambique. The Limpopo River forms its northern boundary with Zimbabwe whilst the Crocodile River is its southern limit. The KNP boasts a road network of approximately 7 528 km, comprised of 885 km bitumen and 1 743 km gravel tourist roads and an additional 4 900 km gravel firebreak roads (Schutze, 2002). In geographical size the KNP is equivalent to the state of Massachusetts in the USA, Wales in England and Israel in the Middle East.

The KNP is part of the newly proclaimed Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park (GLTP), which includes the newly established Limpopo National Park in Mozambique (formerly Coudata 16) and Gonarezhou in Zimbabwe (Sandwith & Pfotenhauer, 2002). This linkage creates a massive 38 000 km^2 mega-park where wildlife and tourists will be able to move from one country to another unrestricted by physical and political barriers (SANParks, 2002). The socio-economic spin-offs of this mega-park will be, *inter alia,* the realization of increased revenue for conservation, job creation and the revival of the regional economy after years of a devastating civil war in Mozambique and political crisis in Zimbabwe that has led to social and economic instability resulting in a total collapse of the economy. The Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park is not the focus study area in this project and is merely mentioned to illustrate another paradigm shift in protected area management approach[12].

[12] In terms of the Great Limpopo Transfrontier Park Treaty signed by the Presidents of South Africa, Mozambique and Zimbabwe, each country retains its sovereignty and statutory obligations in managing parts of the transfrontier park in their territories. The parks (KNP, Gonarezouh and Limpopo) retain their unique tourism, wildlife and community involvement management systems. The Joint Management Board governing the transfrontier park is limited to managing cross-border issues such as disease control, animal migration, immigration and other issues.

FIGURE 1.2: Map of the RSA showing the KNP

1.11 CHOICE OF RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.11.1 Is tourism a field for schorlarly inquiry?

The level of scholarship in tourism management has begun to reflect the industry's prominence in the global economic systems and its significance as an agent of social, cultural and environmental change. There has been a traditional view held within the mainstream academic world that tourism studies do not constitute a "serious" field of scholarly enquiry because it lacks theoretical and scientific rigour (Parnwell, 1999). Certainly at SANParks this view is still shared by many natural science researchers although a few individuals among them are becoming interested in tourism research. A few of their works are cited in this study (Braack, 1997a; Venter *et al.*, 1997; Freitag & Biggs, 1998; Novellie *et al.*, 1999; Venter, 2001; Biggs; 2003, Biggs & Rodgers, 2003).

There is a dearth of comprehensive applied tourism research that focuses on the relationship between tourism and conservation, especially in national parks and nature reserves in South Africa and in the rest of the world (Parnwell, 1999). There is an assumption that national parks and nature reserves are a recreational resource and therefore not necessarily in need of tourism research (Page, 2002). Notable exceptions do occur in countries like New Zealand, Australia, Canada and the USA. New Zealand and Australia are probably world leaders in this regard (Eagles *et al.*, 2002).

Although numerous studies of the evolution of national parks exist, the wider analysis, interconnections and transformations that have occurred as a result of tourism activities in protected areas are notably absent from the mainstream tourism literature (Page, 2002). The choice and subsequent success of a research method in tourism studies is largely determined by the area of study, the nature of the topic chosen by the researcher and available resources.

For purposes of this study the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative research methods and a combination of document search and case study methods. This was decided because tourism focuses on phenomena that occur in a real world setting and also because it involves studying tourism in all its complex dimensions. Statistics on their own are unable to convey the emotions and feelings of real world experiences and phenomena to such an extent that the findings of a study might appear to be inconclusive (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001).

1.11.2 Surveys used

Three questionnaires and 60 value-laddering interviews were conducted to measure quantitative and qualitative data on tourist demographics, different quality aspects of the KNP tourism product, tourist opinion on commercialization, personal values that influence tourists' choices of the KNP as a holiday destination and the attitudes of neighbouring communities towards the KNP. The surveys, statistical analysis methods used and results are discussed in detail in Chapters 4 and 5, respectively. It was imperative to use more than one method to triangulate the study for the reason following hereunder.

1.11.3 Triangulation

Triangulation is a term that originally refers to surveying of land with the aid of trigonometry (Bruinsma & Zwanenburg, 1992). Its aim is to study the object of research in at least two ways or more. With the aid of triangulation one can endeavour to achieve objectivity, reliability and

validity in both quantitative and qualitative research (Babbie & Motoun, 2001). Eight types of triangulation techniques were applied in this study.

