

## CHAPTER FIVE: EXTRA-GOVERNMENTAL RELATIONS

### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

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

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

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

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

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

## **5.2 DEFINITION OF THE PHENOMENON**

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

## **5.3 CO-OPERATIVE GOVERNANCE**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

#### **5.4 PUBLIC PARTICIPATION**

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 5.5.2 Indigenous knowledge

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 5.5.3 Ownership of resources

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

## **5.6 PARTNERSHIPS**

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



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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

### 5.6.3 Government-NGO partnerships

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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



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

## **5.7 BLACK ECONOMIC EMPOWERMENT**

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

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

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

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

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

Furthermore, empowerment of communities takes place through:

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

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

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

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

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

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

## 5.8 CONCLUSION

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

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

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

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

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