In **data triangulation** two or more kinds of data sources were used, for example interview data and dossiers. In **method triangulation** two or more research methods were applied, for example two or more data-collection methods such as the questionnaire, interviews, literature study or two or more data analysis methods such as analysis of variance (ANOVA) or classical content analysis (Tredoux & Durrheim, 2002). In **researcher triangulation** the researcher collaborated with other researchers in this study. **Theoretical triangulation** involved elucidating research material starting from different ideas, assumptions, hypotheses and interpretation to see where the data fits in. In **mental triangulation** the researcher endeavoured to establish different ways of thinking and effective relations with regard to the research object. Finally, **multiple triangulation** refers to a situation when more than one form of triangulation was applied in this research study.

Triangulation played an important role in enhancing the reliability and validity of this study. Qualitative research is often blamed for lacking the tenets of 'good' science (Decrop, 1999). In this study, basic criteria to assess the trustworthiness of the qualitative and quantitative approaches were applied. Refining the concepts of corroboration and validation, triangulation strengthens findings by showing that several independent sources converge on them, or at least do not oppose them (Decrop, 1999).

The majority of tourism studies are conducted at one point in time, thereby ignoring the effects of social change and process. **Time triangulation** can go some way in rectifying possible omissions by using cross-sectional and longitudinal approaches (Decrop, 1999; Goddard & Melville, 2001). Tourism in the KNP has undergone an evolution over time due to the influence of internal and external environments. Certain decisions such as to invite private donors to invest in more accommodation units, the introduction of night-drive safaris, outsourcing of shops and restaurants and the allocation of concession areas for the establishment of luxury private lodges were taken in certain contexts. It may happen that such decisions, perceived as correct at the time of their adoption, may now appear as ill conceived when viewed out of context.

A study without this perspective may not make sense to a reader who has no prior knowledge of the KNP. Likewise **space triangulation** was used to overcome the limitation of tourism studies conducted within one culture or subculture. The complex nature of tourism in national parks is best approached from various angles and the multi-method approach of triangulation

was ideal for this purpose. It was important for the researcher to remain objective regardless of his involvement in current SANParks activities (see 1.11.4 below).

1.11.4 Flexibility of the researcher

A researcher's background and position can affect what he chooses to investigate, the angle of investigation, the chosen research method, the findings considered most appropriate and the framing and communication of conclusions. Contemporary theory of knowledge acknowledges the effect of a researcher's position and perspectives, and disputes the notion of a neutral observer (Nagel, 1986).

At the time of this research study, the researcher as Head of the KNP, was presiding over the process of transformation. It is hereby acknowledged that there is a possibility of preconceptions about what park tourism should be about. Preconceptions are not the same as bias and these were avoided by stating them forthright and looking at data, or its interpretation for competing conclusions. There was a continuous questioning of the hypotheses rather than taking them as *a fait accompli*.

1.11.5 Transferability of the study's findings

The aim of research is to produce information that can be shared and applied beyond the study setting. Few studies, irrespective of the method used, can provide findings that are universally transferable. Presentation of contextual background material, such as demographics and study settings, is necessary if the reader is to be able to ascertain to which situations the findings might provide valid information. Research findings are not supposed to be valid for population groups in general (Goddard & Melville, 2001).

Undiscriminating comparison of park tourism in KNP with sub-Saharan Africa draws limited parallels and relevance because of the variations in local philosophies of park tourism, interpretations, legal foundations of protected areas, available resources, politics, social and economic factors. African countries face different individual challenges at any given time. Accordingly, within the four regions of the KNP (South, Central, North and Far North), there might exist different conditions that influence tourism service-delivery.

A comparison between tourism in KNP and in countries in the northern hemisphere with the hope of drawing perfect matches is not realistic either. People in the northern hemisphere have different views of wildlife management and park tourism compared to those in the

southern hemisphere. Northerners view their wildlife more on television and movie screens than *in situ*-situations. In contrast, poor peasant farmers preoccupied with economic survival form the bulk of people living in the southern hemisphere. Many have lost crops and loved ones to wild animals but they also depend on animals and medicinal plants for their food and health. They see wildlife as an integral part of their lives to be controlled by local communities and used in a dynamic and adaptive fashion. Conservationists in the north see it as a series of entities to be segregated and protected in some form of "ecological apartheid" and controlled by centralized bureaucracies (Crowe, 1995).

The purpose of the comparative analysis of international protected area management systems in Chapter 2 is to draw broad lessons to guide the process of developing a KNP tourism management framework but it is not intended for exact replication. Whatever the findings are, it is not always possible to replicate them in different settings.

1.11.6 Interpretation and analysis of research data

The interpretation and analysis process involved an interactive, creative and intuitive examination of the data, all in search for patterns, themes, or emerging insights, each unfolding from the research process and grounded in the data. A thoroughly prepared, rigorously researched and documented analysis is what distinguishes scientific approach from superficial conjecture (Erlandson *et al.*, 1993). Collected data was disassembled and reassembled to find uniqueness in pattern or principle of process or behaviour. Data were subsequently coded, where possible, so that it could be traced back to the interview (via transcript) or document or observation for purposes of a conformability audit to verify the process and research method. The data were analysed and synthesized through a developmental process, continually evolving and emerging through constant comparison of newly acquired data with previously acquired materials.

The theoretical framework played the role of *reading glasses* in this study to enhance its scientific quality. The adaptive management approach principles (see 2.4.1) and the IUCN evaluation frameworks for protected area management effectiveness and provisions (see 2.7.1) of the new National Environment Management: Protected Areas Act, 2003 (see 2.8) were used to draw comparisons with empirical findings to support interpretations.

1.12 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

There is a dearth of social research within protected areas in South Africa. This research gap in park tourism is one of the major difficulties that the researcher encountered during this study. South African academics in conservation and tourism research have not yet paid much attention to the conservation-tourism inter-phase area and there are very few, if any, South African publications in this regard.

South African provincial conservation agencies were reluctant to release financial and statistical information to the researcher for undisclosed reasons. It could be that they were concerned about such information being published in a thesis or that they do not centrally collate their data.

The study's duration was too short to produce a comprehensive picture of tourism seasons experienced by the KNP. Continuous research over five to ten years might establish a pattern or trend of tourism practice and allow adjustments based on research data to be effected (adaptive management principles). This study zoomed in at a particular point in time and continuous research thereafter would be of utmost importance. There is a need to conduct short-term studies on every aspect of park tourism to ultimately establish a tourism research base line.

1.13 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The thesis will consist of the following chapters:

Chapter 1

This chapter introduces the study setting, background to the research problem, research objectives, motivation for the study and limitations. It outlines the design of the research methodologies and processes to be followed and contextualizes the lack of tourism management plans and related problems in the protected area management system.

Chapter 2

Chapter 2 reviews relevant literature and defines the type of tourism that the KNP practices. It also draws a comparative analysis of international examples of park tourism and protected area management from which the KNP could derive lessons for designing its own tourism management framework. Shortcomings are identified for this research study to address.

Chapter 3

In this chapter the historical overview and management structure of both SANParks and the KNP, are dealt with. It also views tourism growth in the KNP with highlights on successes and failures to assist this study in formulating a tourism management framework that will eventually improve the current situation.

Chapter 4

The focus of this chapter is on the KNP tourism facility, views on commercialization, tourist demographics and service-delivery. It deals with the processing of data collected from observations, questionnaires and interviews using SPSS Windows. Data is analysed and processed and eventually interpreted. Each survey ends with findings and discussions of the processed data presented in tables, graphs, charts and qualitative comments.

Chapter 5

In this chapter the attitudes, perceptions and views of the neighbouring communities are measured in a separate survey and findings presented.

Chapter 6

The chapter suggests an integrated tourism management framework, consisting of tourism and recreational values that must be managed to achieve a sustainable tourism system. It also suggests implementation, monitoring and evaluation plans in the application of the management framework.

Chapter 7

The results, recommendations and shortcomings of the study are presented in this chapter. Further areas of research at post-study level are suggested.

1.14 CONCLUSION

In summary, this study:

- reviews the current tourism shortfalls which have arisen from historic reasons within the KNP;
- compares tourism practice within the KNP and the international context as examples of leading international tourism destinations;
- critically analyses the findings of questionnaire and interview-based surveys in the KNP and adjoining areas to derive an integrated tourism management framework

which should refine tourism practice in a manner more relevant to the demands and expectations of modern society;

- designs an integrated tourism management framework, an implementation strategy and control mechanisms; and
- suggests a continuous process of adaptive management approach to improve the management framework as circumstances evolve in KNP, tourism markets and the international world.

The next chapter gives an exposition of tourism trends and an international comparative analysis of tourism in protected areas.